

## §15.3 Polar Coordinates

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- Recall the defn of integral:

$$\iint_D f(x, y) dA = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{(x_i, y_j) \in R} f(x_i, y_j) \Delta x \Delta y$$

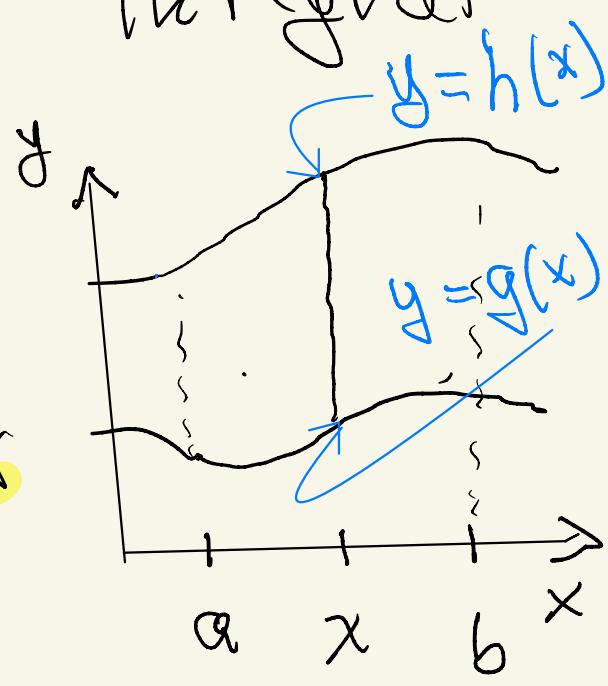
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2-D Riemann  
Sum

- To evaluate: iterate the integral

$$\iint_D f(x, y) dA =$$

$$= \int_a^b \int_{g(x)}^{h(x)} f(x, y) dy dx$$



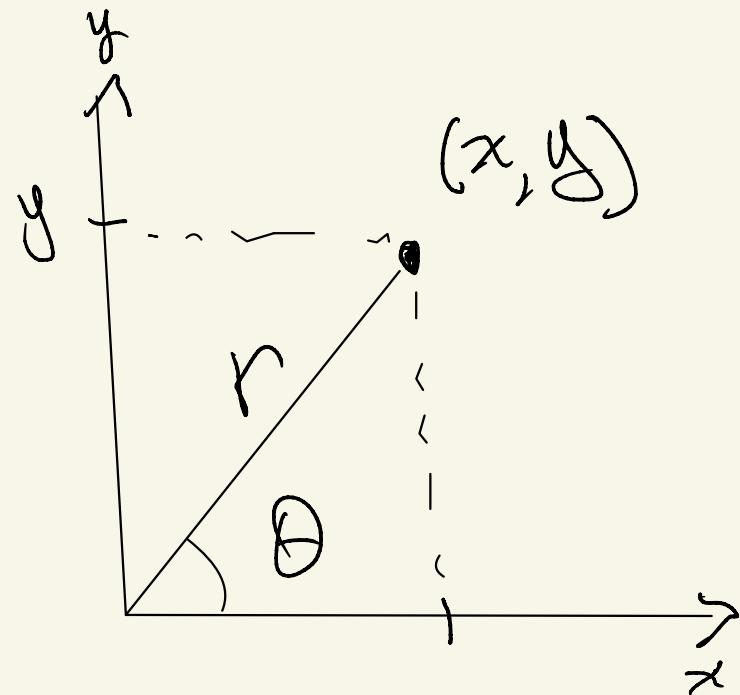
- when the function  $f$  is **radially symmetric** the integral can be evaluated more easily in **polar coordinates**
- The idea: change variables from  $(x, y) \rightarrow (r, \theta)$ , and then write the **Riemann Sum** in terms of  $r$  and  $\theta$

ie  $\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{r_i, \theta_j} \tilde{f}(r_i, \theta_j) \Delta r \Delta \theta$

$\underbrace{\Delta r}_{\text{Riemann}}$   $\underbrace{\Delta \theta}_{\text{Sum in } (r, \theta)}$

- Recall the expression for  $x$  and  $y$  in terms of  $r$  and  $\theta$ :

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



- Thus it's easy

to write  $f(x, y)$

in terms of  $r$  &  $\theta$ :

$$f(x, y) = f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) = f(r, \theta)$$

- Q: How does the area change betw  $\Delta x \Delta y$  &  $\Delta r \Delta \theta$ ?

