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18.02 Multivariable Calculus  
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## CV. Changing Variables in Multiple Integrals

### 1. Changing variables.

Double integrals in  $x, y$  coordinates which are taken over circular regions, or have integrands involving the combination  $x^2 + y^2$ , are often better done in polar coordinates:

$$(1) \quad \iint_R f(x, y) dA = \iint_R g(r, \theta) r dr d\theta .$$

This involves introducing the new variables  $r$  and  $\theta$ , together with the equations relating them to  $x, y$  in both the forward and backward directions:

$$(2) \quad r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}, \quad \theta = \tan^{-1}(y/x); \quad x = r \cos \theta, \quad y = r \sin \theta .$$

Changing the integral to polar coordinates then requires three steps:

- A. Changing the integrand  $f(x, y)$  to  $g(r, \theta)$ , by using (2);
- B. Supplying the area element in the  $r, \theta$  system:  $dA = r dr d\theta$  ;
- C. Using the region  $R$  to determine the limits of integration in the  $r, \theta$  system.

In the same way, double integrals involving other types of regions or integrands can sometimes be simplified by changing the coordinate system from  $x, y$  to one better adapted to the region or integrand. Let's call the new coordinates  $u$  and  $v$ ; then there will be equations introducing the new coordinates, going in both directions:

$$(3) \quad u = u(x, y), \quad v = v(x, y); \quad x = x(u, v), \quad y = y(u, v)$$

(often one will only get or use the equations in one of these directions). To change the integral to  $u, v$ -coordinates, we then have to carry out the three steps **A, B, C** above. A first step is to picture the new coordinate system; for this we use the same idea as for polar coordinates, namely, we consider the grid formed by the level curves of the new coordinate functions:

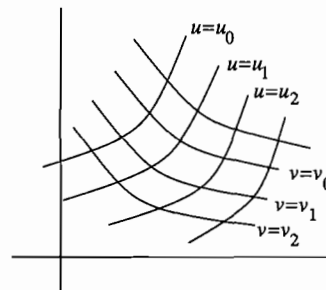
$$(4) \quad u(x, y) = u_0, \quad v(x, y) = v_0 .$$

Once we have this, algebraic and geometric intuition will usually handle steps **A** and **C**, but for **B** we will need a formula: it uses a determinant called the **Jacobian**, whose notation and definition are

$$(5) \quad \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = \begin{vmatrix} x_u & x_v \\ y_u & y_v \end{vmatrix} .$$

Using it, the formula for the area element in the  $u, v$ -system is

$$(6) \quad dA = \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du dv ,$$



so the change of variable formula is

$$(7) \quad \iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \iint_R g(u, v) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| \, du \, dv ,$$

where  $g(u, v)$  is obtained from  $f(x, y)$  by substitution, using the equations (3).

We will derive the formula (5) for the new area element in the next section; for now let's check that it works for polar coordinates.

**Example 1.** Verify (1) using the general formulas (5) and (6).

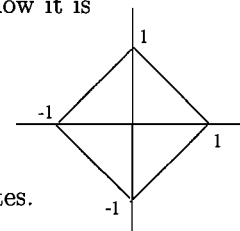
**Solution.** Using (2), we calculate:

$$\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(r, \theta)} = \begin{vmatrix} x_r & x_\theta \\ y_r & y_\theta \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = r(\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta) = r ,$$

so that  $dA = r \, dr \, d\theta$ , according to (5) and (6); note that we can omit the absolute value, since by convention, in integration problems we always assume  $r \geq 0$ , as is implied already by the equations (2).

We now work an example illustrating why the general formula is needed and how it is used; it illustrates step **C** also — putting in the new limits of integration.

