

Lecture 2: Thursday, 19 May.

Announcements / Assignments.

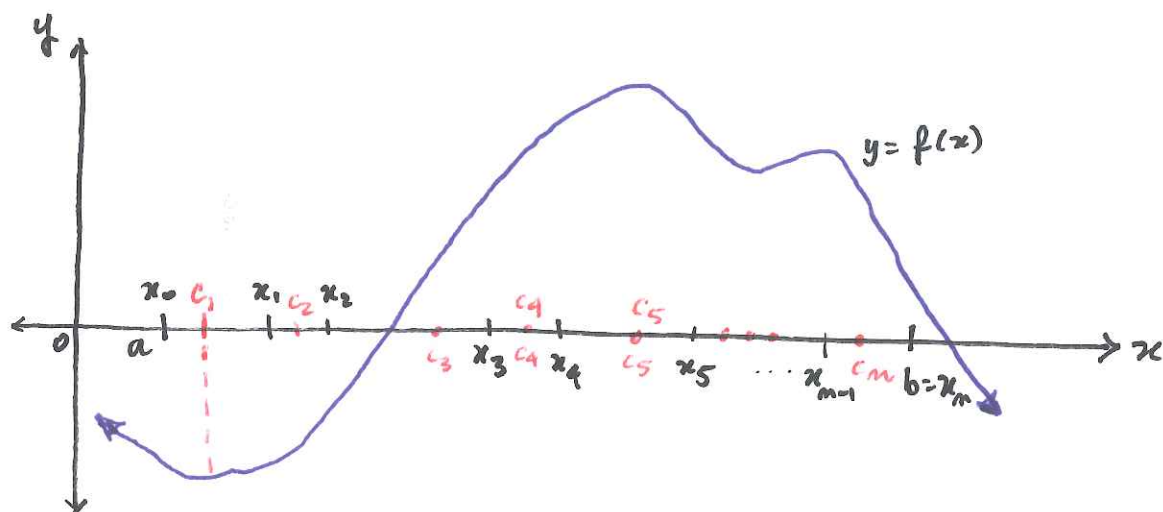
- WW1 (from Tuesday's class) due Friday 11:59 p.m.
- WW2 (tonight's class) due Monday 11:59 p.m.
- HW1 due Monday 11:59 p.m.
- Syllabus / Background quiz on myWPI - complete ASAP!
- In-class students: please find NEXT WEEK'S lectures (i.e., Tuesday 24 May & Thursday 26 May) ONLINE ONLY - I will be travelling and won't be on campus! (I will post these lectures before leaving).

... Questions?

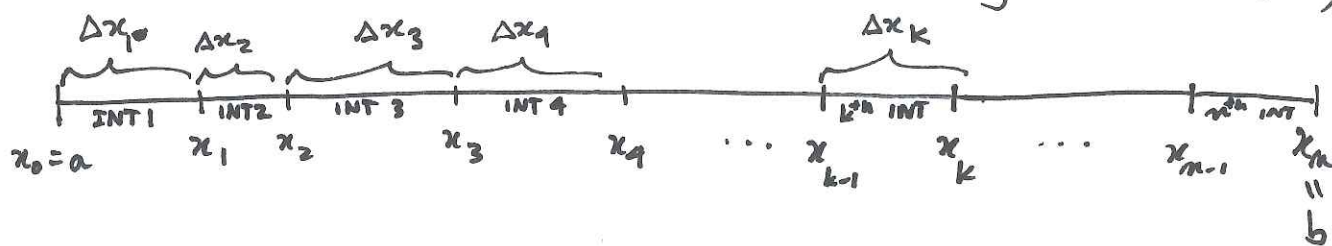
5.2, ct'd: RIEMANN SUMS.

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Begin with an arbitrary bounded function f on the closed interval $[a, b]$. (f may have negative values as well as positive ones.)



• Subdivide $[a, b]$ into intervals (not necessarily equal length)



- Call interval lengths $\Delta x_k := x_k - x_{k-1}$.
- Within each (closed) interval, choose a point $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$.
 - "Upper" sums: $c_k = x_{k-1}$ "LEFT ENDPOINTS"
 - "Lower" sums: $c_k = x_k$ "RIGHT ENDPOINTS"
 - "Midpoint" sums: $c_k = \frac{x_k + x_{k-1}}{2}$ (midpt.)

