### **Basic Maths for Non-mathematicians**

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$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{N} f(x_{k}) \Delta x$$

$$(AB)^{\top} = B^{\top} A^{\top} \qquad \mathbb{R}^{n} \xrightarrow{T} \mathbb{R}^{m}$$

$$\vec{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \hat{e}_{i}$$

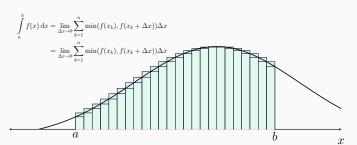
$$\frac{df}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} \qquad A = Q^{\Lambda} Q^{-1}$$

$$\operatorname{Rot}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

$$T(\alpha \vec{u} + \beta \vec{v}) = \alpha T(\vec{u}) + \beta T(\vec{v}) \quad \langle \hat{e}_{i}, \hat{e}_{j} \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$

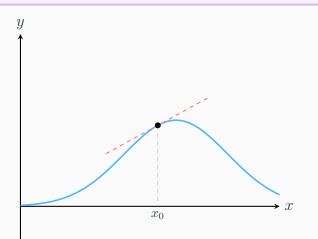


# **Chapter 8: Integrals**

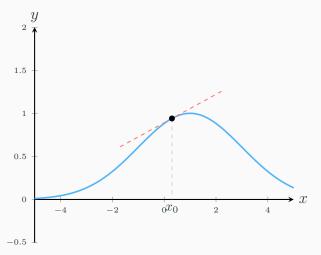


### **Definition**

The **derivative** of a function f at the point  $x_0$ , denoted  $f'(x_0)$ , is the **slope** of the tangent line to the function at  $x_0$ .



We can find the derivative by taking closer and closer points to  $x_0$ .



Thus, the derivative is the limit where  $\Delta x$  goes to 0:

#### **Definition**

$$f'(x_0) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + \Delta x) - f(x_0)}{x_0 + \Delta x - x_0} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}.$$

#### Note

The notation  $\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}$  is not a fraction. It only signifies that the derivative is the limit of  $\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$  when  $\Delta x \to 0$ .

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We can view the derivative as an **operator** acting on a function:

$$f(x) \longrightarrow \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\right) \longrightarrow f'(x)$$

Recall that the following two statements are true:

$$\begin{cases} (\alpha f)' &= \alpha f', \\ (f+g)' &= f'+g'. \end{cases}$$

Similar to **linear transformations** acting on vectors, this means that the derivative operator is **linear**.

By viewing the derivative as an operator acting on functions, the notion of **higher order derivatives** becomes pretty clear:

#### **Definition**

An n-th order derivative (where  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) of a function f is the result of applying the derivative operator n consevutive times on f.

We denote the n-th order derivative of f as either

$$f^{(n)}$$
,

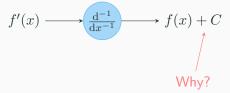
or

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^n f}{\mathrm{d} x^n}$$
.

### The Antiderivative

Similar to linear transformations (with a non-zero determinant), one might try to find an inverse operator to derivative. We call such an operator the **Antiderivative**, or the **Non-definite integral**.

We can think of it a derivative of order -1, i.e.  $\frac{d^{-1}}{dx^{-1}}$ :



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#### The Antiderivative

Recall that constants are derived to 0, and thus don't affect the derivative:

$$(f(x) + C)' = f'(x) + \mathscr{C}' = f'(x).$$

Therefore the antiderivative of a function is not a function itself, but a **family** of functions, differing from each other by a constant:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^{-1}}{\mathrm{d}x^{-1}}f = \left\{ f(x) + C \mid C \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

### The Antiderivative

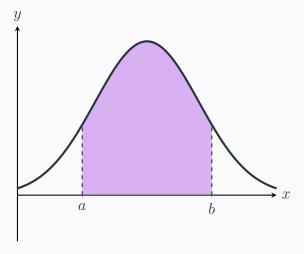
A common way to denote the antiderivative of a function f by the variable  $\times$  is

$$\int f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x,$$

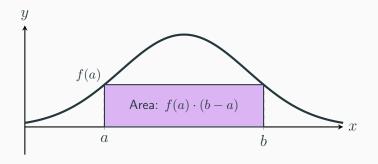
which is called the indefinite integral.

