

4.6: Applications

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1 Applications

1.1 Areas

- The first application is to areas.
- Note that a Riemann sum is adding things like $f(x)\Delta x$. This can be interpreted as a rectangle of height $f(x)$ and width Δx .
- As Δx shrinks, rectangles do a better job at approximating area between the curve and the x -axis.
- Thus, we have the first result:

$$\boxed{\text{area under the curve of } f(x)} = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

- Ex: Find the area between the curve and the x -axis for the function $f(x) = \sin(x)$ between $x = 0$ and $x = \pi$.
- $\int_0^\pi \sin(x) dx = -\cos(\pi) - (-\cos(0)) = 1 - (-1) = 2$. So that area is 2!

- Ex: Find the area underneath the function $f(x) = 4x^3$ between $x = -1$ and $x = 1$.
- A: $\int_{-1}^1 4x^3 dx = x^4 \Big|_{-1}^1 = 1^4 - (-1)^4 = 0$. Why? The answer is that area below the axis is counted as *negative area*.
- Negative area might make you feel queasy. Remember, in applications to biology, $f(t)$ is usually a rate, so negative f values (which lead to negative areas) are interpreted as a negative rate (or a negative net change).

1.2 Averages

- Next, we can interpret a (multiplied) Riemann sum as an average of a function.
- What is an average? Add up values and divide by the number of them.
- Suppose we take $f(x)$ on an interval, like $[1, 4]$.
- Take N values spaced by Δx apart and make a Riemann sum.

$$\text{average} = \frac{f(1) + f(1.1) + \cdots + f(3.9)}{N}$$

(Note: I'm making a general argument here; the numbers like 1.1, 3.9, etc would change from problem to problem.)

- Now multiply the top and bottom by Δx :

$$\text{average} = \frac{f(1)\Delta x + f(1.1)\Delta x + \cdots + f(3.9)\Delta x}{N\Delta x}$$

- Now, $N\Delta x$ is just the length of the interval, $4 - 1 = 3$. The top becomes a Riemann sum. Letting $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$, we find that

$$\text{average of } f \text{ over } [1, 4] = \frac{1}{4 - 1} \int_1^4 f(x) dx$$

- In general,

$$\text{avg of } f \text{ on } [a, b] = \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

- Ex: Suppose the voltage level in a cell is given by $V(t) = \frac{t}{t^2+1}$ millivolts. Find the average voltage level over the first five seconds.

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$$\text{avg voltage} = \frac{1}{5-0} \int_0^5 V(t) dt = \frac{1.629}{5} = 0.326 \text{ mV}.$$

1.3 Geometry

- Any time you notice a Riemann sum you can do an integral.
- Ex: area of a circle. Why is it πR^2 ?
- draw a circle of radius R .
- draw concentric circles. One of those thin pieces has an area of (circumference) $\times (\Delta r)$.
- So, the area should be a sum of the form $\sum 2\pi r \cdot \Delta r$, and letting $\Delta r \rightarrow 0$, we see

$$\text{area of a circle} = \int_0^R 2\pi r dr = 2\pi \frac{1}{2} r^2 \Big|_0^R = \pi R^2.$$

Notice more relationships: derivative of $\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3$ is $4\pi R^2$, so the derivative of the volume of a sphere is the surface area! There are many more relationships like this.

1.4 Density

- Density: amount of mass per unit length, or area, or volume.
- Measures how compactly matter is distributed. Larger density, more compact. Smaller density, less compact (more spread out).
- Ex: Imagine iron bars. Assuming uniform density, an iron bar of 10kg with a length of 2 meters has a density of $\frac{10\text{ kg}}{2\text{ m}} = 5 \text{ kg/m}$. However, if you make a bar with the same weight but longer, say 5 m, then the density would be $\frac{10}{5} = 2 \text{ kg/m}$. In the second scenario, the mass is more spread out, giving a smaller density.
- Can have other kinds of density: e.g. in a strand of DNA, you can ask, how many nucleotides (nuc) are there? How many are there per unit nanometer? Density would be nuc/nm.

- Virtually any static quantity can have a density. kg/m, nuc/m, people/acre, dollars/ m^2 ,...
- Integration comes into play when you have a density that isn't uniform and you want to know the total amount of "stuff" the density measures.
- Ex: Suppose an iron bar that is 3 meters long has non-uniform density $\rho(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}$ in kg/m, where x is the distance from one end of the bar. How much does the bar weigh?
- A: We won't calculate a Riemann sum, but they help us formulate the problem. Imagine cutting the bar into tiny segments. On each segment of length Δx , density is almost constant, so each segment has mass $\rho(x) \cdot \Delta x$. Summing these up over the length of the bar, a Riemann sum would have the form $\sum \rho(x)\Delta x$. So, letting $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$, we get a definite integral:

$$\text{total mass} = \int_0^3 \rho(x) dx = \int_0^3 \frac{1}{1+x} dx = \ln(1+x) \Big|_0^3 \approx 1.38 \text{ kg}.$$

- In this class we only consider densities along a line. For densities along areas (like population density in a city) you need multiple variables like x and y , and to develop the idea of "multiple integration." Intuitively you just integrate along each direction of the considered area. For example, if $\rho(x, y)$ is the population density in a city, the total population would be

$$\text{total population} = \int_a^b \int_c^d \rho(x, y) dx dy$$

where a, b, c, d are the physical city limits. We won't do this in this class, but you hopefully see the way to generalize.

- For this class you need to know: if $\rho(x)$ is a density of (stuff)/distance, then

$$\text{total stuff} = \int_a^b \rho(x) dx$$

where the limits are the limits of the relevant physical object.