**Example 2.** Evaluate  $\iint_R \left( \frac{x-y}{x+y+2} \right)^2 \, dx \, dy$  over the region  $R$  pictured.



**Solution.** This would be a painful integral to work out in rectangular coordinates. But the region is bounded by the lines

$$(8) \quad x + y = \pm 1, \quad x - y = \pm 1$$

and the integrand also contains the combinations  $x - y$  and  $x + y$ . These powerfully suggest that the integral will be simplified by the change of variable (we give it also in the inverse direction, by solving the first pair of equations for  $x$  and  $y$ ):

$$(9) \quad u = x + y, \quad v = x - y; \quad x = \frac{u+v}{2}, \quad y = \frac{u-v}{2} .$$

We will also need the new area element; using (5) and (9) above. we get

$$(10) \quad \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = \begin{vmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & -1/2 \end{vmatrix} = -\frac{1}{2} ;$$

note that it is the second pair of equations in (9) that were used, not the ones introducing  $u$  and  $v$ . Thus the new area element is (this time we do need the absolute value sign in (6))

$$(11) \quad dA = \frac{1}{2} \, du \, dv .$$

We now combine steps **A** and **B** to get the new double integral; substituting into the integrand by using the first pair of equations in (9), we get

$$(12) \quad \iint_R \left( \frac{x-y}{x+y+2} \right)^2 \, dx \, dy = \iint_R \left( \frac{v}{u+2} \right)^2 \frac{1}{2} \, du \, dv .$$

In  $uv$ -coordinates, the boundaries (8) of the region are simply  $u = \pm 1$ ,  $v = \pm 1$ , so the integral (12) becomes

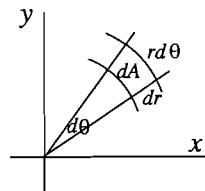
$$\iint_R \left( \frac{v}{u+2} \right)^2 \frac{1}{2} du dv = \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-1}^1 \left( \frac{v}{u+2} \right)^2 \frac{1}{2} du dv$$

We have

$$\text{inner integral} = -\frac{v^2}{2(u+2)} \Big|_{u=-1}^{u=1} = \frac{v^2}{3}; \quad \text{outer integral} = \frac{v^3}{9} \Big|_{-1}^1 = \frac{2}{9}.$$

## 2. The area element.

In polar coordinates, we found the formula  $dA = r dr d\theta$  for the area element by drawing the grid curves  $r = r_0$  and  $\theta = \theta_0$  for the  $r, \theta$ -system, and determining (see the picture) the infinitesimal area of one of the little elements of the grid.



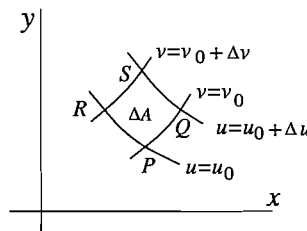
For general  $u, v$ -coordinates, we do the same thing. The grid curves (4) divide up the plane into small regions  $\Delta A$  bounded by these contour curves. If the contour curves are close together, they will be approximately parallel, so that the grid element will be approximately a small parallelogram, and

$$(13) \quad \Delta A \approx \text{area of parallelogram PQRS} = |PQ \times PR|$$

In the  $uv$ -system, the points  $P, Q, R$  have the coordinates

$$P : (u_0, v_0), \quad Q : (u_0 + \Delta u, v_0), \quad R : (u_0, v_0 + \Delta v);$$

to use the cross-product however in (13), we need  $PQ$  and  $PR$  in  $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}$ -coordinates. Consider  $PQ$  first; we have



$$(14) \quad PQ = \Delta x \mathbf{i} + \Delta y \mathbf{j},$$

where  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$  are the changes in  $x$  and  $y$  as you hold  $v = v_0$  and change  $u_0$  to  $u_0 + \Delta u$ . According to the definition of partial derivative,

$$\Delta x \approx \left( \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \right)_0 \Delta u, \quad \Delta y \approx \left( \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \right)_0 \Delta u;$$

so that by (14),

$$(15) \quad PQ \approx \left( \frac{\partial x}{\partial u} \right)_0 \Delta u \mathbf{i} + \left( \frac{\partial y}{\partial u} \right)_0 \Delta u \mathbf{j}.$$

In the same way, since in moving from  $P$  to  $R$  we hold  $u$  fixed and increase  $v_0$  by  $\Delta v$ ,

$$(16) \quad PR \approx \left( \frac{\partial x}{\partial v} \right)_0 \Delta v \mathbf{i} + \left( \frac{\partial y}{\partial v} \right)_0 \Delta v \mathbf{j}.$$

