Calculus 1B- Lecture 1

Tugce Akkaya
E-mail: t.akkaya@utwente.nl

9 November, 2020

Calculus 1B

-Contents-

- Integrals
- Calculation techniques for integrals
- Power and Taylor series

- First order ODEs
- Complex numbers
- Second order ODEs

Lecture 1 Integrals

- Theme: Area
- Theme: Riemann Sum
- Theme: Fundamental Theorem
- Theme: Antiderivatives

Thomas' Calculus

5.1

Area and Estimating with Finite Sums

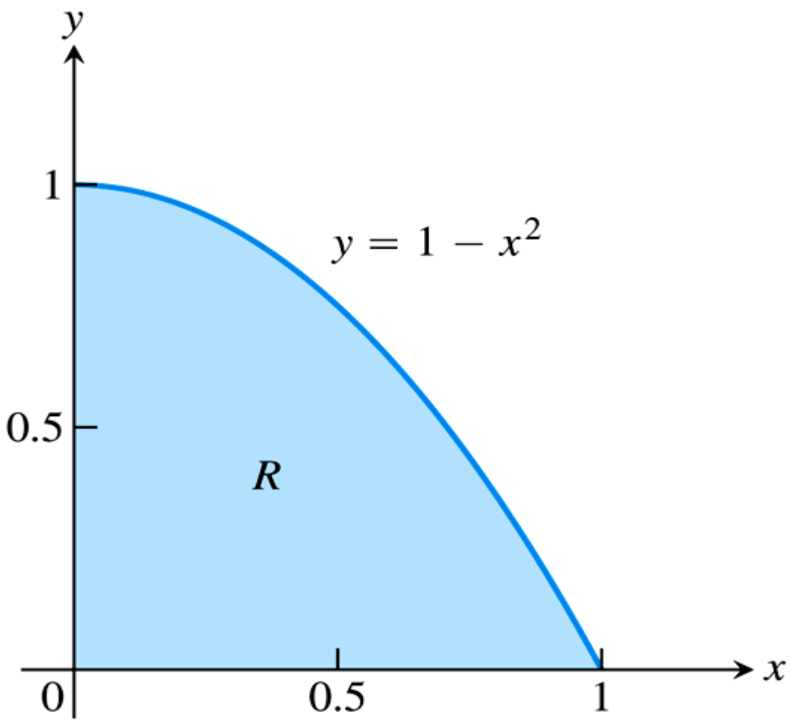


FIGURE 5.1 The area of the region R cannot be found by a simple formula.

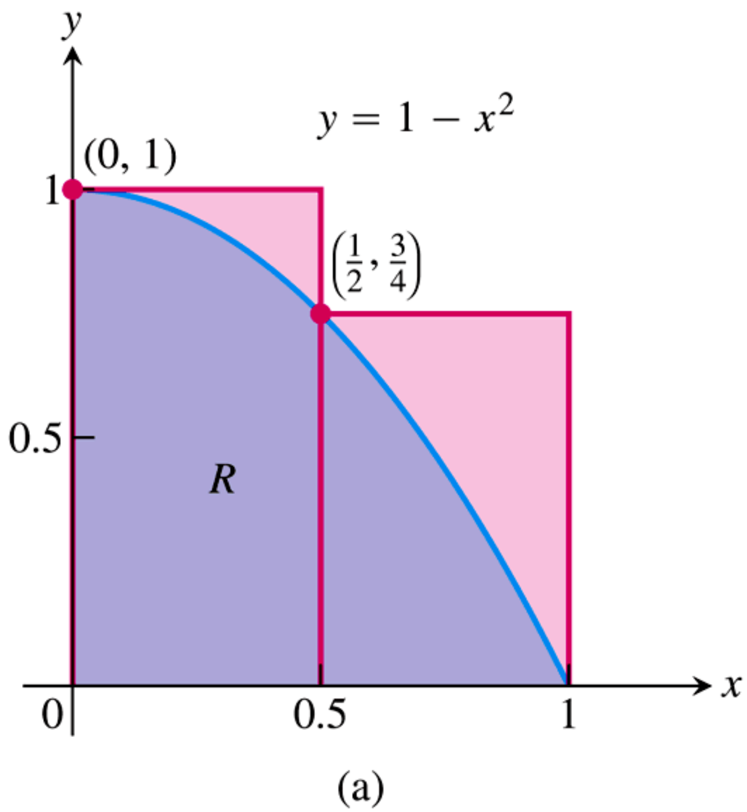


FIGURE 5.2 (a) We get an upper estimate of the area of R by using two rectangles containing R. (b) Four rectangles give a better upper estimate. Both estimates overshoot the true value for the area by the amount shaded in light red.

