

Double Integrals over Rectangular Regions

Ryan C. Daileda



Trinity University

Calculus III

Introduction

Today we will begin our study of integration in multiple variables.

As we will see, there are a number of different multivariate integrals, depending on the type of object being integrated.

Specifically, we will (eventually) study: double integrals, triple integrals, line integrals, and surface integrals.

To motivate our constructions, we will begin by reviewing how the integral of a single variable is defined.

Single Variable Integrals

Recall. Given a function $f(x)$ on a closed interval $[a, b]$, the integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is defined as the limit of Riemann sums.

Specifically, we first subdivide $[a, b]$ into n subintervals:

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_{i-1} < x_i < \cdots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b.$$

We then form the *Riemann sum* $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i$, where:

x_i^* = sample point in the subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$,

$\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ is the length of $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$.

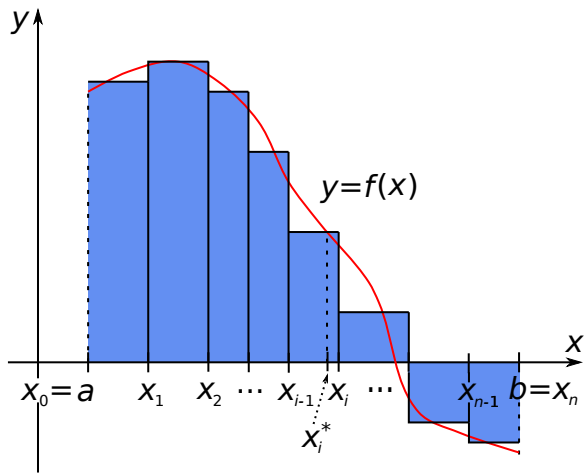
Finally, we take the limit as the size of the subdivisions tends to zero:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i,$$

where $\Delta x = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \Delta x_i$ is the maximum size of the subdivisions.

We say that f is *integrable* provided this limit exists (and is independent of the choices made in its construction).

We can visually represent each term $f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i$ in the Riemann sum as the (signed) area of a rectangle that approximately sits between the graph $y = f(x)$ and the x -axis.



The total Riemann sum therefore represents the approximate (signed) area between $y = f(x)$ and the x -axis.

As the rectangles become smaller (i.e. $n \rightarrow \infty$), the approximation becomes better and better, and we arrive at the interpretation

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = (\text{Area below } y = f(x) \text{ and above the } x\text{-axis}) \\ - (\text{Area above } y = f(x) \text{ and below the } x\text{-axis})$$

Double Integrals

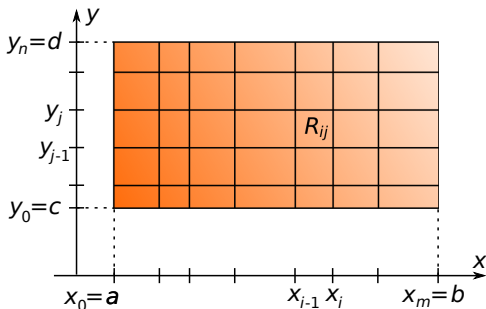
We would like to mimic the procedure above for a function $f(x, y)$ with domain $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$.

For simplicity, we begin by assuming that $D = R$ is a rectangle with its sides parallel to the coordinate axes:

$$R = [a, b] \times [c, d].$$

We subdivide R into smaller rectangles by simultaneously subdividing the intervals $[a, b]$ and $[c, d]$:

$$\begin{aligned} a &= x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_{i-1} < x_i < \cdots < x_{m-1} < x_m = b, \\ c &= y_0 < y_1 < y_2 < \cdots < y_{j-1} < y_j < \cdots < y_{n-1} < y_n = d. \end{aligned}$$



We let R_{ij} denote the subrectangle in the (i, j) position. Notice that:

- There are mn total subrectangles R_{ij} .
- The area of R_{ij} is $\Delta A_{ij} = \Delta x_i \Delta y_j = (x_i - x_{i-1})(y_j - y_{j-1})$.

Choosing a sample point (x_i^*, y_j^*) in each R_{ij} , we build the *Riemann sum*

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_i^*, y_j^*) \Delta A_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_i^*, y_j^*) \Delta x_i \Delta y_j.$$

Finally, we let the sizes of the subdivisions tend to zero and define

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \lim_{\Delta x, \Delta y \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_i^*, y_j^*) \Delta A_{ij},$$

where $\Delta x = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \Delta x_i$ and $\Delta y = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \Delta y_j$.

