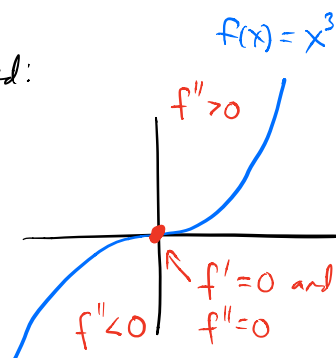


Week of Oct 8-12

1

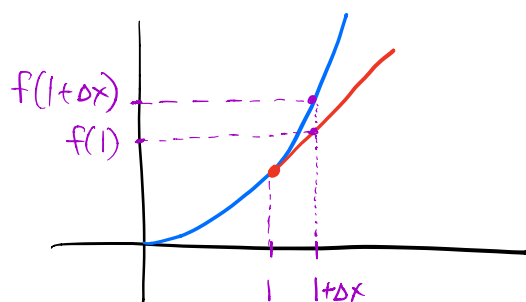
Summary of topics in differential calculus that we skipped:

- Inflection points: When $f'(x) = 0$ but it's neither a local max or min

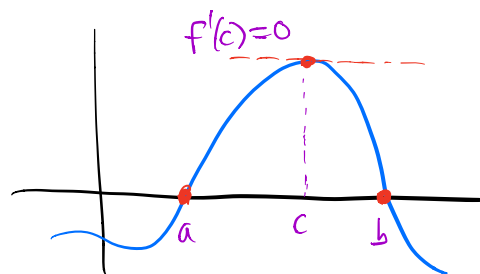


- Linear approximations:

The tangent line to $f(x)$ at $(x_0, f(x_0))$ is a good approximation to $f(x)$ for $x \approx x_0$.

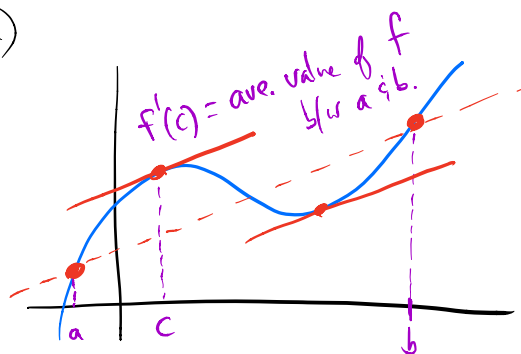


- Rolle's theorem: If $f(x)$ is continuous and $f(a) = f(b)$, then for some $c \in (a, b)$, $f'(c) = 0$.



- Mean value theorem: (generalization of Rolle's thm)

If $f(x)$ is continuous, and $a < b$, then there is some $c \in (a, b)$ for which $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$.

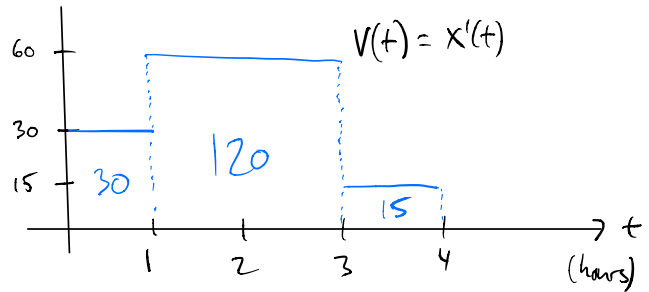


Note that Rolle's theorem is the special case of the MVT when $f(b) = f(a)$, and so $f'(c) = 0$.

2

Next: We'll develop integral calculus and apply it to analyzing the domes of the Hagia Sophia, the Roman Pantheon, and the St. Louis Arch.

Motivating example: Consider a 4-hr road trip, where the velocity you traveled is the following:



★ Question: How far did you travel?