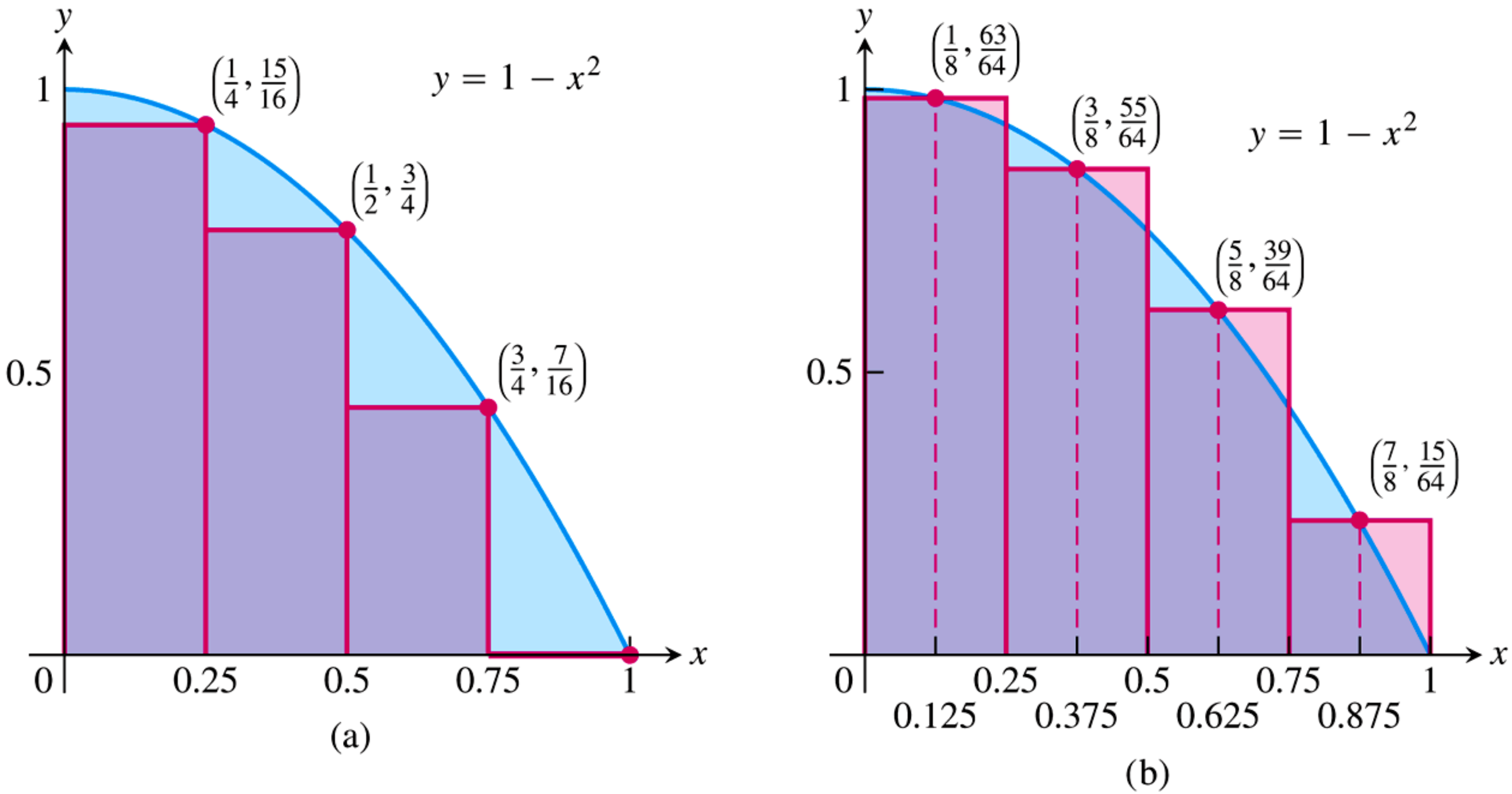
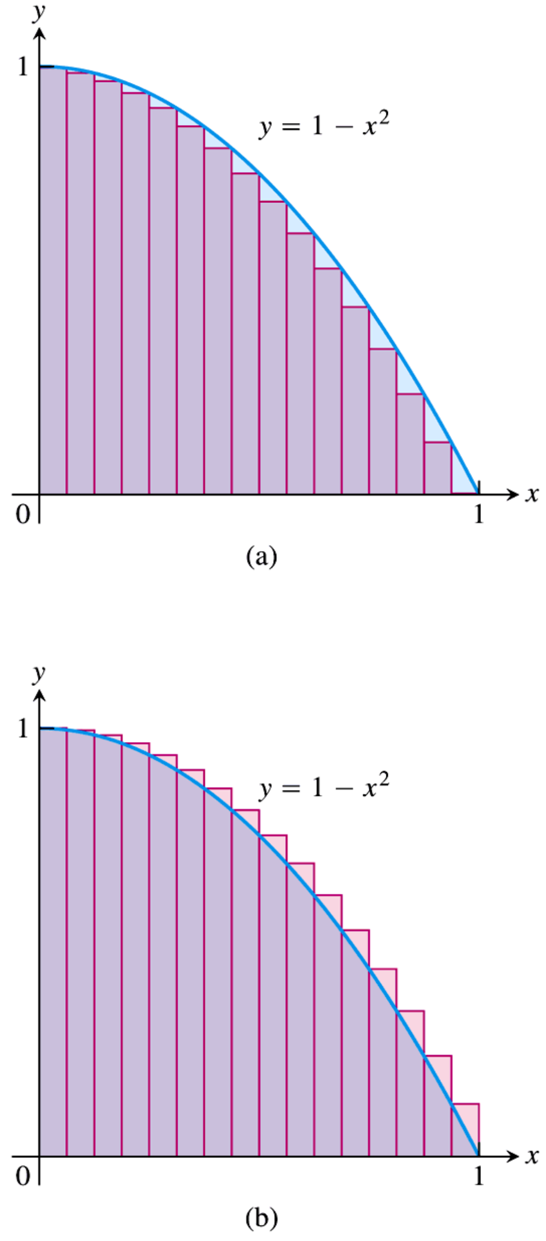


FIGURE 5.3 (a) Rectangles contained in R give an estimate for the area that undershoots the true value by the amount shaded in light blue. (b) The midpoint rule uses rectangles whose height is the value of $y = f(x)$ at the midpoints of their bases. The estimate appears closer to the true value of the area because the light red overshoot areas roughly balance the light blue undershoot areas.

Area

FIGURE 5.4 (a) A lower sum using 16 rectangles of equal width $\Delta x = 1/16$. (b) An upper sum using 16 rectangles.



Area

TABLE 5.1 Finite approximations for the area of R

Number of subintervals	Lower sum	Midpoint rule	Upper sum
2	.375	.6875	.875
4	.53125	.671875	.78125
16	.634765625	.6669921875	.697265625
50	.6566	.6667	.6766
100	.66165	.666675	.67165
1000	.6661665	.66666675	.6671665

Upper and lower sums seem to converge to 0.6666… = 2/3

5.2

Sigma Notation and Riemann Sums

Σ-notation

The index k ends at $k = n$.

The summation symbol (Greek letter sigma)

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

a_k is a formula for the kth term.

The index k starts at $k = 1$.

