

Applications to Physics

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We are going to use the language of integration to describe some phenomena in physics. We will concentrate on the case of 1-dimensional physics.

1 Force and Work

In physics, the **work** done by a constant force F with distance d along the direction of the force is defined to be

$$W = F \times d$$

i.e., Work = Force \times Distance. And the unit for work is Joule (denoted by J). $1 \text{ J} = 1 \text{ N} \times 1 \text{ m}$.

But in reality, force is not always constant, but a function in terms of position, say $F = f(x)$. In such circumference, we can also define the work using integration: Divide the interval $[a, b]$ into n pieces of length $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$, and in each interval, we take a point $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$. When Δx is small, the force is almost constantly equal to $f(x_i^*)$, so an approximation of the actual work is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x$$

Taking the limit as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$, we obtain the actual work done by the force:

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

Example 1. *Hooke's Law* states that the force required to maintain a spring stretched x units beyond its natural length is proportional to x (for small x): $f(x) = kx$, where k is a positive constant.

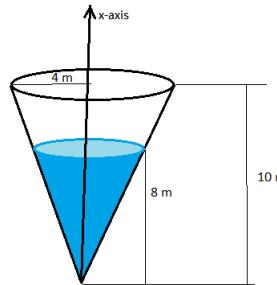
A force of 40N is required to hold a spring that has been stretched from its natural length of 10 cm to a length of 15 cm . How much work is done in stretching the spring from 15 cm to 18 cm ?

First we figure out k : $40 = f(0.15 - 0.1) = k(0.05) = k \times 0.05$, so $k = 800$.

The work done in stretching the spring from 15 to 18 is

$$\int_{0.15-0.1}^{0.18-0.1} f(x) dx = \int_{0.05}^{0.08} 800x dx = 1.56$$

Example 2. A tank has the shape of an inverted circular cone with height 10 meters and base radius 4 meters . It is filled with water to a height of 8 meters . The density of water is $1000\text{ kilograms per cubic meters}$. Find the work required to empty the tank by pumping all the water to the top of the tank.



We build a x -axis vertically upward with origin at the vertex of the cone. We divide the interval $[0, 8]$ into n pieces of length $\Delta x = \frac{8}{n}$. The volume for the piece between $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ can be approximated by a cylinder with base radius $\frac{2}{5}x_i$ and height Δx . So the work done on this piece is approximated by

$$\pi\left(\frac{2}{5}x_i\right)^2 \times 1000 \times 9.8 \times (10 - x)$$

So the actual work can be achieved by taking the limit of the Riemann sum:

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \pi\left(\frac{2}{5}x_i\right)^2 \Delta x \times 1000 \times 9.8 \times (10 - x) = \int_0^8 1568x^2(10 - x) dx = \frac{3211264}{3}\pi \approx 3.4 \times 10^6$$

The actual work is about $3.4 \times 10^6\text{ Joules}$.

2 Hydrostatic Pressure

The **pressure** at depth d under the surface of liquid is defined to be

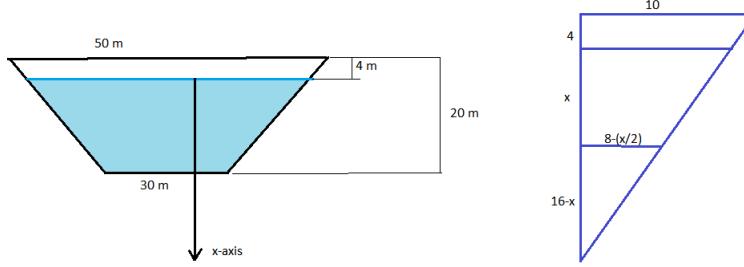
$$P = \rho g d$$

where ρ is the density of liquid and g is the gravitational acceleration. The pressure at depth d represents the hydrostatic force a plate at this level feels per unit area. So

$$F = P \times A$$

where A is the area of a plate and F is the hydrostatic force.

Example 3. A dam of trapezium shape has upper width 50 meters, lower width 30 meters and height 20 meters. Find the force on the dam due to hydrostatic pressure if the water level is 4 meters from the top of the dam.



We choose x -axis pointing downward and origin at the water level. Then at x , the width of the dam is $30 + 2 \times (8 - \frac{x}{2}) = 46 - x$.

Divide $[0, 16]$ into pieces of length $\Delta x = \frac{16}{n}$ and choose $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$. When Δx is small, the pressure on the stripe corresponding to the interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ is almost constantly equal to

$$\rho g x_i^*$$

So the hydrostatic force on this stripe is almost

$$(\rho g x_i^*)(46 - x_i^*)\Delta x$$

Taking the limit of the Riemann sum, the total hydrostatic force is

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n (\rho g x_i^*)(46 - x_i^*)\Delta x = \int_0^{16} \rho g x(46 - x) dx \approx 4.43 \times 10^7$$

(in the above computation we take $\rho = 1000$ and $g = 9.8$)

3 Moments and Centre of Mass

We first deal with the discrete case. Build a coordinate system on a plane. If there are n particles on a line at $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$, with mass m_1, \dots, m_n respectively, we define the **moment of the system** about the y -axis to be

$$M_y = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i x_i$$

and the **moment of the system** about the x -axis to be

$$M_x = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i y_i$$

We define the **centre of mass** of the system to be the point (\bar{x}, \bar{y}) such that

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_y}{m} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i x_i}{m}, \bar{y} = \frac{M_x}{m} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i y_i}{m}$$

where $m = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i$.