We now use (13); since the vectors are in the  $xy$ -plane,  $PQ \times PR$  has only a  $\mathbf{k}$ -component, and we calculate from (15) and (16) that

$$(17) \quad \begin{aligned} \mathbf{k}\text{-component of } PQ \times PR &\approx \begin{vmatrix} x_u \Delta u & y_u \Delta u \\ x_v \Delta v & y_v \Delta v \end{vmatrix}_0 \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} x_u & x_v \\ y_u & y_v \end{vmatrix}_0 \Delta u \Delta v, \end{aligned}$$

where we have first taken the transpose of the determinant (which doesn't change its value), and then factored the  $\Delta u$  and  $\Delta v$  out of the two columns. Finally, taking the absolute value, we get from (13) and (17), and the definition (5) of Jacobian,

$$\Delta A \approx \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right|_0 \Delta u \Delta v ;$$

passing to the limit as  $\Delta u, \Delta v \rightarrow 0$  and dropping the subscript 0 (so that P becomes any point in the plane), we get the desired formula for the area element,

$$dA = \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du dv .$$

### 3. Examples and comments; putting in limits.

If we write the change of variable formula as

$$(18) \quad \iint_R f(x, y) dx dy = \iint_R g(u, v) \left| \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \right| du dv ,$$

where

$$(19) \quad \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = \begin{vmatrix} x_u & x_v \\ y_u & y_v \end{vmatrix} , \quad g(u, v) = f(x(u, v), y(u, v)) ,$$

it looks as if the essential equations we need are the inverse equations:

$$(20) \quad x = x(u, v), \quad y = y(u, v)$$

rather than the direct equations we are usually given:

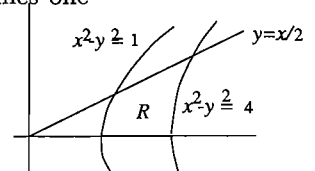
$$(21) \quad u = u(x, y), \quad v = v(x, y) .$$

If it is awkward to get (20) by solving (21) simultaneously for  $x$  and  $y$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ , sometimes one can avoid having to do this by using the following relation (whose proof is an application of the chain rule, and left for the Exercises):

$$(22) \quad \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} \frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(x, y)} = 1$$

The right-hand Jacobian is easy to calculate if you know  $u(x, y)$  and  $v(x, y)$ ; then the left-hand one — the one needed in (19) — will be its reciprocal. Unfortunately, it will be in terms of  $x$  and  $y$  instead of  $u$  and  $v$ , so (20) still ought to be needed, but sometimes one gets lucky. The next example illustrates.

**Example 3.** Evaluate  $\iint_R \frac{y}{x} dx dy$ , where  $R$  is the region pictured, having as boundaries the curves  $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ ,  $x^2 - y^2 = 4$ ,  $y = 0$ ,  $y = x/2$ .



**Solution.** Since the boundaries of the region are contour curves of  $x^2 - y^2$  and  $y/x$ , and the integrand is  $y/x$ , this suggests making the change of variable

$$(23) \quad u = x^2 - y^2, \quad v = \frac{y}{x} .$$

We will try to get through without solving these backwards for  $x, y$  in terms of  $u, v$ . Since changing the integrand to the  $u, v$  variables will give no trouble, the question is whether we can get the Jacobian in terms of  $u$  and  $v$  easily. It all works out, using (22):

$$\frac{\partial(u, v)}{\partial(x, y)} = \begin{vmatrix} 2x & -2y \\ -y/x^2 & 1/x \end{vmatrix} = 2 - 2y^2/x^2 = 2 - 2v^2; \quad \text{so} \quad \frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = \frac{1}{2(1-v^2)},$$

according to (22). We use now (18), put in the limits, and evaluate; note that the answer is positive, as it should be, since the integrand is positive.

