

## Lecture 1

# Calculus II

**Textbook :** Calculus for Scientists and Engineers, Early transcendentals

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Calculus II

# Course Summary

## Lecture 1

### CH.5 Integration

#### Inverse Functions

1.3 Inverse, Exponential, and Logarithmic Functions

1.4 Inverse Trigonometric Functions

#### Derivatives and Integrals

3.8 Derivatives of Logarithmic and Exponential Functions

3.9 Derivatives of Inverse Trigonometric Functions

6.8 Logarithmic and Exponential Functions Revisited

Integrals involving Inverse Trigonometric Functions

### CH.7 Integration Techniques

### CH.6 Applications of Integration

# CH.5 Integration

## Lecture 1

### Chapter Summary

#### 5.1 Approximating Areas under Curves

- Area under a Velocity Curve
- Approximating Areas by Riemann Sums:
- Riemann Sums Using Sigma Notation

#### 5.2 Definite Integrals

- Net area
- General Riemann Sum
- Evaluating definite integrals
- Evaluating Definite Integrals Using Limits

#### Properties of Definite Integrals

#### 5.3 Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

#### 5.4 Working with Integrals

#### 5.5 Substitution Rule

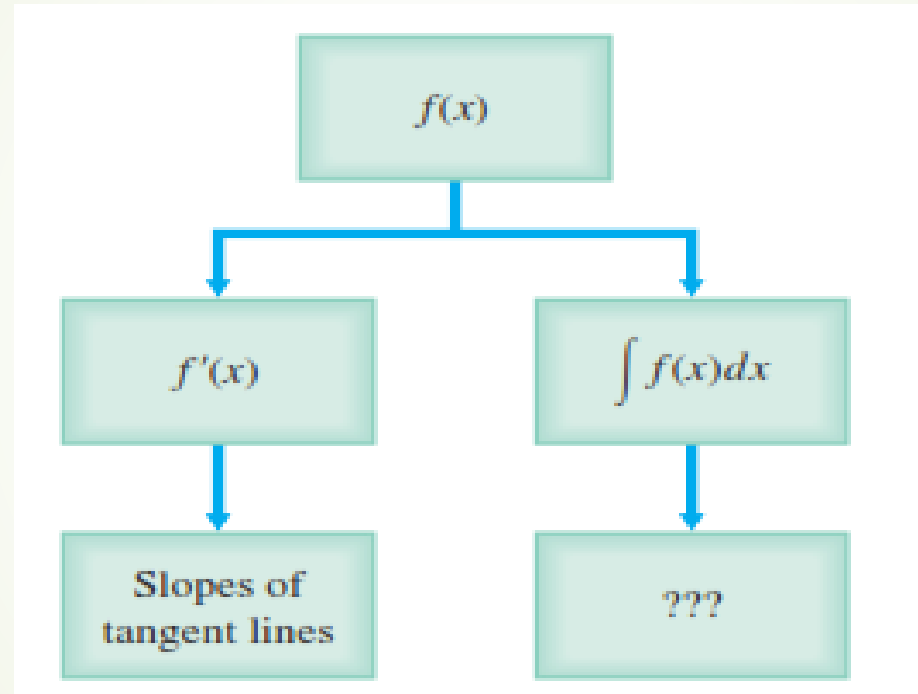
# CH.5 Integration

## Lecture 1

### 5.1 Approximating Areas under Curves

differentiation and integration.

The **derivative** of a function is associated with rates of change and slopes of tangent lines



**antiderivatives** (or indefinite integrals) reverse the derivative operation.

What is the geometric meaning of the integral?

The following example reveals a clue

# Area under a Velocity Curve

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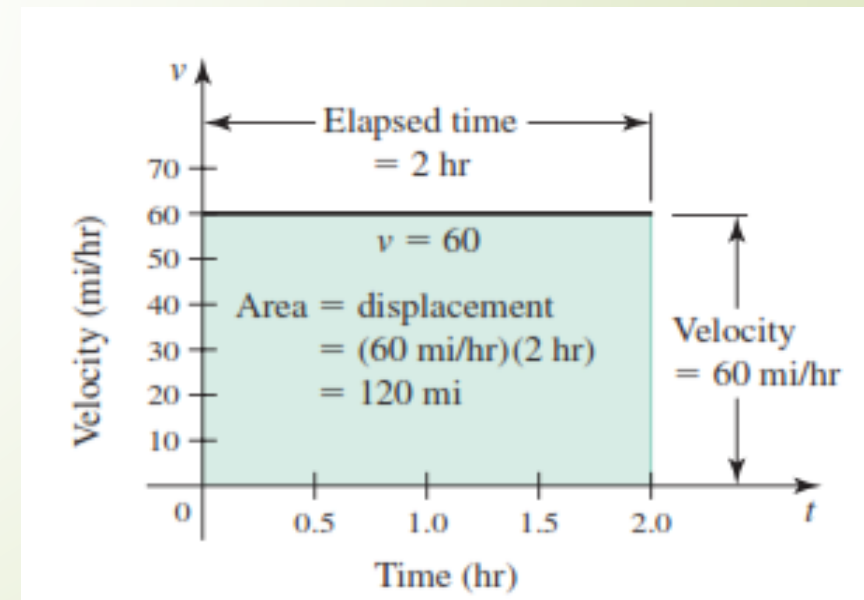
We begin by explaining why finding the area of regions bounded by the graphs of functions is such an important problem in calculus. Then you will see how antiderivatives lead to definite integrals,

Imagine a car traveling at **a constant velocity** of 60 mi / hr along a straight highway over a **two-hour period**. The graph of the velocity function  $v = 60$  on the interval  $0 \leq t \leq 2$  **is a horizontal line**

$$\begin{aligned}\text{displacement} &= \text{rate} \cdot \text{Time} \\ &= 60 \cdot 2 = 120 \text{ mi}\end{aligned}$$

we see that the area between the velocity curve and the  $t$ -axis is **the displacement** of the moving object.

- we must extend these ideas to **positive velocities** that *change over an interval of time*

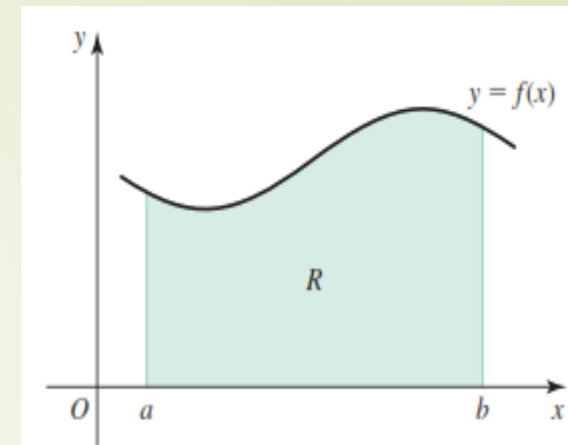




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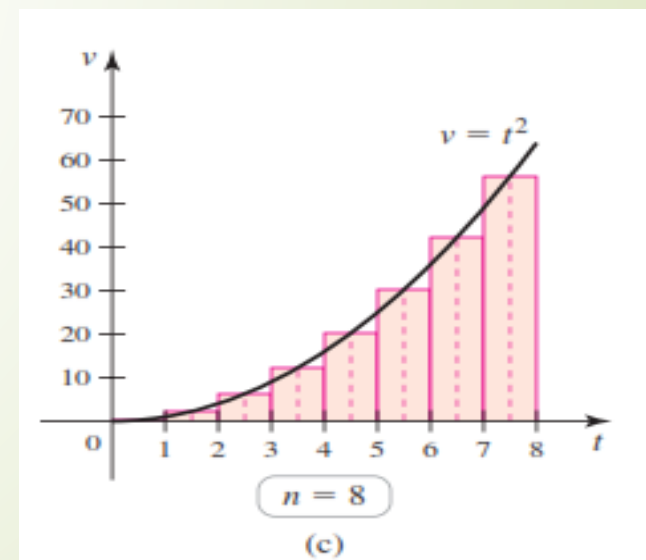
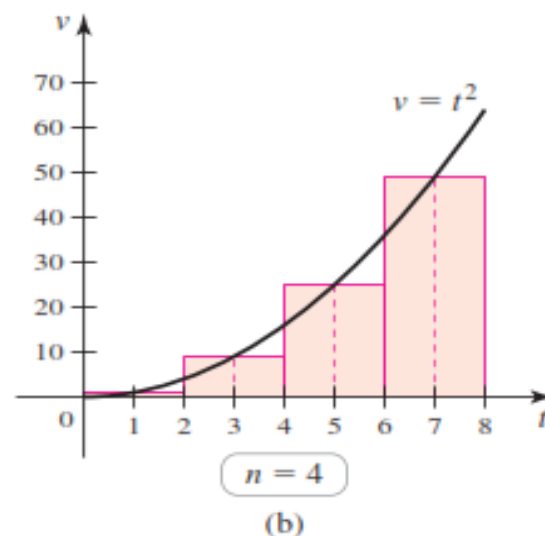
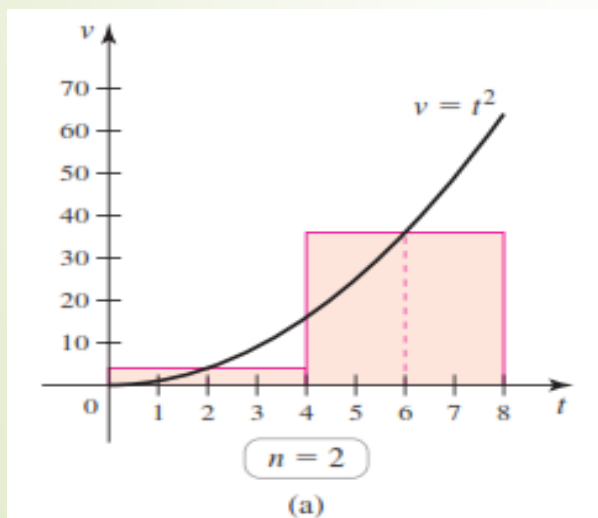
### An approximation to the displacement:

- ❑ One strategy is to divide the time interval into many subintervals and approximate the velocity on each subinterval by a constant velocity. Then the displacements on each subinterval are calculated and summed.



