



Engineering Analysis 2 : Multivariate functions

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Outline

- 1 Multivariate functions
- 2 Partial Differentiation
- 3 Higher Order Partial Derivatives
- 4 Total Differentiation
- 5 Line Integrals
- 6 Surface Integrals

Introduction

Recall from EG189: analysis of a function of single variable:

- Differentiation

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx}$$

Expresses the rate of change of a function f with respect to x .

- Integration

$$\int f(x) dx$$

Reverses the operation of differentiation and can be used to work out areas under curves, and as we have just seen to solve ODEs.

We've seen in **vectors** we often need to deal with **physical fields**, that depend on more than one variable.

We may be interested in rates of change to each coordinate (e.g. x, y, z), time t , but sometimes also other physical fields as well.

Introduction (Continue ...)

Example 1: the area A of a rectangular plate of width x and breadth y can be calculated

$$A = xy$$

The variables x and y are **independent** of each other.

In this case, the **dependent variable** A is a function of the two independent variables x and y as

$$A = f(x, y)$$

or

$$A \equiv A(x, y)$$

Introduction (Continue ...)

Example 2: the volume of a rectangular plate is given by

$$V = xyz$$

where the thickness of the plate is in z -direction.

In this case:

- V — is the **dependent variable**
- x , y , and z — are the **independent variables**
- We write $V = f(x, y, z)$ or $V \equiv V(x, y, z)$.

Visualisation of Functions of Two and Three Variables

In general a function f can be a function of n independent variables. But, here we restrict ourselves to functions of two or three independent variables.

If $n = 2$ then we can write

$$f(x, y)$$

This is a function of two independent variables x and y .

How to **visualise** such a function:

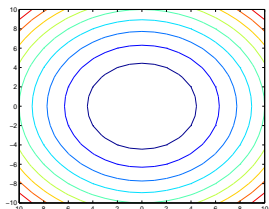
1. Use **level curves** which trace in the x, y domain on which the function $f(x, y)$ has a constant value.
2. Plot the points corresponding to (x, y, z) where we choose $z = f(x, y)$ in a rectangular coordinate system. ie the values of z are chosen to be the values of the function for a given x, y (rather than the z coordinates) and are shown as a surface.

Visualisation of Functions of Two and Three Variables

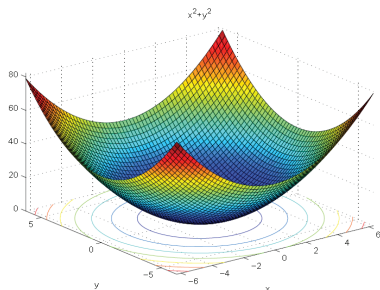
Example: We wish to visualise the function

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$

Solution: By using MATLAB, we can make a **level surface plot** and/or a **surface plot** of this functions as:



(a) The level surface plot



(b) The surface plot

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Partial Differentiation

1st Semester: the derivative of a function $f(x)$ measures **the slope** of **the tangent** to the graph of the function.

If we have a function $f(x, y)$ of two variables, slope has no sense because $z = f(x, y)$ defines **a surfaces** in **3D**.

- Simplest surface $f(x, y) = 0$ is flat in both the x and y directions.

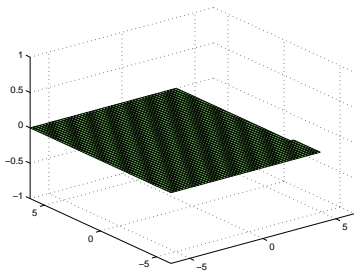
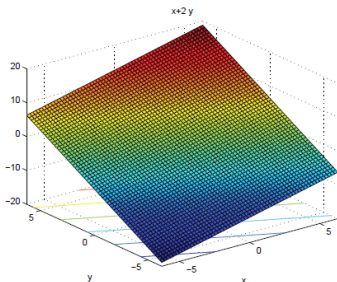


Figure: Visualisation surfaces for $f(x, y) = 0$

Partial Differentiation

Consider $f(x, y) = x + 2y$

- i if we move along a line of fixed y and increasing x the slope is equal to 1.
- ii if we move along a line for which x is fixed and y is increasing then we find that the slope is equal to 2.



Visualisation of surface for $f(x, y) = x + 2y$

Partial Differentiation

For a general surface the slope will be different depending on which direction we move in.

To find out rates of change for functions of more than 1 variable we need a new kind of derivative —called a **partial derivative**.

The partial derivative of $f(x, y)$ with respect to x is defined as

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x, y) - f(x, y)}{\Delta x}$$

i.e. we differentiate: $f(x, y)$ with respect to x while keeping y constant (fixed).

The partial derivative of $f(x, y)$ with respect to x is the same as measuring the slope in the x direction.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \quad \text{or} \quad \partial f / \partial x \quad \text{or} \quad f_x$$

Partial Differentiation

In writing, care must be taken to distinguish between:

$$\frac{df}{dx}, \quad \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$$

Similarly, the partial derivative of $f(x, y)$ with respect to y is

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \lim_{\Delta y \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y)}{\Delta y}$$

Differentiating $f(x, y)$ with respect to y by keeping x constant. This partial derivative is the same as measuring **the slope** in the y direction.

Partial Differentiation

Directional derivative

If we know $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$, we know **the surface** for **any direction**.