This is where to evaluate the function that gives each "rectangle" height!

- Draw rectangles (optional)

- Area of ~~each~~ ^{kth} rectangle is : $\Delta x_k \cdot f(c_k)$

- Sum these areas:

$$S_p := \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$$

is called ~~the~~ ^a Riemann sum for f on the interval $[a, b]$.

Can have different Riemann sums depending on our partition "P" of $[a, b]$ into subintervals, and on our choice of the c_k .

Recall: $c_k =$ left-hand endpoint of interval
 $c_k =$ right-hand endpoint of interval
 $c_k =$ midpoint of interval } all valid choices!

Generally, accuracy increases as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (for constant-length intervals).

If intervals in a partition are not of constant length, then we introduce the notion of the NORM:

DEF. For a given partition P of a given interval I , the NORM of P is the largest of all subinterval widths, and is written $\|P\|$.

Example. Consider the function $f(x) := x^2$ on the interval $[0, 2]$.

- A partition of $[0, 2]$ is $P := \{0, 0.2, 0.6, 1, 1.5, 2\}$



The norm of this partition is the width of the largest subinterval.

$$\Delta x_1 = 0.2 - 0 = 0.2$$

$$\Delta x_2 =$$

$$\Delta x_3 =$$

$$\Delta x_4 =$$

$$\Delta x_5 =$$

So the norm of this partition is _____.

Example, ct'd.

So we have our partition $P := \{0, 0.2, 0.6, 1, 1.5, 2\}$
with norm _____.

- Let c_k , for $k=1, 2, 3, 4, 5$, be the left-hand endpoint of each interval. So $c_1=0, c_2=0.2, \dots, c_5=1.5$.

Then

$$A \approx \sum_{k=1}^5 \Delta x_k f(c_k), \text{ where } f(x) = x^2.$$

$$= \Delta x_1 c_1^2 + \Delta x_2 c_2^2 + \Delta x_3 c_3^2 + \Delta x_4 c_4^2 + \Delta x_5 c_5^2$$

$$= 0.2(0)^2 + 0.4(0.2)^2 + 0.4(0.6)^2 + 0.5(1)^2 + 0.5(1.5)^2$$

$$= \frac{2}{5} \left(\frac{1}{5}\right)^2 + \frac{2}{5} \left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{2}{125} + \frac{18}{125} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{9}{8}$$

$$= \frac{20}{125} + \frac{13}{8} \approx \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$$

5.3: The Definite Integral,

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DEF. Suppose $f(x)$ is defined on the closed interval $[a, b]$.

We say J is the definite integral of f over $[a, b]$,

and that J is the limit of the Riemann sums $\sum_{k=1}^n \Delta x_k f(c_k)$ if:

For all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that:

For every partition P of $[a, b]$ with $\|P\| < \delta$ and any choice of $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$, we have

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k - J \right| < \epsilon.$$

This should remind us of the ϵ - δ definitions we saw in Calc I (limits/continuity).

All the definition says is that if the Riemann sums (for any c_k) have a limit as the norm of the partition approaches 0, then that limit is defined as the definite integral of the function:

$$J = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \left(\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k \right).$$

The symbol we use for the definite integral comes (roughly) from the sigma notation for Riemann sums.

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \left(\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k \right) =$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

INTEGRAL SIGN
(a big "S" for "sum")

upper limit
of integration

function to integrate

differential

lower limit
of integration

The definite integral is read out loud as:

"the integral from a to b of f with respect to x ".

DEF. If f has a definite integral over $[a, b]$, then we say f is integrable.

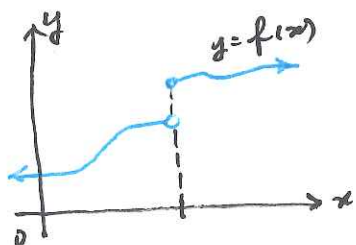
• Not every function is integrable!

(that means there are some functions whose Riemann sums do not converge)

THM. If a function f is continuous over $[a, b]$, or if it has at most finitely many "jump" discontinuities there, then f is integrable over $[a, b]$.

1, p. 318

Recall: a "jump" discontinuity looks like:



Examples. • $f(x) = 1$ is/is not integrable over $[0, 1]$.

