

Wed 10/16

Previously: We've studied differential calculus - derivatives & rates of change.

Given a function $f(x)$, find its derivative, $f'(x)$.

Next, we'll do integral calculus, which is the opposite.

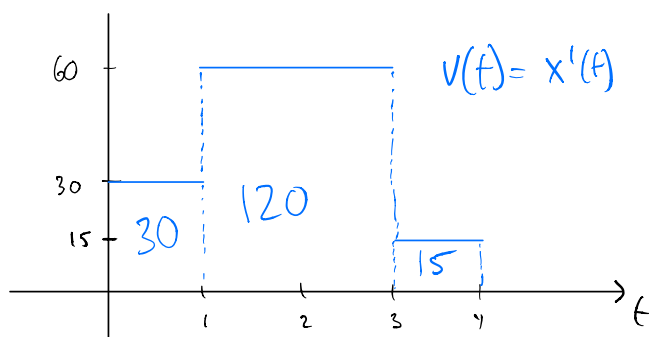
Given a rate $f'(x)$, find the "antiderivative" $f(x)$.

Big idea: Function $f(x)$ $\xrightarrow{\text{take derivative}}$ $f'(x)$ "rate of change"
 $\xleftarrow{\text{antiderivative}}$
area under curve \leftarrow We'll motivate this next.

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

Question: How far did you travel?

There are two ways to answer.



Method 1: "area under curve"

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} 0 \leq t \leq 1 \quad \left(30 \frac{\text{mi}}{\text{hr}}\right)(1 \text{ hr}) = 30 \text{ mi} \\ 1 \leq t \leq 3 \quad \left(60 \frac{\text{mi}}{\text{hr}}\right)(2 \text{ hr}) = 120 \text{ mi} \\ 3 \leq t \leq 4 \quad \left(15 \frac{\text{mi}}{\text{hr}}\right)(1 \text{ hr}) = 15 \text{ mi} \end{array} \right\} \text{total dist.} = 30 + 120 + 15 = 165 \text{ mi}$$

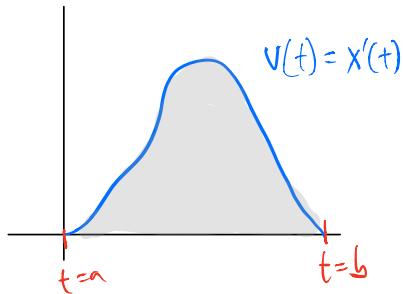
Method 2 "odometer"

Check your odometer after & before the trip. Subtract these values.

$$x(4) - x(1) = \boxed{5200} - \boxed{5035} = 165 \text{ mi}$$

★ This is half of the "Fundamental Theorem of Calculus."

It works more generally, not just for piecewise functions.



Velocity is the derivative of distance

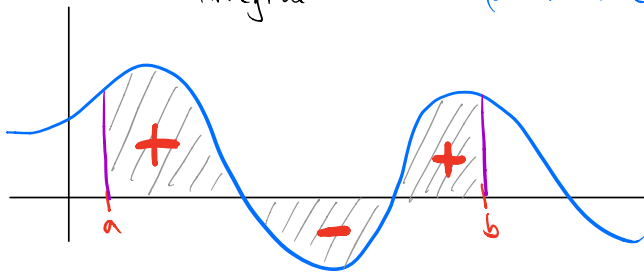
Total distance is:

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

Key concept: The "net area", or "signed area" from a to b , denoted $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, is

↑ "integral"

"(area above x-axis) - (area below x-axis)"



Why we need signed area (an example):

Consider a road trip:

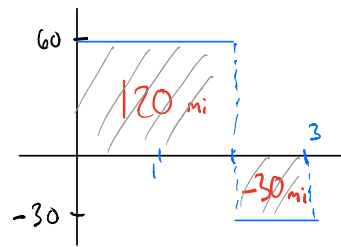
$0 \leq t \leq 2$ driving away from home at 60 mph

$2 \leq t \leq 3$ driving towards home at 30 mph

How far from home (net dist.) are you?

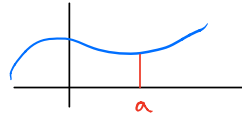
Ans 1: Signed area under curve = $120 \text{ mi} - 30 \text{ mi} = 90 \text{ mi}$

Ans 2: GPS readings: $x(3) - x(0) = 90 \text{ mi} - 0 \text{ mi} = 90 \text{ mi}$.



