# Calculus principles and applications

#### **DEFINITIONS**

• Limit: The value that a function (or sequence) approaches as the input (or index) approaches some value.

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$$

means that as x approaches a, f(x) approaches L.

• Series: The sum of the terms of a sequence. If  $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$  is a sequence, then the series is written as

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

• **Derivative:** A measure of how a function changes as its input changes. It is the slope of the tangent line to the function at a given point.

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

- Convergent Series: A series whose terms approach a specific value as more terms are added. Formally, a series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges if the sequence of partial sums  $S_N = \sum_{n=1}^N a_n$  approaches a limit as N approaches infinity.
- Divergent Series: A series that does not converge, meaning its terms do not approach a specific value as more terms are added.
- **Definite Integral:** The integral of a function over a specified interval. It represents the area under the curve of the function between two points a and b.

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx$$

• Indefinite Integral: The general form of the antiderivative of a function. It represents a family of functions whose derivative is the given function.

$$\int f(x) \, dx = F(x) + C$$

where F(x) is the antiderivative of f(x) and C is the constant of integration.

• Volume of Revolution: The volume of a solid formed by revolving a region around an axis. For a function y = f(x) rotated about the x-axis from x = a to x = b, the volume is given by

$$V = \pi \int_a^b [f(x)]^2 dx$$

• Arc Length: The length of a curve described by a function y = f(x) from x = a to x = b. It is calculated as

$$L = \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} \, dx$$

• Surface Area of Revolution: The surface area of a solid formed by revolving a curve around an axis. For a function y = f(x) rotated about the x-axis from x = a to x = b, the surface area is given by

$$A = 2\pi \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{2}} dx$$

• Centre of Mass: The point at which the entire mass of an object can be considered to be concentrated. For a region R with density function  $\rho(x,y)$ , the coordinates of the center of mass  $(\bar{x},\bar{y})$  are given by

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\iint_R x \rho(x, y) dA}{\iint_R \rho(x, y) dA}, \quad \bar{y} = \frac{\iint_R y \rho(x, y) dA}{\iint_R \rho(x, y) dA}$$

• Moments: Measures of the distribution of mass within an object. The moment about the y-axis (first moment) is given by

$$M_y = \iint_R x \rho(x, y) \, dA$$

and the moment about the x-axis is

$$M_x = \iint_R y \rho(x, y) \, dA$$

### LIMITS AND DIFFERENTIATION FROM FIRST PRINCIPLES

#### Limits

In calculus, a **limit** is the value that a function (or sequence) approaches as the input (or index) approaches some value. Limits are essential for defining both derivatives and integrals.

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$$

This notation means that as x approaches a, the function f(x) approaches the value L.

## Differentiation from First Principles

The derivative of a function f(x) at a point x = a is defined as the limit of the average rate of change of the function over a small interval as the interval approaches zero. This is given by:

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

Here, h is a small increment in x.

#### Worked Example

Consider the function  $f(x) = x^2$ . We want to find the derivative of f(x) at any point x using the definition. First, calculate f(x + h):

$$f(x+h) = (x+h)^2 = x^2 + 2xh + h^2$$

Then, find the difference f(x+h) - f(x):

$$f(x+h) - f(x) = (x^2 + 2xh + h^2) - x^2 = 2xh + h^2$$

Now, form the difference quotient:

$$\frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \frac{2xh + h^2}{h} = 2x + h$$

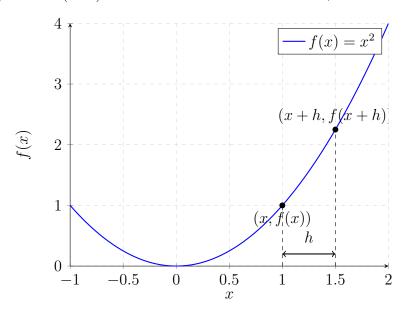
Finally, take the limit as h approaches 0:

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} (2x + h) = 2x$$

So, the derivative of  $f(x) = x^2$  is f'(x) = 2x.

#### Graphical Representation of $\Delta x$

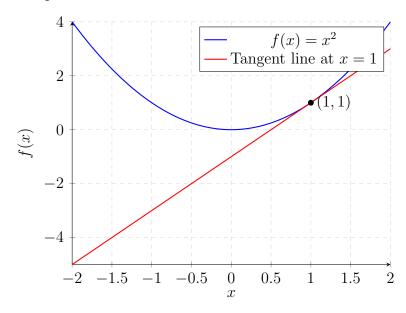
To visualize the concept of  $\Delta x$  (or h) as a small increment added to x, consider the following graph:



In this graph, we can see the function  $f(x) = x^2$  and two points: (x, f(x)) and (x + h, f(x + h)). The distance between x and x + h is the increment h, which we think of as a small increment added to x.

#### Graphical Representation of the Tangent Line

To further visualize differentiation, consider the function  $f(x) = x^2$  and its derivative f'(x) = 2x. The graph below shows the function  $f(x) = x^2$  and the tangent line at x = 1, where the slope of the tangent line is the derivative at that point.