We say that f is *integrable* provided this limit exists (and is independent of our choices).

Interpreting Double Integrals

The values $f(x_i^*, y_j^*)$ represent heights on the graph $z = f(x, y)$ above the sample points (x_i^*, y_j^*) .

The terms $f(x_i^*, y_j^*)\Delta A_{ij}$ of the Riemann sum therefore represent the (signed) *volumes* of rectangular prisms inserted between $z = f(x, y)$ and the xy -plane.

The total Riemann sum therefore represents the approximate (signed) volume between $z = f(x, y)$ and the xy -plane.

See Maple diagram.

It follows that the double integral is a “signed” volume:

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = (\text{Volume below } z = f(x, y) \text{ and above } R) \\ - (\text{Volume above } z = f(x, y) \text{ and below } R).$$

We can use this interpretation to help us compute the values of double integrals.

Example 1

If $f(x, y) = k$ (constant), evaluate $\iint_R f dA$.

Solution. The graph of $z = k$ is a horizontal plane (parallel to the xy -plane).

The region between the graph and R is therefore a rectangular solid.

Thus

$$\iint_R k \, dA = \text{height} \times \text{area of } R = \boxed{k \cdot \text{Area}(R)}.$$



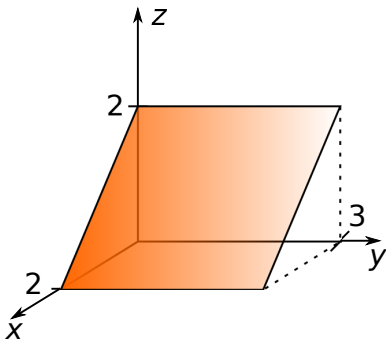
Remark. Compare this to the single variable result

$$\int_a^b k \, dx = k(b - a) = k \cdot \text{Length}([a, b]).$$

Example 2

Compute $\iint_R 2 - x \, dA$, where $R = [0, 2] \times [0, 3]$.

Solution. The graph $z = 2 - x$ is a plane parallel to the y -axis:



The integral therefore represents the volume of a triangular prism:

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R 2 - x \, dA &= \text{area of triangular face} \times \text{width} \\ &= \left(\frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 \cdot 2\right) \cdot 3 = \boxed{6}.\end{aligned}$$



Example 3

Compute $\iint_R 2 - x^2 - y^2 \, dA$, where $R = [-1, 1] \times [-1, 1]$.

Solution. The graph $z = 2 - x^2 - y^2$ is a downward opening paraboloid.

The integral therefore represents the volume of a parabolic “tent.”

See Maple diagram.

To compute the volume we appeal to *Cavalieri's Principle*, which asserts that volume is the integral of cross-sectional area.

The area of a cross section of the tent perpendicular to the y -axis is given by

$$\begin{aligned} A(y) &= \int_{-1}^1 2 - x^2 - y^2 \, dx = 2x - \frac{x^3}{3} - xy^2 \Big|_{x=-1}^{x=1} \\ &= \left(2 - \frac{1}{3} - y^2\right) - \left(-2 + \frac{1}{3} + y^2\right) = \frac{10}{3} - 2y^2. \end{aligned}$$

The value of the double integral is therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R 2 - x^2 - y^2 \, dA &= \int_{-1}^1 A(y) \, dy = \int_{-1}^1 \left(\frac{10}{3} - 2y^2 \right) dy \\ &= \left. \frac{10}{3}y - \frac{2}{3}y^3 \right|_{-1}^1 = \left(\frac{10}{3} - \frac{2}{3} \right) - \left(-\frac{10}{3} + \frac{2}{3} \right) = \boxed{\frac{16}{3}}.\end{aligned}$$

□

Remark. Notice that if we had simply substituted in the integral expression for $A(y)$, we would have had

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R 2 - x^2 - y^2 \, dA &= \int_{-1}^1 A(y) \, dy = \int_{-1}^1 \left(\int_{-1}^1 2 - x^2 - y^2 \, dy \right) dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 \int_{-1}^1 2 - x^2 - y^2 \, dy \, dx.\end{aligned}$$

Iterated Integrals and Fubini's Theorem

Such an expression is called an *iterated integral*. The following result tells us that double integrals can *always* be expressed as iterated integrals.

Theorem 1 (Fubini)

If $f(x, y)$ is integrable on $R = [a, b] \times [c, d]$, then

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

Remarks.