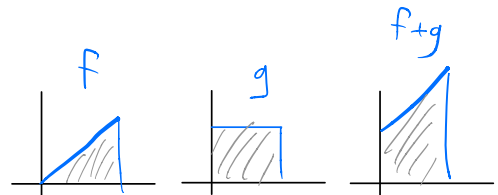
Properties of signed area:

① $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$

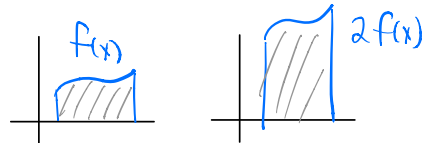


② $\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\int_b^a f(x) dx$

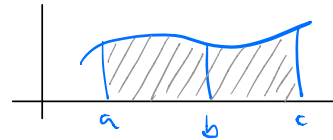
③ $\int_a^b f(x) + g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$



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



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

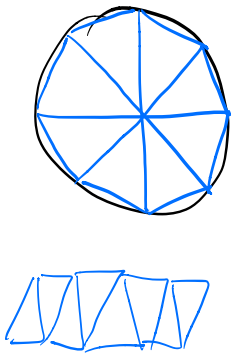


Recall that we had a limit definition of the derivative:

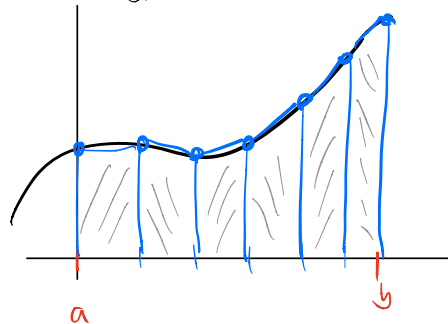
$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \text{slope of tangent line.}$$

Now, we'll need a limit definition for (signed) area under the curve.

This is motivated by Archimedes limit definition of the area of a circle.



one (of many) ways to do this

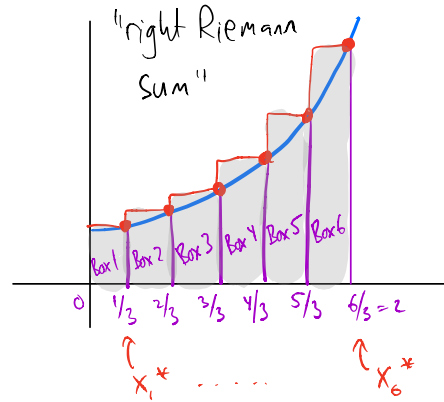
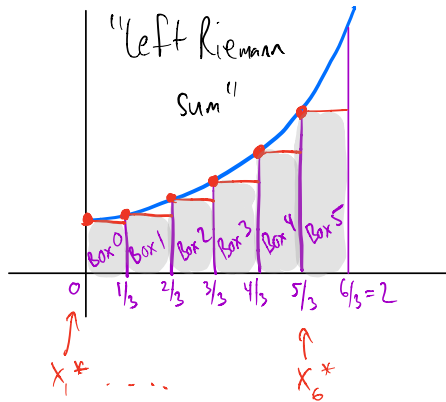


$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n (\text{area of } \square) \\ &= ??? \end{aligned}$$

Mon 10/21

Riemann sums "approximate area under the curve"

Example: Approximate the area under $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ from $a=0$ to $b=2$.

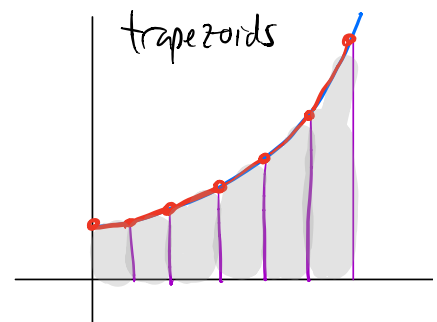
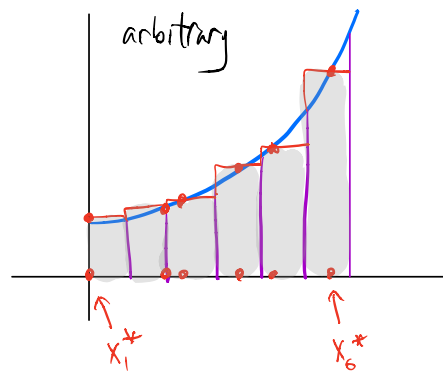
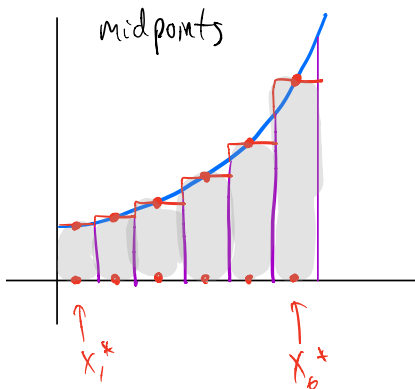


Here, we are subdividing the interval $[a, b] = [0, 2]$ into $n=6$ equal parts, each one having width $\Delta x = 2/6 = 1/3$.

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

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

Alternatively, one can approximate the area using the midpoint of each box, or any other point, or with trapezoids.



Regardless of which Riemann sum we choose,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area} &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \text{area of } i^{\text{th}} \text{ box} \right) \\ &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \cdot \Delta x \right) := \int_a^b f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

\int_a^b $f(x)$ dx

Let's compute this explicitly for $f(x) = x^2 + 1$, i.e., $\int_0^2 (x^2 + 1) dx$.