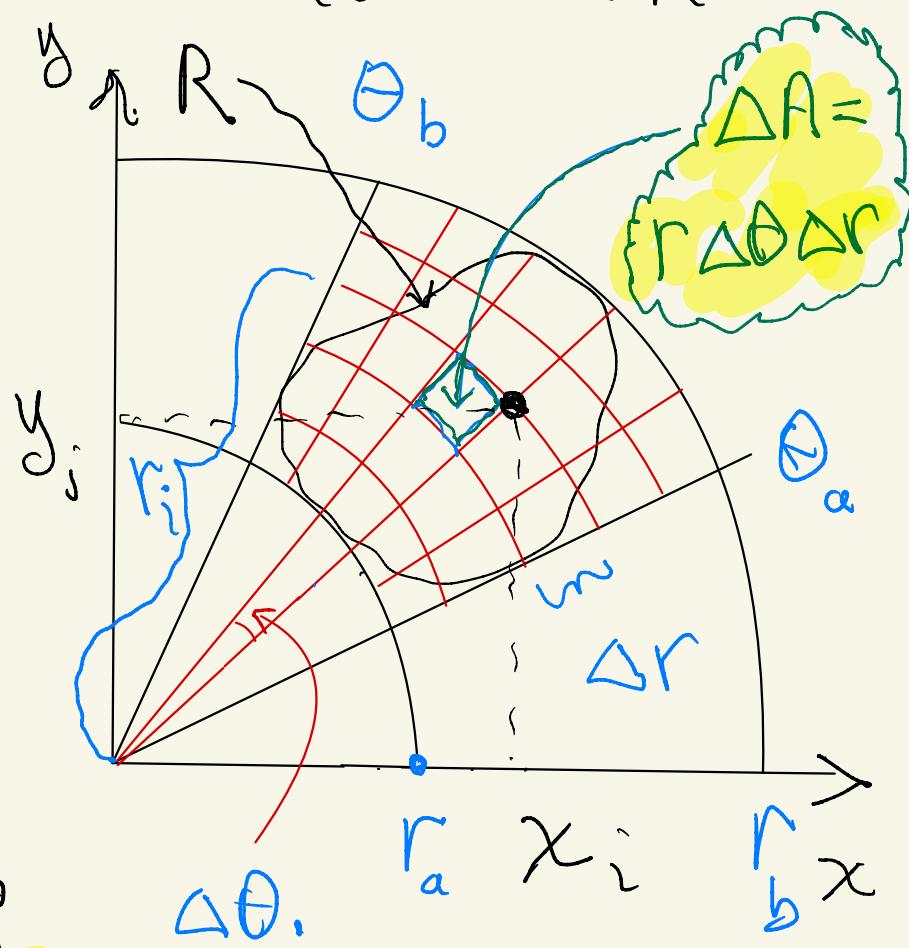
• So consider the problem of evaluating  $\iint f(x, y) dA$  in polar coordinates -

To do this

we write integral as

a Riemann

Sum in  $(r, \theta)$



$$x_i = r_i \cos \theta_j$$

$$y_j = r_i \sin \theta_j$$

Riemann SUM  
in  $r, \theta$

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{(r_i, \theta_j) \in R_{r, \theta}} f(r_i, \theta_j) \Delta r \Delta \theta$$

$$\sum_{(r_i, \theta_j) \in R_{r, \theta}} \tilde{f}(r_i, \theta_j) \Delta r \Delta \theta$$