There are two ways to answer this:

Method #1: "area under curve"

$$0 \leq t \leq 1: \left(30 \frac{\text{mi}}{\text{hr}}\right)(1 \text{ hr}) = 30 \text{ mi}$$

$$1 \leq t \leq 3: \left(60 \frac{\text{mi}}{\text{hr}}\right)(2 \text{ hr}) = 120 \text{ mi}$$

$$3 \leq t \leq 4: \left(15 \frac{\text{mi}}{\text{hr}}\right)(1 \text{ hr}) = 15 \text{ mi}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 30 \\ 120 \\ 15 \end{array} \right\} \text{total distance: } 30 + 120 + 15 = 165 \text{ mi}$$

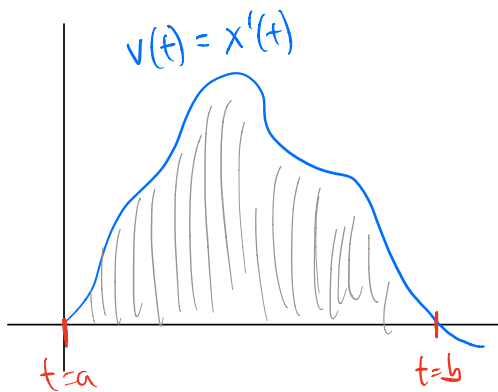
Method #2: "odometer"

check your odometer after t_i before the trip. Subtract these values:

$$X(4) - X(0) = \boxed{52000} - \boxed{5035} = 165 \text{ mi.}$$

★ This is half of the "Fundamental theorem of calculus."

It works more generally, not just for piecewise functions.



velocity is the derivative of distance.

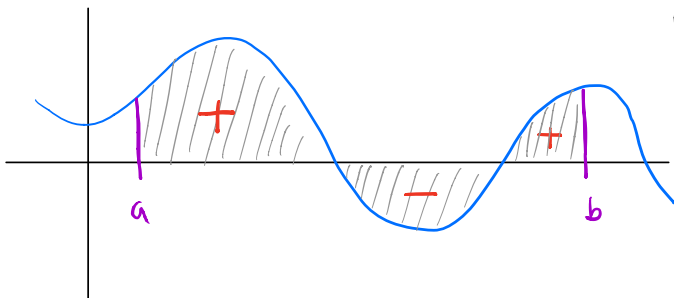
Total distance is:

- Area under the curve of $x'(t)$
- $x(b) - x(a)$.

Big idea: Function $f(x)$ $\xrightarrow{\text{take derivative}}$ $f'(x)$ "rate of change" ^③
 $\xleftarrow{\text{area under curve}}$

Week of Oct 15-19

★ Key concept: "net area", or "signed area" from a to b :



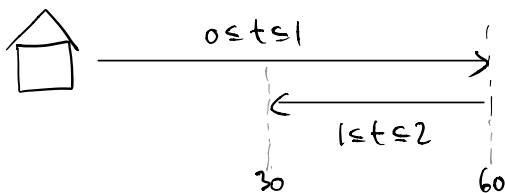
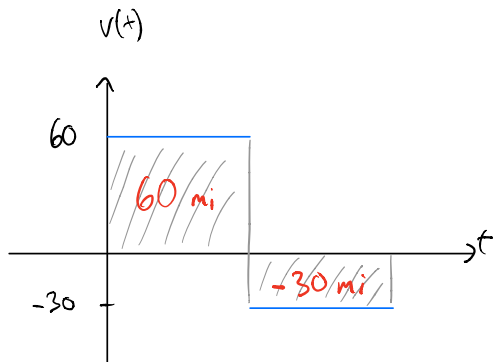
Notation (to be explained later):

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

Example: Consider the following road trip:

$0 \leq t \leq 1$: Traveling away from home at 60 mph

$1 \leq t \leq 2$: Traveling towards home at 30 mph.



Properties:

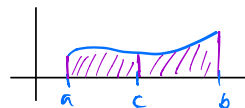
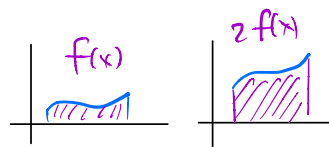
① $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$

