

Integration in Two Dimensions

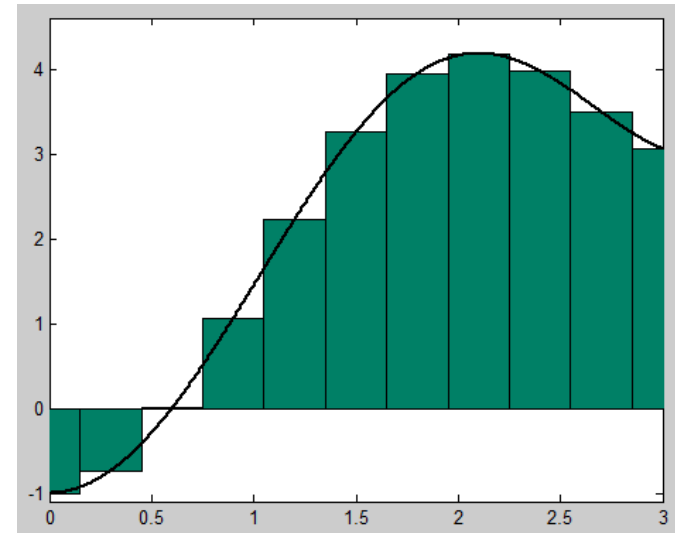
1D definite integrals (review)

We think of a one-dimensional definite integral as the sum of areas of infinite number of rectangles:

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

where

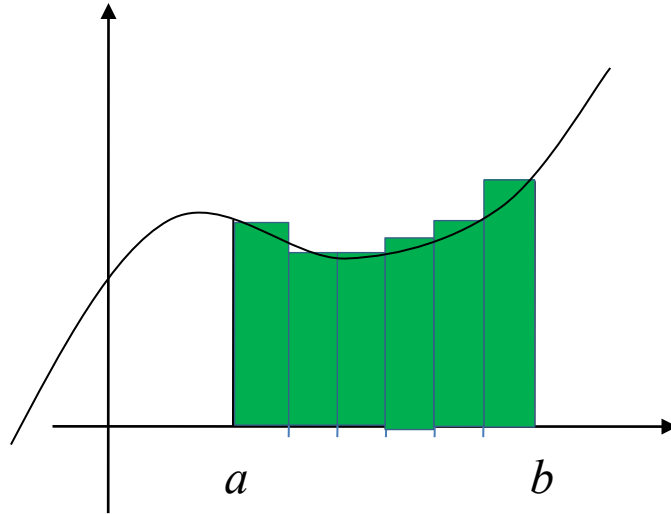
$$\Delta x = \frac{b - a}{n} \quad x_i = a + i \Delta x$$



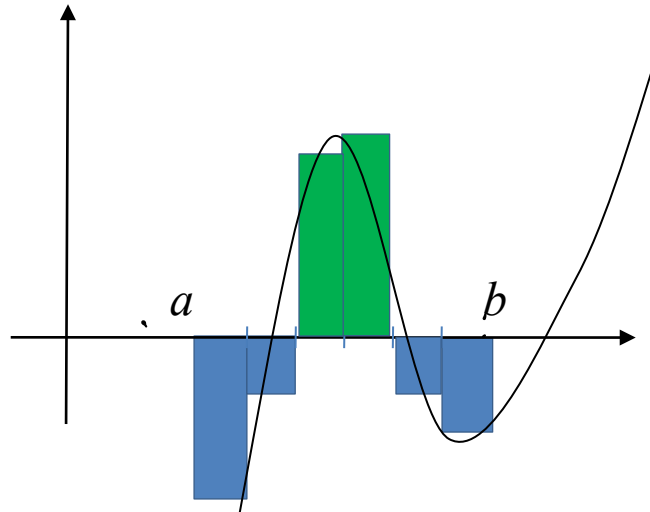
This is known as the *Riemann sum* of the integral.

As the number of rectangles increases a better and better approximation for the area under the curve is obtained.

NB: The integral is often thought of as the *area* under a graph.



However, integrals can also be *negative* or *zero* (unlike areas).



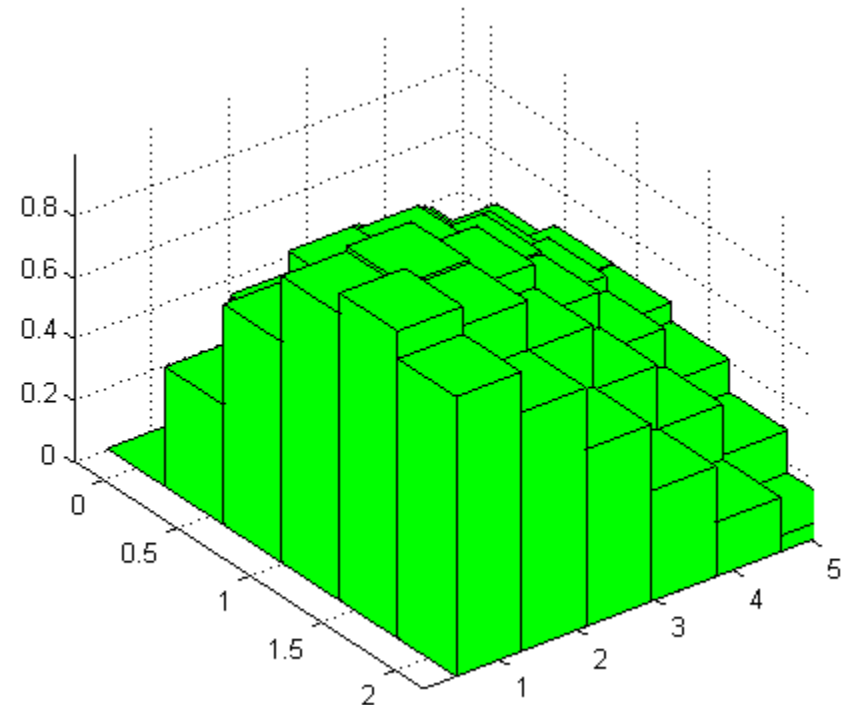
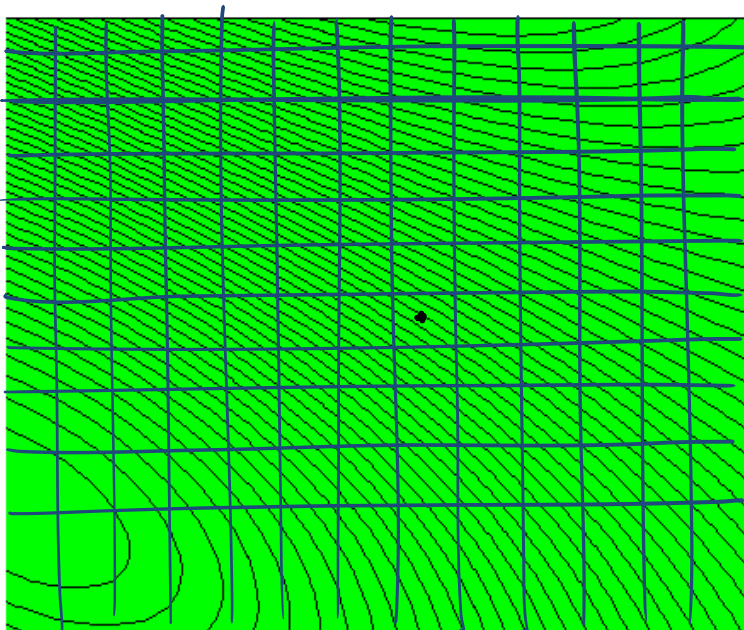
We can extend this definition to integrals of 2D functions over *rectangular domains*.

$$A = \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) dx dy = \lim_{m, n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_i, y_j) \Delta x \Delta y, \quad \begin{aligned} \Delta y &= \frac{d - c}{m} \\ \Delta x &= \frac{b - a}{n} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Delta A = \Delta x \Delta y$$

This time, the integral represents a *signed volume* under the 2D surface.