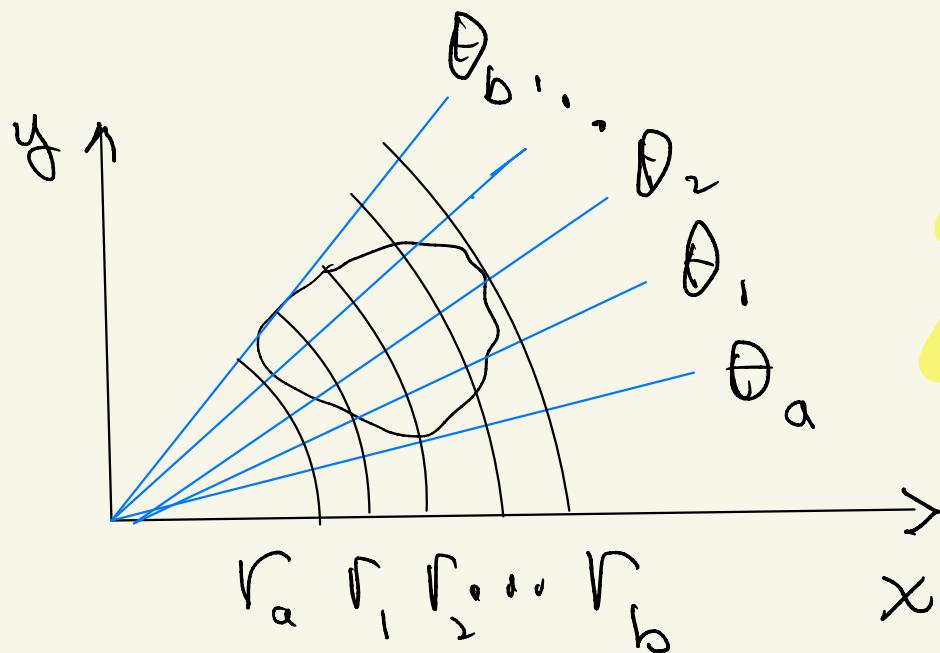
• **that is:** Draw the region  $R_{RD}$  in  $xy$ -coordinates, cover it with a grid

$$r_a = r_0 < r_1 < \dots < r_N = r_b$$

$$\theta_a = \theta_0 < \theta_1 < \dots < \theta_N = \theta_b$$

$$\Delta r = \frac{r_b - r_a}{N}, \quad r_i = r_a + i \Delta r$$

$$\Delta \theta = \frac{\theta_b - \theta_a}{N}, \quad \theta_j = \theta_a + j \Delta \theta$$



View  $R_{RD}$   
in the  
 $xy$ -plane

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- Main question: what is the amplification factor?  
I.e., how much must area  $\Delta r \Delta \theta$  in  $(r, \theta)$ -plane be multiplied to give its area in the  $(x, y)$ -plane?

That is:

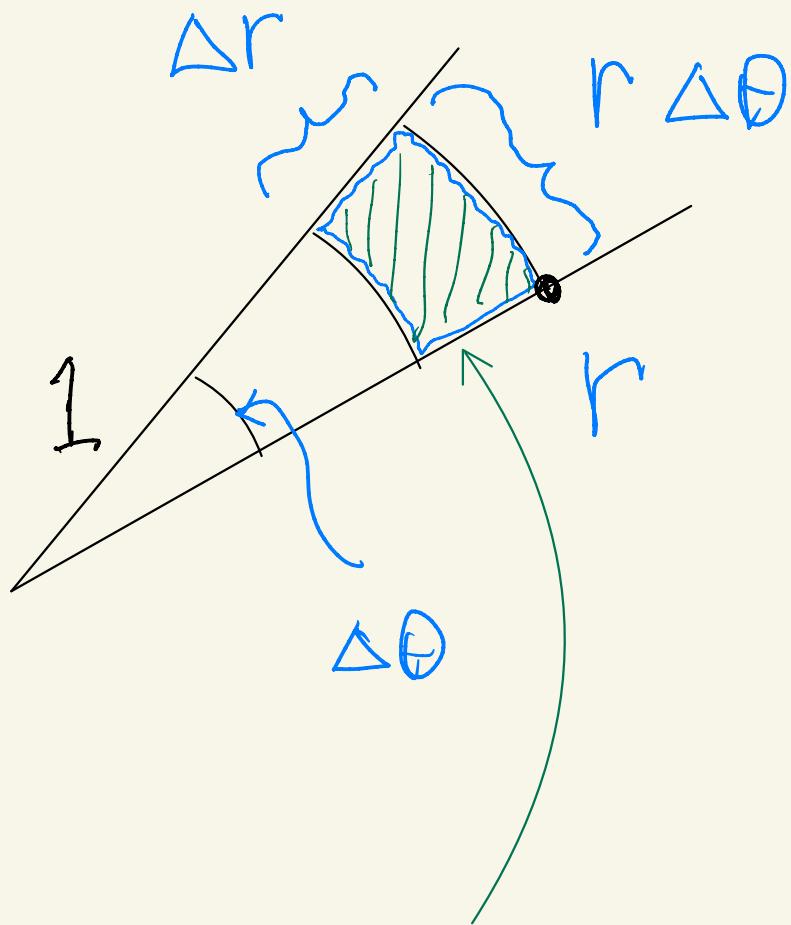
$$\Delta x \Delta y = \boxed{?} \Delta r \Delta \theta$$