If we define α — an angle to the x axis then the slope is:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \cos \alpha + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \sin \alpha$$

Rules of Partial Differentiation

The rules of partial differentiation are very similar to those of ordinary differentiation

- **Rule 1 (scaler multiplication rule)**

If k is a constant then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(kf) = k \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(kf) = k \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$$

- **Rule 2 (sum rule)**

If $u = f(x, y)$ and $v = g(x, y)$ then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(u + v) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(u + v) = \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$

- **Rule 3 (product rule)**

If $u = f(x, y)$ and $v = g(x, y)$ then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}(uv) = u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(uv) = u \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y}$$

Partial Differentiation

Example:

Given the function $f(x, y) = x^2y^3 + 3y + x$, determine its partial derivative with respect to x and y . Hence determine its directional derivative for a direction at angle $\alpha = \pi/4$ to the x axis.

Solution:

To find the partial derivative of $f(x, y)$ with respect to x , we differentiate $f(x, y)$ and keep y constant

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2xy^3 + 1$$

The partial derivative of $f(x, y)$ with respect to y , by differentiating $f(x, y)$ while keeping x constant

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 3x^2y^2 + 3$$

The directional derivative is

$$(2xy^3 + 1) \cos \alpha + (3x^2y^2 + 3) \sin \alpha = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} (2xy^3 + 3x^2y^2 + 4)$$

Partial Differentiation

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Rules of Partial Differentiation Continued

- **Rule 4 (quotient rule)**

If $u = f(x, y)$ and $v = g(x, y)$ then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{u}{v} \right) = \frac{v \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) - u \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right)}{v^2} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{u}{v} \right) = \frac{v \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) - u \left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right)}{v^2}$$

- **Rule 5 (simple composite–functions or simple chain rule)**

If $u = g(f(x, y)) = g(w)$ then

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} = \frac{dg}{dw} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = \frac{dg}{dw} \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}$$

we will later extend this concept to where g can not be written just in terms of a single variable w .

Partial Differentiation

Example: Determine $\partial f/\partial x$ and $\partial f/\partial y$ when $f(x, y)$ is

a) $x^2y^2 + 3xy - x + 2$ b) $\sin(x^2 - 3y)$

Solution:

a) For $f(x, y) = x^2y^2 + 3xy - x + 2$ we have

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2xy^2 + 3y - 1 \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2x^2y + 3x$$

b) For $f(x, y) = \sin(x^2 - 3y) = \sin w$ with $w = x^2 + y^2$ we have

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} &= \frac{df}{dw} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} = \cos(x^2 - 3y) \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(x^2 - 3y) = 2x \cos(x^2 - 3y) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} &= -3 \cos(x^2 - 3y)\end{aligned}$$

Generalising Partial Differentiation

We've already seen **partial differentiation** applied to functions of **two** variables.

The concept may be extended to functions of **many** variables.

For a function $f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ of n variables, the **partial derivative** with respect to x_i is

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{\Delta x_i \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i + \Delta x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n)}{\Delta x_i}$$

Differentiating the function with respect to x_i while keeping all other $n - 1$ variables constant.

Generalising Partial Differentiation

Example: Determine $\partial f/\partial x$, $\partial f/\partial y$ and $\partial f/\partial z$ when

$$f(x, y, z) = xyz^2 + 3xy - z$$

Solution: We obtain that

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = yz^2 + 3y$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = xz^2 + 3x$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 2xyz - 1$$

Generalising the Chain Rule

We've already seen a particular case of the **the chain rule** in partial differentiation, now lets generalise it.

Let $z = g(v, w)$ and v and w are themselves functions of **two independent variables** x and y . z is a function of x and y , say $G(x, y)$. We want to differentiate z with respect to x or y

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial w} \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial w} \frac{\partial w}{\partial y}$$

In matrix notation

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial w}{\partial y} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial z}{\partial v} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial w} \end{pmatrix}$$

This is the **chain rule** for a function of a **two** variables.

If $z = g(w)$ and $w = f(x, y)$ this reduces to the simpler case previously presented.

Chain Rule I

Example: Find $\partial T/\partial r$ and $\partial T/\partial \theta$ when

$$T(x, y) = x^2 + 2xy + y^3x^2$$

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

Solution: By the chain rule

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial r}$$

In this example

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = 2x + 2y + 2xy^3 \quad \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} = 2x + 3x^2y^2$$

and

$$\frac{\partial x}{\partial r} = \cos \theta \quad \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} = \sin \theta$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial T}{\partial r} &= (2x + 2y + 2xy^3) \cos \theta + (2x + 3x^2y^2) \sin \theta \\ &= (2r \cos \theta + 2r \sin \theta + 2r^4 \cos \theta \sin^3 \theta) \cos \theta \\ &+ (2r \cos \theta + 3r^4 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta) \sin \theta \end{aligned}$$

Chain Rule II

Similarly

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial T}{\partial \theta} &= -(2x + 2y + 2xy^3)r \sin \theta + (2x + 3x^2y^2)r \cos \theta \\ &= -(2r \cos \theta + 2r \sin \theta + 2r^4 \cos \theta \sin^3 \theta)r \sin \theta \\ &+ (2r \cos \theta + 3r^4 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta)r \cos \theta\end{aligned}$$

Chain Rule I

Example: Find dR/ds when

$$R(x, y) = \cosh(x^2 + 3y)$$

and $x(s) = s^2 + 3s$ and $y(s) = \sin s$.