First, we'll review "sigma notation":

$$\sum_{k=1}^6 k = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 = \sum_{i=1}^6 i$$

↑ "dummy variable"

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

$$\sum_{k=1}^n c a_k = c \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$$
 "pull out constants"

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

Right endpoints: $\frac{2}{n}, \frac{4}{n}, \dots, \frac{2i}{n}, \dots, 2$

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

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

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

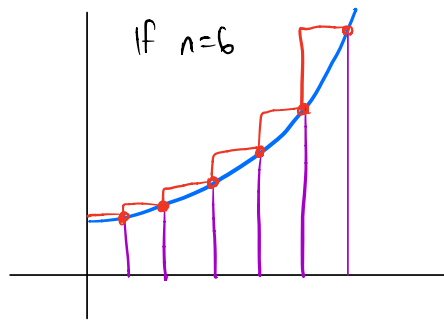
$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{8i^2}{n^3} + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2}{n}$$

$$= \frac{8}{n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 + \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n 1$$

$$= \frac{8}{n^3} \left[\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \right] + \frac{2}{n} \cdot [n]$$

Now, take $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}$: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{8}{6} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{n^3} + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2$

$$= \frac{4}{3} \cdot 2 + 2 = \boxed{\frac{14}{3}}$$

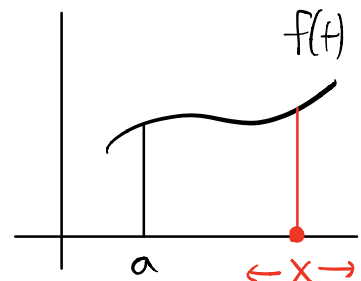


Wed 10/22

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

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

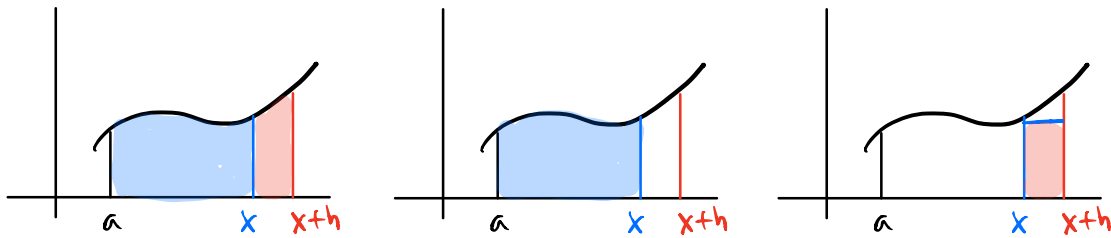
= area under the curve from a to x



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

Remark:

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



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

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

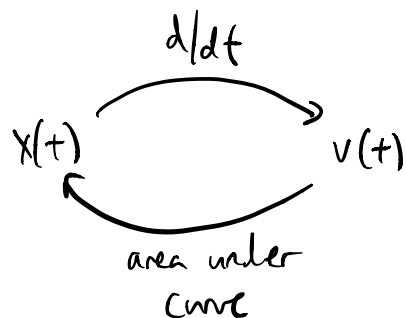
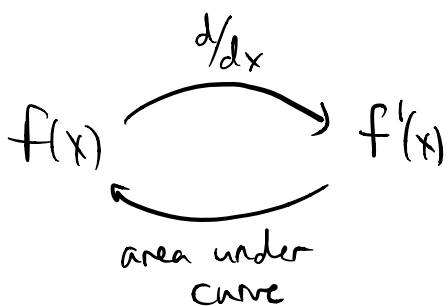
Take $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0}$ of both sides:

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

Big idea: If $A(x)$ is the area function of $f(x)$, then

$$\frac{d}{dx}(A(x)) = f(x). \text{ In other words:}$$

"the derivative; area functions are inverse operations"



This is the Fundamental theorem of calculus, Part 1

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) ,

$$\text{then } \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x)$$

We say that $F(x)$ is an antiderivative of $f(x)$ if $F'(x) = f(x)$.

Antiderivatives are not unique!

Antiderivatives of $f(x) = 2x$ include x^2, x^2+1, x^2+2, \dots

Fact: If $F(x), G(x)$ are antiderivatives of $f(x)$, then

$$F(x) - G(x) = C, \text{ for some constant.}$$

Why: $(F - G)' = F' - G' = C - C = 0 \Rightarrow F - G = C.$

Now, consider a function $f(x)$.

We know $A(x)$ is an antiderivative (by FTC 1)

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

$$\text{Then } F(x) = A(x) + C$$

$$\Rightarrow F(b) - F(a) = (A(b) + C) - (A(a) + C)$$

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

Recall: $A(a) = 0$

This is the Fundamental theorem of calculus, Part 2

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

$$\text{then } \int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$