• $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \geq 1/2 \\ 0, & \text{if } x < 1/2 \end{cases}$ is/is not integrable over $[0, 1]$.

• $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 0, & \text{if } x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$ is/is not integrable over $[0, 1]$.

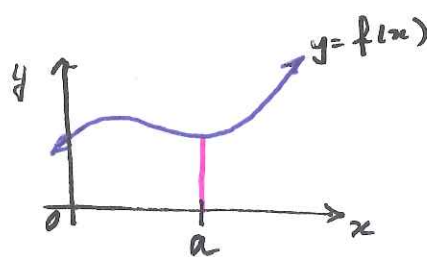
Definite integrals follow the rules in Table 5.6:

1. Order of Integration

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$$

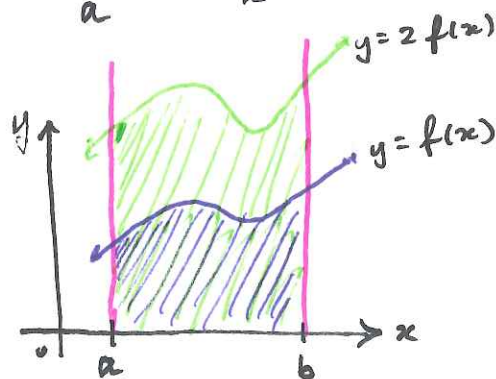
2. Zero-width interval.

$$\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$



3. Constant multiple.

$$\int_a^b k f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$$



4. Sum and difference.

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

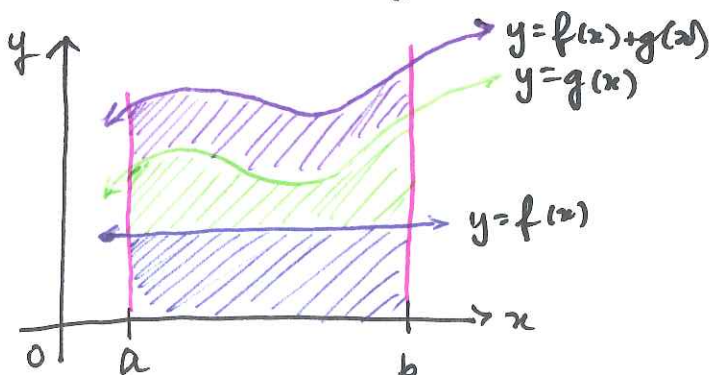
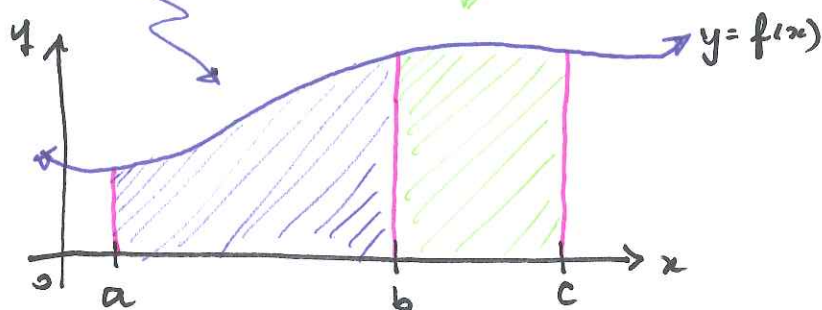


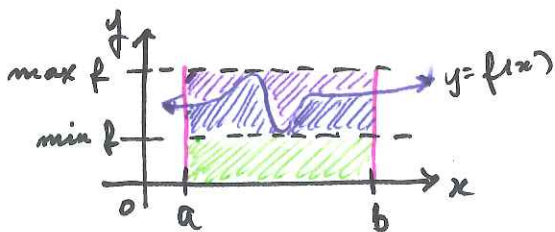
Table 5.6: Integration rules, ct'd.5. Additivity.

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx$$

6. Max-minimum inequality.

If f has maximum value ($\max f$) and minimum value ($\min f$) over $[a, b]$, then:

$$(\min f) \cdot (b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq (\max f) \cdot (b-a)$$

7. Domination.

If $f(x) \geq g(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$



The definite integral rules #2-7 can be proved (see p. 321).