Σ-notation

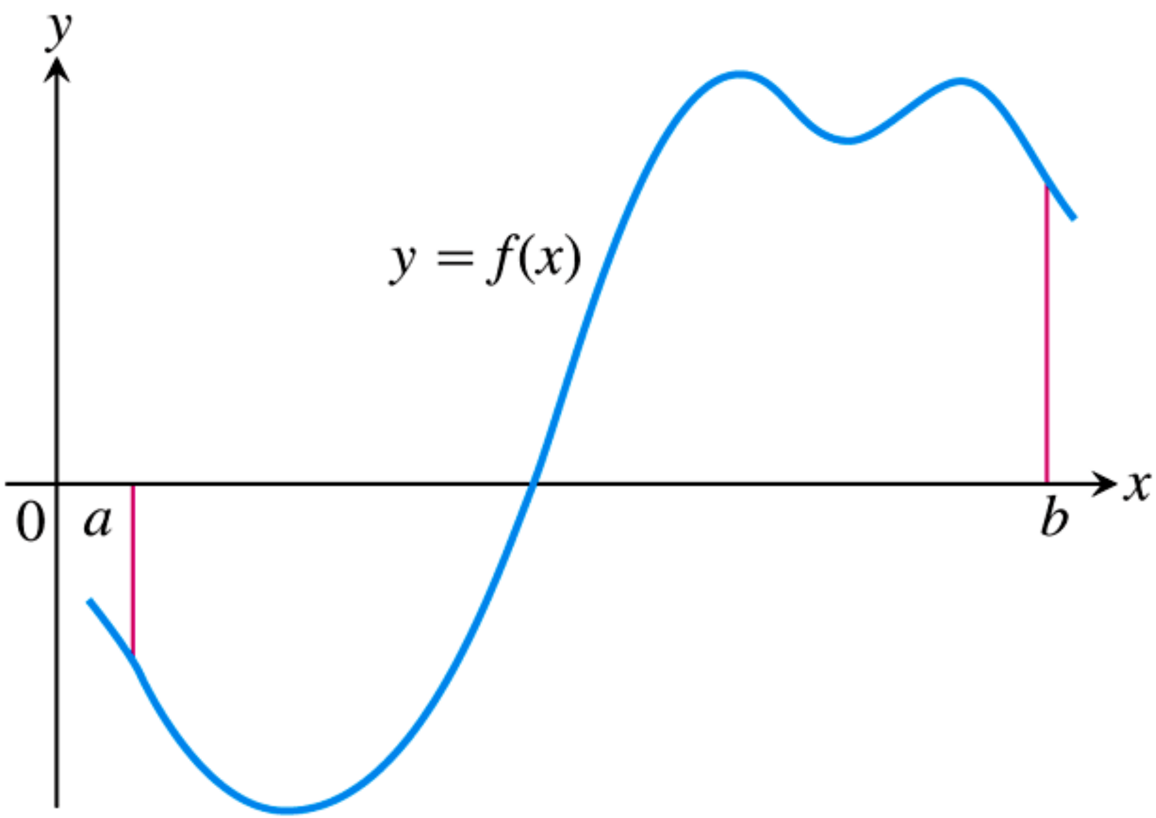
The sum in sigma notation	The sum written out, one term for each value of *k*	The value of the sum
$\sum_{k=1}^{5} k$	$1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5$	15
$\sum_{k=1}^{3} (-1)^k k$	$(-1)^1(1) + (-1)^2(2) + (-1)^3(3)$	$-1 + 2 - 3 = -2$
$\sum_{k=1}^{2} \frac{k}{k+1}$	$\frac{1}{1+1} + \frac{2}{2+1}$	$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{2}{3} = \frac{7}{6}$
$\sum_{k=4}^{5} \frac{k^2}{k-1}$	$\frac{4^2}{4-1} + \frac{5^2}{5-1}$	$\frac{16}{3} + \frac{25}{4} = \frac{139}{12}$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{1000} 1 = 1001$$

Riemann sums

Georg Friedrich Bernhard Riemann (1826-1866)

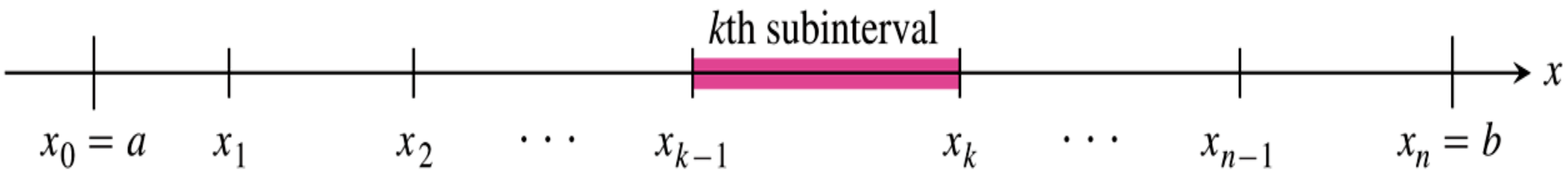
Riemann sums



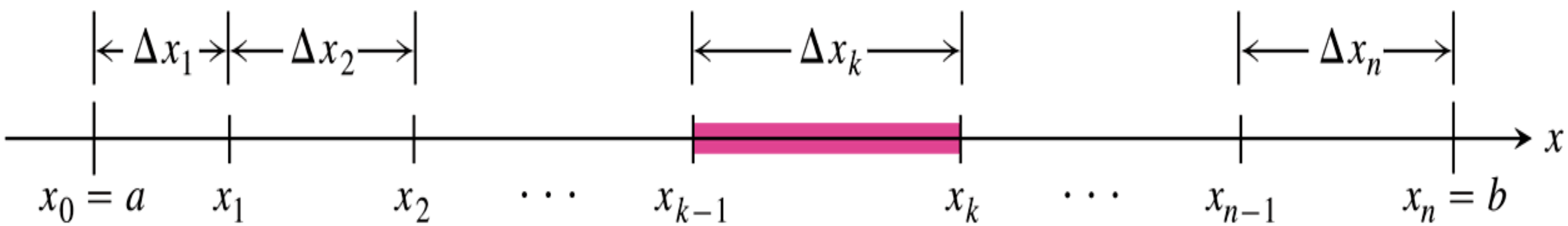
We want to approximate this "area", or integral.
First divide $[a,b]$ in n subintervals (*partition P*).