- Iterated integrals are always evaluated *inside to outside*.
- Notice that Fubini's theorem tells us that the order of integration *doesn't matter*.

Examples

Remark. Before proceeding to our examples, we note that all continuous functions are necessarily integrable, so that Fubini's theorem automatically applies to their integrals.

Example 4

If $R = [0, \pi/2] \times [0, \pi]$, evaluate $\iint_R \sin(x + 2y) dA$.

Solution. By Fubini's theorem we have

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_R \sin(x + 2y) dA &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^{\pi} \sin(x + 2y) dy dx \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \left. \frac{-\cos(x + 2y)}{2} \right|_{y=0}^{y=\pi} dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\cos x}{2} - \frac{\cos(x + 2\pi)}{2} dx \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\cos x}{2} - \frac{\cos x}{2} dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} 0 dx = \boxed{0}. \end{aligned}$$



Example 5

If $R = [-1, 2] \times [1, 3]$, evaluate $\iint_R x^2y + x + y dA$.

Solution. By Fubini's theorem we have

$$\iint_R x^2y + x + y dA = \int_{-1}^2 \int_1^3 x^2y + x + y dy dx$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-1}^2 \int_1^3 x^2 y + x + y \, dy \, dx &= \int_{-1}^2 \left. \frac{x^2 y^2}{2} + xy + \frac{y^2}{2} \right|_{y=1}^{y=3} dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^2 \left(\frac{9x^2}{2} + 3x + \frac{9}{2} \right) - \left(\frac{x^2}{2} + x + \frac{1}{2} \right) dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^2 4x^2 + 2x + 4 \, dx = \left. \frac{4x^3}{3} + x^2 + 4x \right|_{-1}^2 \\ &= \left(\frac{32}{3} + 4 + 8 \right) - \left(-\frac{4}{3} + 1 - 4 \right) = \boxed{27}.\end{aligned}$$

□

A function $f(x, y)$ is called *separable* if $f(x, y) = g(x)h(y)$. Notice that in this case

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b \int_c^d f(x, y) dy dx &= \int_a^b \left(\int_c^d g(x)h(y) dy \right) dx \\ &= \int_a^b g(x) \left(\int_c^d h(y) dy \right) dx \\ &= \left(\int_c^d h(y) dy \right) \left(\int_a^b g(x) dx \right).\end{aligned}$$

That is, the double integral is simply the product of two single-variable integrals.

This can simplify some double integral computations.

Example 6

Evaluate $\iint_R x^3 e^{y^2} dA$, where $R = [-1, 1] \times [0, 2]$.

Solution. By Fubini's theorem we have

$$\begin{aligned}\iint_R x^3 e^{y^2} dA &= \int_{-1}^1 \int_0^2 x^3 e^{y^2} dy dx \\ &= \left(\int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx \right) \left(\int_0^2 e^{y^2} dy \right),\end{aligned}$$

since the integrand is separable. Because x^3 is an odd function and the interval $[-1, 1]$ is symmetric about 0,

$$\left(\int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx \right) \left(\int_0^2 e^{y^2} dy \right) = 0 \cdot \int_0^2 e^{y^2} dy = \boxed{0}.$$

Although the order of integration in an iterated integral doesn't matter in principle, in practice it can be rather important.

Example 7

Evaluate the iterated integral $\int_0^1 \int_0^2 xye^{x^2y} dy dx$.

Solution. If we proceed naïvely and simply integrate by parts in y , we find that

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^2 xye^{x^2y} dy dx = \int_0^1 \frac{(2x^2 - 1)e^{2x^2} + 1}{x^3} dx.$$

This is a rather difficult integral which can be evaluated using power series, for instance.

Because the integrand is continuous, Fubini's theorem, however, guarantees that

$$\int_0^1 \int_0^2 xye^{x^2y} dy dx = \iint_R xye^{x^2y} dA = \int_0^2 \int_0^1 xye^{x^2y} dx dy,$$

where $R = [0, 1] \times [0, 2]$.

That is, we are free to reverse the order of integration.

The simple substitution $u = x^2y$ (in x) then yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 \int_0^1 xye^{x^2y} dx dy &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 e^{x^2y} \Big|_{x=0}^{x=1} dy = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 e^y - 1 dy \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(e^y - y \Big|_0^2 \right) = \boxed{\frac{e^2 - 3}{2}}. \end{aligned}$$