The reason for "multiplying" the function by dx will be made clear later.

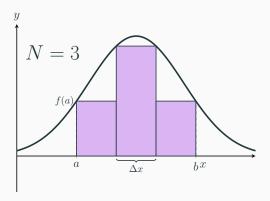
What is the area under the curve of a function, between two points  $x_1=a$  and  $x_2=b$ ?



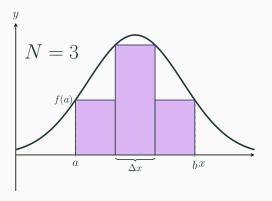
We can start by approximating the area with a shape of a known area: a rectangle.



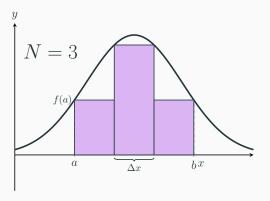
Obviously, this is not a great approximation, so we can divide the interval [a,b] in three, and use the reulting rectangles (each with a base length  $\Delta x = \frac{(b-a)}{3}$ ) to approximate the area:



Although each of the rectangles have a base  $\Delta x = \frac{(b-a)}{3}$ , their areas are dependent on their position: their height is either the value of f at their left side, or value of f at their right side.



This will be determined by choosing the heights as either the minimum or maximum of the left and right values of f. For now we will arbitrarily choose using the minimum values.

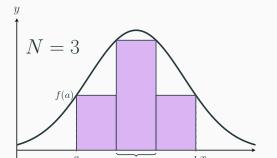


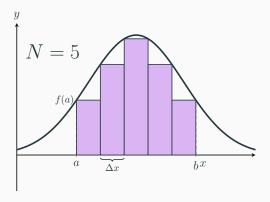
Writing  $x_1 = a$ ,  $x_2 = a + \Delta x$ ,  $x_3 = a + 2\Delta x$ ,  $x_4 = b$ , the total area approximated by the rectangles is:

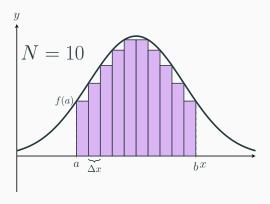
$$S_{\text{approx}} = \min(f(x_1), f(x_2))(b - a) + \min(f(x_2), f(x_3))(b - a) + \min(f(x_2), f(x_3))(b - a) + \min(f(x_2), f(x_3)) + \min(f(x_3), f(x_4))]$$

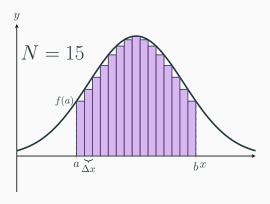
$$= \left[\min(f(x_1), f(x_2)) + \min(f(x_2), f(x_3)) + \min(f(x_3), f(x_4))\right]$$

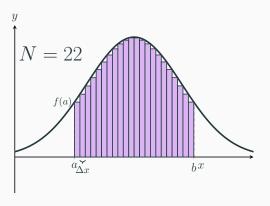
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{3} \min \left( f\left(x_{i}\right), f\left(x_{i+1}\right) \right) \Delta x.$$

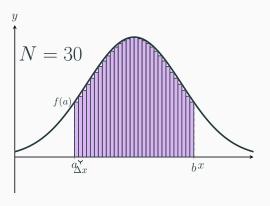












In the limit where  $N \to \infty$  (equivalently,  $\Delta x \to 0$ ), we get the exact area<sup>1</sup>, and write:

$$\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \min \left( f(x_i), f(x_i + \Delta x) \right) \Delta x = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx.$$

The above sum is called the **lower Darboux sum** of f in the interval [a,b].

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>if the function is well behaved...

### The Funamental Theorem of Calculus

The connection between the two types of integrals mentioned so far is as follows: for a function f, its antiderivative F (i.e.  $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}F=f$ ) and a real interval [a,b],

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

This is a corollary of the **funamental theorem of calculus** .