Solution: For this example, x and y are functions of s only so

$$\frac{dR}{ds} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial x} \frac{dx}{ds} + \frac{\partial R}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{ds}$$

which gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dR}{ds} &= 2x(2s + 3) \sinh(x^2 + 3y) + 3 \cos s \sinh(x^2 + 3y) \\ &= 2(s^2 + 3s)(2s + 3) \sinh((s^2 + 3s)^2 + 3 \sin s) \\ &+ 3 \cos s \sinh((s^2 + 3s)^2 + 3 \sin s) \\ &= 2(2s^3 + 9s^2 + 9s) \sinh((s^2 + 3s)^2 + 3 \sin s) \\ &+ 3 \cos s \sinh((s^2 + 3s)^2 + 3 \sin s) \end{aligned}$$

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Higher order partial derivatives

We have considered functions like $f(x, y)$ and found its partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$. If **the partial derivatives** are also functions of x and y , they can also be differentiated with respect to x and y . We define higher order partial derivatives as follows

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$$

Higher Order Partial Derivatives

If $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}$, $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y}$ and $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$ exist and are continuous, then it follows that

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$$

If the conditions are not fulfilled these so called **mixed partial derivatives** are not equal.

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \neq \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$$

Higher Order Partial Derivatives I

Example: For the function

$$f(x, y) = \sin x \cos y + x^3 e^y$$

find all the second order partial derivatives.

Solution: First we find the first order partial derivatives

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \cos x \cos y + 3x^2 e^y \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = -\sin x \sin y + x^3 e^y$$

Then by differentiating these expressions again we can find the second order derivatives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} &= -\sin x \cos y + 6xe^y & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} &= -\sin x \cos y + x^3 e^y \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} &= -\cos x \sin y + 3x^2 e^y & &= \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} \end{aligned}$$

In this case, we have that $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x}$

Higher Order Partial Derivatives I

Example: Find all second partial derivatives of $z = \sin(xy)$.

Solution: First of all the first partial derivatives are found.

$$\frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} = y \cos(xy) \quad \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2} = x \cos(xy)$$

Then each of these is differentiated with respect to x :

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right) = -y^2 \sin(xy) \\ \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x \partial y} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \right) = -xy \sin(xy) + \cos(xy) \end{aligned}$$

Note here the need to use the product rule to differentiate $x \cos(xy)$ with respect to x .
Also

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y \partial x} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \right) = -xy \sin(xy) + \cos(xy) = \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 z}{\partial y^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \right) = -y^2 \sin(xy) \end{aligned}$$

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Total differentiation

Let us define: Function $z = f(x, y)$ — function of two variables x and y .

Δx is a small change in x , Δy a small change in y and Δz a small change in z . It follows that

$$\Delta z = f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y)$$

Rewrite this as the sum of two terms:

1. the **first** of which shows the change in z due to a change in x
2. the **second** which shows the change in z due to a change in y

$$\Delta z = [f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y + \Delta y)] + [f(x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y)]$$

Total Differentiation

Multiply the first term by $\Delta x/\Delta x = 1$ and the second term by $\Delta y/\Delta y = 1$

$$\Delta z = \frac{[f(x + \Delta x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y + \Delta y)]}{\Delta x} \Delta x + \frac{[f(x, y + \Delta y) - f(x, y)]}{\Delta y} \Delta y$$

By letting Δx , Δy and $\Delta z \rightarrow 0$, we get

$$dz = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy$$

In this expression dx , dy and dz are called **differentials**.

Total Differentiation

If $z = f(x)$ so that it is a function of **one variable**, the formula takes the form

$$dz = \frac{df}{dx} dx$$

If $w = f(x, y, z)$ is a function of three variables we have

$$dw = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} dz$$

We can use differentials to calculate **errors**. If $z = f(x, y)$ and Δx and Δy are errors in x and y , then **the error** in z is approximately given by

$$\Delta z \approx \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Delta y$$

Total Differentiation I

Example: We want to estimate $\sqrt{(3.01)^2 + (3.97)^2}$

Solution: Let $z = f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$.

If we set $x = 3$ and $y = 4$ we can easily compute $z = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = 5$.

Now $\sqrt{(3.01)^2 + (3.97)^2}$ is z when x is increased by $\Delta x = 0.01$ and when y is decreased by 0.03 , i.e., $\Delta y = -0.03$

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta z &\approx \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta x + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \Delta y \\ &= \frac{1}{2} 2x(x^2 + y^2)^{-1/2} \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} 2y(x^2 + y^2)^{-1/2} \Delta y \\ &= \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \Delta x + \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \Delta y \\ &= \left(\frac{3}{5} \times 0.01 \right) + \frac{4}{5} \times (-0.03) = -0.018\end{aligned}$$

So $\sqrt{(3.01)^2 + (3.97)^2} \approx 5 + \Delta z = 5 - 0.018 \approx 4.98$.

Total Differentiation I

Example: The height of a cylinder is under measured by 3% and the radius is over measured by 2% we wish to estimate the percentage error in the volume.

