Remedial Lesson 6: Application of Calculus I

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October 6, 2005

1 Find area using integration

• Given the curve y = f(x) in Cartesian coordinates, the area under the curve from x = a to x = b is given by

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

• Given the curve $r = f(\theta)$ in polar coordinates, the area bounded by the curve and the radial vectors $\theta = a$ and $\theta = b$ is given by

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \int_{a}^{b} r^{2} d\theta$$

• Actually, polar coordinate and Cartesian coordinate can be interchanged:

$$r^{2} = x^{2} + y^{2} \qquad x = r \cos \theta$$
$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{y}{x} \qquad y = r \sin \theta$$

• Example: Find the area of circle with radius r in Cartesian coordinate

Equation:
$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$

 $\therefore y^2 = r^2 - x^2$
 $\therefore A = 2 \int_{-r}^{r} \sqrt{r^2 - x^2} dx$
 $=$ (sub $x = r \sin t$)
 $=$
 $=$
 $=$
 $=$
 $=$
 $= \pi r^2$

• Example: Find the area of circle with radius r in Polar coordinate

$$A = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{2\pi} r^2 d\theta$$
$$=$$
$$=$$
$$= \pi r^2$$

• Example: Find $\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx$

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

$$= \sqrt{\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \cdot \int_0^{\infty} e^{-y^2} dy}$$

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

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

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

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2} \int_0^{\infty} r e^{-r^2} dr^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-r^2} dr^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4} \left[-e^{-r^2}\right]_0^{\infty}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4} \left[0 - (-1)\right]}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$$

$$\begin{cases} x^2 + y^2 &= r^2 \\ dxdy &= \frac{1}{2}d(r^2)d\theta \end{cases}$$

(integration of first quadrant)

2 Find limit using L'Hôpital's Rule

- Limit means the value of a function as the variable approaches a value
 - Example: As x tends to 1, f(x) = x + 1 tends to 2, i.e. $\lim_{x \to 1} f(x) = 2$

- Example:

$$\lim_{x \to 2} \frac{x^2 - 4x + 4}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \to 2} \frac{(x - 2)^2}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \to 2} (x - 2) = 0$$

• We usually interested at the limit towards ∞ , $-\infty$, and 0

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{x^2 + 2}{x} = \infty$$
$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} \frac{x + 1}{x + 2} = 1$$
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x + 1}{x^2} = \infty$$

• Sometimes, we cannot find the limit so easily, so we have the l'Hôpital's rule:

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

this is applicable when the direct substitution have the undeterminate forms: $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$, $\frac{0}{0}$, $0 \cdot \infty$, $\infty - \infty$, 0^0 , ∞^0 , 1^∞

• Example:

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \frac{x-1}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} =$$
$$=$$
$$= \frac{0}{1}$$
$$= 0$$

• Example:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\tan x}{\tan 3x} =$$

• Example:

$\lim_{x \to 0} \tan x \ln x =$	
=	
=	
=	
=	

• Example:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} =$$
$$=$$
$$= 1$$

3 Verify Series Convergence by Integration

- Given the monotonically decreasing function *f*(*x*), the infinite series, ∑[∞]_{x=k} *f*(*x*) is bounded (i.e. not infinitely large), if and only if ∫[∞] *f*(*x*)*dx* also bounded (evaluate only the upper limit)
- Example:

$$\frac{1}{x} > \frac{1}{x+1} \qquad \therefore \text{ decreasing}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = [\ln x]^{\infty}$$

$$= \ln \infty$$

$$= \infty$$

$$\therefore \sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} = \infty \qquad \text{ i.e. diverging series}$$

• Example:

$$\frac{1}{x^2} > \frac{1}{(x+1)^2} \qquad \therefore \text{ decreasing}$$

$$\int^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \left[\frac{-1}{x}\right]^{\infty}$$

$$= 0$$

$$< \infty$$

$$\sum_{x=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} < \infty$$
i.e. converging

• Example: Check for the convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^3 + 1}$

.**`**.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{x^3 + 1} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{d(x^3)}{3(x^3 + 1)}$$
$$=$$
$$= \infty$$
$$\therefore \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^3 + 1} = \infty \quad \text{(diverging)}$$

• Example: Check for the convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2+9}}$

4 Approximation using Differentials

• Differential:

$$dy = f(x)dx$$

• Hence we can approximate the derivation of *y* by

$$f(x + \Delta x) = y + \Delta y$$
$$\approx f(x) + f'(x)\Delta x$$

- This is the basis for "small perturbation analysis" and why we need to study linear systems in detail
- Example: Find a **good** approximate of $\sqrt{4.1}$ without using calculator

$$\frac{d}{dx}\sqrt{x} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

$$\therefore \quad \sqrt{4+0.1} \approx \sqrt{4} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{4}}(0.1)$$
$$= 2 + \frac{1}{4}(0.1)$$
$$= 2.025$$

Actually, $\sqrt{4.1} = 2.02484567...$

• Example: Find a good approximate of $\sqrt[3]{7}$ without using calculator

• Example: Find a good approximate of π^2

5 Using integration to solve differential equations

- Differential equations is the equation involving derivatives of functions
- Example:

$$f(x) + \frac{d}{dx}f(x) = x^2 + 2x$$

- Solving differential equation means finding out the function, for example, the solution for the above equation is $f(x) = x^2$.
- The easiest form of differential equation is the separable equation, namely, we can write the equation in the form:

$$g(y)\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)$$

which can be solved by:

$$g(y)\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)$$
$$g(y)dy = f(x)dx$$
$$\therefore \quad \int g(y)dy = \int f(x)dx$$

• Example: Solve y for $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y^2}{1+x^2}$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{y^2}{1+x^2}$$
$$\therefore \quad \frac{1}{y^2}dy = \frac{1}{1+x^2}dx$$
$$\int \frac{1}{y^2}dy = \int \frac{1}{1+x^2}dx$$
$$-\frac{1}{y} = \tan^{-1}x + C$$
$$y = \frac{-1}{\tan^{-1}x + C}$$

• Example: Solve y for $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\sqrt{1-y^2}}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$, given y = 1 when x = 0

• Example: A stationary particle of mass *m* fall under gravity. When it has velocity *v*, it experiences a resistance force f(v) = -2v. Express displacement *s* in terms of time *t*.

6 Maclaurin Series and Taylor Series

• Maclaurin Series is to express *any* function f(x) as the infinite power series:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} f^{(k)}(0)$$

= $f(0) + xf'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2} f''(0) + \frac{x^3}{3!} f'''(0) + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(0) + \dots$

• Taylor Series is a generalization of Maclaurin Series:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x-a)^k}{k!} f^{(k)}(a)$$

= $f(a) + (x-a)f'(0) + \frac{(x-a)^2}{2} f''(a) + \frac{(x-a)^3}{3!} f'''(a) + \dots + \frac{(x-a)^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(a) + \dots$

so we usually call Maclaurin series as Taylor series.

• With Taylor series, everything can be expressed as polynomial

• Example: Express e^x as Taylor series

$$e^{x} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k}}{k!} f^{(k)}(0)$$

= $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k}}{k!} e^{0}$
= $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k}}{k!}$
= $1 + x + \frac{x^{2}}{2!} + \frac{x^{3}}{3!} + \cdots$

• Example: Express sin *x* as Taylor series

• Example: Express cos *x* as Taylor series

• Example: Express $\frac{1}{x+1}$ as Taylor series