### Example

An object moving along a line is given by the function  $v = t^2$ , where  $0 \leq t \leq 8$ .



## Lecture 1

Approximate the displacement of the object by dividing the time interval  $[0,8]$  into  $n$  subintervals of equal length. On each subinterval, approximate the velocity by a constant equal to the value of  $v$  evaluated at the midpoint of the subinterval.

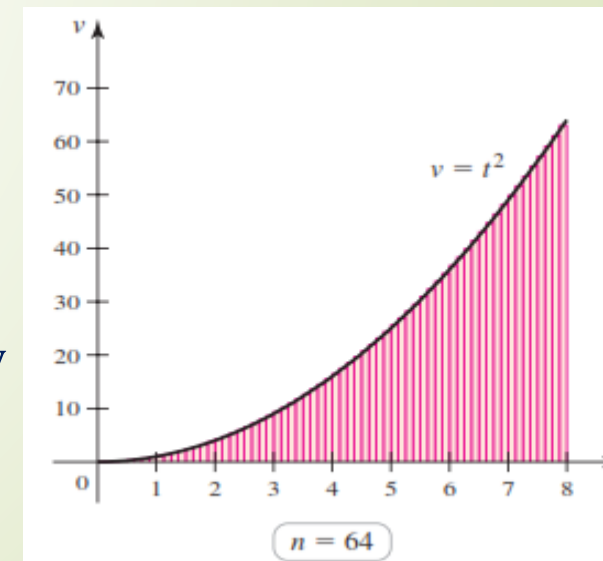
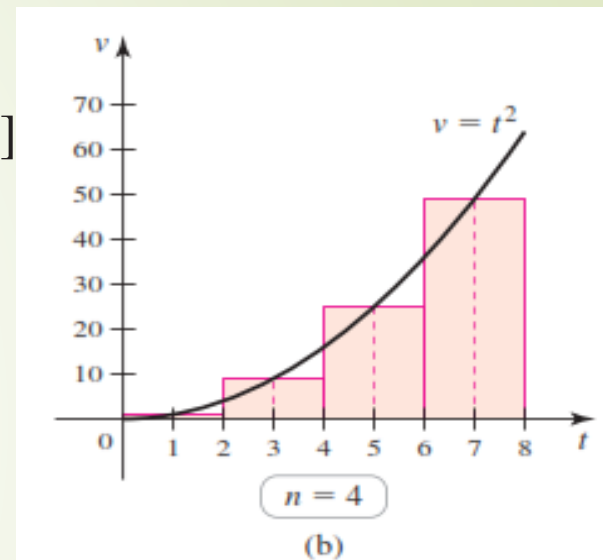
### Solution

Divide  $[0, 8]$  into  $n = 4$  subintervals:  $[0, 2]$ ,  $[2, 4]$ ,  $[4, 6]$ , and  $[6, 8]$

- With  $n = 4$  (Figure 5.4b), each subinterval has length 2. The approximate displacement over the entire interval is

$$\underbrace{(1 \text{ m/s} \cdot 2 \text{ s})}_{v(1)} + \underbrace{(9 \text{ m/s} \cdot 2 \text{ s})}_{v(3)} + \underbrace{(25 \text{ m/s} \cdot 2 \text{ s})}_{v(5)} + \underbrace{(49 \text{ m/s} \cdot 2 \text{ s})}_{v(7)} = 168 \text{ m.}$$

- With  $n = 8$  subintervals (Figure 5.4c), the approximation to the displacement is 170 m.
- ☐ this approximation generally improves as the number of subintervals increases
- ☐ The limit is the exact displacement, which is represented by the area of the region under the velocity curve



# Approximating Areas by Riemann Sums:

## Lecture 1

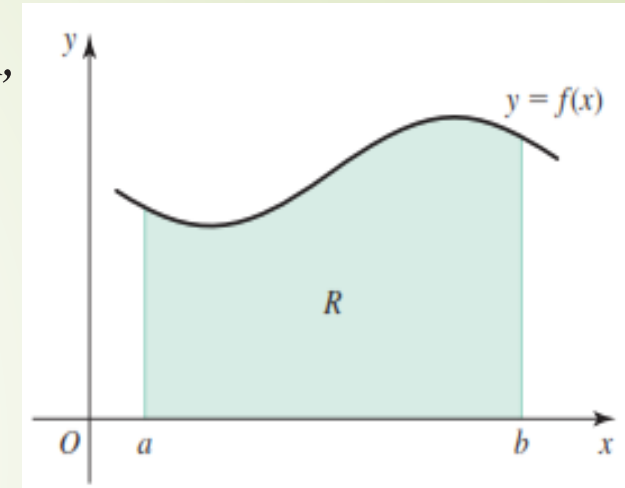
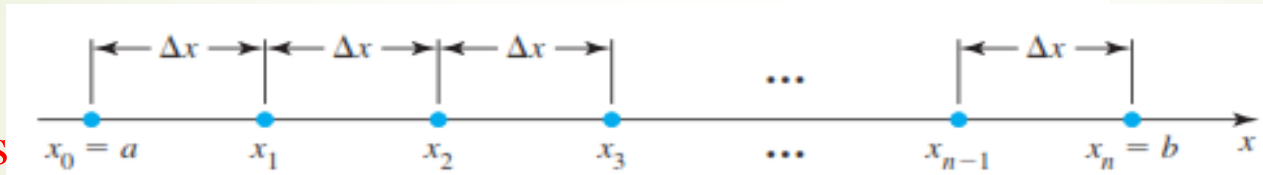
We now develop a method for approximating areas under curves.

- We begin by dividing the interval  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals of **equal** length,

$$[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n],$$

- The length of each subinterval, denoted  $\Delta x$ , 
$$\Delta x = \frac{b - a}{n}.$$

grid points



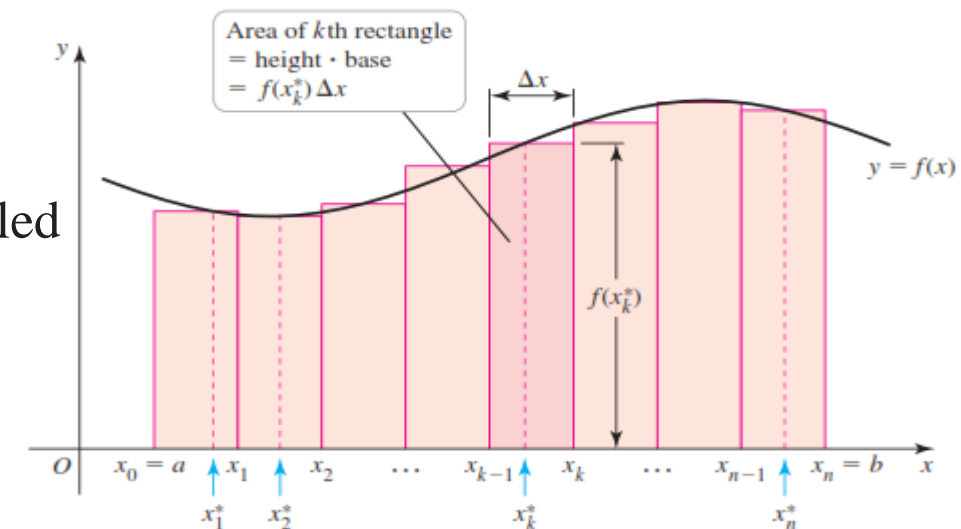
- In general, the  $k$ th grid point is  $x_k = a + k\Delta x$ , for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

- The area of the rectangle on the  $k$ th subinterval is:

$$\text{height} \cdot \text{base} = f(x_k^*) \Delta x,$$

- we obtain an approximation to the area of  $R$ , which is called a **Riemann sum**:

$$f(x_1^*) \Delta x + f(x_2^*) \Delta x + \dots + f(x_n^*) \Delta x.$$





## Lecture 1

### DEFINITION Riemann Sum

Suppose  $f$  is defined on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , which is divided into  $n$  subintervals of equal length  $\Delta x$ . If  $x_k^*$  is any point in the  $k$ th subinterval  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , then

$$f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n^*)\Delta x$$

is called a **Riemann sum** for  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ . This sum is

