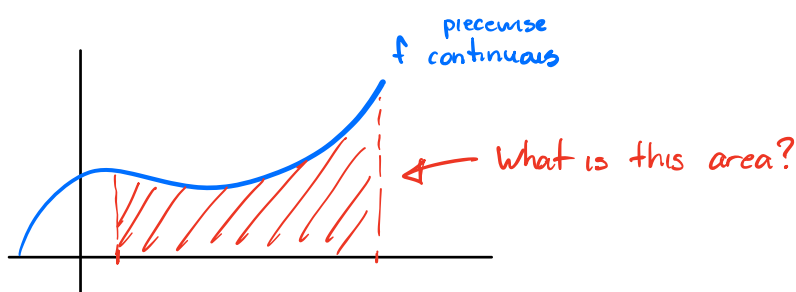


Integration



Analogy: exponents What is 2^0 ? 2^{-3} ? $2^{1/2}$? 2^π ?
 $(1 \quad \frac{1}{2^3} \quad \sqrt{2} \quad *)$
 can't prove any of these

We can define exponents when the power is a positive integer.

$$a^b = \underbrace{a \times a \times \dots \times a}_{b \text{ copies of } a} \quad \text{if } b \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

We define $a^0 = 1$ (for $a \neq 0$)

$$a^{-b} = \frac{a}{b}$$

$$a^{1/b} = \sqrt[b]{a}$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} a^b \cdot a^c = a^{b+c} \\ (a^b)^c = a^{bc} \end{array} \right) \quad b, c \in \mathbb{Z}^+$$

← extend powers to more numbers so that it makes sense

In a similar fashion, we extend our definition of area beyond that of a rectangle in a way that makes sense.

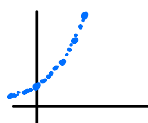
We begin with:

Area of a rectangle = length \times width

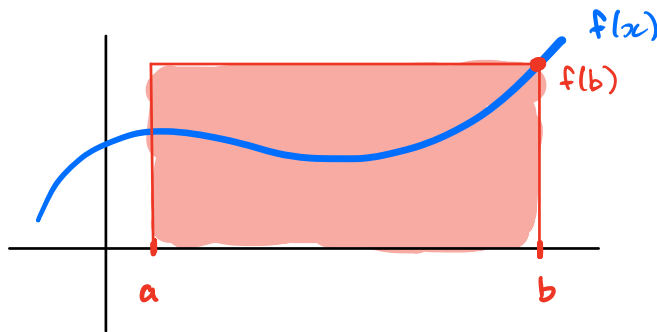
$$\circ \begin{array}{|c|} \hline \square \\ \hline \end{array} \quad \leftarrow \text{Area} = ab$$

What about a curve?

$$\text{Analogy: } 2^\pi = \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow \pi, \\ x \in \mathbb{Q}}} 2^x$$

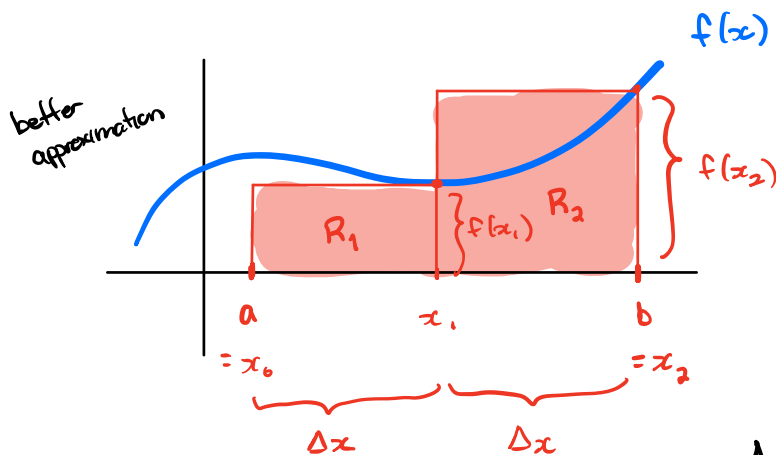


We will approximate using rectangles.



Using 1 rectangle:
choose height = $f(b)$

$$A \approx f(b)(b-a)$$



Using 2 rectangles:

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{2}$$

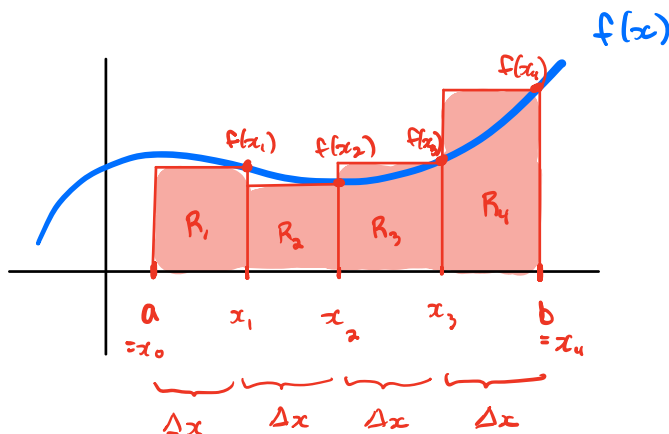
$$x_1 = a + \Delta x$$

On $[x_0, x_1]$, use height $f(x_1)$

$[x_1, x_2]$, use height $f(x_2)$

$$A \approx R_1 + R_2$$

$$= f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x$$



Using 4 rectangles:

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{4}$$

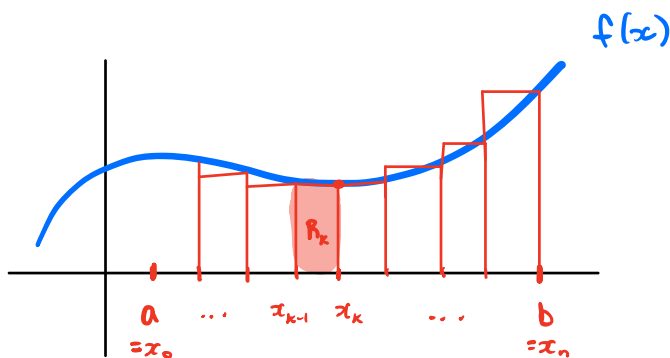
$$x_k = a + k\Delta x$$

We partition $[a, b]$ into 4 subintervals:

$$[x_{k-1}, x_k] \text{ for } k=1, 2, 3, 4$$

On each subinterval, approx the area with R_k of height $f(x_k)$

$$A \approx R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + R_4 = \sum_{k=1}^4 R_k = \sum_{k=1}^4 f(x_k)\Delta x$$



In general, use n rectangles:

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$x_k = a + k\Delta x$$

On $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$, use a rectangle of height $f(x_k)$.

$$A \approx \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \Delta x$$

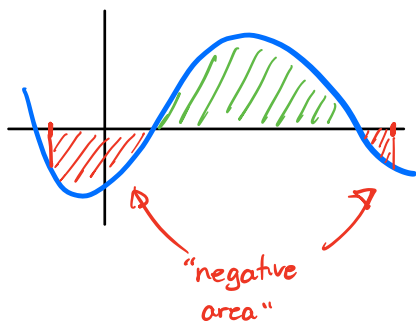
Right-hand Riemann Sum

As n increases, the approximation gets better.

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \Delta x$$

definition of area

This formula still works if f takes on negative values, but we get the signed area:



Note: Instead of using $f(x_k)$ as the height of R_k on $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$, we can use $x_k^* \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ and then

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x$$

i.e. the choice of which x_k^* to use does not affect the area.

$$x_k^* = x_k \quad \text{Right Riemann Sum}$$

$$x_k^* = x_{k-1} \quad \text{Left Riemann Sum}$$

$$x_k^* = \frac{x_{k-1} + x_k}{2} \quad \text{Midpoint Rule}$$

Terminology: The definite integral of $f(x)$ between $x=a$ and $x=b$ is given by

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \Delta x$$

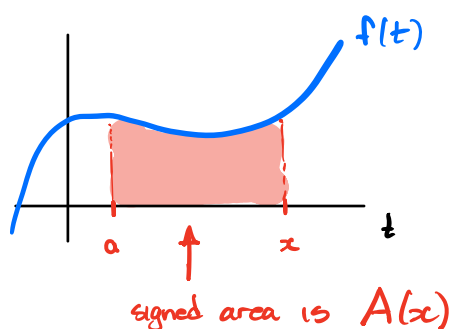
Annotations:
 - upper limit of integration: b
 - lower limit of integration: a
 - integrating variable: x
 - integrand: $f(x)$

Note: x is a dummy variable

i.e. the definite integral of f between a and b is the signed area under f between a and b .

Consider $A(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$

("area so far" function, accumulation function)



Q: What is $A'(x)$?

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

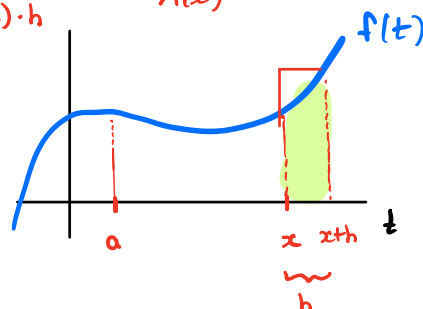
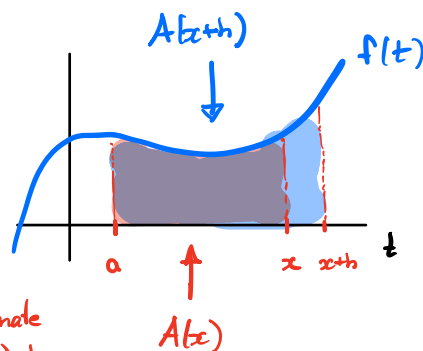
$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt}{h}$$

can approximate using $f(x+h) \cdot h$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) \cdot \cancel{h}}{\cancel{h}}$$

$$= f(x)$$

if f is continuous at x



We have proved:

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus I:

(FTC I)

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

Challenge: Use Chain Rule to prove

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{g(x)}^{h(x)} f(t) dt = f(h(x)) \cdot h'(x) - f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

Def'n: If $F'(x) = f(x)$, then we call $F(x)$ an antiderivative of $f(x)$.

eg $f(x) = x^2$ What are some antiderivatives of f ?

$$\frac{1}{3}x^3, \quad \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 1, \quad \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 2, \quad \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$$

Are there any others? No.

Thm: If F and G are antideriv. of f , then

$$F(x) = G(x) + C \quad \forall x$$

By FTC I, $A(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is an antideriv. of $f(x)$.

Suppose $F(x)$ is any antideriv. of f . Then $A(x) = F(x) + C$. ^(*)

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(t) dt = A(b)$$

$$\text{Ndc: } A(a) = 0$$

$$= A(b) - A(a) = (F(b) + \cancel{C}) - (F(a) + \cancel{C}) \quad \text{by (*)}$$

$$= F(b) - F(a)$$

Not'n: $F(x) \Big|_a^b = F(b) - F(a)$

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus II

(FTC II)

If $F(x)$ is an antideriv. of $f(x)$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(x) \Big|_a^b$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{eg } \int_0^2 x^2 dx &= \frac{1}{3} x^3 \Big|_0^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{3} (2^3 - 0^3) \\ &= \frac{8}{3} \end{aligned}$$