Solution: The volume of a cylinder is given by $V = \pi r^2 h$ as

$$\frac{\partial V}{\partial r} = 2\pi r h \quad \frac{\partial V}{\partial h} = \pi r^2$$

The error in the volume may be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta V &\approx \frac{\partial V}{\partial r} \Delta r + \frac{\partial V}{\partial h} \Delta h \\ &= 2\pi r h \Delta r + \pi r^2 \Delta h \end{aligned}$$

As we are interested in the percentage error, we divide this by V

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta V &\approx \frac{2\pi r h}{\pi r^2 h} \Delta r + \frac{\pi r^2}{\pi r^2 h} \Delta h \\ &= \frac{2\Delta r}{r} + \frac{\Delta h}{h} \end{aligned}$$

From the question we know that $\frac{\Delta r}{r} = \frac{2}{100}$ and $\frac{\Delta h}{h} = -\frac{3}{100}$ giving $\frac{\Delta V}{V} = \frac{1}{100}$. This means that the volume is overestimated by 1%.

Total Differentiation I

Example: Find the total differential coefficient of

$$x^2y$$

with respect to x , when x and y are connected by the relation:

$$x^2 + xy + y^2 = 1$$

Solution: Let define $u = x^2y$, then the total differential is

$$du = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} dy$$

Thus the total differential coefficient of u with respect to x is

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{du}{dx} &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \frac{dy}{dx} \\ \frac{du}{dx} &= 2xy + x^2 \frac{dy}{dx}\end{aligned}$$

Total Differentiation II

From the implicit relation $f = x^2 + xy + y^2 = 1$, we first find $f_x = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x + y$ and $f_y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = 2y + x$ and see that

$$\frac{f_x}{f_y} = \frac{2x + y}{x + 2y}$$

but, also using the techniques of implicit differentiation from EG189 we have in this case

$$2x + y + x \frac{dy}{dx} + 2y \frac{dy}{dx} = 0 \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{2x + y}{x + 2y} = -\frac{f_x}{f_y}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{du}{dx} &= 2xy + x^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = 2xy + x^2 \left[-\frac{2x + y}{x + 2y} \right] \\ \frac{du}{dx} &= 2xy - \frac{x^2(2x + y)}{x + 2y}. \end{aligned}$$

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Integration

In science and engineering: three types of integrals commonly arise: **line integrals**, **surface integrals** and **volume integrals**.

Line integrals

Are used for computing induced voltage in a coil, mass of wire, work done by a force moving in a vector field...

The basic form of a **line integral** is

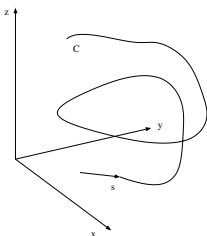
$$\int_C f(x, y, z) ds$$

here s is measured around the contour (possibly a curve or a straight line) C over which the integral is to be performed.

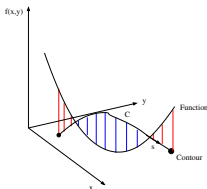
The contour can exist at some arbitrary location in space and rather than integrate than integrate with respect to x as in EG189 in $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ we need to integrate $f(x, y, z)$ with respect to s along C .

Line Integrals

We don't usually specify limits for line integrals as the starting and end points for the integral are defined by the choice of contour C , which can be arbitrary:



When performing contour integrals, we are working out the area below the function when restricted to the curve C as illustrated below for the case of $f(x, y)$



Line Integrals

Note that in Cartesian coordinates $ds = \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2}$ and in two-dimensions this simplifies to

$$ds = \sqrt{dx^2 + dy^2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 + 1} dx = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2} dy$$

provided s increases as x (resp. y) increases, with the different arrangements offering advantages for lines aligned with the x or y axes respectively.

Example

Compute the line integral of $f(x, y) = x^2 + y$ along the contour defined by the line $y = 2x$ between the points $(-1, -2)$ and $(1, 2)$.

Solution

$$\int_C f(x, y) ds = \int_C x^2 + y ds \quad ds = \sqrt{(2)^2 + 1} dx$$

since $dy/dx = 2$. Thus

$$\int_{-1}^1 (x^2 + 2x) \sqrt{5} dx = \sqrt{5} \left[\frac{x^3}{3} + x^2 \right]_{-1}^1 = 2\sqrt{5}$$

Working with Parameterisations

However, particular care must be exercised with setting $ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2 + 1}dx$ if s

increasing as x is decreasing and similarly with $ds = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2}dy$ with s increasing and y decreasing. **in such cases we need the negative root**

Example

Find $\int_C ds$ for the curve $y = x$ between a line starting at $(1, 1)$ and finishing at $(0, 0)$

Solution

The solution is just the length of the line between the two points i.e. $\sqrt{2}$.

A first approach might be to say $dy = dx$ and so $ds = \sqrt{2}dx$ and since we go from $(1, 1)$ to $(0, 0)$ then to say

$$\int_C ds = \int_1^0 \sqrt{2}dx = -\sqrt{2}[x]_1^0 = -\sqrt{2}$$

but this has the sign!

The trick is to use the negative root (as s is increasing as x is decreasing) so that $ds = -\sqrt{2}dx$

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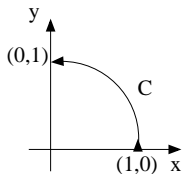
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Line Integrals

Example: Evaluate $\int_C xy \, ds$ from $(1, 0)$ to $(0, 1)$ along the curve C that is the portion of $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ in the first quadrant.