The blue curve represents the function  $f(x) = x^2$ , and the red line represents the tangent at x = 1. The slope of this tangent line is  $f'(1) = 2 \times 1 = 2$ , which matches our derivative calculation.

#### Volumes of revolution, arc-length, surface area of revolutions

The volume of a solid of revolution is calculated by rotating a region around an axis. The formulas differ depending on whether the rotation is about the x-axis or the y-axis.

#### About the x-Axis

For a function y = f(x) rotated about the x-axis from x = a to x = b, the volume is given by

$$V = \pi \int_a^b [f(x)]^2 dx$$

#### Worked Example

Find the volume of the solid obtained by rotating  $y = x^2$  about the x-axis from x = 0 to x = 1.

$$V = \pi \int_0^1 (x^2)^2 dx = \pi \int_0^1 x^4 dx = \pi \left[ \frac{x^5}{5} \right]_0^1 = \pi \left( \frac{1}{5} - 0 \right) = \frac{\pi}{5}$$

## About the y-Axis

For a function x = g(y) rotated about the y-axis from y = c to y = d, the volume is given by

$$V = \pi \int_{c}^{d} [g(y)]^{2} dy$$

#### Worked Example

Find the volume of the solid obtained by rotating  $x = \sqrt{y}$  about the y-axis from y = 0 to y = 1.

$$V = \pi \int_0^1 (\sqrt{y})^2 dy = \pi \int_0^1 y dy = \pi \left[ \frac{y^2}{2} \right]_0^1 = \pi \left( \frac{1}{2} - 0 \right) = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

#### Graphs

## ARC LENGTH

The arc length of a curve described by a function y = f(x) from x = a to x = b is given by

$$L = \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} \, dx$$

#### Worked Example

Find the arc length of the curve  $y = \frac{1}{2}x^2$  from x = 0 to x = 1.

First, find the derivative:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x$$

Then, compute the arc length:

$$L = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + x^2} \, dx$$

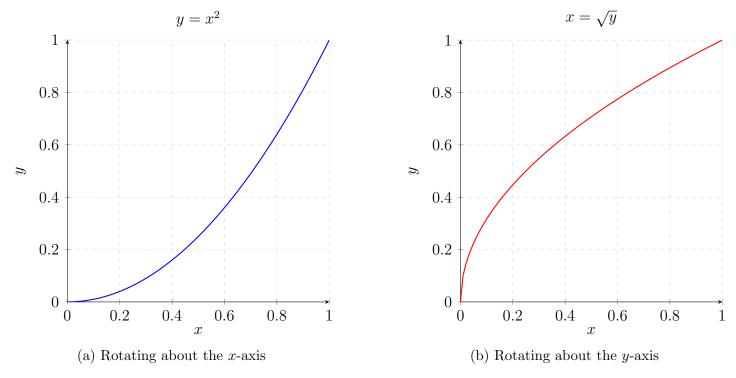
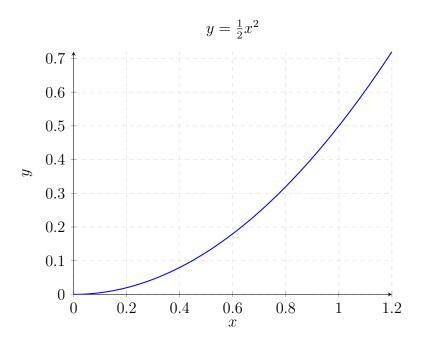


Figure 1: Graphs of the functions rotated to find volume

To solve this integral, we can use a trigonometric substitution,  $x = \sinh(u)$ , but here we'll provide the final result:

$$L = \left[\frac{1}{2}(x\sqrt{1+x^2} + \ln|x + \sqrt{1+x^2}|)\right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2}\left(1\cdot\sqrt{2} + \ln(1+\sqrt{2})\right) - 0 = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{\ln(1+\sqrt{2})}{2}$$

#### Graph



### SURFACE AREA OF REVOLUTION

The surface area of a solid formed by revolving a curve around an axis is calculated as follows:

#### About the x-Axis

For a function y = f(x) rotated about the x-axis from x = a to x = b, the surface area is given by

$$A = 2\pi \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{2}} dx$$

#### Worked Example

Find the surface area of the solid obtained by rotating  $y = x^2$  about the x-axis from x = 0 to x = 1.

First, find the derivative:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$$

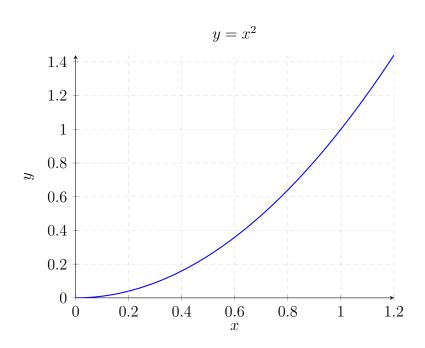
Then, compute the surface area:

$$A = 2\pi \int_0^1 x^2 \sqrt{1 + (2x)^2} \, dx = 2\pi \int_0^1 x^2 \sqrt{1 + 4x^2} \, dx$$

This integral is solved using substitution or numerical methods. Here, we'll provide the final result:

$$A \approx 2\pi \left(\frac{1}{12} + \frac{\sinh^{-1}(2)}{8}\right)$$

#### Graph



#### Centre Of Mass

#### Centre of Mass in One Dimension

The center of mass (or centroid) of a system of particles in one dimension is given by:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum m_i x_i}{\sum m_i}$$

where  $m_i$  is the mass of the *i*-th particle and  $x_i$  is the position of the *i*-th particle.