↑ Amplification factor for area

Ans: We get this from the geometry

- To get amplification factor blow up the picture —

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Area in the  $(x, y)$ -plane  
is  $\Delta A = r \Delta r \Delta \theta$

Amplification factor =  $r$

## • Conclude:

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$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in R_{xy}} f(x_i, y_i) \Delta x \Delta y$$

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{(r_i, \theta_i) \in R_{r\theta}} f(r_i \cos \theta_i, r_i \sin \theta_i) r_i \Delta r \Delta \theta$$

Riemann Sum in  $(r\theta)$

$$= \iint_{R_{r\theta}} f(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta) r dr d\theta$$

requires  
amplification  
factor

• Key Take Away: We are interested in evaluating an integral in  $(x, y)$ -coordinates

We express the function and draw the region in  $(x, y)$ -coords

We write the grid in  $(r, \theta)$  & express a volume element in  $(r, \theta)$

$$\Delta V_{ij} = f(r_i \cos \theta_j, r_i \sin \theta_j) r_i \Delta r \Delta \theta$$

$$\iint_R f(x, y) dA = \sum_R \Delta V_{ij} = \iint_R f(r, \theta) r dr d\theta$$

"  $\Delta x \Delta y$  "

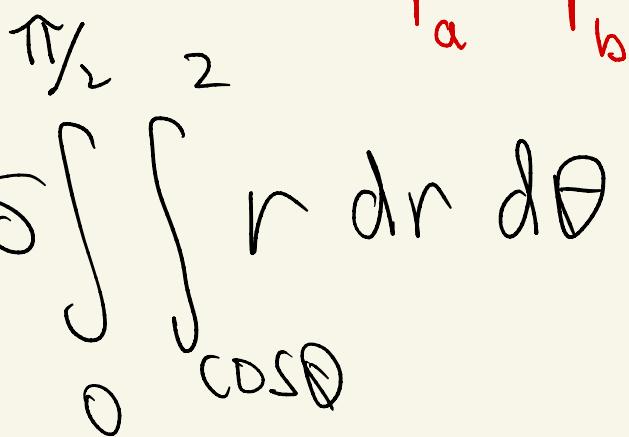
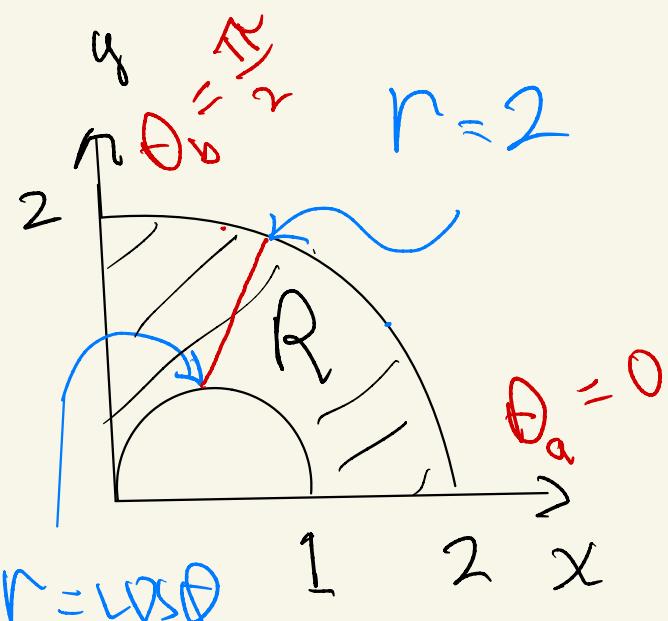
Q Example ① Find the mass ID  
 M of a metal plate of  
 constant density  $\delta(x, y) = \delta = \text{const}$   
 that lies betw  $r = 2$ ,  $r = \text{CDSD}\theta$ ,  
 $0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$