Solution:

By implicit differentiation $2x + 2y \frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ so $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$. Thus

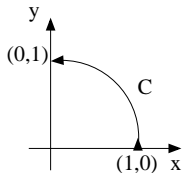
$$ds = -\sqrt{\frac{x^2}{y^2} + 1} dx = -\sqrt{\frac{1}{1-x^2}} dx$$

since s is increasing as x is decreasing. If we integrate wrt s we go from $(1, 0)$ to $(0, 1)$ thus

$$\int_{(1,0)}^{(0,1)} xy \, ds = -\int_1^0 x \sqrt{1-x^2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{1-x^2}} dx = \int_0^1 x dx = \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

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Line Integrals

Example: Evaluate the integral

$$I = \int_C [(x^2 + 2y) ds + (x + y^2) ds]$$

from $(0, 1)$ to $(2, 3)$ along the curve C defined by $y = x + 1$

Solution:

Since $y = x + 1$ then $dy = dx$ and $ds = \sqrt{2}dx$ since in this case as s is increasing x is increasing.

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^2 [(x^2 + 2(x+1)) + (x + (x+1)^2)] \sqrt{2} dx \\ &= \sqrt{2} \int_0^2 (2x^2 + 5x + 3) dx = \sqrt{2} \left[\frac{2}{3}x^3 + \frac{5}{2}x^2 + 3x \right]_0^2 = \frac{64\sqrt{2}}{3} \end{aligned}$$

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Line Integrals

We've already seen **line integrals** in the form $\int_C f(x, y) ds$ for Cartesian coordinates. Other forms include:

- $ds = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2} dy$ in 2D Cartesian form
- $ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt$ in 2D parametric form
- $ds = \sqrt{r^2 + \left(\frac{dr}{d\theta}\right)^2} d\theta$ in 2D polar form (z constant)

If a **line integral** is such that the **integration** is performed around a **closed (simple) curve**, then we denote this type of integral by $\oint_C ds$ — is evaluated by travelling around C in an **anticlockwise** direction.

Another form found when dealing with **vector fields** e.g. $F(x, y, z)$ is the line integral $\int_C F \cdot ds = \int_C F \cdot \tau ds$ where $ds \equiv \tau ds$ and τ is a unit tangent to C whose orientation changes with position.

Line Integrals

Example: Evaluate

$$\int_C (z + x^2 - 2y) ds$$

along the curve C which is specified parametrically as $x = t^2$, $y = t^2$ and $z = 2t^2$ from $(0, 0, 0)$ to $(1, 1, 2)$.

Solution: On the curve C , we generalise ds to

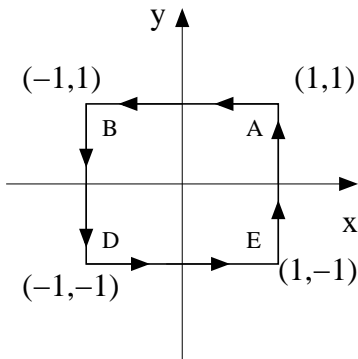
$$ds = \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dz}{dt}\right)^2} dt = \sqrt{4t^2 + 4t^2 + 16t^2} dt = \sqrt{24} t dt$$

since $dx = 2t dt$, $dy = 2t dt$ and $dz = 4t dt$. Also at the point $(0, 0, 0)$ $t = 0$ and at the point $(1, 1, 2)$ $t = 1$. In this case as s is increasing as t increasing and so the positive root is correct.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C (z + x^2 - 2y) ds &= \sqrt{24} \int_0^1 (2t^2 + t^4 - 2t^2) t dt \\ &= \sqrt{24} \int_0^1 t^5 dt \\ &= \sqrt{24} \left[\frac{t^6}{6} \right]_0^1 = \frac{\sqrt{24}}{6} \end{aligned}$$

Line Integrals I

Example: Evaluate the integral $\oint_C \frac{ds}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$ where C is the unit square with vertices $(1, 1)$, $(-1, 1)$, $(-1, -1)$, $(1, -1)$.



Line Integrals II

Solution: We can break the integral into four parts

$$\oint_C f(x, y) ds = \int_{C_{AB}} f(x, y) ds + \int_{C_{BD}} f(x, y) ds + \int_{C_{DE}} f(x, y) ds + \int_{C_{EA}} f(x, y) ds$$

and use the parameterisation approach:

- Along C_{AB} $y = 1$ and $x(t) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - t) - \frac{1}{2}(1 + t) = -t$, $-1 \leq t \leq 1$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -1, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = 0, \quad ds = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 0^2} dt = dt$$

$$\int_{C_{AB}} \frac{ds}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t^2 + 1}}$$

- Along C_{BD} $x = -1$ and $y(t) = -t$, $-1 \leq t \leq 1$

$$\int_{C_{BD}} \frac{ds}{\sqrt{y^2 + 1}} = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t^2 + 1}}$$

- Along C_{DE} $y = -1$ and $x(t) = t$, $-1 \leq t \leq 1$

$$\int_{C_{DE}} \frac{ds}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t^2 + 1}} \square$$

Line Integrals III

- Along C_{EA} $x = 1$ and $y(t) = t$, $-1 \leq t \leq 1$

$$\int_{C_{EA}} \frac{ds}{\sqrt{y^2 + 1}} = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{dt}{\sqrt{t^2 + 1}}$$