Riemann sums

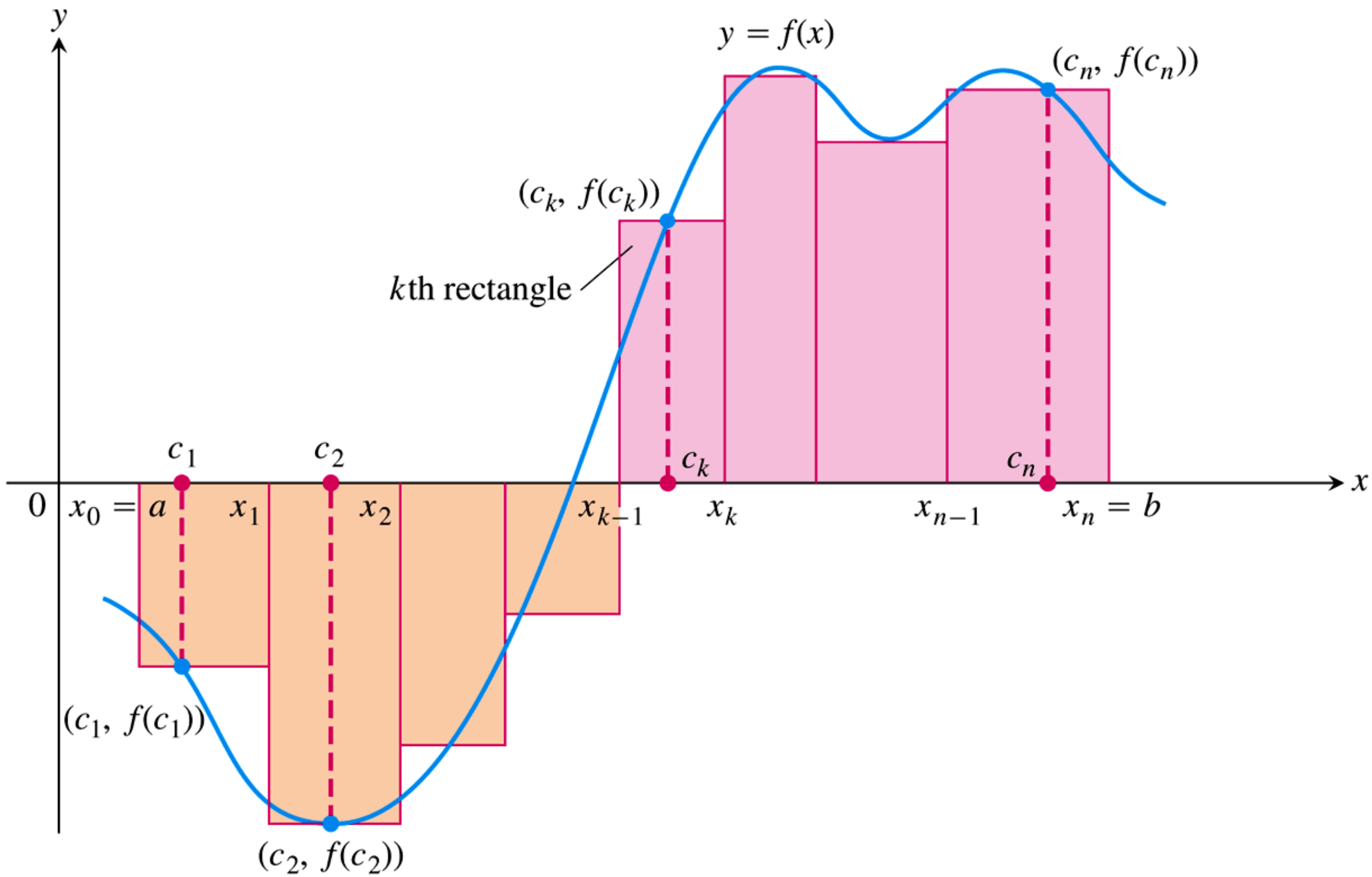
The k^{th} subinterval of P is $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$, for k an integer between 1 and n



The width of the k^{th} interval $\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1}$, If all n subintervals have equal width, then the common width Δx_k is equal to $(b - a)/n$.