- a **left Riemann sum** if  $x_k^*$  is the left endpoint of  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$  (Figure 5.9);
- a **right Riemann sum** if  $x_k^*$  is the right endpoint of  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$  (Figure 5.10); and
- a **midpoint Riemann sum** if  $x_k^*$  is the midpoint of  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$  (Figure 5.11), for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

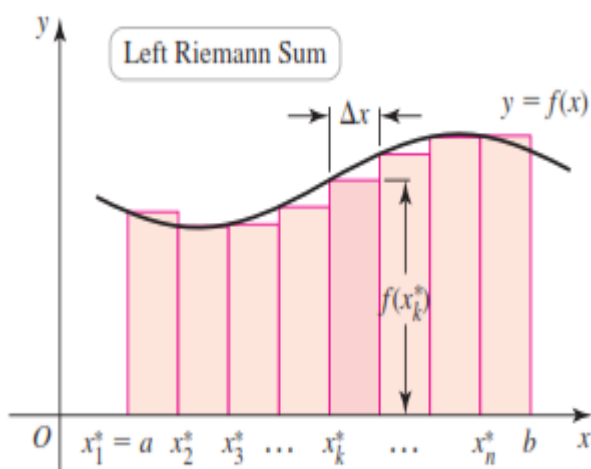


FIGURE 5.9

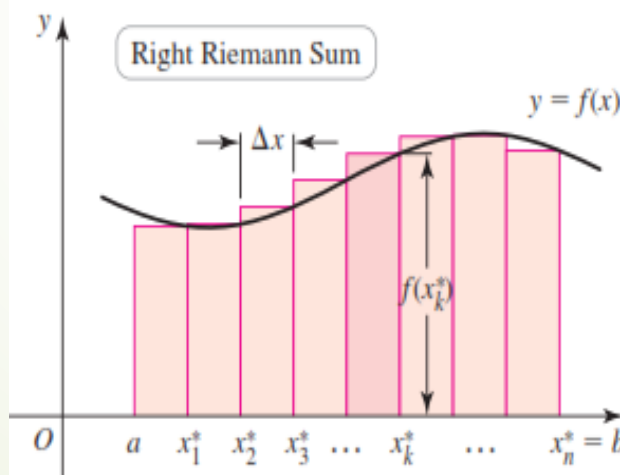


FIGURE 5.10

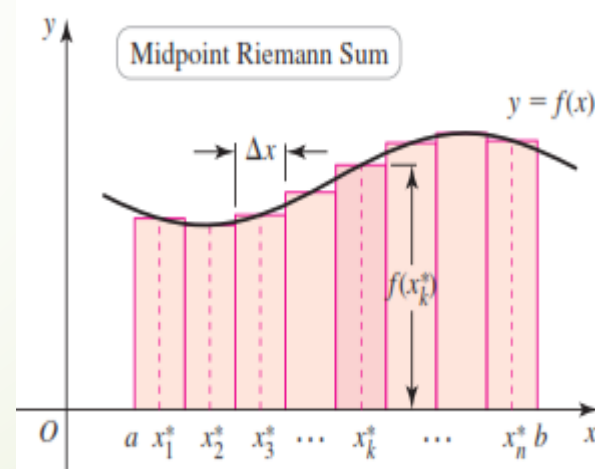


FIGURE 5.11

## Example

**Area under the sine curve** Let  $R$  be the region bounded by the graph of  $f(x) = \sin x$  and the  $x$ -axis between  $x = 0$  and  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

- a) Approximate the area of  $R$  using a left Riemann sum with  $n = 6$  subintervals. Illustrate the sum with the appropriate rectangles.
- b) Approximate the area of  $R$  using a right Riemann sum with  $n = 6$  subintervals. Illustrate the sum with the appropriate rectangles.
- c) How do the area approximations in parts (a) and (b) compare to the actual area under the curve?
- d) Approximate the area of  $R$  using a midpoint Riemann sum with  $n = 6$  subintervals. Illustrate the sum with the appropriate rectangles.

## Solution

Dividing the interval  $[a, b] = [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$  into  $n = 6$  subintervals means the length of each subinterval is

$$\Delta x = \frac{b - a}{n} = \frac{\pi/2 - 0}{6} = \frac{\pi}{12}.$$

To find the left Riemann sum, we set  $x_1^*, x_2^*, x_3^*, \dots, x_6^*$  equal to the left endpoints of the six subintervals. The heights of the rectangles are  $f(x_k^*)$ , for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, 6$ .

a) The resulting **left Riemann sum** (Figure 5.12) is:

## Lecture 1

$$f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_6^*)\Delta x$$

$$= \left[ \sin(0) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] \\ + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{5\pi}{12}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] \\ \approx 0.863.$$

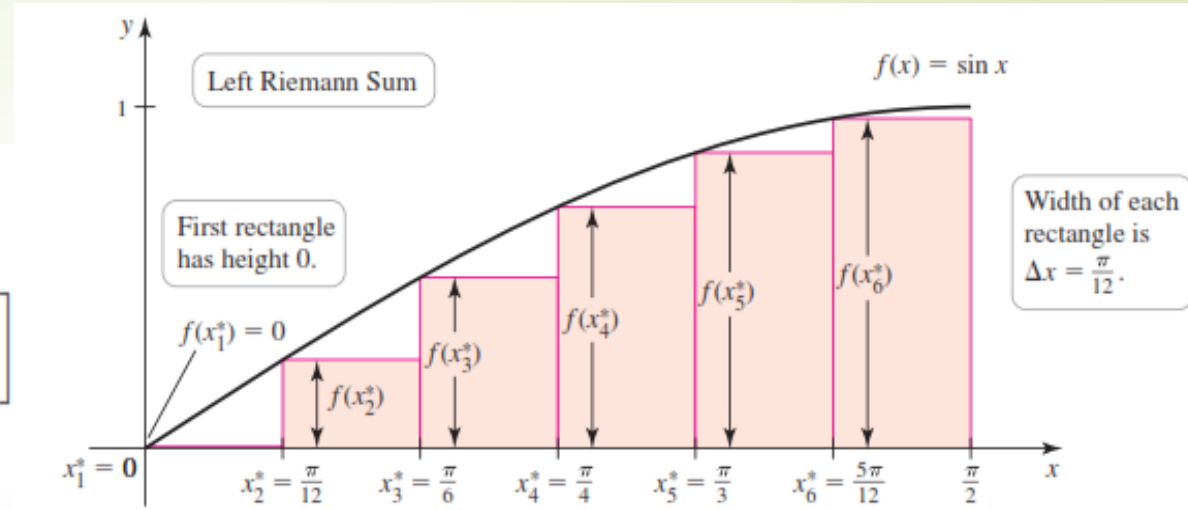


FIGURE 5.12

b) The resulting **right Riemann sum** (Figure 5.13) is:

$$f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_6^*)\Delta x$$

$$= \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{12}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] \\ + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{5\pi}{12}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] \\ \approx 1.125.$$

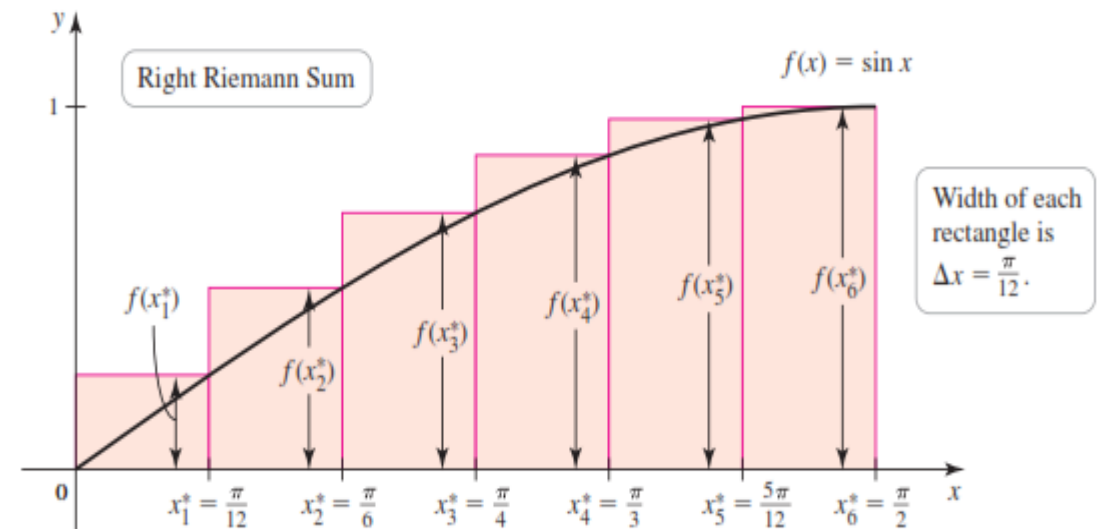


FIGURE 5.13

## Lecture 1

- c) Looking at the graphs, we see that *the left Riemann sum* in part (a) **underestimates the actual area of  $R$** , whereas the right Riemann sum in part (b) **overestimates the area of  $R$** .