Note that each part the parameterisation t increases as s increases.
Thus the integral becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C \frac{ds}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} &= 4 \int_{-1}^1 \frac{dt}{\sqrt{1 + t^2}} = 4 \left[\sinh^{-1} t \right]_{-1}^1 \\ &= 8 \sinh^{-1} 1 \end{aligned}$$

Outline

- 1 Multivariate functions
- 2 Partial Differentiation
- 3 Higher Order Partial Derivatives
- 4 Total Differentiation
- 5 Line Integrals
- 6 Surface Integrals**

Surface Integrals

Recall $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is equal to the area under the curve $f(x)$ between $x = a$ and $x = b$

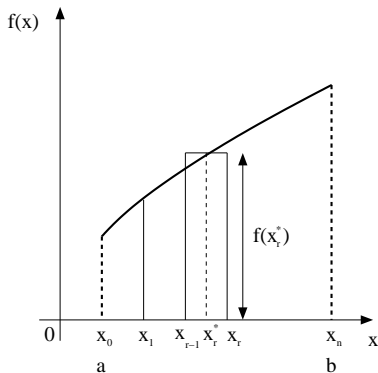


Figure: Integral of a function of a single variable

Surface integrals

We would like have integrals of functions of **more than one variable**.
Let's consider $z = f(x, y)$ and a region R of the xy plane:

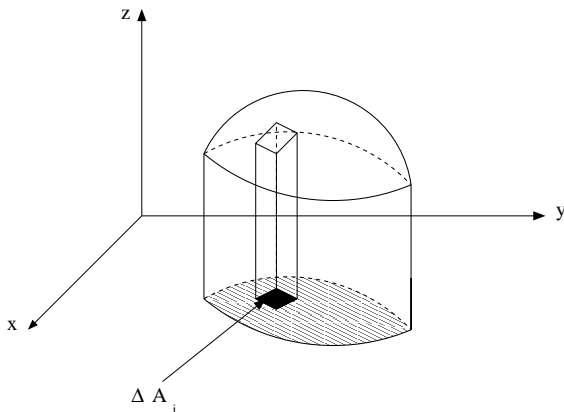


Figure: Integral of a function of two variables.

Surface integrals

We define the integral of $f(x, y)$ over R

$$\int \int_R f(x, y) dA = \lim_{\substack{n \rightarrow \infty \\ \Delta A_i \rightarrow 0}} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_i) \Delta A_i$$

where ΔA_i is an elemental area of R and (\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_i) is a point in ΔA_i .

$f(x, y)$ represents a surface and $f(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_i) \Delta A_i = \bar{z}_i \Delta A_i$ is the volume between the $z = 0$ and $z = \bar{z}_i$ whose base cross-section is ΔA_i .

The integral is **the limit** of **the sum** of **all such volumes** and so it is the volume under the surface of $z = f(x, y)$ above R .

Surface Integrals

If we introduce a series of lines which are parallel to the x and y axis:

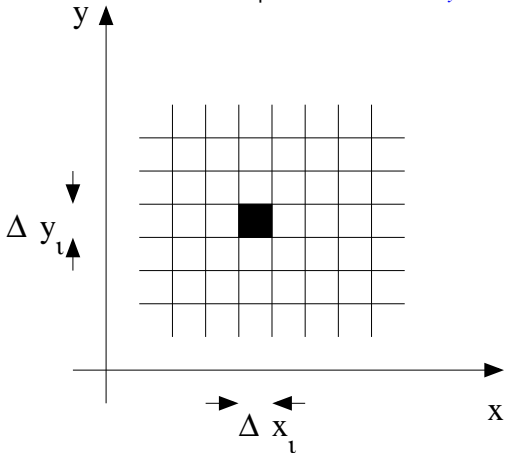


Figure: Lines introduced for double integrals.

Surface Integrals

We can write $\Delta A_i = \Delta x_i \Delta y_i$, giving

$$\int \int_R f(x, y) dA = \int \int_R f(x, y) dx dy = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(\bar{x}_i, \bar{y}_i) \Delta x_i \Delta y_i$$

Integrals of the type $\int \int_R f(x, y) dx dy$ can be evaluated as **repeated single integrals** in x and y . They are usually called **double integrals**.

For the particular case of the integral $\int \int_R dA$ — this equals to the area of region R , ie integration can be used to find out the area of any shape!

Surface Integrals

Two alternatives to evaluating double integrals.

If data is given as $y = g(x)$, i.e., y is some function of x , then we work out the integral by **first** performing the integration with respect to y and **then** with respect to x , i.e.

$$\int \int_R f(x, y) dA = \int_a^b \left[\int_{y=g_1(x)}^{x=g_2(x)} f(x, y) dy \right] dx$$

Alternatively, if we have that x is expressed as some function of y , e.g., $x = h(y)$, then we first perform the integration with respect to x and then integrate with respect to y

$$\int \int_R f(x, y) dA = \int_c^d \left[\int_{x=h_1(y)}^{x=h_2(y)} f(x, y) dx \right] dy$$

Surface Integrals

In the particular case where the region R is a rectangle, then the limits of the integration are constant and so it does not matter whether integrate x or y first.

$$\int \int_R f(x, y) dA = \int_c^d \int_a^b f(x, y) dx dy = \int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dy dx$$

Other elemental surface differentials include

- $dA = dx dy$ Cartesian coordinates, z constant.
- $dA = \rho dz$ Cylindrical coordinates, ϕ constant
- $dA = \rho d\rho d\phi$ Cylindrical coordinates, z constant
- $dA = r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$ Spherical coordinates, r constant
- $dA = r \sin \theta dr d\phi$ Spherical coordinates, θ constant
- $dA = r dr d\theta$ Spherical coordinates, ϕ constant

and apart from simple rectangular/cylindrical/spherical geometries we need to take care with the order of integration.