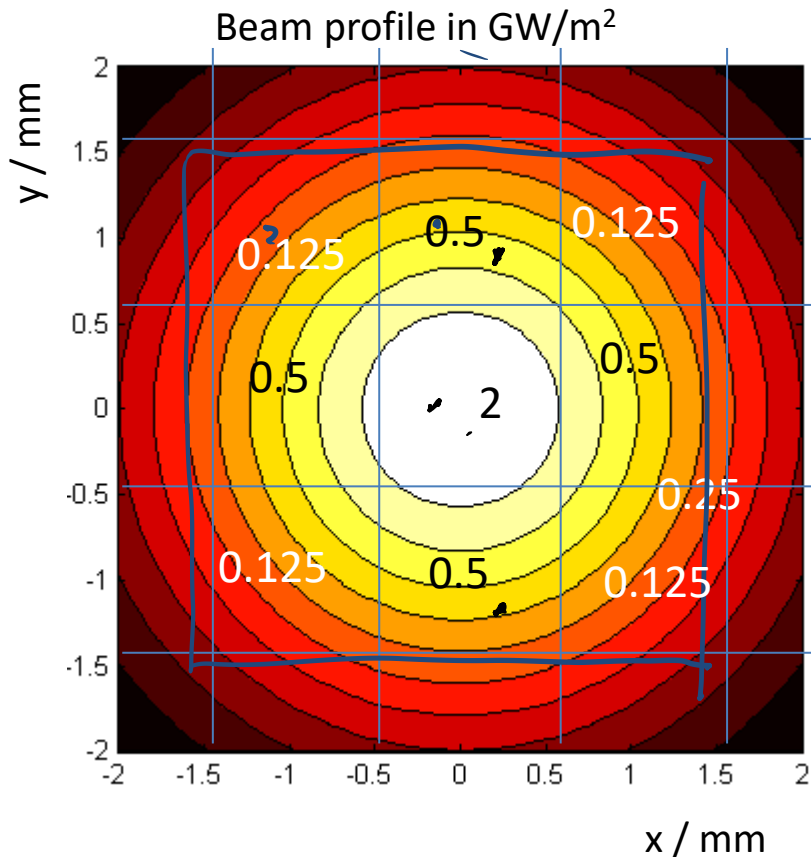
$$\begin{aligned} x_i &= a + i\Delta x \\ y_j &= c + j\Delta y \end{aligned}$$



Given a function of two variables, we can *approximate* the integral by summing the rectangles.

$$A = \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) dx dy = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_i, y_j) \Delta x \Delta y,$$

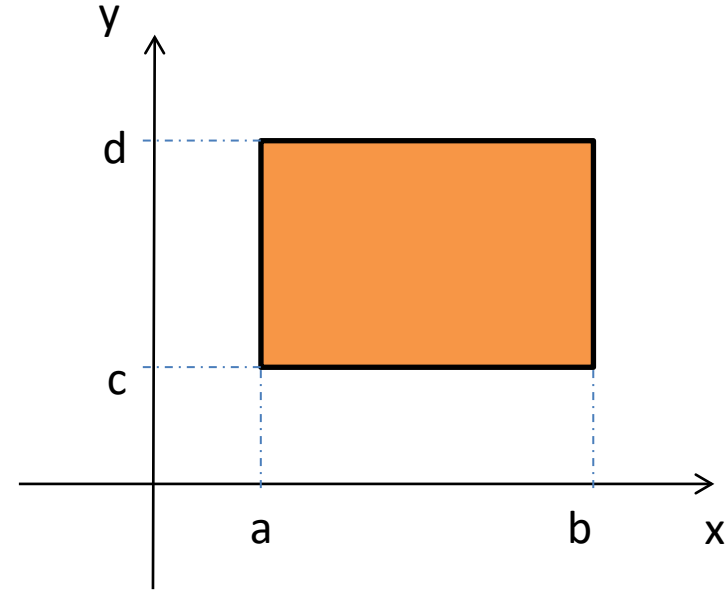
Example: Estimate the total power in a laser beam $\Delta A = \Delta x \Delta y = 1 \text{ mm}^2$



0.125	0.5	0.125
0.5	2	0.5
0.125	0.5	0.125

To perform an integral in 2D, we use nested (or *iterated*) integration:

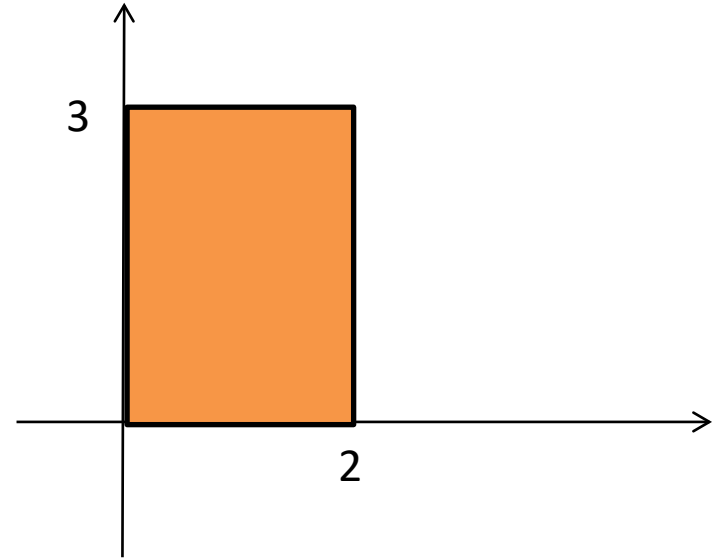
For a rectangular domain, this means that we pick one variable to integrate over first and evaluate this while keeping the other variable constant.



$$A = \iint_D f(x, y) dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dy dx = \int_a^b \left[\int_c^d f(x, y) dy \right] dx$$

Example: evaluate

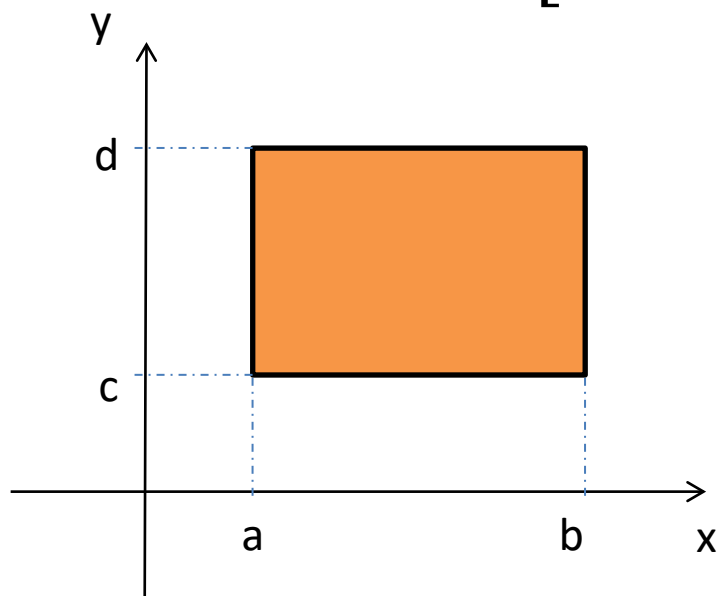
$$A = \int_0^3 \int_0^2 x^2 y dx dy$$



$$A = \int_0^3 \int_0^2 x^2 y dx dy = \int_0^3 \frac{x^3 y}{3} \Big|_{x=0}^{x=2} dy = \frac{8}{3} \frac{y^2}{2} \Big|_{y=0}^{y=3} = \frac{8}{3} \frac{9}{2} = 12$$

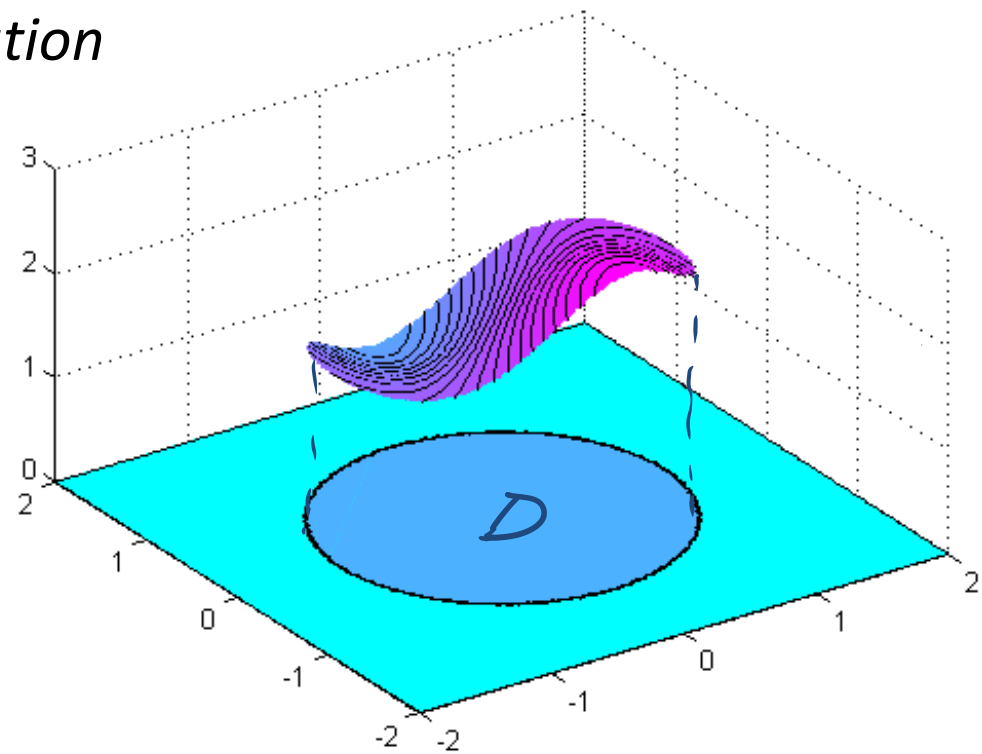
Fubini's theorem states that for integrals of continuous functions over rectangular domains, the *order of integration is not important*.

$$A = \iint_D f(x, y) dA = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dy dx = \int_a^b \left[\int_c^d f(x, y) dy \right] dx = \int_c^d \left[\int_a^b f(x, y) dx \right] dy$$



Unlike in 1D, the *domain of integration* in 2D can be complicated.