Therefore, the area of  $R$  is between **0.863** and **1.125**.

**As the number of rectangles increases, these approximations improve.**

- d) To find the midpoint Riemann sum, we set  $x$  equal to the midpoints of the subintervals. The midpoint of the first subinterval is the average of  $x_0$  and  $x_1$ , which is

$$x_1^* = \frac{x_1 + x_0}{2} = \frac{\pi/12 + 0}{2} = \frac{\pi}{24}.$$

The remaining midpoints are also computed by averaging the two nearest grid points.

The resulting midpoint Riemann sum (Figure 5.14) is:

$$\begin{aligned} & f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_6^*)\Delta x \\ &= \left[ \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{24}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{24}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{5\pi}{24}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] \\ &+ \left[ \sin\left(\frac{7\pi}{24}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{9\pi}{24}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] + \left[ \sin\left(\frac{11\pi}{24}\right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{12} \right] \\ &\approx 1.003. \end{aligned}$$

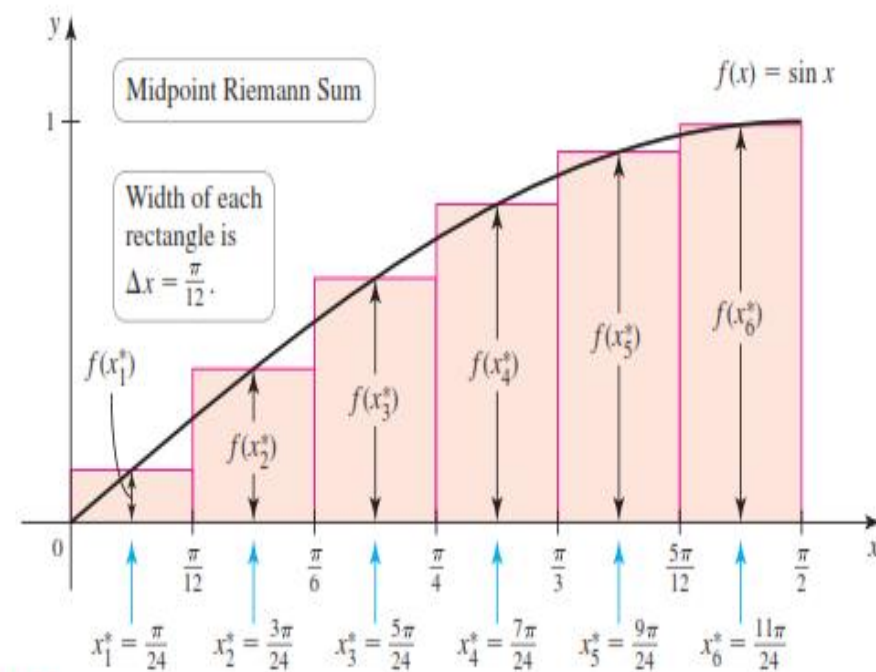


FIGURE 5.14



Comparing **the midpoint Riemann sum** (Figure 5.14) with **the left** (Figure 5.12) and **right** (Figure 5.13) **Riemann sums** suggests that the midpoint sum is a more accurate estimate of the area under the curve.

## Sigma (Summation) Notation

Working with Riemann sums is cumbersome with large numbers of subintervals. Therefore, we pause for a moment to introduce some notation that simplifies our work.

**Sigma (or summation) notation is used to express sums in a compact way.**

$$\sum_{k=1}^{10} k$$

the upper limit

the lower limit

The index

For example,

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = 1 + 2 + \cdots + n$$

$$\sum_{k=0}^3 k^2 = 0^2 + 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 = 14$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{99} k = \sum_{n=1}^{99} n = \sum_{p=1}^{99} p.$$



## Two properties of sums

### Lecture 1

- *Constant Multiple Rule*

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

- *Addition Rule*

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

#### **THEOREM 5.1** Sums of Positive Integers

Let  $n$  be a positive integer.

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

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

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

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

## Riemann Sums Using Sigma Notation

With sigma notation, a Riemann sum has the convenient compact form:

$$f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n^*)\Delta x = \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*)\Delta x.$$

□ To express **left**, **right**, and **midpoint Riemann sums** in sigma notation, we must identify the points  $x_k^*$ .

- For **left Riemann sums**, the left endpoints of the subintervals are

$$x_k^* = a + (k - 1)\Delta x, \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, n.$$

- For **right Riemann sums**, the right endpoints of the subintervals are

$$x_k^* = a + k\Delta x, \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, n.$$

- For **midpoint Riemann sums**, the midpoints of the subintervals are

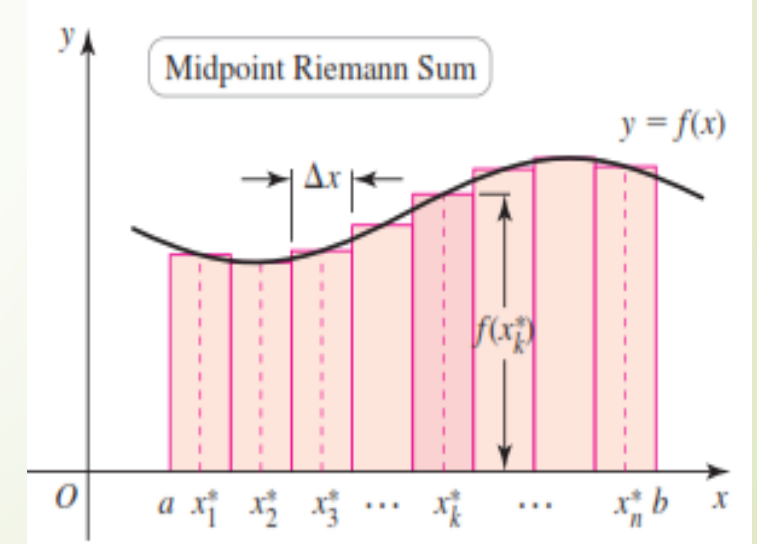
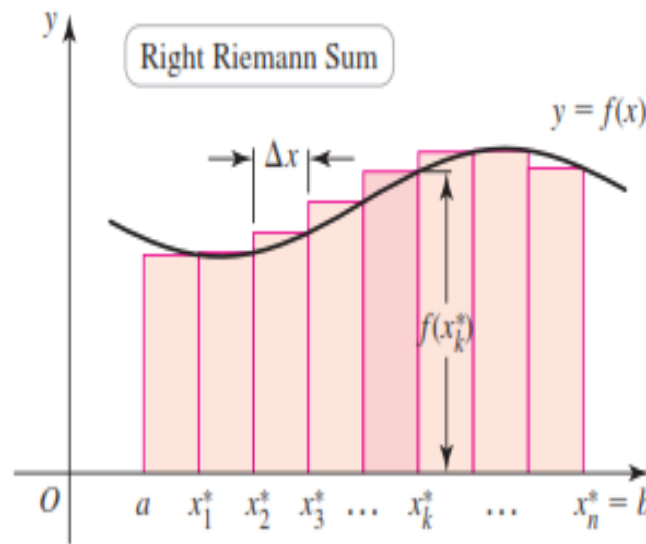
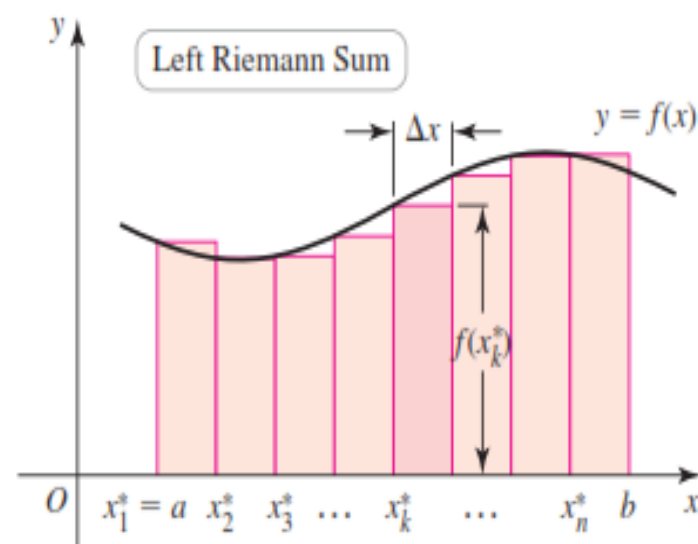
$$x_k^* = a + (k - \frac{1}{2})\Delta x, \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, n.$$

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### DEFINITION Left, Right, and Midpoint Riemann Sums in Sigma Notation

Suppose  $f$  is defined on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , which is divided into  $n$  subintervals of equal length  $\Delta x$ . If  $x_k^*$  is a point in the  $k$ th subinterval  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , then the **Riemann sum** of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  is  $\sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x$ . Three cases arise in practice.

- **left Riemann sum** if  $x_k^* = a + (k - 1) \Delta x$
- **right Riemann sum** if  $x_k^* = a + k \Delta x$
- **midpoint Riemann sum** if  $x_k^* = a + \left(k - \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta x$ , for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$



## Example

### Lecture 1

**Calculating Riemann sums** Evaluate the left, right, and midpoint Riemann sums of  $f(x)=x^3 + 1$  between  $a = 0$  and  $b = 2$  using  $n = 50$  subintervals. Make a conjecture about the exact area of the region under the curve (Figure 5.15).