Soln: Picture

$$\text{Mass} = \iint_R \delta \, dA$$

$$= \iint_{R_{xy}} \delta \, dx \, dy$$

$$= \iint_{R_{r\theta}} r \, dr \, d\theta = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \int_{\text{CDSD}\theta}^2 r \, dr \, d\theta$$



$$\text{Mass} = \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_0^r r dr d\theta$$

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$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_{\frac{r}{2}}^r \int_{r=\cos\theta}^{r=2} dr d\theta$$

$$d\theta = \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\cos\theta}{2} d\theta$$

$$= 2 \int \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \int \int_{0}^{\pi/2} \cos^2\theta d\theta$$

$$\frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos 2\theta)$$

$$= \pi - \frac{1}{4} \int_0^{\pi/2} 1 + \cos 2\theta d\theta$$

$$= \pi - \frac{1}{4} \int_0^{\pi/2} \left( \theta + \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\theta \right) d\theta$$

$$= \pi - \frac{\pi}{8} - \frac{1}{8} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin 2\theta d\theta = \frac{\pi}{8}$$

Set up the integral in  
polar coords for radius of gyration  
about the x-axis:

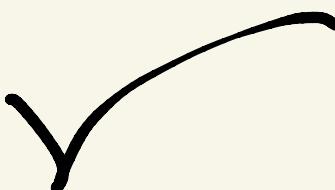
Soln: Rad Gyration =  $\sqrt{\frac{I_x}{M}}$

$$I_x = \iint_P y^2 \delta \, dA$$

$$= \iint_P (r \sin \theta)^2 \delta \, r \, dr \, d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} \int_{R \cos \theta}^{R/2} r^3 \sin^2 \theta \, dr \, d\theta$$

$$M = \frac{\pi R^2}{2}$$



## ② Important example -

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- The "bell shaped curve" of probability theory is called the Gaussian Distribution