Surface Integrals I

Example: Evaluate the integral

$$\int_0^1 \int_1^3 (x^2 + y^2) dx dy$$

Solution: If we integrate with respect to x first, then we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_1^3 (x^2 + y^2) dx dy &= \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{3}x^3 + y^2x \right]_{x=1}^{x=3} dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left(\frac{26}{3} + 2y^2 \right) dy = \left[\frac{26}{3}y + \frac{2}{3}y^3 \right]_0^1 = \frac{28}{3} \end{aligned}$$

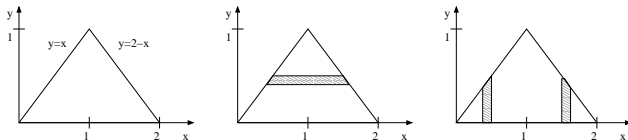
Alternatively with respect to y first

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_1^3 (x^2 + y^2) dx dy &= \int_1^3 \left[x^2y + \frac{1}{3}y^3 \right]_{y=0}^{y=1} dx \\ &= \int_1^3 \left(x^2 + \frac{1}{3} \right) dx = \frac{28}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Surface Integrals I

Example: Evaluate $\iint_R (x^2 + y^2) dA$ over a triangle with vertices $(0, 0)$, $(2, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$.

Solution:



First, integrating with respect to x first gives

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R (x^2 + y^2) dA &= \int_0^1 \int_{x=y}^{x=2-y} (x^2 + y^2) dx dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{3}x^3 + y^2x \right]_{x=y}^{x=2-y} dy = \int_0^1 \left(\frac{8}{3} - 4y + 4y^2 - \frac{8}{3}y^3 \right) dy = \frac{4}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Surface Integrals II

Next integrating with respect to y first

$$\int \int_R (x^2 + y^2) dA = \int_0^1 \int_{y=0}^{y=x} (x^2 + y^2) dy dx + \int_1^2 \int_{y=0}^{y=2-x} (x^2 + y^2) dy dx$$

Here the integrals are

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \int_{y=0}^{y=x} (x^2 + y^2) dy dx &= \int_0^1 \left[x^2 y + \frac{1}{3} y^3 \right]_{y=0}^{y=x} dx = \\ &= \int_0^1 \frac{4}{3} x^3 dx = \frac{1}{3} \\ \int_1^2 \int_{y=0}^{y=2-x} (x^2 + y^2) dy dx &= \int_1^2 \left[x^2 y + \frac{1}{3} y^3 \right]_{y=0}^{y=2-x} dx = \\ &= \int_1^2 \left(\frac{8}{3} - 4x + 4x^2 - \frac{4}{3} x^3 \right) dx = 1 \end{aligned}$$

So $\int \int_R (x^2 + y^2) dA = 1 + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{4}{3}$.

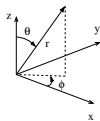
Surface Integrals I

Example:

By using a surface integral, check that the surface area of a sphere of radius $r = a$ is $4\pi a^2$

Solution:

In this case we want to find $\int dA$ and it is best to use spherical coordinates:



On a sphere $r = a$ is fixed and so $dA = r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = a^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$ so

$$\begin{aligned} \text{area} &= \int dA = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} a^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = a^2 \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\int_0^{\pi} \sin \theta d\theta \right) d\phi \\ &= a^2 \int_0^{2\pi} [-\cos \theta]_0^{\pi} d\phi = a^2 \int_0^{2\pi} 2 d\phi = 4\pi a^2 \end{aligned}$$

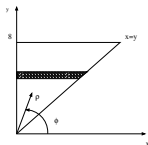
since for a complete sphere $0 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi$ and $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$.

Surface Integrals

Example:

Change the integral $\int_0^8 \int_0^y x dx dy$ in to an equivalent polar integral and evaluate

Solution:



The region of integration is a triangular region. Recall the transformations

$$x = \rho \cos \phi \quad y = \rho \sin \phi \quad dA = \rho d\rho d\phi$$

For this region we need to integrate from $\phi = \pi/4$ to $\phi = \pi/2$, but the radial integration depends on the angle ϕ , for each ϕ we need to integrate from $\rho = 0$ to $8/\sin \phi$.

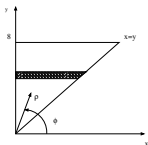
$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^8 \int_0^y x dx dy &= \int_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} \int_0^{8/\sin \phi} \rho \cos \phi \rho d\rho d\phi = \int_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} \cos \phi \left[\frac{\rho^3}{3} \right]_0^{8/\sin \phi} d\phi \\ &= \int_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} \frac{512 \cos \phi}{3 \sin^3 \phi} d\phi = -\frac{512}{6} \left[\sin^{-2} \phi \right]_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} = \frac{256}{3} \end{aligned}$$

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Volume Integrals

Volume integrals — **three successive** integrals.