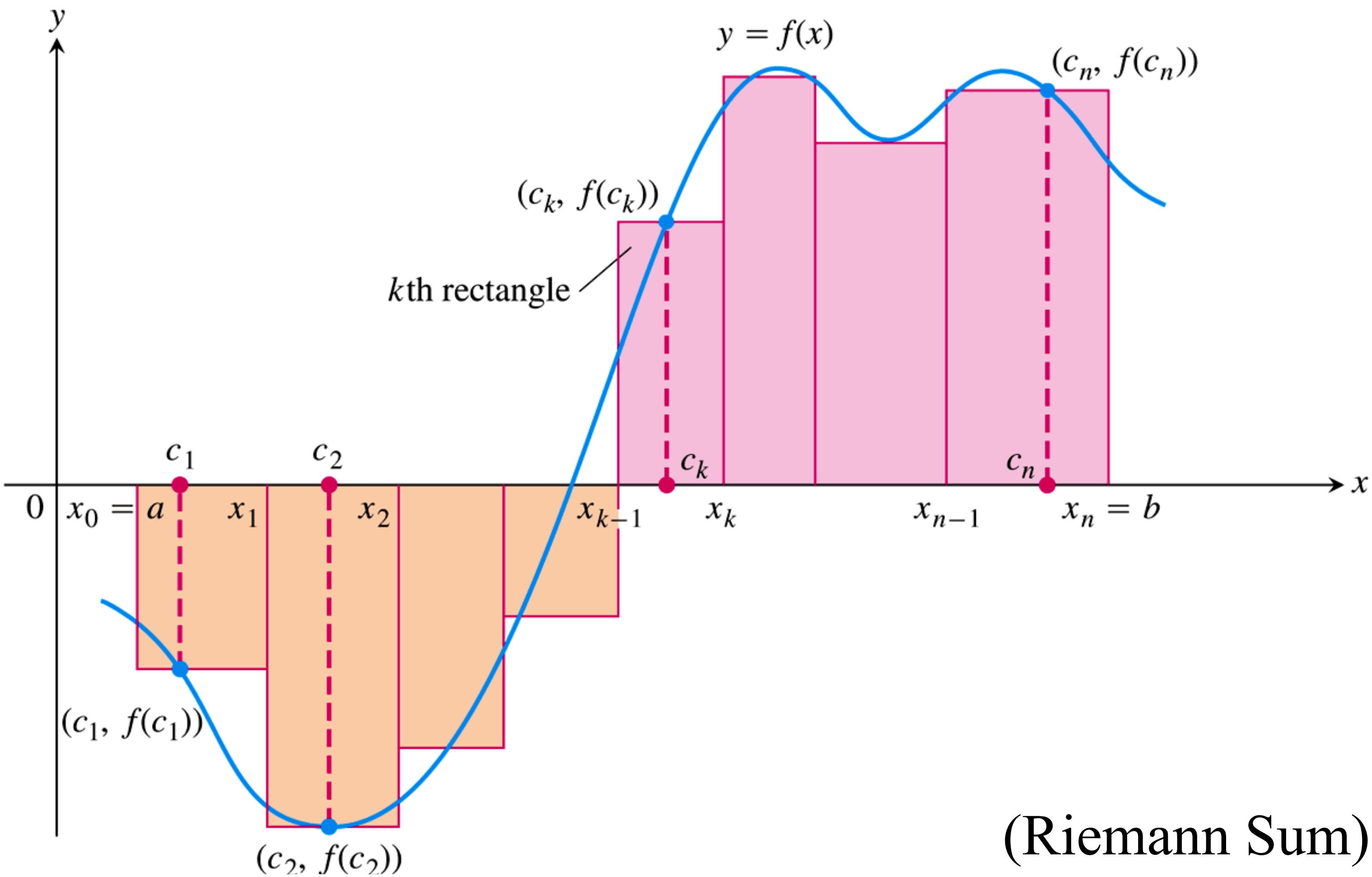


Riemann sums



In each subinterval $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ choose an element c_k and erect the rectangle with area $f(c_k)\cdot(x_k - x_{k-1})$ …

Riemann sums

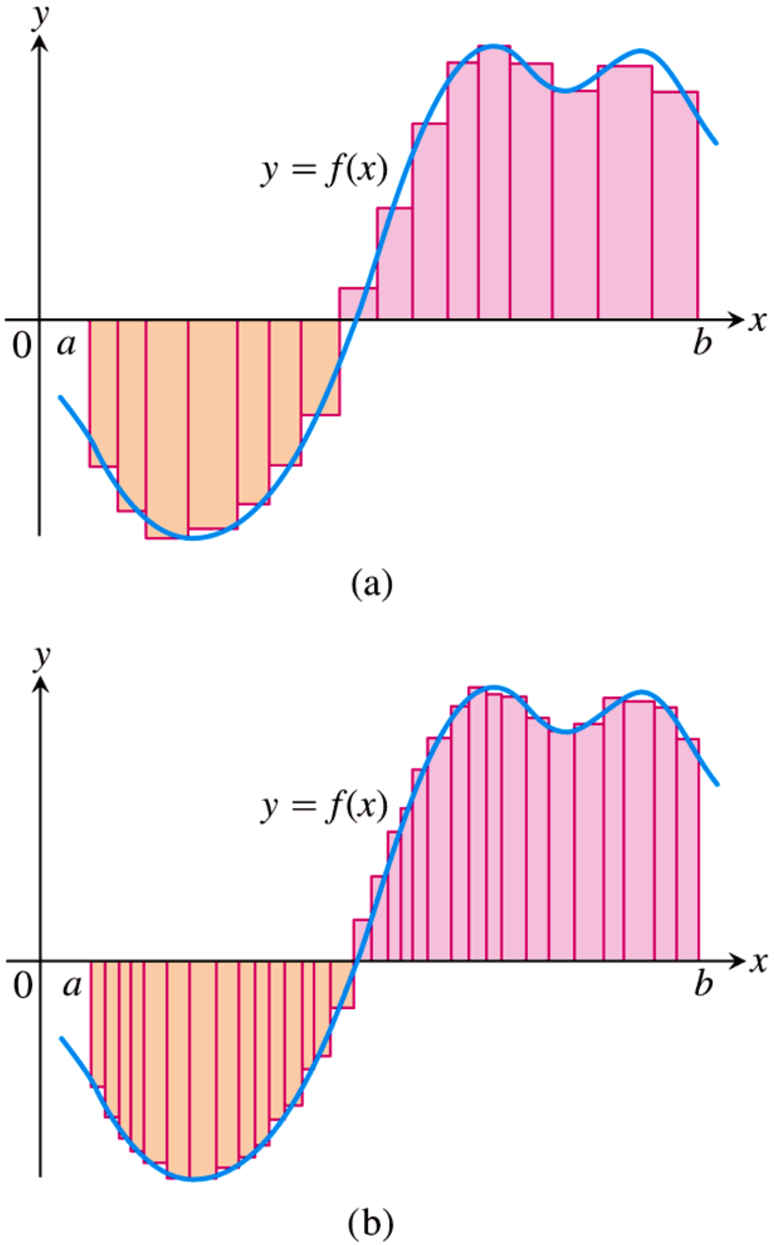


(Riemann Sum)

$$\text{Integral} \approx \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(c_k)\cdot(x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(c_k)\cdot \Delta x_k$$

Riemann sums

FIGURE 5.10 The curve of Figure 5.9 with rectangles from finer partitions of $[a, b]$. Finer partitions create collections of rectangles with thinner bases that approximate the region between the graph of f and the x-axis with increasing accuracy.



5.3

The Definite Integral

Definite Integral

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \underset{n \to \infty}{\text{"lim"}} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(t_i) \cdot \Delta x_i \right)$$

The definite integral exists if all Riemann sums converges to the same number.

Definite Integral

Upper limit of integration

The function is the integrand.

x is the variable of integration.