To integrate in 2D, we first have to describe the domain of integration.

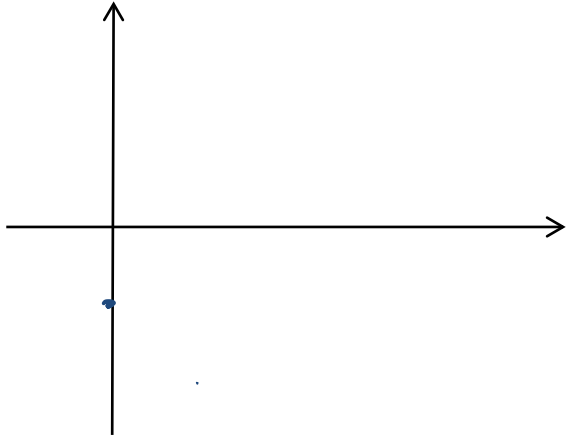


The general form is:

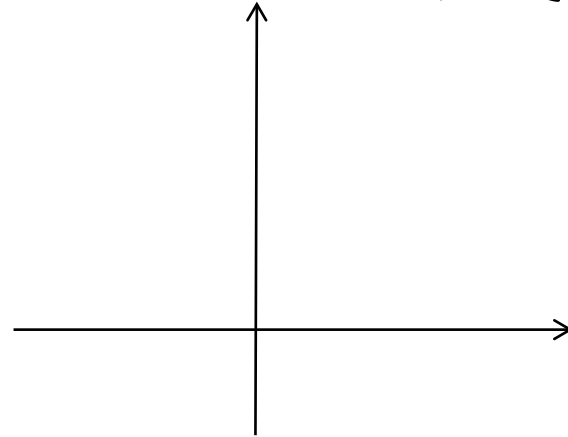
$$D = \{(x, y) \mid \text{some inequalities involving } x, y\}$$

Examples: $D = \{(x, y) \mid \text{some inequalities involving } x, y\}$

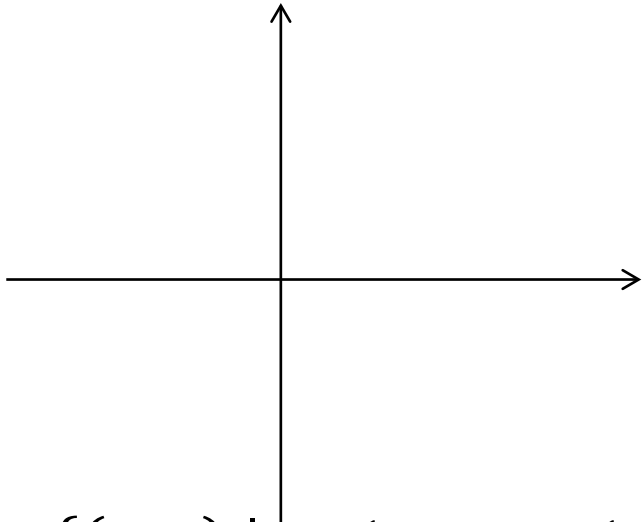
$$D = \{(x, y) \mid x > 1, y > 1\}$$



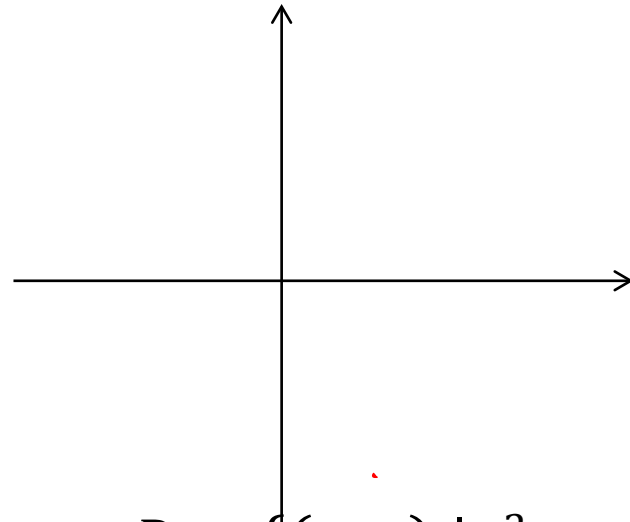
$$D = \{(x, y) \mid -1 \leq x \leq 2, y \leq x^2\}$$



$$D = \{(x, y) \mid -1 \leq y \leq 1, x > y^3\}$$



$$D = \{(x, y) \mid x^2 + y^2 \leq 4\}$$



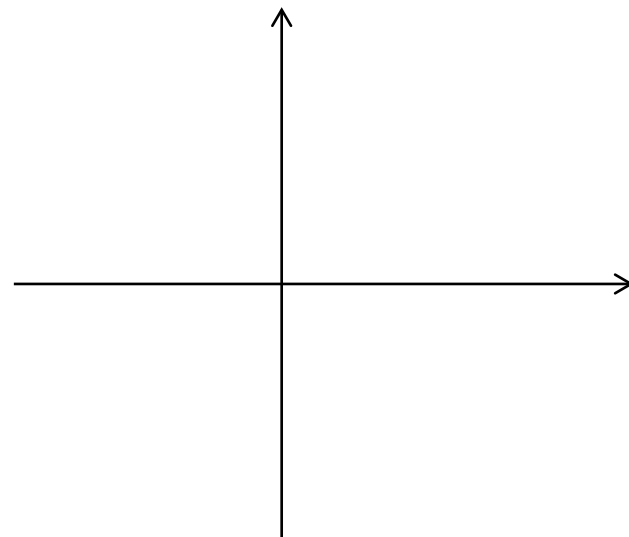
Integrating over more complicated domains:

First, write down and draw the domain in 2D, e.g.

$$D = \left\{ (x, y) \mid -1 \leq x \leq 2, \quad 0 < y < x + 1 \right\}$$

Pick the inequalities and use them
as the limits for your integral:

$$A = \int_{-1}^2 \int_0^{x+1} f(x, y) dy dx$$



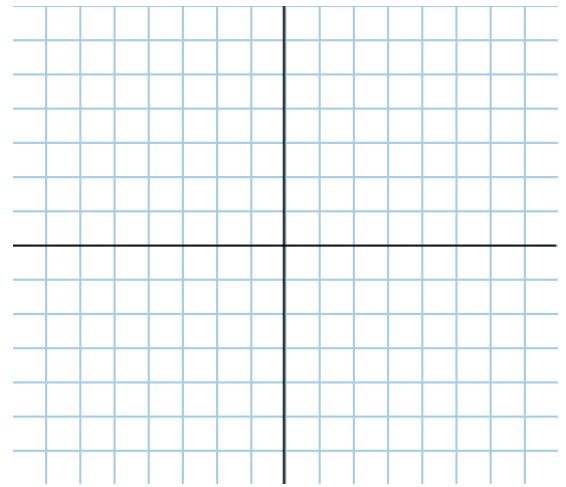
(Important: make sure that the outer limits do not depend on x or y .
If this happens, swap the order of integration).

Then integrate, starting with the inner integrals.