Volume integrals are of the form:

$$\int \int \int_V dV$$

and are called **triple integrals**.

Evaluated in the same way as **double integrals** — we start by evaluating the **inner** integral and work **outwards**.

The main difficulty — to determine the correct **limits** for the integration — make a **sketch** of the region.

The differential dV is

- $dV = dx dy dz$ for Cartesian coordinates
- $dV = \rho d\rho d\phi dz$ for Cylindrical coordinates
- $dV = r^2 \sin \theta dr d\phi d\theta$ for Spherical coordinates

In the Cartesian case, if the integrals are evaluated in the order x, y, z then the limits on the y integral may depend on z but not on x with similar restrictions for cylindrical and spherical coordinates.

Volume Integrals I

Example: A cube $0 \leq x, y, z \leq 1$ m has a variable density given by $\rho = 1 + x + y + z$ kg/m³, what is the total mass of the cube

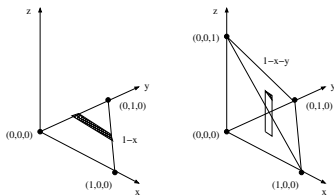
Solution: The total mass is given by

$$\begin{aligned} M &= \int \int \int_V \rho \, dV = \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \int_0^1 (1 + x + y + z) \, dx \, dy \, dz = \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \left[x + \frac{x^2}{2} + xy + xz \right]_0^1 \, dy \, dz \\ &= \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \left(\frac{3}{2} + y + z \right) \, dy \, dz = \\ &= \int_0^1 \left[\frac{3y}{2} + \frac{y^2}{2} + yz \right]_0^1 \, dz \\ &= \int_0^1 (2 + z) \, dz = \left[2z + \frac{z^2}{2} \right]_0^1 = \frac{5}{2} \text{ kg} \end{aligned}$$

Volume Integrals

Example: A tetrahedron with vertices $(0, 0, 0)$, $(1, 0, 0)$, $(0, 1, 0)$ and $(0, 0, 1)$ (m) in Cartesian coordinates has density $\rho = 10x \text{ kg/m}^3$, what is its total mass?

Solution: Consider the sketches



For the triangular base, we integrate x from 0 to $1 - y$ and y from 0 to 1 . For z we integrate from 0 to $1 - x - y$.

This is since the plane containing the points $(1, 0, 0)$, $(0, 1, 0)$ and $(0, 0, 1)$ is

$$\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{c} \quad \mathbf{n} = \mathbf{a} \times \mathbf{b}$$

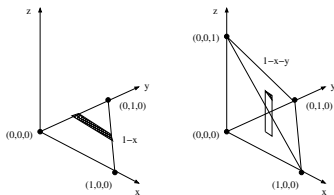
and $\mathbf{a} = -1\mathbf{e}_1 + 1\mathbf{e}_3$ and $\mathbf{b} = -1\mathbf{e}_2 + 1\mathbf{e}_3$ are two vectors in the plane and $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{e}_3$ a vector pointing to a point in the plane. Thus $\mathbf{n} = \mathbf{e}_1 + \mathbf{e}_2 + \mathbf{e}_3$ and

$$\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{w} = x + y + z = 1 \quad z = 1 - x - y$$

Volume Integrals

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$$\mathbf{n} \cdot \mathbf{w} = x + y + z = 1 \quad z = 1 - x - y$$

Volume Integrals

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\text{mass} &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{1-y} \int_0^{1-x-y} \rho dz dx dy = 10 \int_0^1 \left(\int_0^{1-y} x \left(\int_0^{1-x-y} dz \right) dx \right) dy \\ &= 10 \int_0^1 \left(\int_0^{1-y} x [z]_0^{1-x-y} dx \right) dy = 10 \int_0^1 \left(\left[x - \frac{x^2}{2} - yx \right]_0^{1-y} \right) dy \\ &= 10 \int_0^1 \frac{(1-y)^2}{2} dy = 10 \left[-\frac{(1-y)^3}{6} \right]_0^1 = \frac{10}{6} \text{ kg}\end{aligned}$$

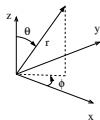
Volume Integrals

Example: Evaluate the integral $\int_H z dV$ where H is the upper half of the sphere

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1.$$

Solution:

This is best done in spherical coordinates.



The transformations from spherical to Cartesian are

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi \quad y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi \quad z = r \cos \theta$$

and $dV = r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi$. For the upper half of the sphere $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1$

$$0 \leq r \leq 1 \quad 0 \leq \phi \leq 2\pi \quad 0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

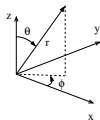
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Volume Integrals

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}\int_H z dV &= \int_0^1 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} (4r \cos \theta)(r^2 \sin \theta) d\theta d\phi dr = 4 \int_0^1 r^3 \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi dr \\ &= 4 \int_0^1 r^3 \int_0^{2\pi} \left[\frac{\sin^2 \theta}{2} \right]_0^{\pi/2} d\phi dr = 2 \int_0^1 r^3 [\phi]_0^{2\pi} = 4\pi \left[\frac{r^4}{4} \right]_0^1 = \pi\end{aligned}$$