② $\int_b^a f(x) dx = -\int_a^b f(x) dx$

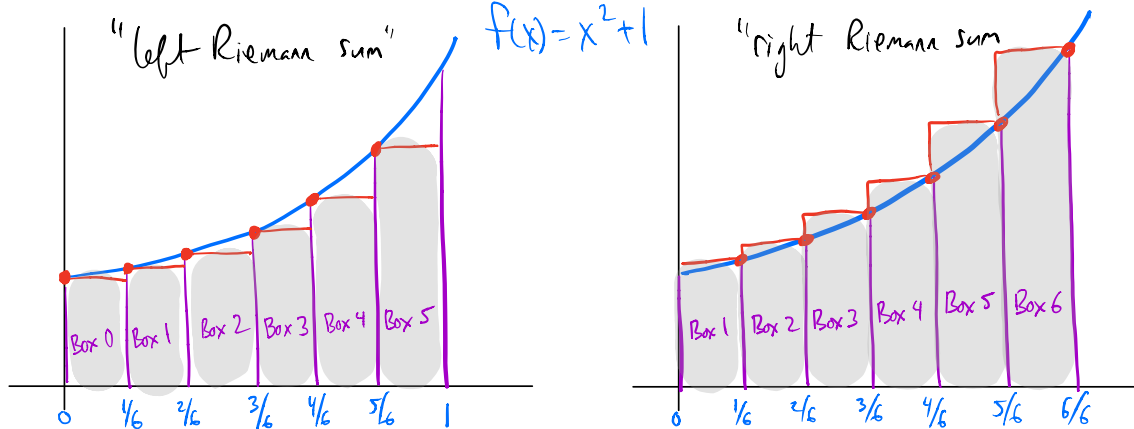
③ $\int_a^b (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$

④ $\int_a^b k f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$

⑤ $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$



4 Riemann sums "approximate area under the curve"

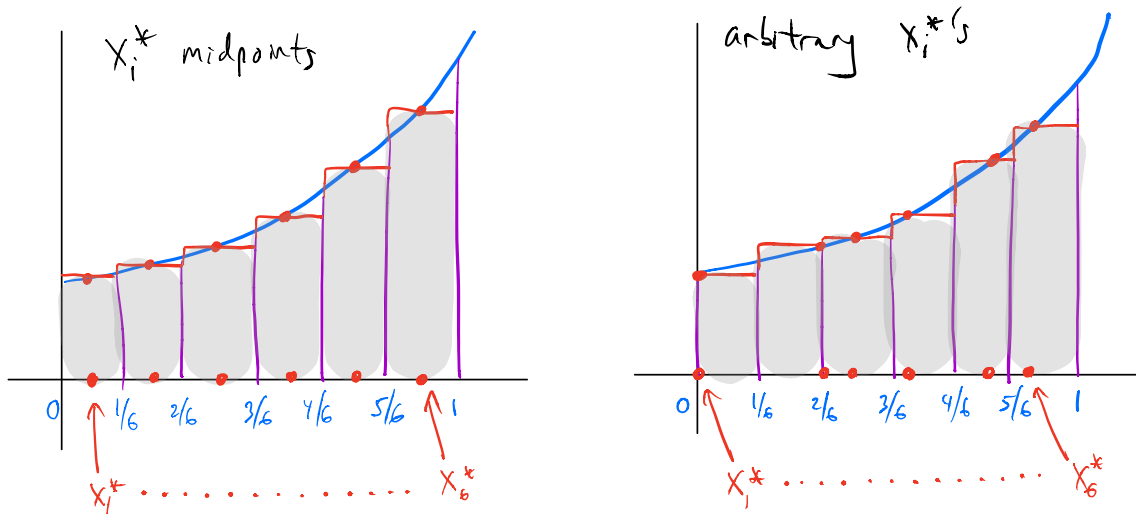


Let $\Delta x = 1/6$

Left Riemann sum: Area = $f(0) \Delta x + f(1) \Delta x + f(2) \Delta x + f(3) \Delta x + f(4) \Delta x + f(5) \Delta x$

Right Riemann sum: Area = $f(1) \Delta x + f(2) \Delta x + f(3) \Delta x + f(4) \Delta x + f(5) \Delta x + f(6) \Delta x$.

Alternatively, the midpoint, or any other point can be chosen as height.



Regardless of which Riemann sum we choose,

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

\int_a^b $f(x)$ dx

Recall "sigma notation": $\sum_{k=1}^6 k = 1+2+3+4+5+6 = \sum_{i=1}^6 i$. 5

^ "dummy variable"

Properties: $\sum_{k=1}^n (a_k + b_k) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k + \sum_{k=1}^n b_k$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n c a_k = c \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$$

Identities: $\sum_{k=1}^n k = 1+2+3+\dots+(n-1)+n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = 1+4+9+\dots+(n-1)^2+n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = 1+8+27+\dots+(n-1)^3+n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Riemann sum example: Compute $\int_0^2 (x^2+1) dx$. Let $\Delta x = \frac{2-0}{n} = \frac{2}{n}$