Integral sign

$$\underbrace{\int_a^b f(x)\, dx}_{\text{Integral of } f \text{ from } a \text{ to } b}$$

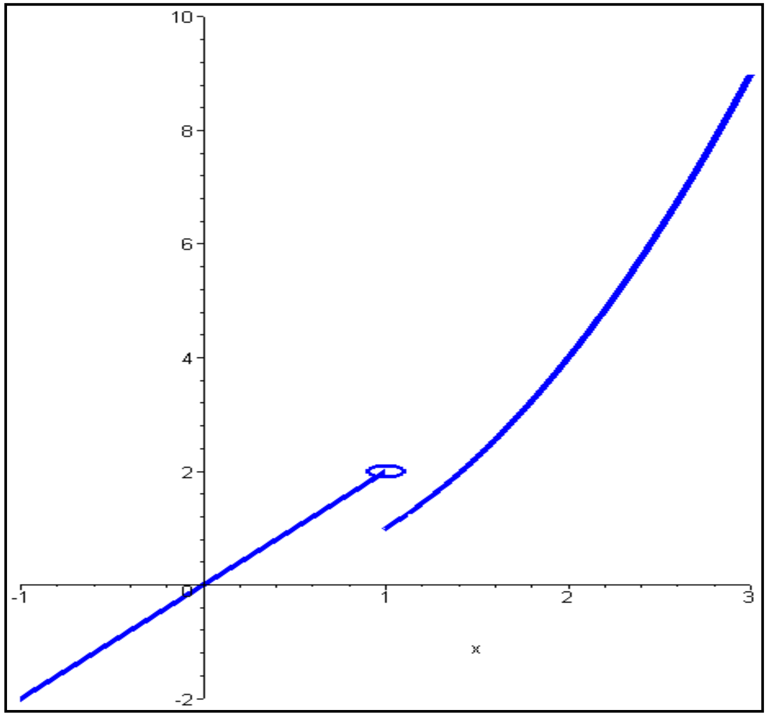
Lower limit of integration

When you find the value of the integral, you have evaluated the integral.

Definite Integral

THEOREM 1—Integrability of Continuous Functions If a function f is continuous over the interval $[a, b]$, or if f has at most finitely many jump discontinuities there, then the definite integral $\int_a^b f(x)\,dx$ exists and f is integrable over $[a, b]$.

A **jump discontinuity** in a means that f is *not* continuous, but the left-hand and right-hand limits of f in a exist.



Rules for integrals

TABLE 5.4 Rules satisfied by definite integrals

1.	*Order of Integration:*	$\int_b^a f(x)\,dx = -\int_a^b f(x)\,dx$	A Definition
2.	*Zero Width Interval:*	$\int_a^a f(x)\,dx = 0$	A Definition when $f(a)$ exists
3.	*Constant Multiple:*	$\int_a^b kf(x)\,dx = k\int_a^b f(x)\,dx$	Any constant k
4.	*Sum and Difference:*	$\int_a^b (f(x) \pm g(x))\,dx = \int_a^b f(x)\,dx \pm \int_a^b g(x)\,dx$	
5.	*Additivity:*	$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx + \int_b^c f(x)\,dx = \int_a^c f(x)\,dx$	
6.	*Max-Min Inequality:*	If f has maximum value max f and minimum value min f on $[a, b]$, then $\min f \cdot (b-a) \le \int_a^b f(x)\,dx \le \max f \cdot (b-a).$	
7.	*Domination:*	$f(x) \ge g(x)$ on $[a, b] \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x)\,dx \ge \int_a^b g(x)\,dx$	
		$f(x) \ge 0$ on $[a, b] \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x)\,dx \ge 0$	(Special Case)

Area and mean

DEFINITION If $y = f(x)$ is nonnegative and integrable over a closed interval $[a, b]$, then the **area under the curve $y = f(x)$ over $[a, b]$** is the integral of f from a to b,

$$A = \int_a^b f(x)\, dx.$$

DEFINITION If f is integrable on $[a, b]$, then its **average value on $[a, b]$**, also called its **mean**, is

$$\operatorname{av}(f) = \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f(x)\, dx.$$

Example:

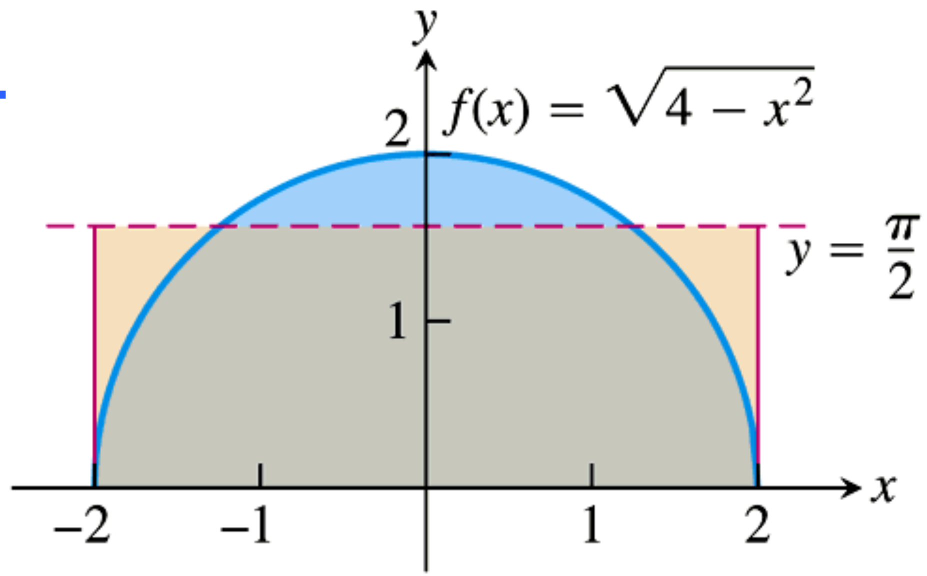


FIGURE 5.15 The average value of $f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ on $[-2, 2]$ is $\pi/2$

Because: the area of a half circle with radius 2 is 2π and the width $(b - a)$ is 4, leading to mean $\frac{1}{2}\pi$.