## Solution

With  $n = 50$ , the length of each subinterval is

$$\Delta x = \frac{b - a}{n} = \frac{2 - 0}{50} = \frac{1}{25} = 0.04.$$

The value of  $x_k^*$  for the **left Riemann sum** is

$$x_k^* = a + (k - 1)\Delta x = 0 + 0.04(k - 1) = 0.04k - 0.04, \text{ for } k = 1, 2, 3, \dots, 50.$$

Therefore, the left Riemann sum, evaluated with a **calculator**, is

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*)\Delta x = \sum_{k=1}^{50} f(0.04k - 0.04)0.04 = 5.8416.$$

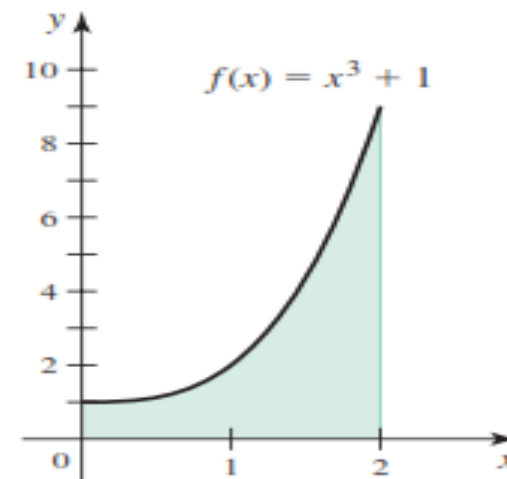


FIGURE 5.15

To evaluate **the right Riemann sum**, we let  $x_k^* = a + k\Delta x = 0.04k$  and find that:

## Lecture 1

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x = \sum_{k=1}^{50} f(0.04k) 0.04 = 6.1616.$$

Rather than evaluating this sum with a calculator, we note that  $f(0.04k) = (0.04k)^3 + 1$

and then use the properties of sums:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x = \sum_{k=1}^{50} \underbrace{((0.04k)^3 + 1)}_{f(x_k^*)} \underbrace{0.04}_{\Delta x}$$

$$\sum (a_k + b_k) = \sum a_k + \sum b_k$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{50} (0.04k)^3 0.04 + \sum_{k=1}^{50} 1 \cdot 0.04$$

$$\sum c a_k = c \sum a_k$$

$$= (0.04)^4 \sum_{k=1}^{50} k^3 + 0.04 \sum_{k=1}^{50} 1.$$

Using the summation formulas for powers of integers in Theorem 5.1, we find that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{50} 1 = 50 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=1}^{50} k^3 = \frac{50^2 \cdot 51^2}{4}.$$

Substituting the values of these sums into the right Riemann sum, its value is



## Lecture 1

$$\sum_{k=1}^{50} f(x_k^*) \Delta x = \frac{3851}{625} = 6.1616,$$

For the midpoint Riemann sum, we let

$$x_k^* = a + \left(k - \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta x = 0 + 0.04 \left(k - \frac{1}{2}\right) = 0.04k - 0.02.$$

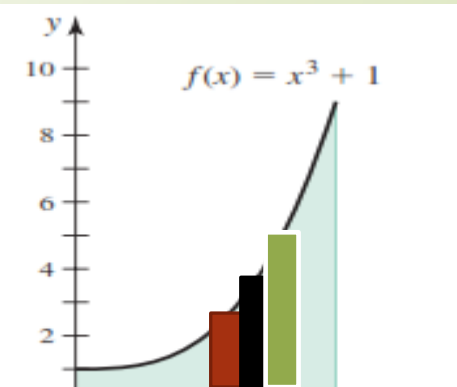
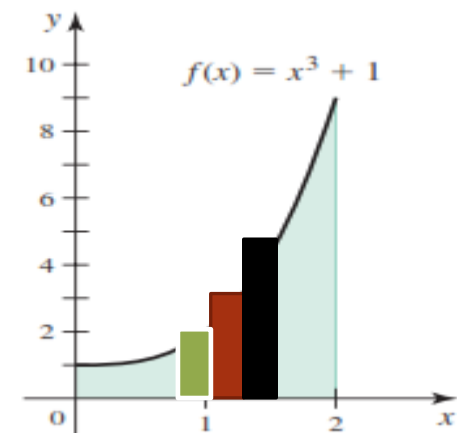
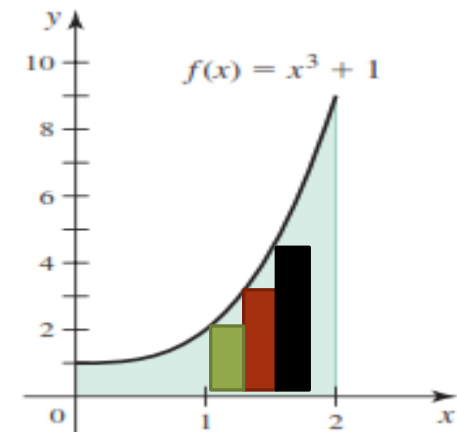
The value of the sum is

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x = \sum_{k=1}^{50} f(0.04k - 0.02) 0.04 \approx 5.9992.$$

Note :

Because  $f$  is *increasing* on  $[0, 2]$ ,

- the left Riemann sum **underestimates** the area of the shaded region in Figure 5.15, while
- the right Riemann sum **overestimates** the area. Therefore, the exact area lies between 5.8416 and 6.1616.
- The midpoint Riemann sum usually gives **the best estimate** for increasing or decreasing functions.

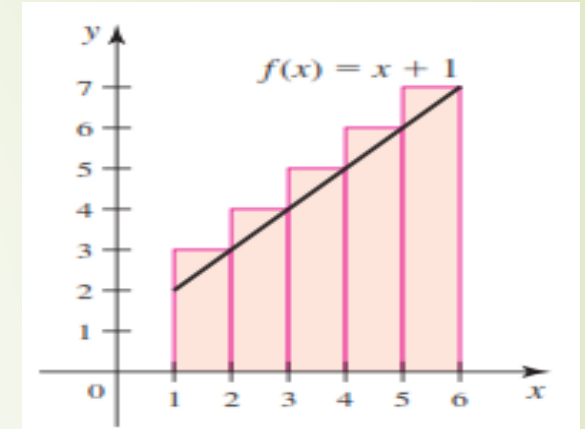
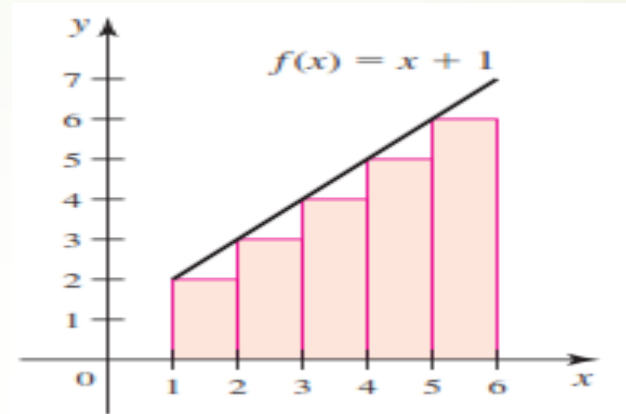


## Quiz:

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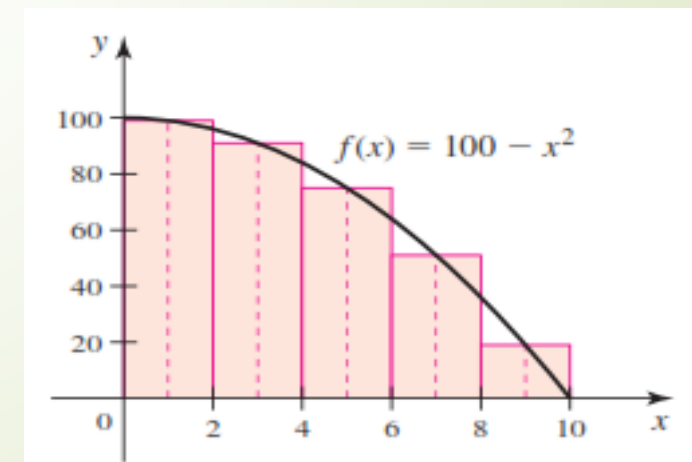
1. Use the figures to calculate the left and right Riemann sums for  $f$  on the given interval and for the given value of  $n$ :

$$f(x) = x + 1 \text{ on } [1, 6]; n = 5$$



2. Use the figures to calculate the left and right Riemann sums for  $f$  on the given interval and for the given value of  $n$ :