Example: Find $\iint_D (6x + 6y) dx dy$

over the domain

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1, \quad 0 \leq y \leq x\}$$

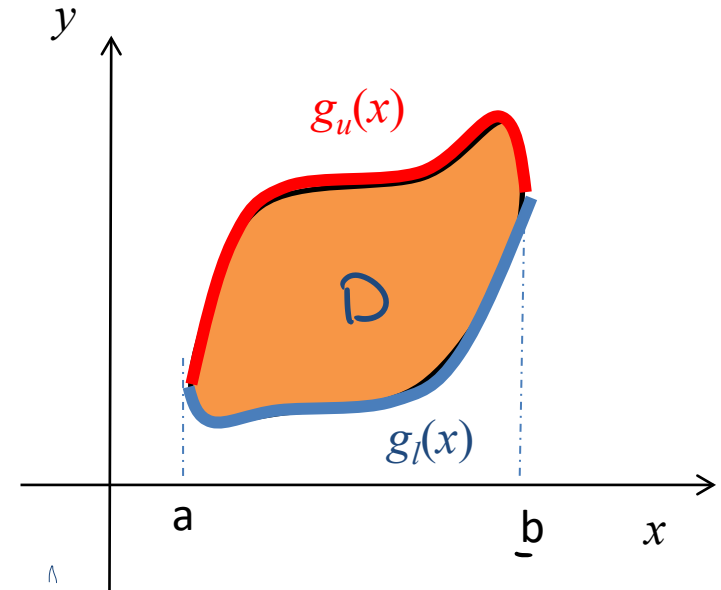
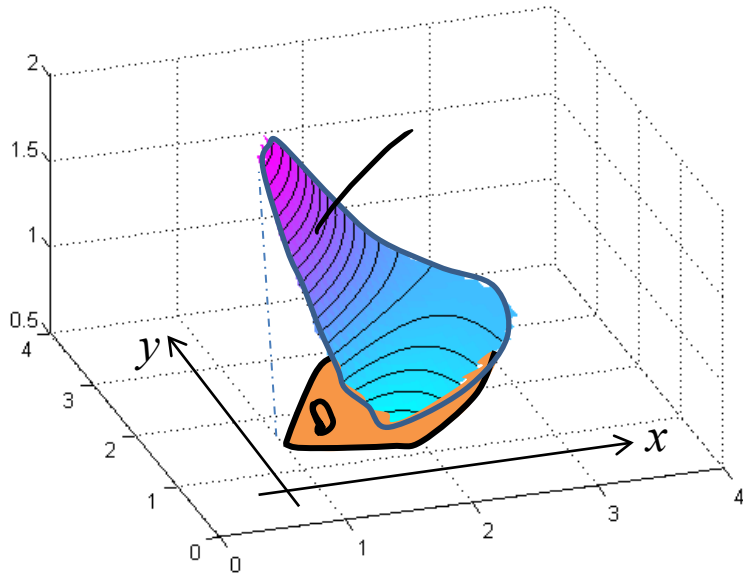


$$A = \int_0^1 \int_0^x (6x + 6y) dy dx$$

$$A = \int_0^1 \int_0^x (6x + 6y) dy dx = \int_0^1 (6xy + 3y^2) \Big|_{y=0}^{y=x} dx =$$

$$= \int_0^1 (6x^2 + 3x^2) dx = \frac{9}{3} x^3 \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1} = 3$$

Given a function $f(x,y)$ on a domain D ,



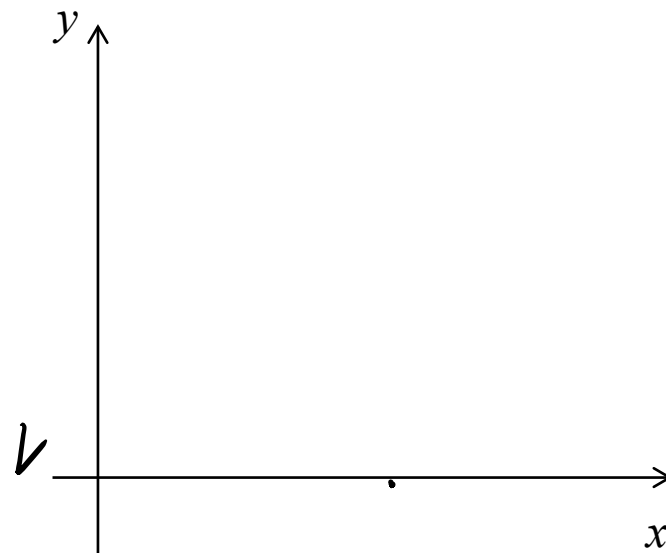
the integral of a function $f(x,y)$ over this domain D is

$$\int_D f dA = \iint_D f(x, y) dy dx = \int_a^b \int_{g_l(x)}^{g_u(x)} f(x, y) dy dx$$

Example: Integrate

$$\int_D x \cos y \, dA$$

where D is the region
bound by $y = 0$, $y = x^2$, and
 $x = \sqrt{\pi}$.

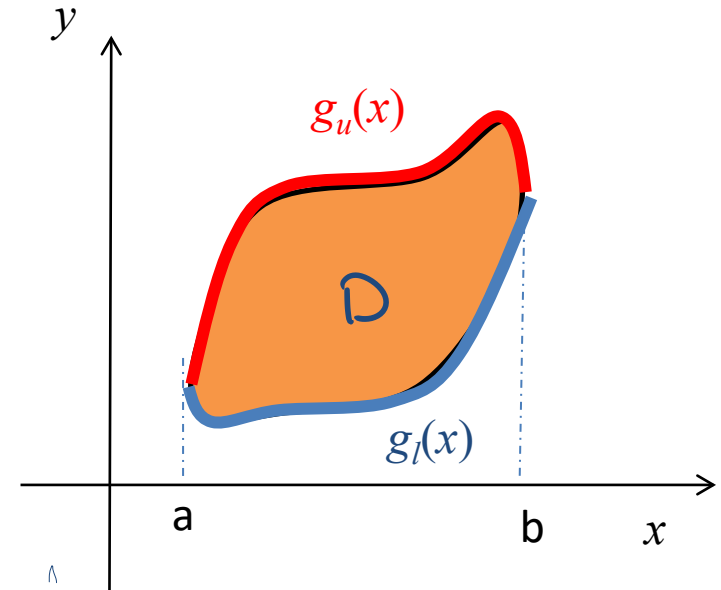
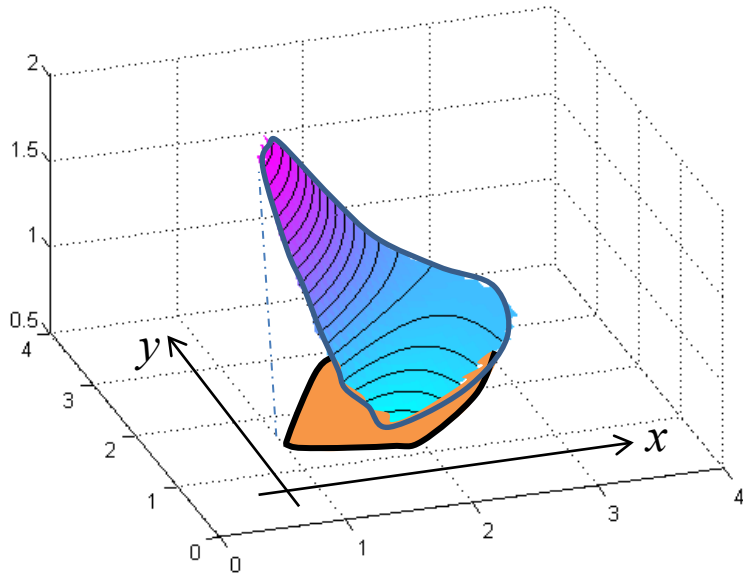


$$A = \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{x^2} x \cos y \, dy \, dx = \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} x \sin y \Big|_{y=0}^{y=x^2} dx =$$

$$= \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} x \sin x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} \sin u \, du = -\frac{1}{2} (\cos \pi - \cos 0) = 1$$