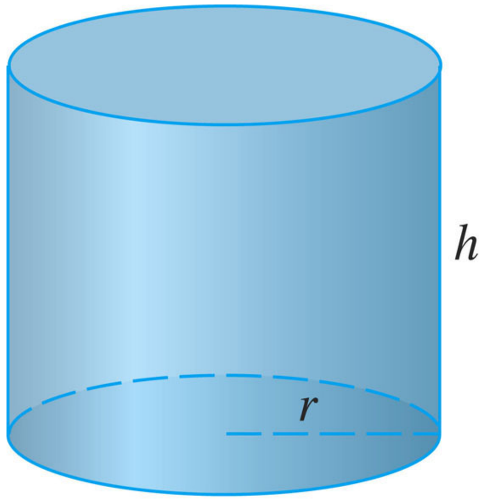
Volume

Volume

Example:

If the base is a circle with radius r, then circular cylinder with height h has volume:

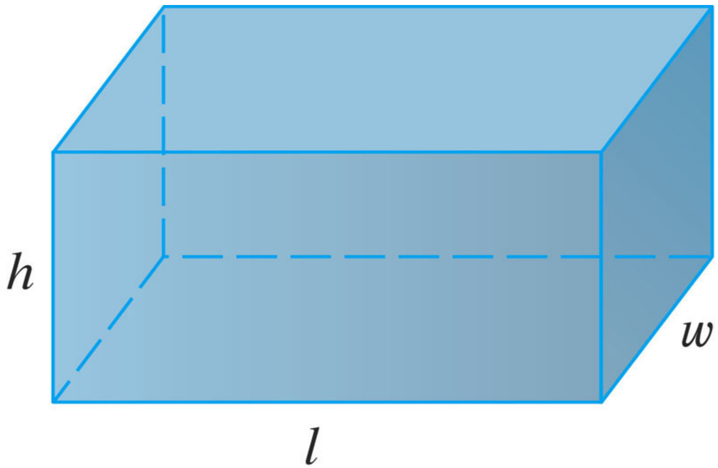
$$V = \pi r^2 h$$



Circular cylinder
$V = \pi r^2 h$

If the base is a rectangle with length l and width w then the rectangular parallelepiped with height h has volume:

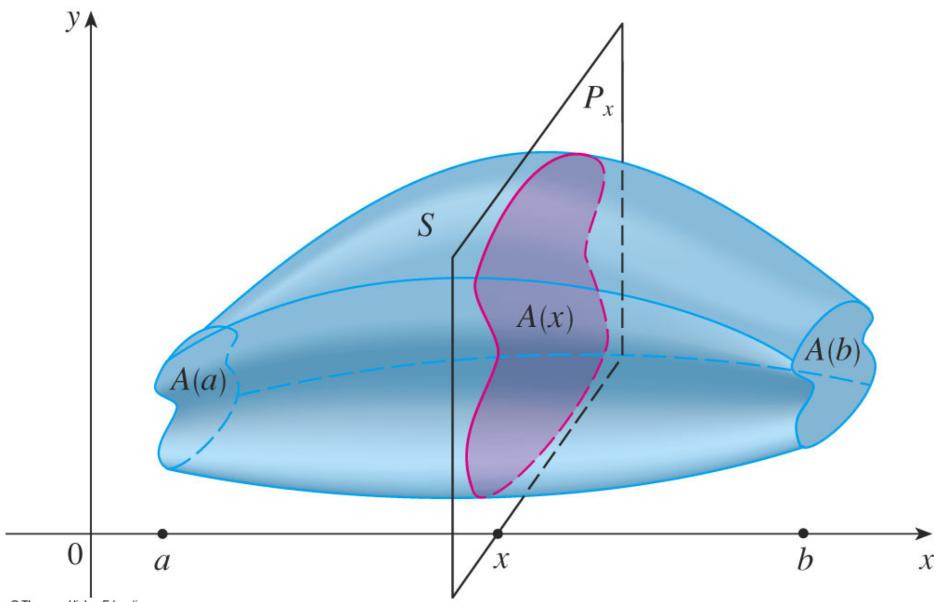
$$V = lwh$$



Rectangular box
$V = lwh$

Volume by cross-sections

Let $A(x)$ be the area of the cross-section of S in a plane P_x perpendicular to the x-axis and passing through the point x, where $a \leq x \leq b$.

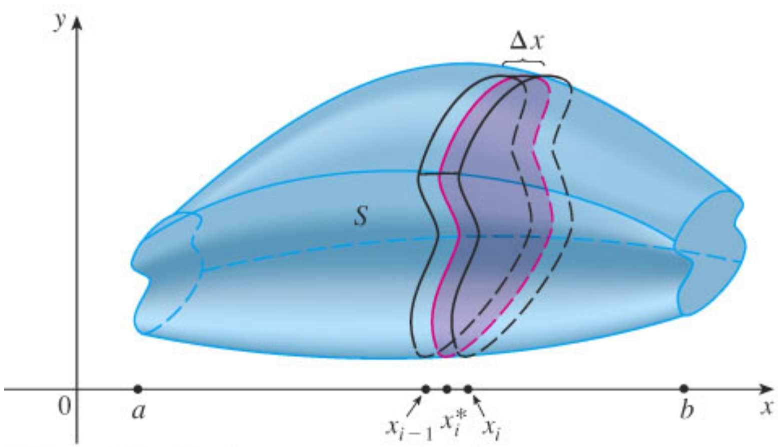


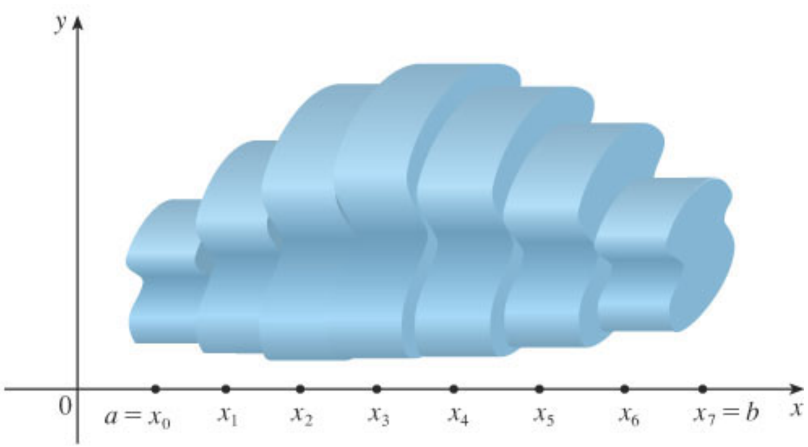
The cross-sectional area $A(x)$ will vary as x increases from a to b.

