# Chapter 5

## 5.1 Areas and Distance

The **area** A of the region S that lies under the graph of the continuous function f is the limit of the sum of the areas of approximating rectangles:

$$A = \lim_{n \to \infty} R_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} [f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \dots + f(x_n)\Delta x]$$

$$A = \lim_{n \to \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} [f(x_0)\Delta x + f(x_1)\Delta x + \dots + f(x_{n-1})\Delta x]$$

$$A = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left[ f(x_1^*) \Delta x + f(x_2^*) \Delta x + \dots + f(x_n^*) \Delta x \right]$$

- If function is increasing, use left endpoints for underestimation, right endpoints for overestimation. If function is decreasing, use right endpoints for underestimation, left endpoints for overestimation.
- Take the height of the *i*th rectangle to be the value of f at any number  $x_i^*$  in the *i*th subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ . The numbers  $x_1^*, x_2^*, ..., x_n^*$  are called **sample points**.

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

- Formula for the sum of the squares:  $1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + ... + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$
- Use **sigma notation** to write sums with many terms more compactly. For example:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x = f(x_1) \Delta x + f(x_2) \Delta x + \dots + f(x_n) \Delta x$$

• The formula for the sum of the squares can be rewritten:

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

• The area formulas can be rewritten:

Right Endpoints: 
$$A = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x$$

Left Endpoints: 
$$A = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_{i-1}) \Delta x$$

Midpoints 
$$A = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*) \Delta x$$

## 5.2 The Definite Integral

If f is a function defined for  $a \le x \le b$ , we divide the interval [a,b] into n subintervals of equal width  $\Delta x = (b-a)/n$ . We let  $x_0(=a), x_1, x_2, ..., x_n(=b)$  be the endpoints of these subintervals and we let  $x_1^*, x_2^*, ..., x_n^*$  be any **sample points** in these subintervals, so  $x_i^*$  lies in the *i*th subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ . Then the **definite** integral of f from a to b is

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_{i}^{*}) \Delta x$$

provided that this limit exists and gives the same value for all possible choices of sample points. If it does exist, we say that f is **integrable** on [a, b].

- The sum  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*) \Delta x$  is called a **Riemann sum**
- A definite integral can be interpreted as a **net area**, that is, a difference of areas:

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = A_1 - A_2$$

where  $A_1$  is the area of the region above the x-axis and below the graph of f, and  $A_2$  is the area of the region below the X-axis and above the graph of f.

If f is integrable on [a, b], then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x$$

where  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$  and  $x_i = a + i\Delta x$ 

## Midpoint Rule

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(\bar{x}_i)\Delta x = \Delta x[f(\bar{x}_1) + \dots + f(\bar{x}_n)]$$

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

and 
$$\bar{x}_i = \frac{1}{2}(x_{i-1} + x_i) = \text{midpoint of } [x_{i-1}, x_i]$$

#### Properties of the Integral

$$\int_{a}^{b} c \, dx = c(b-a), \quad \text{where } c \text{ is any constant}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} [f(x) + g(x)] \, dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx + \int_{a}^{b} g(x) \, dx$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} c \, f(x) \, dx = c \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx, \quad \text{where } c \text{ is any constant}$$

$$\int_{a}^{b} [f(x) - g(x)] \, dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx - \int_{a}^{b} g(x) \, dx$$

$$\int_{a}^{c} f(x) \, dx + \int_{c}^{b} f(x) \, dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx$$

### Comparison Properties of the Integral

If  $f(x) \ge 0$  for  $a \le x \le b$ , then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx \ge 0$$

If  $f(x) \ge g(x)$  for  $a \le x \le b$ , then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx \ge \int_{a}^{b} g(x) \, dx$$

If  $m \le f(x) \le M$  for  $a \le x \le b$ , then

$$m(b-a) \le \int_a^b f(x) dx \le M(b-a)$$

If we reverse a and b, then  $\Delta x$  changes from  $\frac{(b-a)}{n}$  to  $\frac{(a-b)}{n}$ .

Therefore:

$$\int_{b}^{a} f(x)dx = -\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$

If a = b, then  $\Delta x = 0$  and so:

$$\int_{a}^{a} f(x)dx = 0$$

#### Formulas for sums of powers

#### Rules for sigma notation

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} c = nc$$

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} ca_i = c \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i$$

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i + b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i + \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (a_i - b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i - \sum_{i=1}^{n} b_i$$

## 5.3 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 1 If f is continuous on [a, b], then the function g defined by

$$g(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt$$
  $a \le x \le b$ 

is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b) and g'(x) = f(x)

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2 If f is continuous on [a, b], then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

where F is any antiderivative of f, that is, a function such that F' = f

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus Suppose f is continuous on [a, b].

1. If 
$$g(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$$
, then  $g'(x) = f(x)$ 

2. 
$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)$$
, where F is any antiderivative of f, that is,  $F' = f$ 

## 5.4 Indefinite Integrals and the Net Change Theorem

- The notation  $\int f(x)dx$  is traditionally used for an antiderivative of f and is called an **indefinite** integral. Thus  $\int f(x)dx = F(x)$  means F'(x) = f(x)
- Distinguish carefully between definite and indefinite integrals. A definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  is a *number*, whereas an indefinite integral  $\int f(x)dx$  is a *function* (or family of functions).
- If f is continuous on [a,b], then  $\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int f(x)dx\Big|_a^b$

#### Table of Indefinite Integrals

$$\int cf(x)dx = c \int f(x)dx \qquad \qquad \int [f(x) + g(x)]dx =$$

$$\int k \, dx = kx + C \qquad \qquad \int f(x) + \int g(x)dx$$

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C \ (n \neq -1) \qquad \qquad \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C$$

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + C \qquad \qquad \int a^x dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln a} + C$$

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

$$\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + C \qquad \qquad \int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + C$$

$$\int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + C \qquad \qquad \int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x + C$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \tan^{-1} x + C \qquad \qquad \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} dx = \sin^{-1} x + C$$

$$\int \sinh x \, dx = \cosh x + C \qquad \qquad \int \cosh x \, dx = \sinh x + C$$

**Net Change Theorem** The integral of a rate of change is the net change:

$$\int_{a}^{b} F'(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

## 5.5 The Substitution Rule

The Substitution Rule If u = g(x) is a differentiable function whose range is an interval I and f is continuous on I, then

$$\int f(g(x)) g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du$$

The Substitution Rule for Definite Integrals If g' is continuous on [a, b] and f is continuous on the range of u = g(x), then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(g(x)) g'(x) dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du$$

Integrals of Symmetric Functions Suppose f is continuous on [-a, a].

- (a) If f is even [f(-x) = f(x)], then  $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x)dx = 2\int_{0}^{a} f(x)dx$
- (b) If f is odd [f(-x) = -f(x)], then  $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x)dx = 0$