Subintervals $[0, \frac{2}{n}]$, $[\frac{2}{n}, \frac{4}{n}]$, ..., $[\frac{2(n-1)}{n}, 2]$

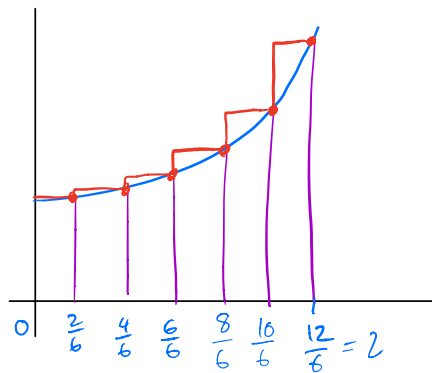
Right endpoint: $x_i^* = \frac{2i}{n}$

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

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(\frac{2i}{n}\right) \cdot \frac{2}{n}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\left(\frac{2i}{n}\right)^2 + 1 \right) \cdot \frac{2}{n} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{8i^2}{n^3} + \frac{2}{n} \right)$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{8i^2}{n^3} + \frac{2}{n} \right) = \underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{8i^2}{n^3}}_{(*)} + \underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2}{n}}_{(**)}$$



6

$$(*) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{8}{n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{8}{n^3} \cdot \left[\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \right] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{8}{6} \cdot \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{n^2} = \boxed{\frac{4}{3}}$$

$$(**) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n 1 = \frac{2}{n} \cdot n = \boxed{2}$$

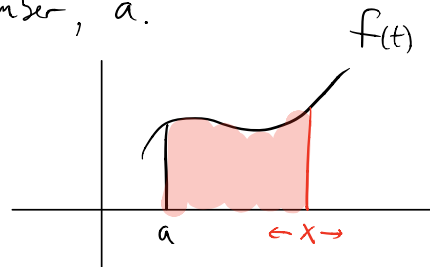
$$\text{Thus, } \int_0^2 (x^2+1) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x = \frac{4}{3} + 2 = \boxed{\frac{10}{3}}$$

Week of Oct 22-26

Area function Fix $f(x)$ and a real number, a .

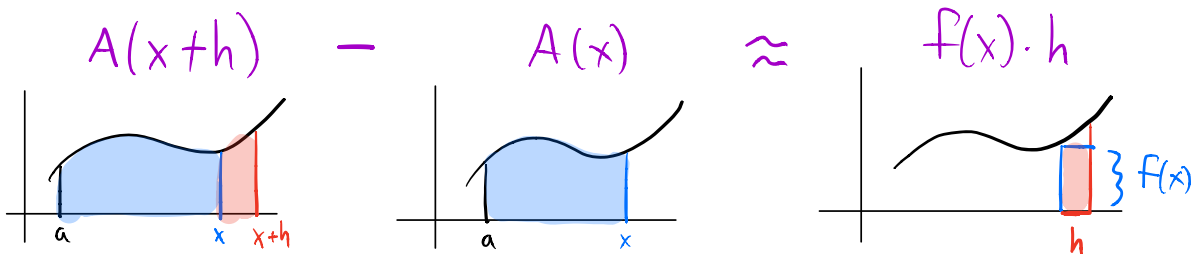
$$\text{Define } A(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

= "area under the curve of f , from a to x ."



$$\text{Clearly, } A(a) = \int_a^a f(t) dt = 0.$$

Remark:



Note that $A(x+h) - A(x) \approx f(x) \cdot h$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A(x+h) - A(x)}{h} \approx f(x)$$

Take $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0}$ of both sides: $A'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A(x+h) - A(x)}{h} = f(x)$

Big idea: If $A(x)$ is the area function of $f(x)$, then $\frac{d}{dx}(A(x)) = f(x)$.

In other words: "the derivative & area functions are inverse functions."

This is the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 1.

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) then $\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x)$.

We say that $A(x)$ is an antiderivative of $f(x)$.

Proposition: If $F(x)$ and $G(x)$ are antiderivatives of $f(x)$ (i.e., $F'(x) = G'(x) = f(x)$), then $F(x) - G(x) = C$, for some constant. (Because $F' - G' = 0 \Rightarrow F - G = C$).