$$f(x) = 100 - x^2 \text{ on } [0, 10]; n = 5$$



3. Evaluate the following expressions:

Lecture 1

a.  $\sum_{k=1}^{10} k$

b.  $\sum_{k=1}^6 (2k + 1)$

c.  $\sum_{k=1}^4 k^2$

d.  $\sum_{n=1}^5 (1 + n^2)$

4. Use sigma notation to write the following Riemann sums.  
Then evaluate each Riemann sum using Theorem 5.1

The right Riemann sum for  $f(x) = x + 1$  *on*  $[0, 4]$ ;  $n = 50$

## 5.2 Definite Integrals

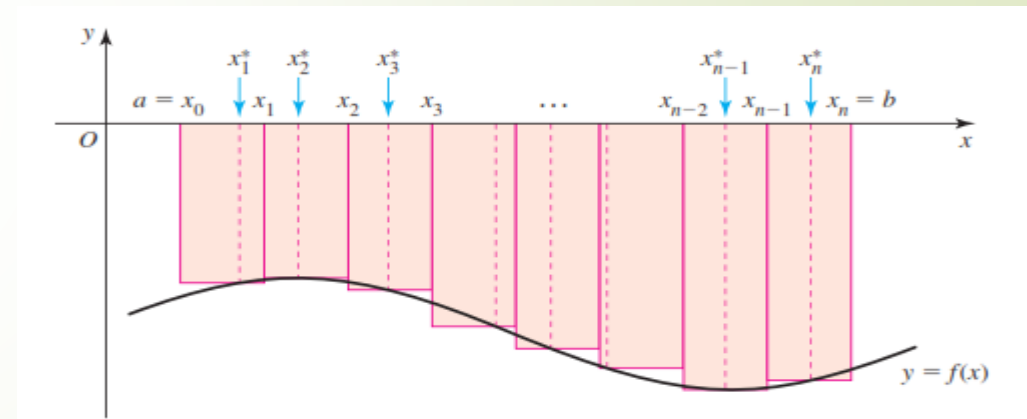
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We introduced Riemann sums in **Section 5.1** as a way to **approximate the area** of a region bounded by a curve  $y = f(x)$  and the  $x$ -axis on an interval  $[a, b]$ . In that discussion, we assumed  $f$  to be **nonnegative** on the interval.

How do we interpret Riemann sums when  $f$  is **negative** on some or all of  $[a, b]$ ?

- On intervals where  $f(x) < 0$ ,

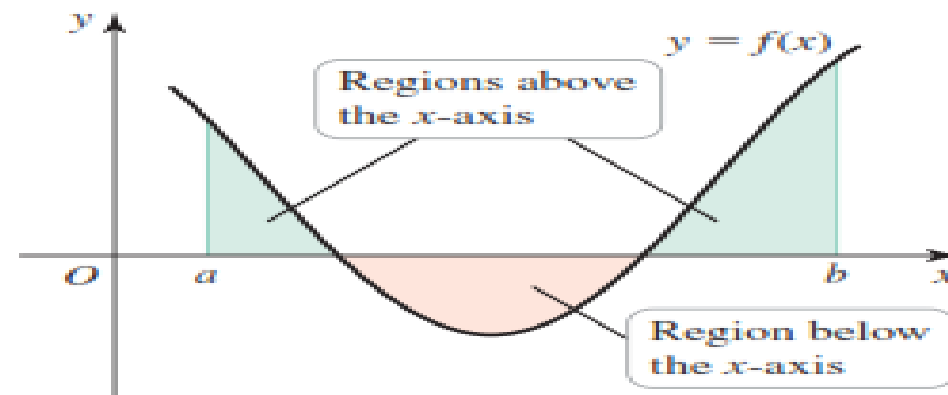
The Riemann sum  $\sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x$  approximates the negative of the area of the region bounded between the  $x$ -axis and the curve.



## Lecture 1

- In the more general case that  $f$  is **positive** on only part of  $[a, b]$ .

In this case, **Riemann sums approximate** the area of the regions that lie **above the  $x$ -axis** minus the area of the regions that lie **below the  $x$ -axis**



This difference between the positive and negative contributions is called the **net area**;

### DEFINITION Net Area

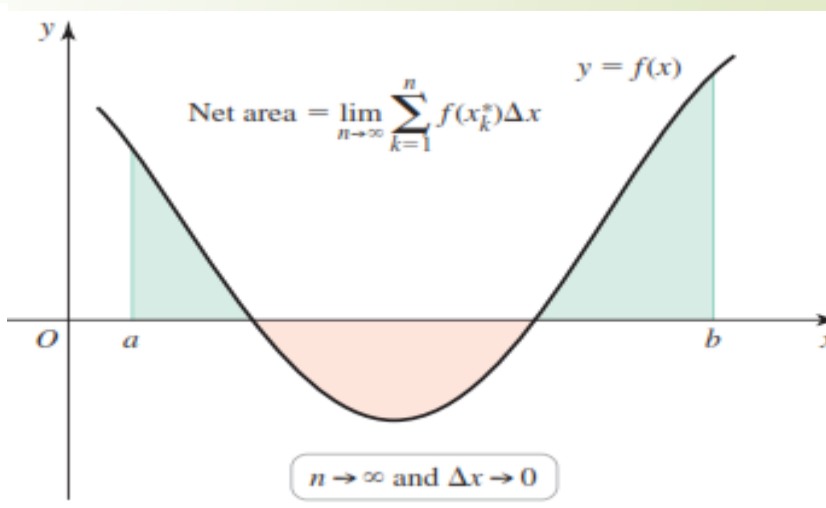
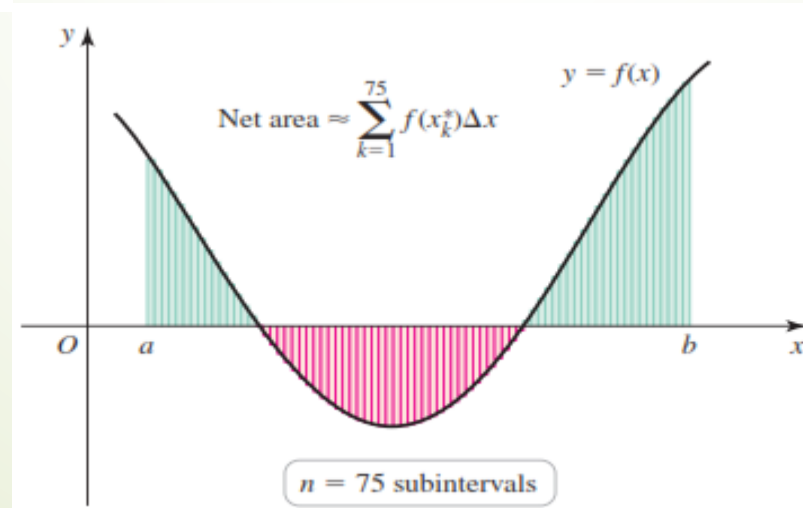
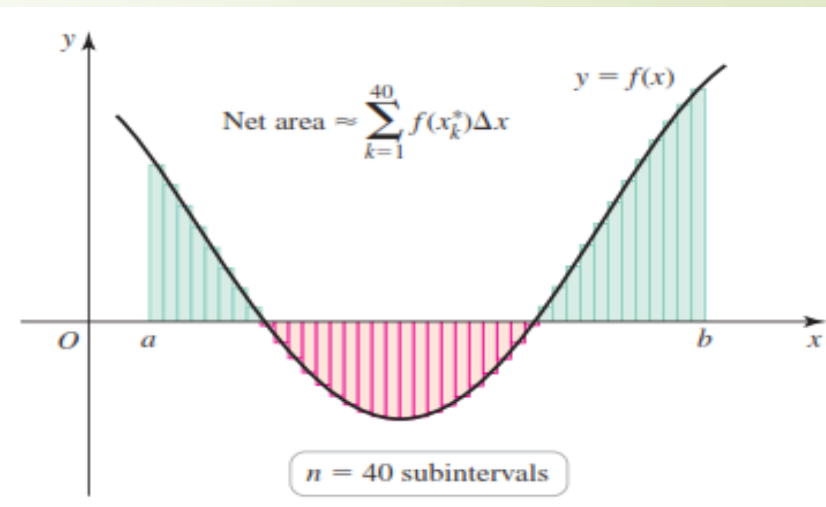
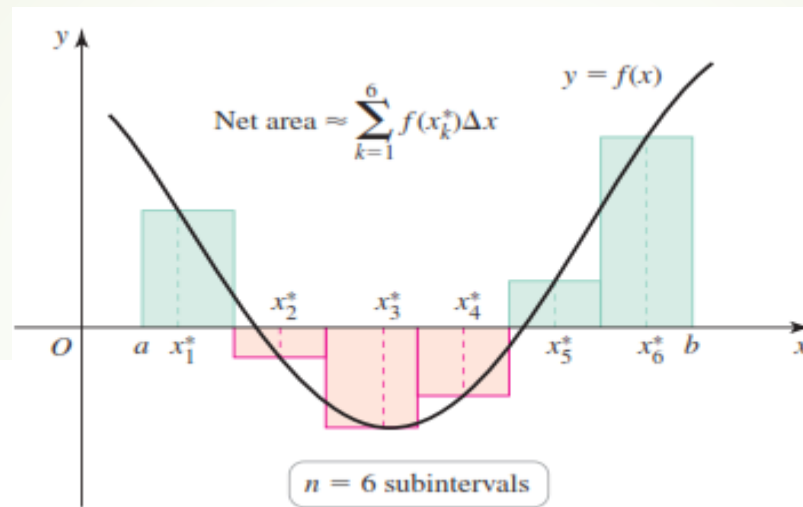
Consider the region  $R$  bounded by the graph of a continuous function  $f$  and the  $x$ -axis between  $x = a$  and  $x = b$ . The **net area** of  $R$  is the sum of the areas of the parts of  $R$  that lie above the  $x$ -axis *minus* the sum of the areas of the parts of  $R$  that lie below the  $x$ -axis on  $[a, b]$ .