Examples. Suppose $\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = 5$, $\int_{-1}^4 f(x) dx = -2$, $\int_{-1}^1 g(x) dx = 7$.

2, p. 321

Then...

Rule 1 (order of integration)

$$\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = - \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = -5.$$

$$\int_{-4}^1 f(x) dx = \underline{\hspace{10em}}$$

Rule 3 and Rule 4 (const. mult., sum/diff.)

$$\int_{-1}^1 3f(x) - 2g(x) dx = 3 \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx - 2 \int_{-1}^1 g(x) dx$$

$$= 3(5) - 2(7)$$

$$= 15 - 14$$

$$= 1.$$

Rule 5 (additivity).

$$\int_{-1}^4 f(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx + \int_{-1}^4 f(x) dx$$

$$= 5 + (-2)$$

$$= 3.$$

Applications of the definite integral.

- Computing the area under a curve.

[IMPORTANT]: If $y=f(x)$ is nonnegative and integrable over $[a,b]$,

Then the area under the curve $y=f(x)$ over $[a,b]$ IS the integral of f from a to b .]

!!

Example. Compute $\int_0^b x \, dx$ to find the area A under $y=x$ over $[0,b]$.
4, p. 322 (Suppose $b>0$.)

Since $f(x):=x$ is continuous over $[0,b]$, THEOREM 1 says it is integrable there.

Then we subdivide $[0,b]$ into n many subintervals, each of width $\frac{b}{n}$. (What is the norm of the partition?)

Choose the c_k to be right-hand endpoints. (could be left, etc.)

So $P = \left\{ 0, \frac{b}{n}, \frac{2b}{n}, \frac{3b}{n}, \dots, \frac{nb}{n} = b \right\}$ and $c_k = \frac{kb}{n}$, $k=1, 2, \dots, n$.

and

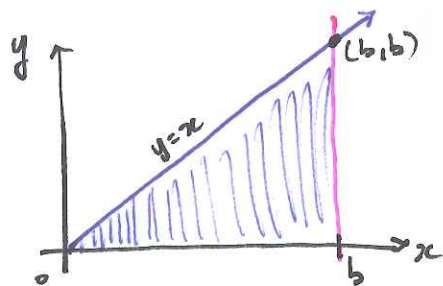
$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{kb}{n} \cdot \frac{b}{n} = \frac{b^2}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{b^2}{n^2} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} =$$

$$= \frac{b^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right).$$

And $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$. So $\int_0^b x \, dx = \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$.

Another way of doing Example 4:

The curve $y=x$ over $[0, b]$ looks like:



... it is a right triangle! Moreover, it is a right triangle (base=height).

So area is: _____.

Example 4 gave us a formula; for $f(x)=x$,

$$\int_0^b f(x) dx = \frac{b^2}{2}$$

What is $\int_a^b f(x) dx$?

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_0^b f(x) dx - \int_0^a f(x) dx \quad \text{when } f(x)=x:$$

=

5.4: The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

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A theorem that is used in the proof of the ~~the~~ Fundamental Theorem of Calculus is the MEAN VALUE THEOREM:

THEOREM

MVT, p. 328

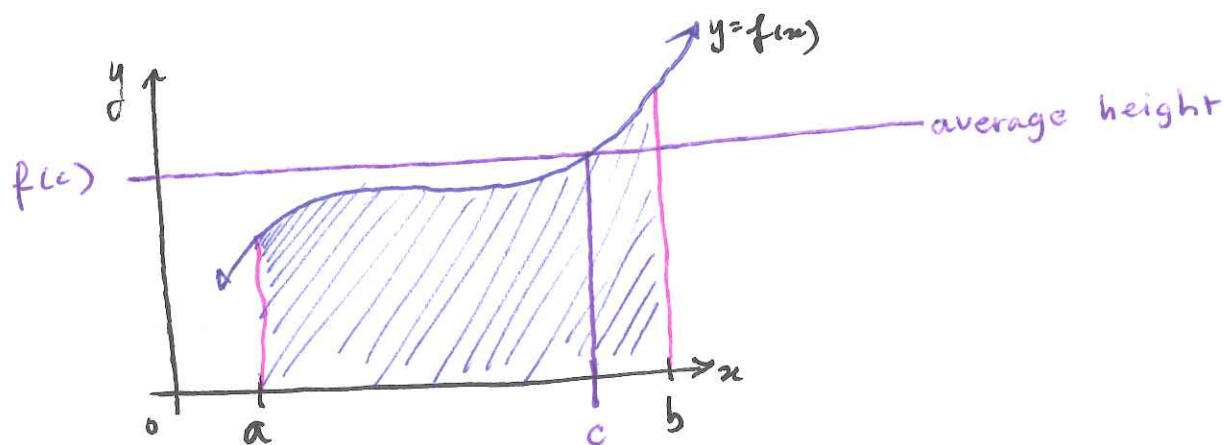
If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, ~~is~~