Consider a function $f(x)$. We know $A(x)$ is an antiderivative.

Let $F(x)$ be any other antiderivative.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } F(x) = A(x) + C &\Rightarrow F(b) - F(a) = (A(b) + C) - (A(a) + C) \quad [\text{Recall: } A(a) = 0.] \\ &= A(b) = \int_a^b f(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

This is the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2:

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

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

Before we do examples, let's practice anti-derivatives

Notation: If $F'(x) = f(x)$, then we write $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$.

We call this an indefinite integral.

A definite integral has the form $\int_a^b f(x) dx$.

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Practice with antiderivatives (indefinite integrals)

$$\bullet \int 1 \, dx = x + C$$

$$\bullet \int x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$$

$$\bullet \int e^x \, dx = e^x + C$$

$$\bullet \int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + C$$

$$\bullet \int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C$$

$$\bullet \int \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \ln x + C$$

$$\bullet \int x^n \, dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C \quad n \neq -1$$

$$\bullet \int (3x^2 - 4) \, dx = x^3 - 4x + C$$

$$\bullet \int e^{kx} \, dx = \frac{1}{k} e^{kx} + C$$

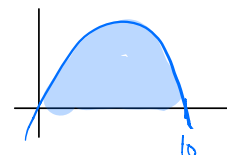
$$\bullet \int \sin kx \, dx = -\frac{1}{k} \cos kx + C$$

$$\bullet \int \cos kx \, dx = \frac{1}{k} \sin kx + C$$

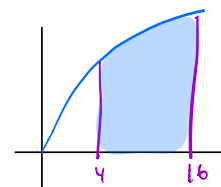
$$\bullet \int \sqrt{x} \, dx = \int x^{1/2} \, dx = \frac{x^{3/2}}{3/2} + C = \frac{2}{3}x^{3/2} + C.$$

Practice with definite integrals.

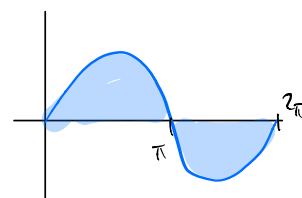
$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \int_0^{10} 60x - 6x^2 \, dx &= (30x^2 - 2x^3) \Big|_{x=0}^{x=10} \\ &= (30(10^2) - 2(10^3)) - (30(0^2) - 2(0^3)) \\ &= 3000 - 2000 = \boxed{1000} \end{aligned}$$



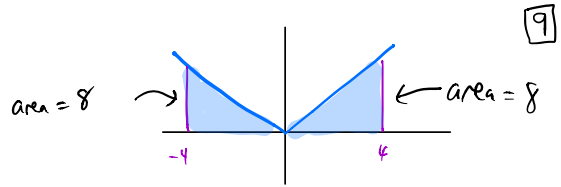
$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \int_4^{16} 3\sqrt{x} \, dx &= \int_4^{16} 3x^{1/2} \, dx = \frac{3x^{3/2}}{3/2} \Big|_4^{16} \\ &= 2x^{3/2} \Big|_4^{16} = 2\sqrt{x^3} \Big|_4^{16} = 2\sqrt{16^3} - 2\sqrt{4^3} = 2 \cdot 64 - 2 \cdot 8 = \boxed{112} \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \int_0^{2\pi} 3 \sin x \, dx &= -3 \cos x \Big|_0^{2\pi} \\ &= (-3 \cos 2\pi - -3 \cos 0) \\ &= -3 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 1 = \boxed{0} \end{aligned}$$



• $\int_{-4}^4 |x| dx = 16$ (see graph)

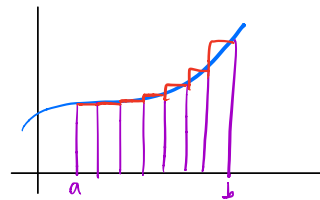


OR $= \int_{-4}^0 -x dx + \int_0^4 x dx$
 $= 8 + 8$ (exercise)

Application: Average value of a function.

Consider 3 football teams: Clemson: 8 wins
 NCSU: 5 wins
 USC: 3 wins

The average # wins $= \frac{8+5+3}{3} = \frac{16}{3} = 5.33\dots$



Now, consider a continuous quantity $f(x)$.