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R \frac{y}{x} dx dy &= \iint_R \frac{v}{2(1-v^2)} du dv \\ &= \int_0^{1/2} \int_1^4 \frac{v}{2(1-v^2)} du dv \\ &= -\frac{3}{4} \ln(1-v^2) \Big|_0^{1/2} = -\frac{3}{4} \ln \frac{3}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

### Putting in the limits

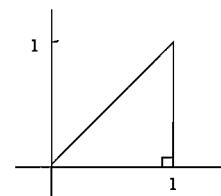
In the examples worked out so far, we had no trouble finding the limits of integration, since the region  $R$  was bounded by contour curves of  $u$  and  $v$ , which meant that the limits were constants.

If the region is not bounded by contour curves, maybe you should use a different change of variables, but if this isn't possible, you'll have to figure out the  $uv$ -equations of the boundary curves. The two examples below illustrate.

**Example 4.** Let  $u = x + y$ ,  $v = x - y$ ; change  $\int_0^1 \int_0^x dy dx$  to an iterated integral  $du dv$ .

**Solution.** Using (19) and (22), we calculate  $\frac{\partial(x, y)}{\partial(u, v)} = -1/2$ , so the Jacobian factor in the area element will be  $1/2$ .

To put in the new limits, we sketch the region of integration, as shown at the right. The diagonal boundary is the contour curve  $v = 0$ ; the horizontal and vertical boundaries are not contour curves — what are their  $uv$ -equations? There are two ways to answer this; the first is more widely applicable, but requires a separate calculation for each boundary curve.



**Method 1** Eliminate  $x$  and  $y$  from the three simultaneous equations  $u = u(x, y)$ ,  $v = v(x, y)$ , and the  $xy$ -equation of the boundary curve. For the  $x$ -axis and  $x = 1$ , this gives

$$\begin{cases} u = x + y \\ v = x - y \\ y = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow u = v; \quad \begin{cases} u = x + y \\ v = x - y \\ x = 1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} u = 1 + y \\ v = 1 - y \end{cases} \Rightarrow u + v = 2.$$

**Method 2** Solve for  $x$  and  $y$  in terms of  $u, v$ ; then substitute  $x = x(u, v)$ ,  $y = y(u, v)$  into the  $xy$ -equation of the curve.

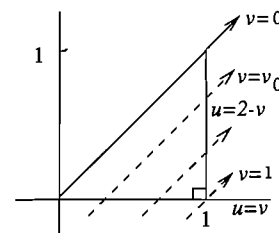
Using this method, we get  $x = \frac{1}{2}(u+v)$ ,  $y = \frac{1}{2}(u-v)$ ; substituting into the  $xy$ -equations:

$$y = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}(u - v) = 0 \Rightarrow u = v; \quad x = 1 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}(u + v) = 1 \Rightarrow u + v = 2.$$

To supply the limits for the integration order  $\iint du dv$ , we

1. first hold  $v$  fixed, let  $u$  increase; this gives us the dashed lines shown;
2. integrate with respect to  $u$  from the  $u$ -value where a dashed line enters  $R$  (namely,  $u = v$ ), to the  $u$ -value where it leaves (namely,  $u = 2 - v$ ).
3. integrate with respect to  $v$  from the lowest  $v$ -values for which the dashed lines intersect the region  $R$  (namely,  $v = 0$ ), to the highest such  $v$ -value (namely,  $v = 1$ ).

Therefore the integral is  $\int_0^1 \int_v^{2-v} \frac{1}{2} du dv$ .



(As a check, evaluate it, and confirm that its value is the area of  $R$ . Then try setting up the iterated integral in the order  $dv du$ ; you'll have to break it into two parts.)

**Example 5.** Using the change of coordinates  $u = x^2 - y^2$ ,  $v = y/x$  of Example 3, supply limits and integrand for  $\iint_R \frac{dx dy}{x^2}$ , where  $R$  is the infinite region in the first quadrant under  $y = 1/x$  and to the right of  $x^2 - y^2 = 1$ .