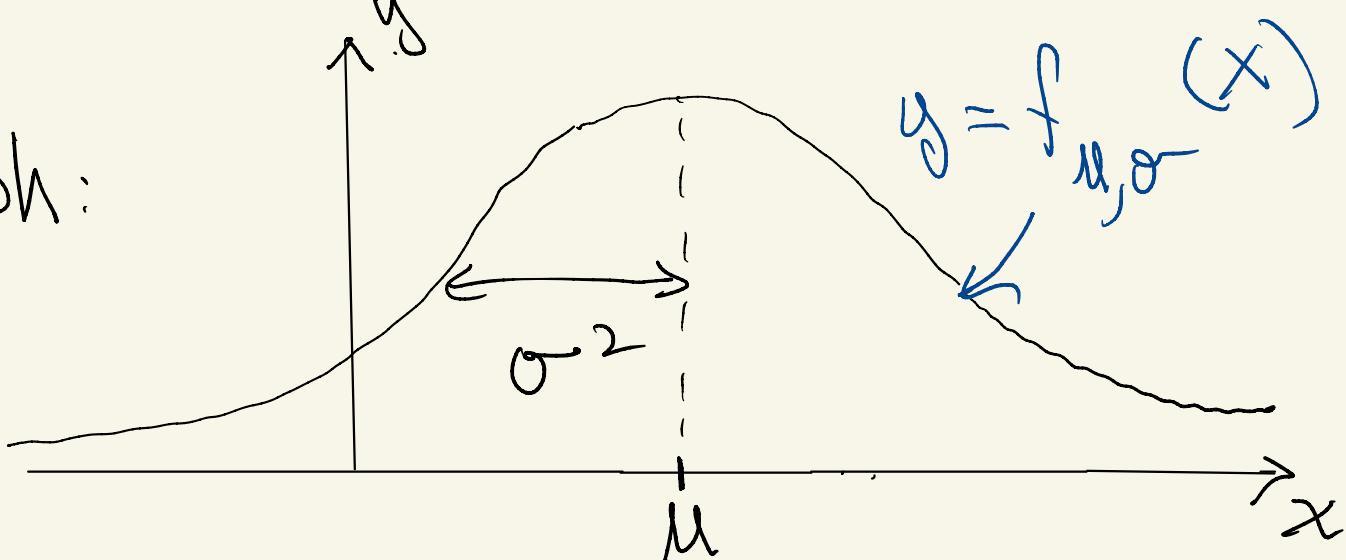
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} = f_{\mu, \sigma}(x)$$

$\mu$  = mean

$\sigma^2$  = variance

$\sigma$  = standard deviation

Graph:

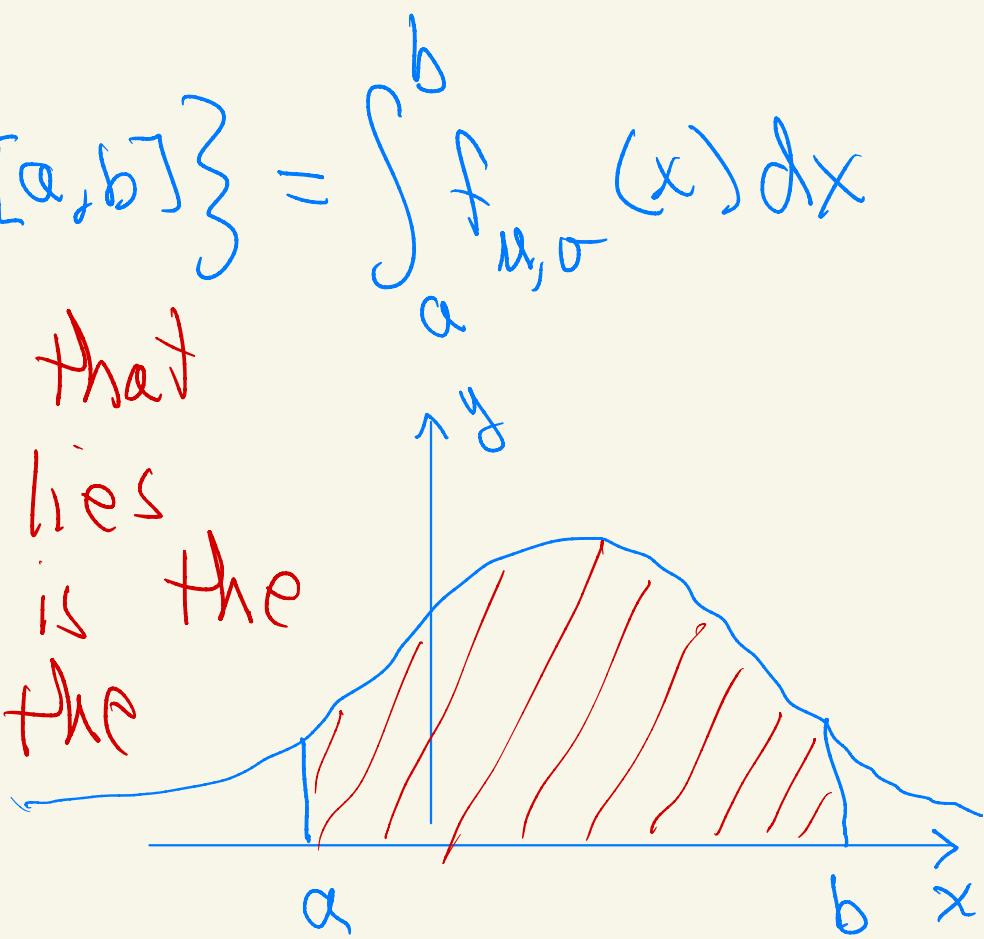


① Theorem: The average of 14  
 N outcomes of a random variable  
 (appropriately rescaled) always  
 tends to  $f_{\mu, \sigma}$  for some  $\mu, \sigma$

• Background: in the modern  
 theory of probability (Kolmogorov)

$$\text{Prob}\{x \in [\alpha, b]\} = \int_{\alpha}^b f_{\mu, \sigma}(x) dx$$

"The probability that  
 the outcome lies  
 betw  $\alpha$  &  $b$  is the  
 area under the  
 graph"



Probability is a number between zero and one -  
So for the theory to make sense, we must have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{u,v}(x) dx = 1$$

Problem: Prove this!

Soln: Simplify and evaluate in polar coordinates

# • Change Variables

$$f_{\mu, \sigma}(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma} e^{-\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2}$$

So ...

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\mu, \sigma}(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \sigma} e^{-\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx$$

Set:  $u = \frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}$

$$du = \frac{dx}{\sigma}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-u^2} du$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_{\mu, \sigma}(x) dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-u^2} du$$

Conclude: it suffices to show

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-u^2} du = \sqrt{\pi}$$

or

~~$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-u^2} du = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$$~~

Problem - there is no Math 21B  
substitution that works ?

For example:  $V = u^2 \Rightarrow dv = 2u du$

Doesn't work !

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The new trick employs  
polar coordinates —

Set

$$I = \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2-y^2} dy dx$$
$$= \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} \left[ \int_0^\infty e^{-y^2} dy \right] dx$$

constant?

$$= \left[ \int_0^\infty e^{-y^2} dy \right] \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx$$

same integrals

$$= \left( \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx \right)^2$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$$

Thus to evaluate:

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$$I = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy$$

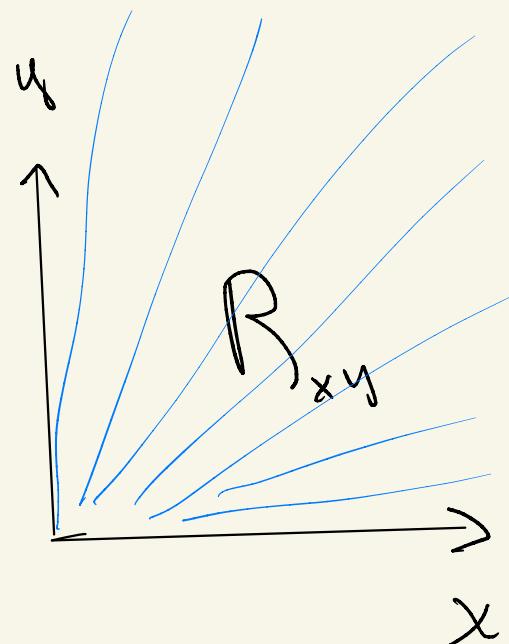
polar coordinates:  $r^2 = x^2 + y^2$

$$R_{xy}: [0, \infty] \times [0, \infty]$$

$$R_{r\theta}: 0 \leq r \leq \infty, 0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

thus

$$I = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-r^2} r dr d\theta$$



$$I = \iint_0^{\pi/2} e^{-r^2} r \, dr \, d\theta$$

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

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} \, du$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{2} \left[ -e^{-u} \right]_{u=0}^{u=\infty} \, d\theta$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{2} \, d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \theta \right]_0^{\pi/2}$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{4}$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} \, du = \sqrt{I} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$$

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