Then at some point $c \in [a, b]$,

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

"A continuous function on a closed interval attains its mean value."

(-Sound familiar? -)



This is a very important theorem!

Even though we will not prove the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus in this course, the Mean Value Theorem is important in its own right — and you should be able to state it (on an exam?).

THEOREM.

**FUNDAMENTAL
THM OF CALCULUS
(PART I)**

If: f is continuous on $[a, b]$, ~~then~~

Then: the function $F(x) := \int_a^x f(t) dt$

is also continuous on $[a, b]$,

and it is an antiderivative of $f(x)$. That is:

$$F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\int_a^x f(t) dt \right] = f(x).$$

Examples. Use the FTC to find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ if:

2, p. 330

(a) $y = \int_a^x t^3 + 1 dt$

(b) $y = \int_x^5 3t \sin t dt$

(c) $y = \int_1^{x^2} \cos t dt$

(d) $y = \int_{1+3x^2}^4 \frac{1}{2te^t} dt$

Sol. (a) $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\int_a^x t^3 + 1 dt \right] =$ _____

(Here, $F(x) := \int_a^x f(t) dt$, so ~~$F(x)$~~ $f(x) =$ _____)

Examples (2), ct'd.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(b)} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[\int_x^5 3t \sin t \, dt \right] \\
 &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[- \int_5^x 3t \sin t \, dt \right] \\
 &= - \frac{d}{dx} \left[\int_5^x 3t \sin t \, dt \right] \\
 &= - 3x \sin x .
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{(c)} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\int_1^{x^2} \cos t \, dt \right] .$$

Let $g(u) := \int_1^u \cos t \, dt$ and ~~the~~ $u(x) := x^2$.

Then $y = g(u(x))$, and to differentiate, we use

the _____ rule:

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

5.4, ct'd.

Examples (2), ct'd.

$$(d) \quad y = \int_{1+3x^2}^4 \frac{1}{2+e^t} dt$$

THEOREM.
FUNDAMENTAL
THM. OF CALCULUS
PART II

If: f is continuous over $[a, b]$ and
 F is any antiderivative of f on $[a, b]$,

Then:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

✎ The two parts of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus give us a way of connecting our study of antiderivatives to our study of integrals!

✎ ... and they also give us a "natural" way of defining the "INDEFINITE INTEGRAL":

DEF. The collection of all antiderivatives of f is called the INDEFINITE INTEGRAL of f with respect to x , and is denoted by

$$\int f(x) dx.$$

Part II of the FTC also gives us a much easier way of computing definite integrals: To find $\int_a^b f(x) dx$:

1. Find an antiderivative F of f
2. Compute $F(\overset{b}{\bullet}) - F(a)$.

... much better than taking limits of Riemann sums, right??

Example: Compute:

3, p. 332

$$(a) \int_0^{\pi} \cos x \, dx =$$

$$(b) \int_1^4 \left(\frac{3}{2}\sqrt{x} - \frac{4}{x^2} \right) dx =$$

Applications of integration / FTC.THEOREM "Net Change Theorem"

5, p. 333

The net change in a differentiable function $F(x)$ over an interval $[a, b]$ is the integral of its rate of change:

$$F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b F'(x) dx.$$

- If $c(x)$ is the cost of producing x units of something, Then $c'(x)$ is the marginal cost, and

$$\int_{x_1}^{x_2} c'(x) dx = c(x_2) - c(x_1).$$

This is the cost of increasing production from x_1 to x_2 units.

- If an object with position fn. $s(t)$ moves along a line, its velocity is $v(t) := s'(t)$.

Then

$$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} v(t) dt = s(t_2) - s(t_1).$$

So the integral of the velocity is the displacement.