## Lecture 1

**Riemann sums** for  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  give *approximations* to the **net area** of the region bounded by the graph of  $f$  and the  **$x$ -axis** between  $x = a$  and  $x = b$ , where  $a < b$ .

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



## Lecture 1

### ➤ General Riemann Sum

The Riemann sums we have used so far involve regular partitions in which the subintervals have the same length  $\Delta x$ .

We now introduce partitions of  $[a, b]$  in which the lengths of the subintervals are **not necessarily equal**. A general partition of  $[a, b]$  consists of the  $n$  subintervals

$$[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n],$$

Where,  $x_0 = a, x_n = b$  The length of the  $k$ th subinterval is  $\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1}$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$

We let  $x_k^*$  be any point in the subinterval  $[x_k, x_{k-1}]$ .

This general partition is used to define the general Riemann sum

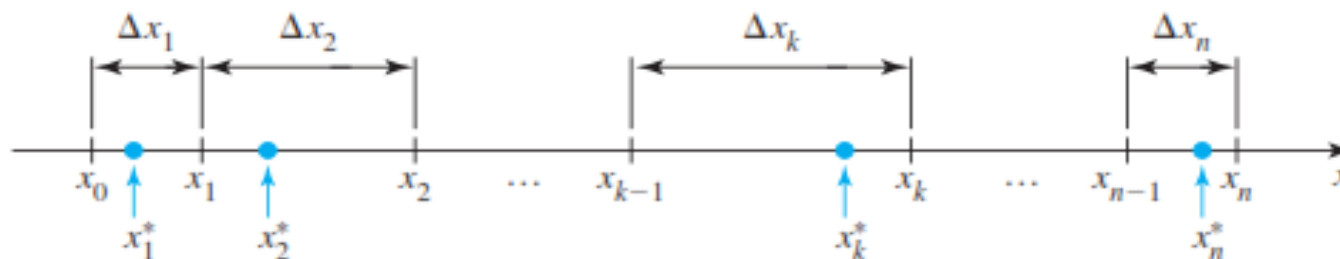
## Lecture 1

### DEFINITION General Riemann Sum

Suppose  $[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n]$  are subintervals of  $[a, b]$  with

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b.$$

Let  $\Delta x_k$  be the length of the subinterval  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$  and let  $x_k^*$  be any point in  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , for  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .



If  $f$  is defined on  $[a, b]$ , the sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k = f(x_1^*) \Delta x_1 + f(x_2^*) \Delta x_2 + \dots + f(x_n^*) \Delta x_n$$

is called a **general Riemann sum** for  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ .

$$\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k$$

to **exist**, it must have the **same value** over all general partitions of  $[a, b]$  and for all choices of  $x_k^*$  on a partition.

We let  $\Delta$  denote the largest value of  $\Delta x_k$  for  $k=1, 2, \dots, n$

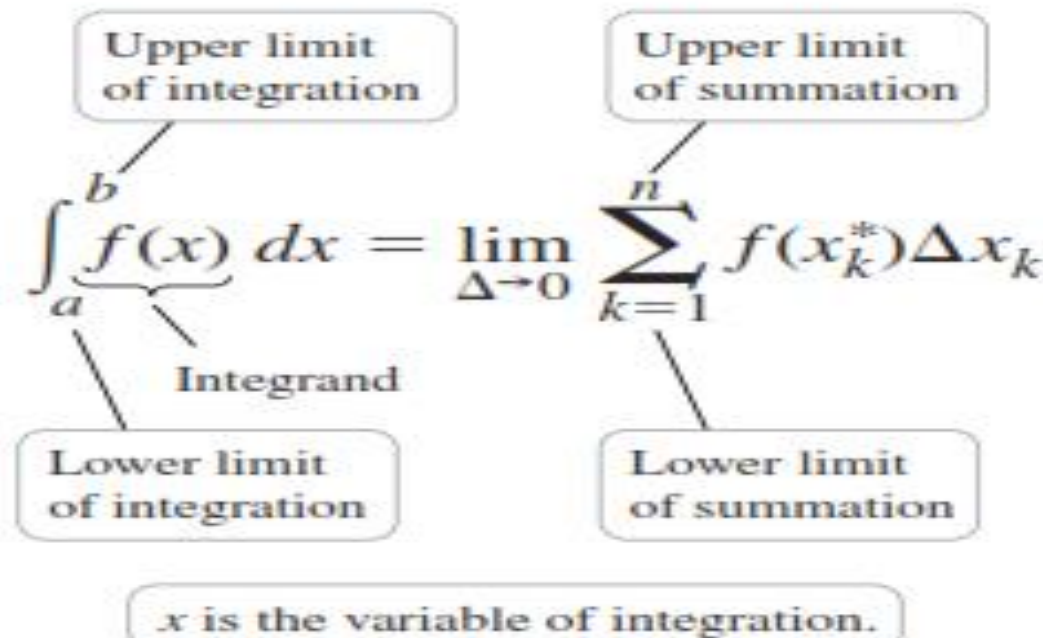
## 5.2 Definite Integrals

### Lecture 1

#### DEFINITION Definite Integral

A function  $f$  defined on  $[a, b]$  is **integrable** on  $[a, b]$  if  $\lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k$  exists and is unique over all partitions of  $[a, b]$  and all choices of  $x_k^*$  on a partition. This limit is the **definite integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$** , which we write

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



## Lecture 1

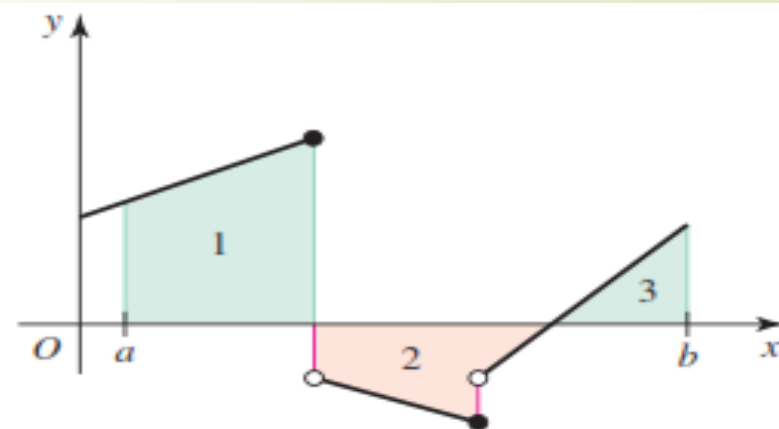
### THEOREM 5.2 Integrable Functions

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  or bounded on  $[a, b]$  with a finite number of discontinuities, then  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

A function  $f$  is bounded on an interval  $I$  if there is a number  $M$  such that  $|f(x)| < M$  for all  $x$  in  $I$ .

Figure 5.23 illustrates how the idea of **net area** carries over to piecewise continuous functions.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Net area} &= \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \\ &= \text{area above } x\text{-axis (Regions 1 and 3)} \\ &\quad - \text{area below } x\text{-axis (Region 2)}\end{aligned}$$



A bounded piecewise continuous function is integrable.

FIGURE 5.23



## Example

## “Using geometry”

## Lecture 1

Use **familiar area** formulas to evaluate the following definite integrals

a.  $\int_2^4 (2x + 3) dx$

b.  $\int_1^6 (2x - 6) dx$

c.  $\int_3^4 \sqrt{1 - (x - 3)^2} dx$

## Solution

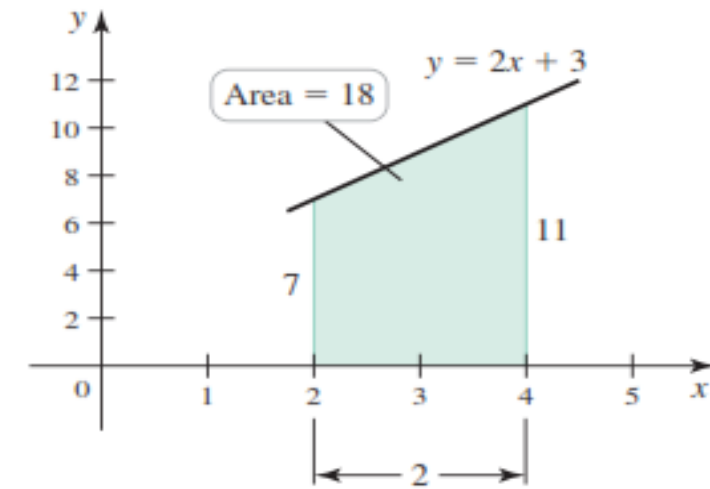
To evaluate these definite integrals geometrically, a sketch of the corresponding region is essential.