$$u = x^2 \Rightarrow du = 2x \, dx$$

Given a function $f(x,y)$ on a domain D ,



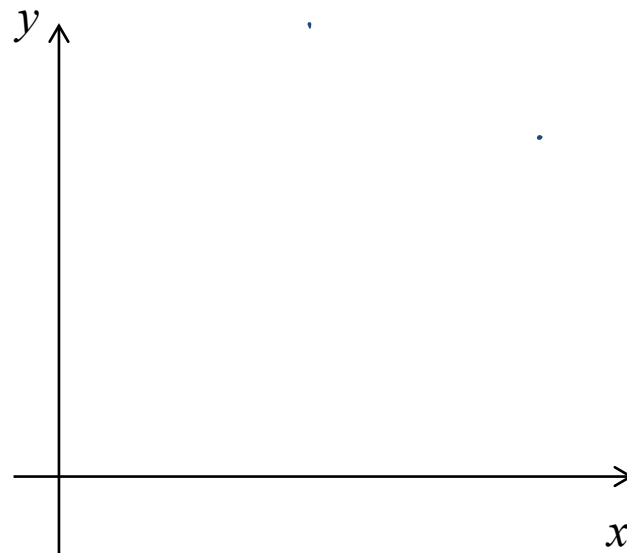
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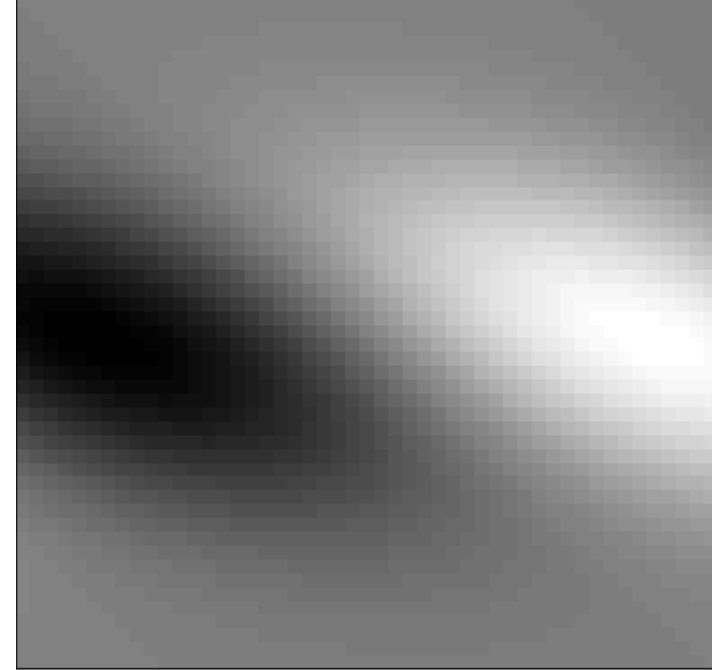
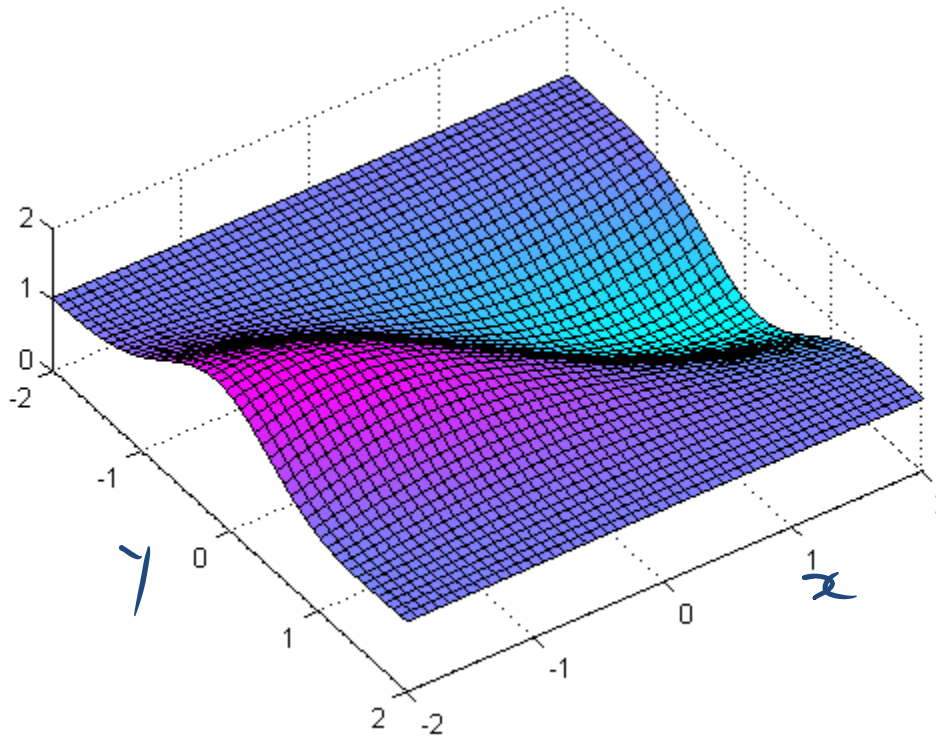


$$A = \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{x^2} x \cos y \, dy \, dx = \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} x \sin y \Big|_{y=0}^{y=x^2} dx =$$

$$= \int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} x \sin x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} \sin u \, du = -\frac{1}{2} (\cos \pi - \cos 0) = 1$$

$$u = x^2 \Rightarrow du = 2x \, dx$$

The integral can be thought of as a *weighted sum* over the domain, where the function $f(x,y)$ gives the weighting.

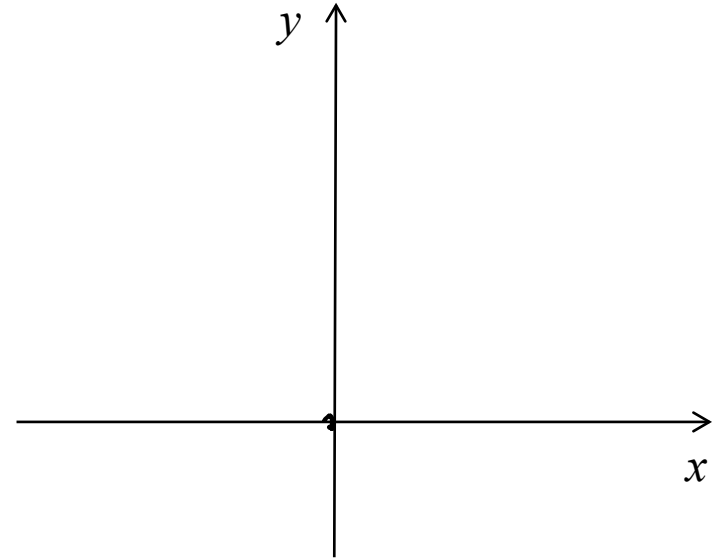


Integrating the function $f(x,y) = 1$ over the domain D gives the area of the domain.

$$A = \iint_D 1 \, dx \, dy$$

Example:

Find the area of the domain between the curves $y = x^2$ and $y = x^3$.



$$A = \iint_D dx dy = \int_0^1 \int_{x^3}^{x^2} dy dx = \int_0^1 (x^2 - x^3) dx = \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1} = \frac{1}{12}$$

Swapping the order of integration

Some domains of integration can be described in two ways:

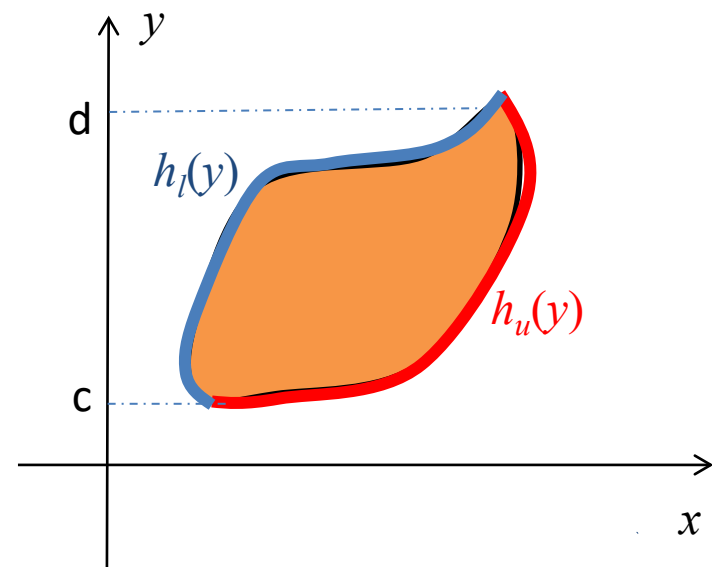
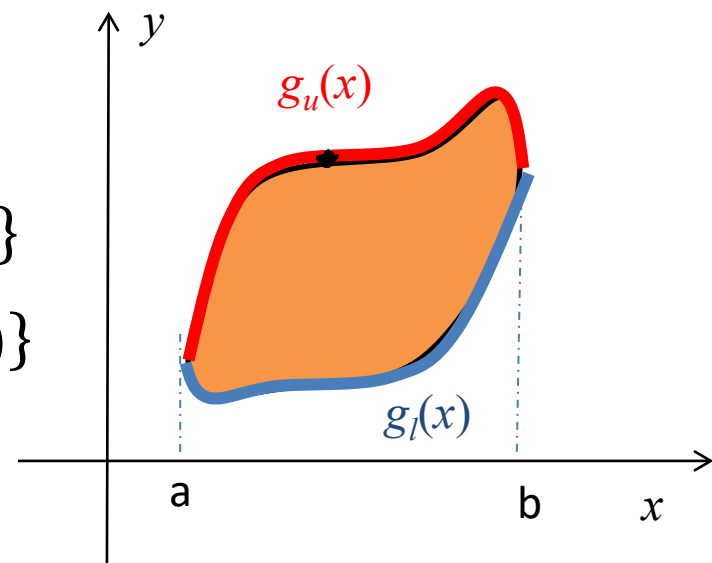
$$D = \{(x, y) \mid a < x < b, g_l(x) < y < g_u(x)\}$$