For a continuous mass distribution along a line, the center of mass is given by:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\int x \, dm}{\int dm}$$

## Centre of Mass of a Rectangle

Consider a rectangle with uniform density, width w, and height h.

## Steps to Find the Centre of Mass

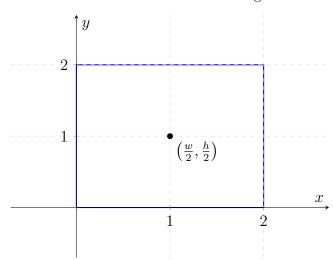
1. Set up the coordinate system with the origin at the bottom-left corner of the rectangle. 2. The area element dA is dx dy. 3. Integrate to find the center of mass:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\int_0^w \int_0^h x \, dy \, dx}{\int_0^w \int_0^h dy \, dx} = \frac{\int_0^w x h \, dx}{wh} = \frac{h \left[\frac{x^2}{2}\right]_0^w}{wh} = \frac{h \frac{w^2}{2}}{wh} = \frac{w}{2}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\int_0^w \int_0^h y \, dy \, dx}{\int_0^w \int_0^h dy \, dx} = \frac{\int_0^h yw \, dy}{wh} = \frac{w \left[\frac{y^2}{2}\right]_0^h}{wh} = \frac{w \frac{h^2}{2}}{wh} = \frac{h}{2}$$

# Diagram

Centre of Mass of a Rectangle



### Centre of Mass of a Circle

Consider a circle with radius R and uniform density.

# Steps to Find the Centre of Mass

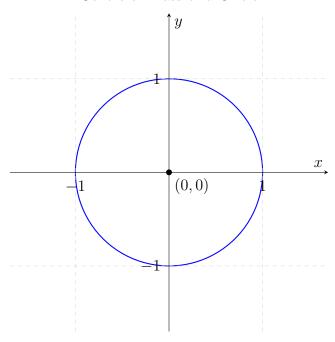
1. Set up the coordinate system with the origin at the center of the circle. 2. Use polar coordinates:  $x = r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = r \sin \theta$ . 3. Integrate to find the center of mass:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R r \cos \theta \, r \, dr \, d\theta}{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R r \, dr \, d\theta} = 0 \quad \text{(by symmetry)}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R r \sin \theta \, r \, dr \, d\theta}{\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^R r \, dr \, d\theta} = 0 \quad \text{(by symmetry)}$$

## Diagram

Centre of Mass of a Circle



## Centre of Mass of a Triangle

Consider a triangle with vertices at (0,0), (a,0), and (0,h) with uniform density.

## Steps to Find the Centre of Mass

1. Set up the coordinate system with the origin at the bottom-left corner of the triangle. 2. The area element dA is dx dy. 3. The area of the triangle is  $\frac{1}{2}ah$ . 4. Integrate to find the center of mass:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{\text{Area}} \int_{\text{Area}} x \, dA$$

Given the triangle's linear boundaries, this becomes:

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}ah} \int_0^a \int_0^{h(1-\frac{x}{a})} x \, dy \, dx$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{2}{ah} \int_0^a \left[ xy \right]_0^{h(1-\frac{x}{a})} \, dx = \frac{2}{ah} \int_0^a xh \left( 1 - \frac{x}{a} \right) \, dx = \frac{2h}{ah} \int_0^a \left( x - \frac{x^2}{a} \right) \, dx$$

$$= \frac{2}{a} \left[ \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3a} \right]_0^a = \frac{2}{a} \left( \frac{a^2}{2} - \frac{a^3}{3a} \right) = \frac{2}{a} \left( \frac{a^2}{2} - \frac{a^2}{3} \right) = \frac{2}{a} \cdot \frac{a^2}{6} = \frac{2a}{6} = \frac{a}{3}$$

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}ah} \int_0^a \int_0^{h(1-\frac{x}{a})} y \, dy \, dx = \frac{2}{ah} \int_0^a \left[ \frac{y^2}{2} \right]_0^{h(1-\frac{x}{a})} \, dx = \frac{2}{ah} \int_0^a \frac{h^2}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{x}{a} \right)^2 \, dx$$

$$= \frac{h^2}{ah} \int_0^a \left( 1 - \frac{2x}{a} + \frac{x^2}{a^2} \right) \, dx = \frac{h}{a} \left[ x - \frac{x^2}{a} + \frac{x^3}{3a^2} \right]_0^a = \frac{h}{a} \left( a - \frac{a^2}{a} + \frac{a^3}{3a^2} \right) = \frac{h}{a} \left( a - a + \frac{a}{3} \right)$$

$$= \frac{h}{a} \cdot \frac{a}{3} = \frac{h}{3}$$

# Diagram