**Solution.** We have to change the integrand, supply the Jacobian factor, and put in the right limits.

To change the integrand, we want to express  $x^2$  in terms of  $u$  and  $v$ ; this suggests eliminating  $y$  from the  $u, v$  equations; we get

$$u = x^2 - y^2, \quad y = vx \quad \Rightarrow \quad u = x^2 - v^2 x^2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad x^2 = \frac{u}{1 - v^2}.$$

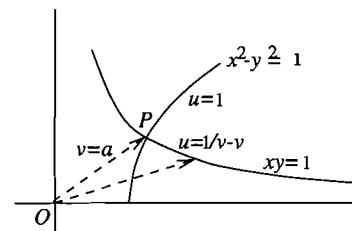
From Example 3, we know that the Jacobian factor is  $\frac{1}{2(1-v^2)}$ ; since in the region  $R$  we have by inspection  $0 \leq v < 1$ , the Jacobian factor is always positive and we don't need the absolute value sign. So by (18) our integral becomes

$$\iint_R \frac{dx dy}{x^2} = \iint_R \frac{1 - v^2}{2u(1 - v^2)} du dv = \iint_R \frac{du dv}{2u}$$

Finally, we have to put in the limits. The  $x$ -axis and the left-hand boundary curve  $x^2 - y^2 = 1$  are respectively the contour curves  $v = 0$  and  $u = 1$ ; our problem is the upper boundary curve  $xy = 1$ . To change this to  $u - v$  coordinates, we follow Method 1:

$$\begin{cases} u = x^2 - y^2 \\ y = vx \\ xy = 1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} u = x^2 - 1/x^2 \\ v = 1/x^2 \end{cases} \Rightarrow u = \frac{1}{v} - v.$$

The form of this upper limit suggests that we should integrate first with respect to  $u$ . Therefore we hold  $v$  fixed, and let  $u$  increase; this gives the dashed ray shown in the picture; we integrate from where it enters  $R$  at  $u = 1$  to where it leaves, at  $u = \frac{1}{v} - v$ .



The rays we use are those intersecting  $R$ : they start from the lowest ray, corresponding to  $v = 0$ , and go to the ray  $v = a$ , where  $a$  is the slope of  $OP$ . Thus our integral is

$$\int_0^a \int_1^{1/v-v} \frac{du dv}{2u}.$$

To complete the work, we should determine  $a$  explicitly. This can be done by solving  $xy = 1$  and  $x^2 - y^2 = 1$  simultaneously to find the coordinates of  $P$ . A more elegant approach is to add  $y = ax$  (representing the line  $OP$ ) to the list of equations, and solve all three simultaneously for the slope  $a$ . We substitute  $y = ax$  into the other two equations, and get

$$\begin{cases} ax^2 = 1 \\ x^2(1 - a^2) = 1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow a = 1 - a^2 \Rightarrow a = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{5}}{2},$$

by the quadratic formula.

#### 4. Changing coordinates in triple integrals

Here the coordinate change will involve three functions

$$u = u(x, y, z), \quad v = v(x, y, z) \quad w = w(x, y, z)$$

but the general principles remain the same. The new coordinates  $u, v$ , and  $w$  give a three-dimensional grid, made up of the three families of contour surfaces of  $u, v$ , and  $w$ . Limits are put in by the kind of reasoning we used for double integrals. What we still need is the formula for the new volume element  $dV$ .

To get the volume of the little six-sided region  $\Delta V$  of space bounded by three pairs of these contour surfaces, we note that nearby contour surfaces are approximately parallel, so that  $\Delta V$  is approximately a parallelepiped, whose volume is (up to sign) the  $3 \times 3$  determinant whose rows are the vectors forming the three edges of  $\Delta V$  meeting at a corner. These vectors are calculated as in section 2; after passing to the limit we get

$$(24) \quad dV = \left| \frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(u, v, w)} \right| du dv dw,$$

where the key factor is the **Jacobian**

$$(25) \quad \frac{\partial(x, y, z)}{\partial(u, v, w)} = \begin{vmatrix} x_u & x_v & x_w \\ y_u & y_v & y_w \\ z_u & z_v & z_w \end{vmatrix}.$$

As an example, you can verify that this gives the correct volume element for the change from rectangular to spherical coordinates:

$$(26) \quad x = \rho \sin \phi \cos \theta, \quad y = \rho \sin \phi \sin \theta, \quad z = \rho \cos \phi;$$

while this is a good exercise, it will make you realize why most people prefer to derive the volume element in spherical coordinates by geometric reasoning.

#### Exercises: Section 3D