$$D = \{(x, y) \mid c < y < d, h_l(y) < x < h_u(y)\}$$

When this happens we can swap the order (via a generalisation of Fubini's theorem):

$$\iint_D f(x, y) dy dx = \int_a^b \int_{g_l(x)}^{g_u(x)} f(x, y) dy dx =$$

$$\int_c^d \int_{h_l(y)}^{h_u(y)} f(x, y) dx dy$$



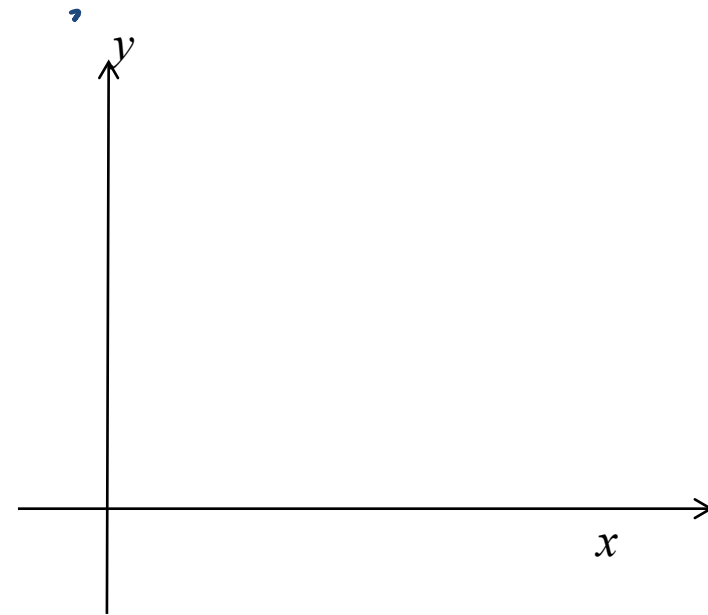
Some integrals are easier performed one way than another.
To swap the order:

1. Draw a graph
2. From the graph write down the limits of the domain
3. Put these limits into the integral

E.g.
$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \int_y^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx dy$$

$$A = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^x \frac{\sin x}{x} dy dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin x}{x} y \Big|_{y=0}^{y=x} dx =$$

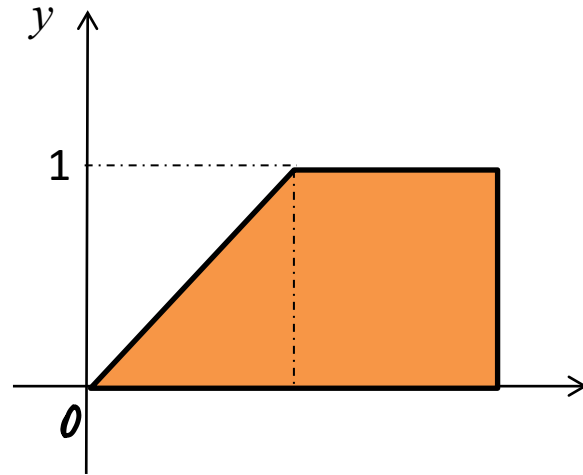
$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x dx = -(\cos \frac{\pi}{2} - \cos 0) = 1$$



We can also change the order to avoid “splitting” an integral.

E.g. Evaluate $\int_0^1 \int_y^2 xy \, dx dy$

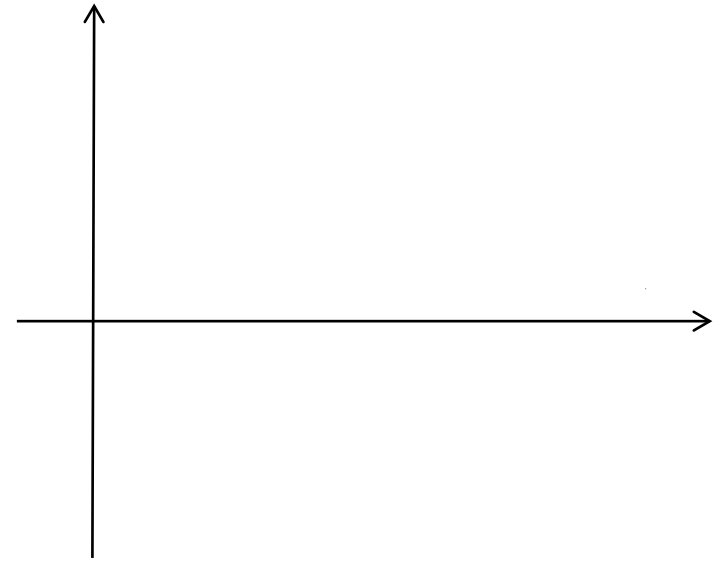
Over the region shown:



$$D = \{(x, y) \mid y \leq x \leq 2, \quad 0 \leq y \leq 1\}$$

Double integrals can be separated: if the limits do not depend on x and y

$$\int_c^d \int_a^b f(x)g(y) dy = \int_c^d g(y)dy \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

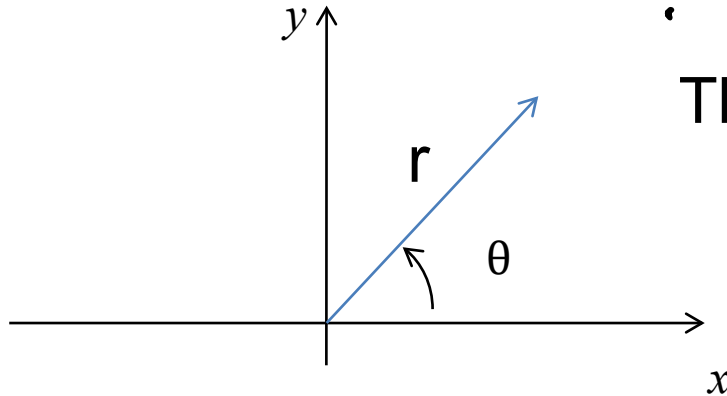


Example: evaluate

$$\int_0^1 \int_{-1}^1 e^{x+y} dx dy = \int_0^1 e^y dy \int_{-1}^1 e^x dx$$

Polar coordinates

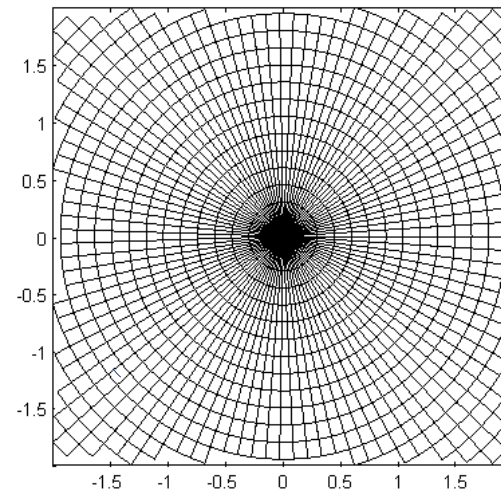
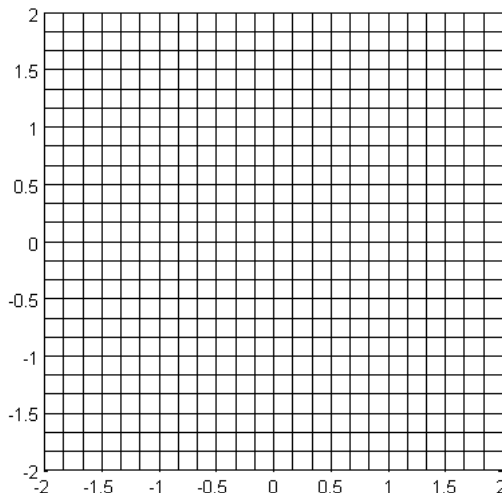
We often want to integrate circular domains, or regions with round elements. For this we need polar coordinates.