Example 4. Find the moment and centre of mass of the system of particles that have mass 3, 4, 8 at $(-1, 1), (2, -1), (3, 2)$ respectively.

$$M_y = (-1) \times 3 + 2 \times 4 + 3 \times 8 = 29, M_x = 1 \times 3 + (-1) \times 4 + 2 \times 8 = 15$$

$$\bar{x} = \frac{M_y}{3} = \frac{29}{15}, \bar{y} = \frac{M_x}{15} = 1$$

Next we will study the centre of mass (also called **centroid**) for a plate with uniform density. The **Symmetric Principle** in physics says for a plate of uniform mass, the centre of mass is on its symmetric axis, so for a rectangular shape plate, its centre of mass is at its geometric centre.

Now consider a plate that is bounded between $y = f(x)$ and x -axis on the interval $[a, b]$. We use the rectangles for Midpoint Approximation to approximate this region. For the i -th rectangle, its centre is at $(x_i^*, \frac{f(x_i^*)}{2})$, and its mass is $\rho f(x_i^*) \Delta x$, where $x_* = \frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2}$. So the moment of the system of rectangles is

$$\begin{cases} M_y = \sum_{i=1}^n (\rho f(x_i^*) \Delta x) x_i^* \\ M_x = (\rho f(x_i^*) \Delta x) \frac{f(x_i^*)}{2} \end{cases}$$

Taking the limit as $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$, we get the moment of the plate:

$$\begin{cases} M_y = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n (\rho f(x_i^*) \Delta x) x_i^* = \rho \int_a^b x f(x) dx \\ M_x = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n (\rho f(x_i^*) \Delta x) \frac{f(x_i^*)}{2} = \rho \int_a^b \frac{f^2(x)}{2} dx \end{cases}$$

And divided by the mass of the plate, which is $\rho \int_a^b f(x) dx$, we get the centre of mass of the plate:

$$\left(\frac{\int_a^b x f(x) dx}{\int_a^b f(x) dx}, \frac{\int_a^b \frac{f^2(x)}{2} dx}{\int_a^b f(x) dx} \right)$$

Remark 5. We see in the above expression that for a plate of uniform density, its centre of mass is independent of the density.

Example 6. Find the centre of mass of a semicircular plate of radius r .

We put the plate in the coordinate system so that the circular boundary is the graph of the function $y = \sqrt{r^2 - x^2}$, $-1 \leq x \leq 1$.

The centre of mass is

$$\left(\frac{\int_{-1}^1 x \sqrt{r^2 - x^2} dx}{\frac{\pi r^2}{2}}, \frac{\int_{-1}^1 (r^2 - x^2) dx}{\frac{\pi r^2}{2}} \right) = \left(0, \frac{4r}{3\pi} \right)$$

More generally, if $y = f(x)$ and $y = g(x)$ are functions on $[a, b]$ and $f(x) \geq g(x)$ on $[a, b]$, then the centre of mass for the plate enclosed by $y = f(x)$, $y = g(x)$, $x = a$, $x = b$ is

$$\left(\frac{\int_a^b x(f(x) - g(x)) dx}{\int_a^b f(x) - g(x) dx}, \frac{\int_a^b \frac{f^2(x) - g^2(x)}{2} dx}{\int_a^b f(x) - g(x) dx} \right)$$

Another useful proposition about the centre of mass is the following, which describes the relation of the centre of mass of a plate and the centres of mass of its parts:

Proposition 7. A plate region D is of area A with centre of mass at (x_0, y_0) , and this region is union of smaller regions D_1, \dots, D_n that intersect with each other only possibly along boundary. If the area for D_i is A_i and the centre of mass for D_i is (x_i, y_i) , then:

$$x_0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i x_i}{m}, y_0 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n m_i y_i}{m}$$

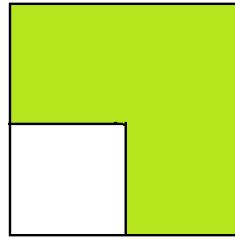
Example 8. A square of edge length 1 is removed from a square of edge length 2 as shown in the figure below. Find the centre of mass of the remaining part.

If we build the coordinate system with origin at the lower left corner of the square, then by the Symmetric Principle, the centre of mass of the big rectangle is at $(1, 1)$ and the centre of mass of the small rectangle is $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$.

By the above Proposition, if we assume the centre of mass of the remaining part is (x_0, y_0) , then:

$$\begin{cases} 1 \times \frac{1}{2} + 3 \times x_0 = 4 \times 1 \\ 1 \times \frac{1}{2} + 3 \times y_0 = 4 \times 1 \end{cases}$$

We obtain $x_0 = \frac{7}{6}$, $y_0 = \frac{7}{6}$. So the centre of mass for the remaining part is at $(\frac{7}{6}, \frac{7}{6})$.



Proposition 9 (Pappus Theorem). R is a region on the plane that lies entirely on one side of a line l . Then the volume of the solid obtained by rotating R around l equals the product of the area of R and the distance d travelled by the centre of mass of R .

Example 10. A torus is formed by rotating a circle of radius r around a line in the plane of the circle with distance R to the centre of the circle. By the Pappus Theorem, the volume of the torus is

$$(\pi r^2) \times 2\pi R = 2\pi^2 r^2 R$$