a. The definite integral  $\int_2^4 (2x + 3) dx$

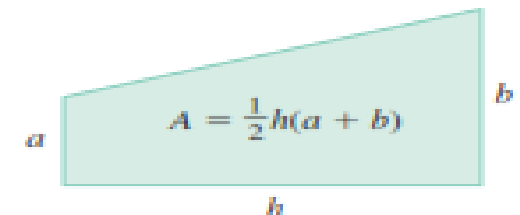
is the area of the **trapezoid bounded** by the  $x$ -axis and the line  $y = 2x + 3$  from  $x = 2$  to  $x = 4$

The width of its **base** is **2** and the **lengths** of its two parallel sides are  $f(2) = 7$  and  $f(4) = 11$ . Using the area formula for a trapezoid we have

$$\int_2^4 (2x + 3) dx = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2(11 + 7) = 18.$$

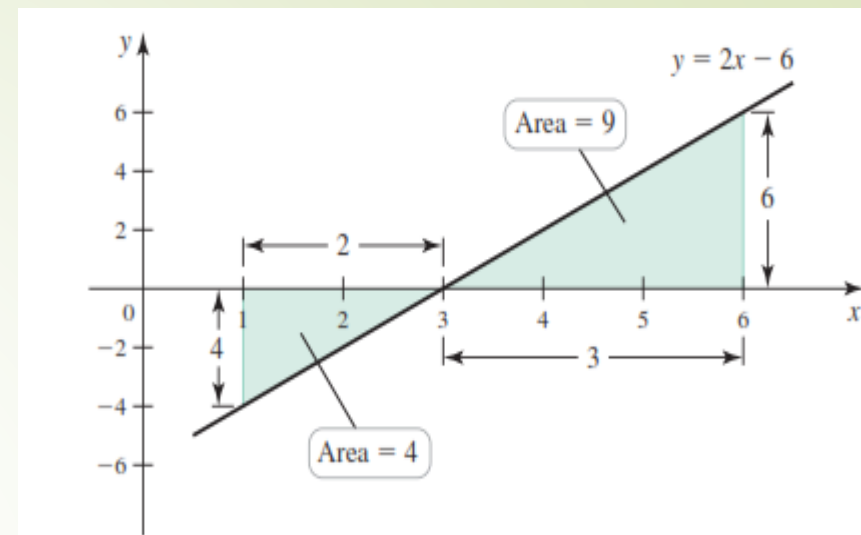


► A trapezoid and its area When  $a = 0$ , we get the area of a triangle. When  $a = b$ , we get the area of a rectangle.



## Lecture 1

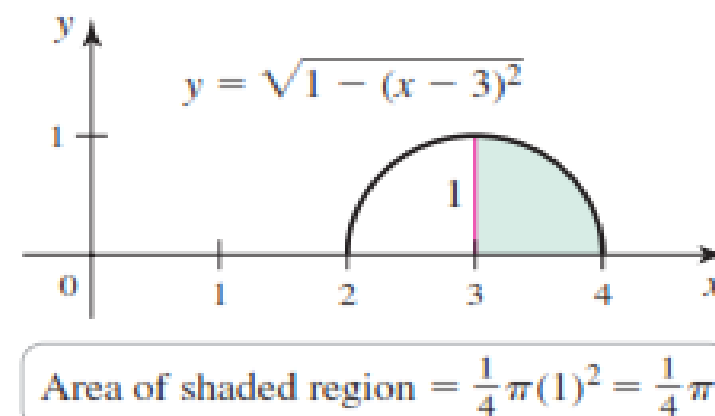
$$\int_1^6 (2x - 6) dx = \text{net area} = 9 - 4 = 5.$$



We first let  $y = \sqrt{1 - (x - 3)^2}$ , and observe that  $y \geq 0$  when  $2 \leq x \leq 4$ .

Squaring both sides leads to the equation  $(x - 3)^2 + y^2 = 1$ .

$$\int_2^4 \sqrt{1 - (x - 3)^2} dx = \frac{1}{4} \pi (1)^2 = \frac{\pi}{4}.$$



**QUICK CHECK 4** Let  $f(x) = 5$  and use geometry to evaluate  $\int_1^2 f(x) dx$ . What is the value of  $\int_a^b c dx$  where  $c$  is a real number? ◀

## Example

## Lecture 1

**Definite integrals from graphs** Figure 5.28 shows the graph of a function  $f$  with the areas of the regions bounded by its graph and the  $x$ -axis given. Find the values of the following definite integrals

a.  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$     b.  $\int_b^c f(x) dx$     c.  $\int_a^c f(x) dx$     d.  $\int_b^d f(x) dx$

## Solution

- a) Because  $f$  is positive on  $[a, b]$ , the value of the definite integral is the area of the region between the graph and the  $x$ -axis on  $[a, b]$ ; that is  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 12$ .
- b) Because  $f$  is negative on  $[b, c]$ , the value of the definite integral is the negative of the area of the corresponding region; that is,  $\int_b^c f(x) dx = -10$ .

$$\int_a^c f(x) dx = 12 - 10 = 2.$$

$$\int_b^d f(x) dx = -10 + 8 = -2.$$

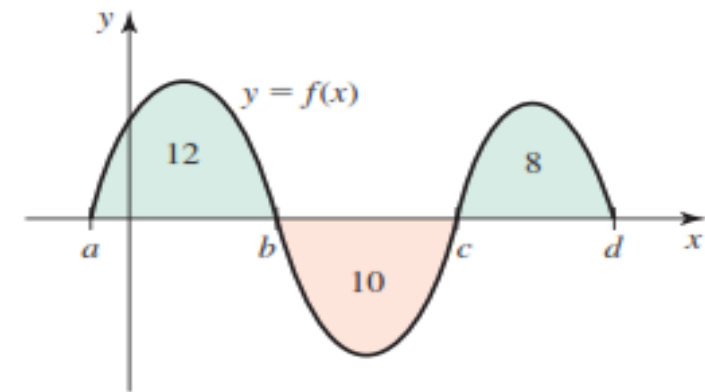


FIGURE 5.28

## Evaluating Definite Integrals Using Limits

### Lecture 1

We know that if  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then 
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k,$$

for any partition of  $[a, b]$  and any points  $x_k^*$ .

**To simplify** these calculations, we use equally spaced grid points and right Riemann sums. That is, for each value of  $n$  we let

$$\Delta x_k = \Delta x = \frac{b - a}{n} \text{ and } x_k^* = a + k \Delta x, \text{ for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

Then, as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and  $\Delta \rightarrow 0$ ,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\Delta \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(a + k \Delta x) \Delta x.$$

## Example

## Lecture 1

Find the value of  $\int_0^2 (x^3 + 1) dx$

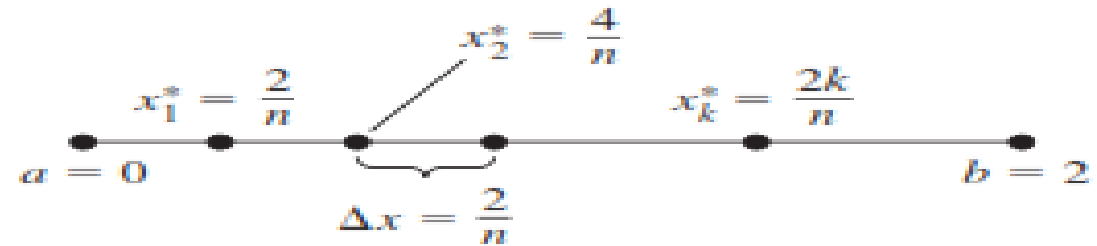
By evaluating a right Riemann sum and letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$

## Solution

we conjectured that the value of this integral is **6**. To verify this conjecture, we now evaluate the integral exactly. The interval  $[a, b]=[0, 2]$  is divided into  $n$  subintervals of length  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{2}{n}$ ,

which produces the grid points

$$x_k^* = a + k \Delta x = 0 + k \cdot \frac{2}{n} = \frac{2k}{n}, \text{ for } k=1, 2, \dots, n.$$



Letting  $f(x) = x^3 + 1$ , the right Riemann sum is

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x &= \sum_{k=1}^n \left[ \left( \frac{2k}{n} \right)^3 + 1 \right] \frac{2}{n} \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{8k^3}{n^3} + 1 \right) \end{aligned}$$

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

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

## Lecture 1

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x = \frac{2}{n} \left( \frac{8}{n^3} \sum_{k=1}^n k^3 + \sum_{k=1}^n 1 \right)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4} \text{ and } \sum_{k=1}^n 1 = n; \text{ Theorem 5.1}$$

$$= \frac{2}{n} \left[ \frac{8}{n^3} \left( \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4} \right) + n \right]$$

$$= \frac{4(n^2 + 2n + 1)}{n^2} + 2. \quad \text{Simplify.}$$

Now we evaluate  $\int_0^2 (x^3 + 1) dx$  by letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in the Riemann sum:

$$\int_0^2 (x^3 + 1) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \frac{4(n^2 + 2n + 1)}{n^2} + 2 \right]$$

$$= 4 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{n^2 + 2n + 1}{n^2} \right) + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2$$

$$= 4(1) + 2 = 6.$$

Therefore,  $\int_0^2 (x^3 + 1) dx = 6,$