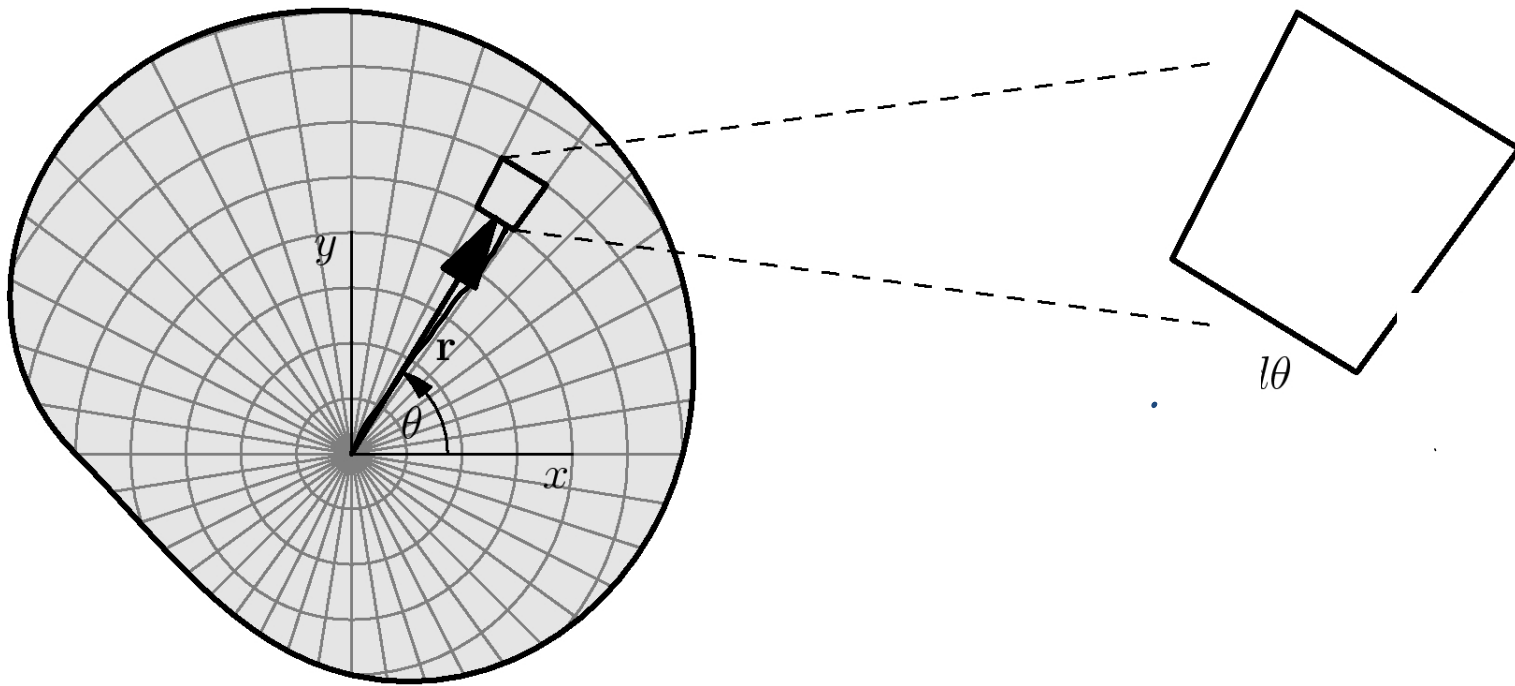
The transformation from (x,y) to (r,θ) is

$$\begin{aligned}x &= r \cos \theta \\ y &= r \sin \theta\end{aligned}$$

To integrate, we also need to change from $dx \, dy$ to $dr \, d\theta$



To integrate, we divide the domain into a large number of small sections, each with area dA .



Length of small element $l = dr$

Width of small element $w = r d\theta$

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



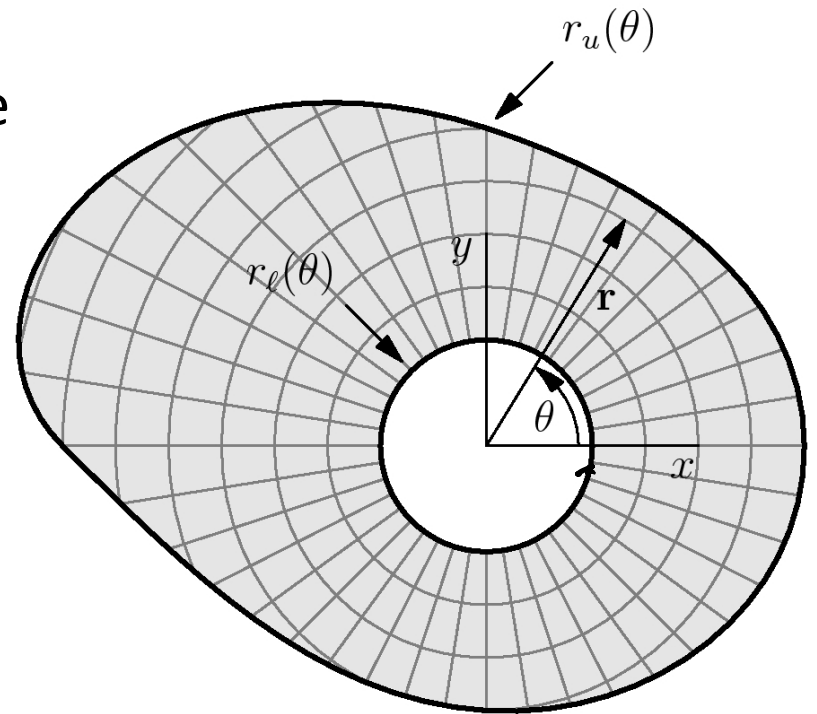
The area of a small element $A = r dr d\theta$

To go from (x,y) to (r, θ) , we make the transformation

$$dx dy \longrightarrow r dr d\theta$$

And then integrate, picking one coordinate to integrate over first:

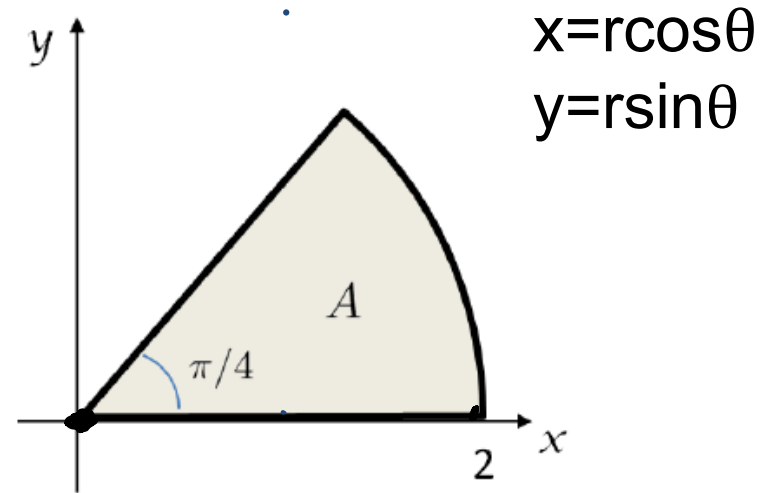
$$\iint_D f(x,y) dy dx = \int_{\theta_1}^{\theta_2} \int_{r_l(\theta)}^{r_u(\theta)} f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r dr d\theta$$



Example: Integrate

$$\iint_A x dx dy$$

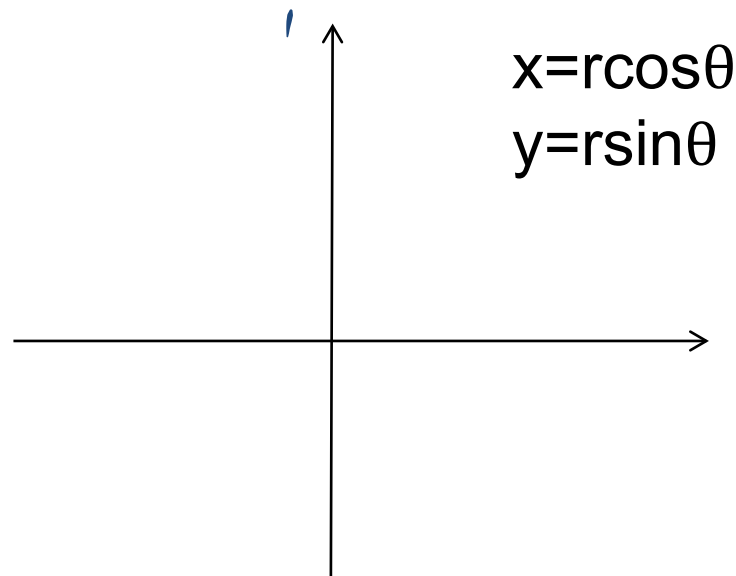
where A is the area shown:



$$\begin{aligned} A &= \iint_D x dx dy = \int_0^{\pi/4} \int_0^2 r \cos \theta r dr d\theta = \int_0^2 r^2 dr \int_0^{\pi/4} \cos \theta d\theta = \\ &= \frac{r^3}{3} \Big|_0^2 (\sin \frac{\pi}{4} - \sin 0) = \frac{8}{3} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Example: evaluate

$$\int_{-1}^1 \int_{-\sqrt{1-y^2}}^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} (x^2 + y^2) dx dy$$