The average value of $f(x)$ on $a \leq x \leq b$ is $\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

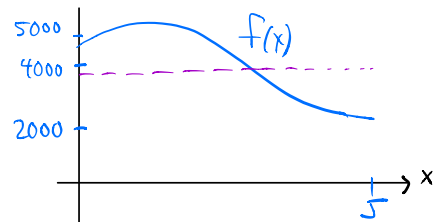
Ex: Suppose the elevation on a 5-mile hike is $f(x) = 60x^3 - 650x^2 + 1200x + 4500$ ft.

Find the average elevation.

Ans: $\frac{1}{5-0} \int_0^5 (60x^3 - 650x^2 + 1200x + 4500) dx$

$= \frac{1}{5} \left(15x^4 - \frac{650}{3}x^3 + 600x^2 + 4500x \right) \Big|_0^5$

$= \frac{1}{5} \left(15(5^4) - \frac{650}{3}(5^3) + 600(5^2) + 4500(5) \right) \approx \boxed{3958.3 \text{ ft}}$



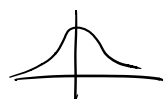
Derivatives vs. integrals

Derivatives have formulas: product, quotient, chain rule.

So we can always take the derivative of e.g., $\sin(e^{(x^2 + \cos x)})$.

Integrals have no such formulas. For example, $\int e^{-x^2} dx$ has no "closed form".

Computing integrals is more of an "art".



Recall the chain rule: $\frac{d}{dx}(F(g(x))) = F'(g(x)) g'(x) = f(g(x)) g'(x)$ [where $F' = f$.]

Now integrate both sides: $\int f(g(x)) g'(x) dx = F(g(x)) + C$

Let $u = g(x)$ $\int f(u) du = F(u) + C$.

so $\frac{du}{dx} = g'(x)$

$\Rightarrow du = g'(x) dx$

Examples

① $\int 2(2x+1)^{30} dx$. Let $u = 2x+1$ $\frac{du}{dx} = 2 \Rightarrow du = 2 dx$

$$= \int u^{30} du = \frac{1}{31} u^{31} + C = \frac{1}{31} (2x+1)^{31} dx$$

② $\int 3 e^{10x} dx$. Let $u = 10x$, $\frac{du}{dx} = 10 \Rightarrow du = 10 dx \Rightarrow \frac{3}{10} du = 3 dx$

$$= \int \frac{3}{10} e^u du = \frac{3}{10} e^u + C = \frac{3}{10} e^{10x} + C.$$

③ $\int x^4 (x^5+6)^9 dx$. Let $u = x^5+6 \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = 5x^4 \Rightarrow du = 5x^4 dx \Rightarrow \frac{1}{5} du = x^4 dx$

$$= \int u^9 \cdot \frac{1}{5} du = \frac{1}{5} \int u^9 du = \frac{1}{5} \frac{u^{10}}{10} + C = \frac{u^{10}}{50} + C = \frac{(x^5+6)^{10}}{50} + C.$$

④ $\int (\cos x)^3 \sin x dx$. Let $u = \cos x \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = -\sin x \Rightarrow -du = \sin x dx$

$$= \int -u^3 dx = -\frac{u^4}{4} + C = -\frac{(\cos x)^4}{4} + C.$$

Week of Oct 29 - Nov 2

⑤ $\int \frac{x dx}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$. Let $u = 1+x^2 \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = 2x \Rightarrow du = 2x dx \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} du = x dx$

$$= \int \frac{1}{2} u^{-1/2} du = \frac{1}{2} \frac{u^{1/2}}{1/2} + C = u^{1/2} + C = \sqrt{1+x^2} + C.$$

⑥ $\int 3x^2 \sqrt{x^3+1} dx$ Let $u = x^3+1 \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = 3x^2 \Rightarrow du = 3x^2 dx$

$$= \int \sqrt{u} du = \int u^{1/2} du = \frac{u^{3/2}}{3/2} + C = \frac{2}{3} u^{3/2} + C = \frac{2}{3} (x^3+1)^{3/2} + C = \frac{2}{3} \sqrt{(x^3+1)^3} + C.$$

⑦ $\int \frac{\sin t}{2-\cos t} dt$. Let $u = 2-\cos t \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dt} = \sin t \Rightarrow du = \sin t dt$

$$= \int -\frac{1}{u} du = -\ln|u| + C = -\ln|2-\cos t| + C.$$