$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-\sqrt{1-y^2}}^{\sqrt{1-y^2}} (x^2 + y^2) dx dy = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 r^2 r dr d\theta = \int_0^1 r^3 dr \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta = \\ &= \frac{r^4}{4} \Big|_0^1 2\pi = 2\pi \frac{1}{4} = \frac{\pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Example (important for quantum electrodynamics, statistics):

Use polar coordinates to evaluate:

$$\begin{aligned}x &= r \cos \theta \\ y &= r \sin \theta\end{aligned}$$

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$$

$$I^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2-y^2} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-r^2} r dr d\theta =$$

$$= \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^{\infty} e^{-r^2} r dr = \frac{2\pi}{2} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} du = -\pi e^{-u} \Big|_0^{\infty} = \pi \Rightarrow I = \sqrt{\pi}$$

$$u = r^2 \quad du = 2r dr$$

Example: Show that the area of a circle is πR^2

$$A = \iint_D dx dy$$

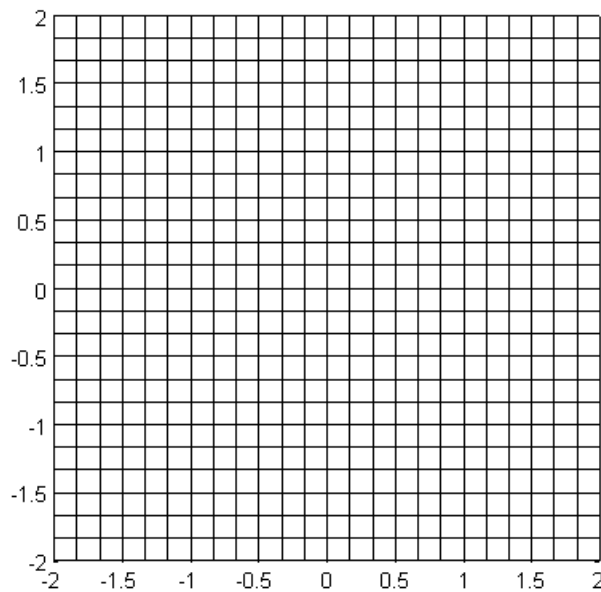
$$\begin{aligned} A &= \iint_D dx dy = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R r dr d\theta = \int_0^R r dr \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta = \\ &= \frac{r^2}{2} \Big|_0^R 2\pi = 2\pi \frac{R^2}{2} = \pi R^2 \end{aligned}$$

General change of coordinates:

We can write a new coordinate system in terms of the old as

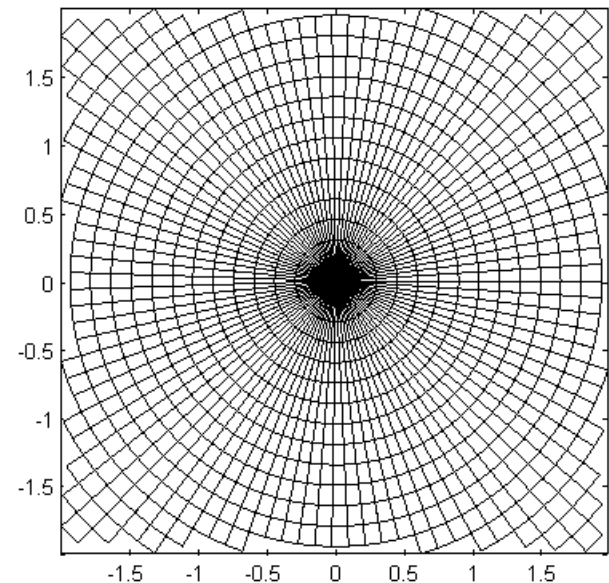
$$x = x(s, t)$$

$$y = y(s, t)$$

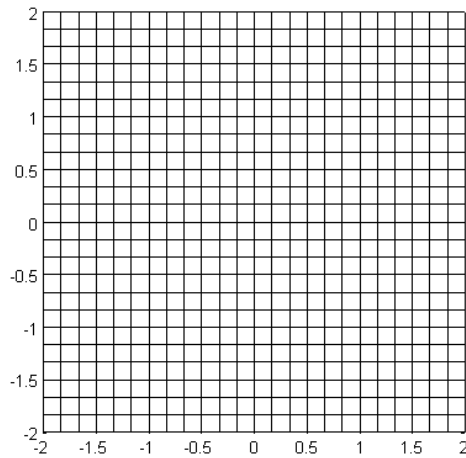


$$x = x(s, t)$$

$$y = y(s, t)$$

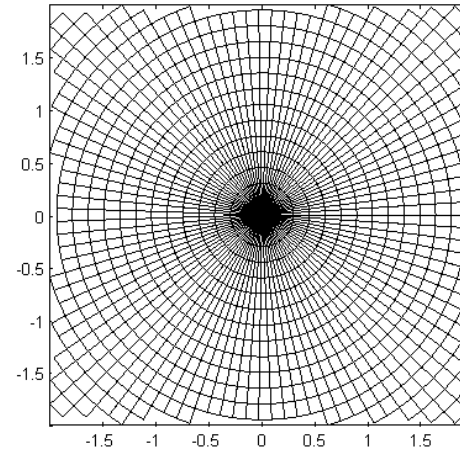


We would like a way of writing the area element $dA = dx dy$ in terms of the new coordinates.



$$x = x(s, t)$$

$$y = y(s, t)$$



To change the area element from (x,y) to (s,t) we use the Jacobian:

$$dxdy = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \end{vmatrix} dsdt = \left| \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} \right| dsdt$$

This is often written $dxdy = \left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(s,t)} \right| dsdt$

with $\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(s,t)} = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial t} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial s} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \end{vmatrix}$

Example: Cartesian to polar coordinates:

$$x=r\cos\theta$$

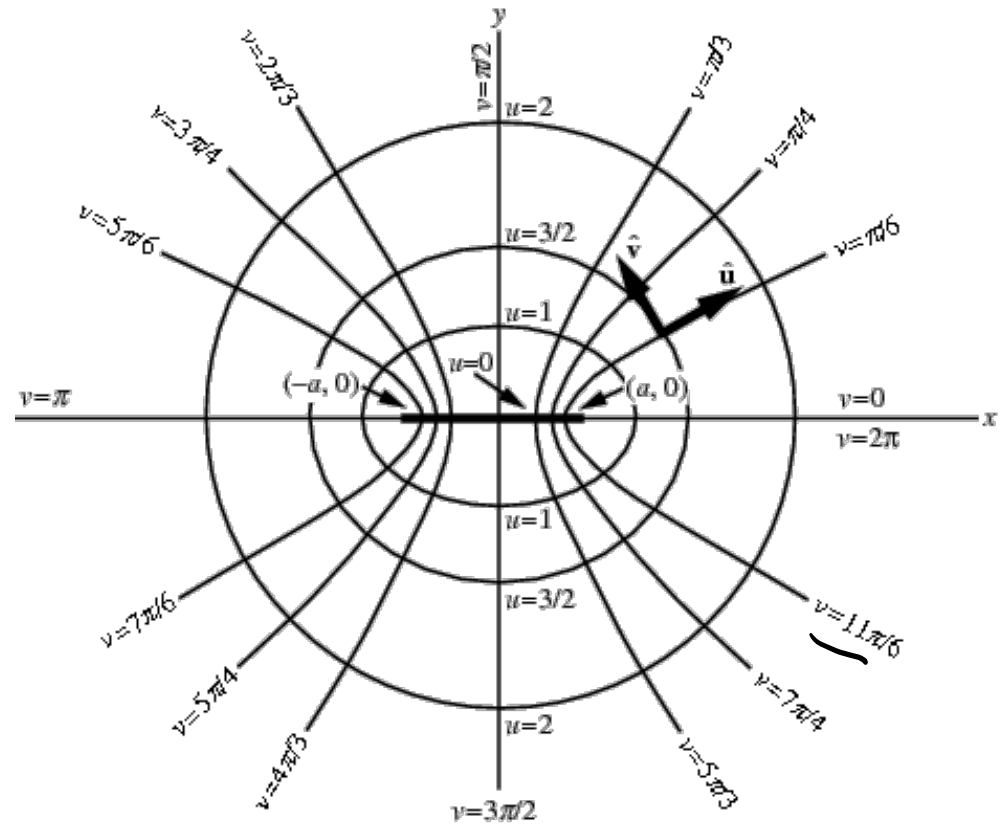
$$y=r\sin\theta$$

$$dxdy = \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} drd\theta = \begin{vmatrix} \cos\theta & -r\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & r\cos\theta \end{vmatrix} drd\theta = r drd\theta$$

Example: Cartesian to Elliptic coordinates

$$x = a \cosh u \cos v$$

$$y = a \sinh u \sin v$$



$$dxdy = a^2 (\sinh^2 u + \sin^2 v) du dv$$