Volume by cross-sections

We divide S into n 'slabs' of equal width Δx using the planes P_{x1}, P_{x2}, ... to slice the solid

Think of slicing a loaf of bread





Volume by cross-sections

So, an approximation to our intuitive conception of the volume of the i-th slab S_i is:

$$V(S_i) \approx A(x_i)\Delta x$$

Adding the volumes of these slabs, we get an approximation to the total volume (that is, what we think of intuitively as the volume):

$$V \approx \sum_{i=1}^{n} A(x_i)\Delta x$$

- This approximation appears to become better and better as $n \to \infty$
- Think of the slices as becoming thinner and thinner

Volume by cross-sections

Definition of Volume:

Let S be a solid that lies between $x = a$ and $x = b$.
If the cross-sectional area of S in the plane P_x through x and perpendicular to the x-axis, is $A(x)$ then the volume of S is:

$$V = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} A(x_i)\Delta x = \int_a^b A(x)dx$$

5.4

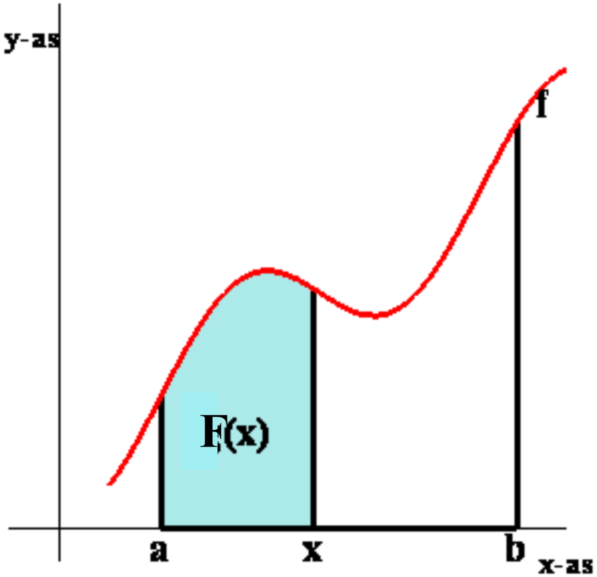
The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

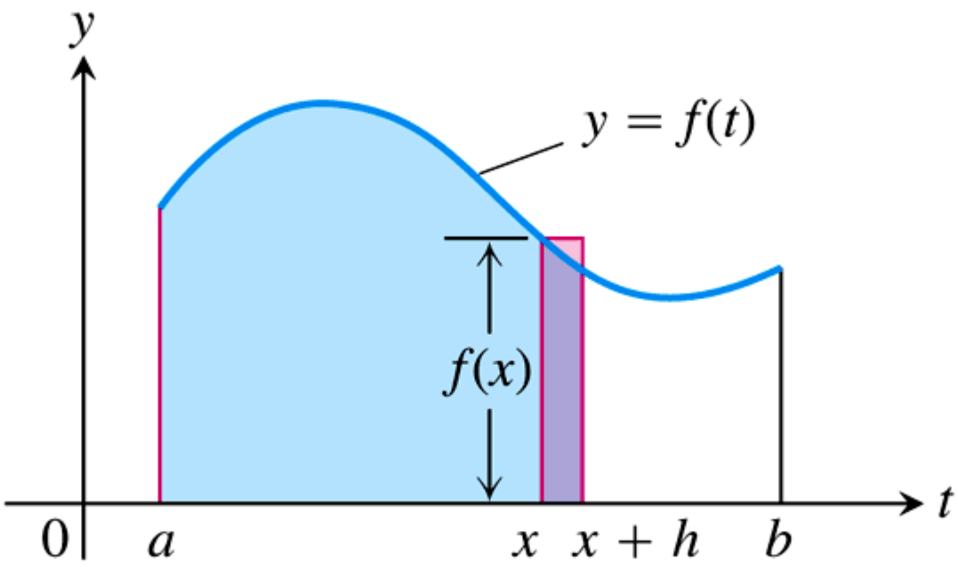
Given is a continuous function f on the interval $[a, b]$. Define the function F by:

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$$

The interpretation of F is:
the area under the graph of f
on the interval from a to x.



Fundamental Theorem of Calculus



We want to find $F'(x)$:

$$F'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$$

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 1

THEOREM 4—The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 1 If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\,dt$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) and its derivative is $f(x)$:

$$F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\int_a^x f(t)\,dt = f(x). \tag{2}$$

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

THEOREM 4 (Continued)—The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2 If f is continuous at every point in $[a, b]$ and F is any antiderivative of f on $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x)\,dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

Anti-derivatives

A function with derivative f is called an *antiderivative* of f. We see that the integral function:

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$$

is an antiderivative of f, independent of the starting point a.

DEFINITION A function F is an **antiderivative** of f on an interval I if $F'(x) = f(x)$ for all x in I.

THEOREM 8 If F is an antiderivative of f on an interval I, then the most general antiderivative of f on I is

$$F(x) + C$$

where C is an arbitrary constant.

Anti-derivatives

TABLE 4.2 Antiderivative formulas, k a nonzero constant

	Function	General antiderivative		Function	General antiderivative
1.	x^n	$\frac{1}{n+1}x^{n+1} + C, \quad n \neq -1$	**8.**	e^{kx}	$\frac{1}{k}e^{kx} + C$
2.	$\sin kx$	$-\frac{1}{k}\cos kx + C$	**9.**	$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln\lvert x\rvert + C, \quad x \neq 0$
3.	$\cos kx$	$\frac{1}{k}\sin kx + C$	**10.**	$\cancel{\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-k^2x^2}}}$	$\cancel{\frac{1}{k}\sin^{-1} kx + C}$
4.	$\cancel{\sec^2 kx}$	$\cancel{\frac{1}{k}\tan kx + C}$	**11.**	$\frac{1}{1+k^2x^2}$	$\frac{1}{k}\tan^{-1} kx + C$
5.	$\cancel{\csc^2 kx}$	$\cancel{-\frac{1}{k}\cot kx + C}$	**12.**	$\cancel{\frac{1}{x\sqrt{k^2x^2-1}}}$	$\cancel{\sec^{-1} kx + C}, \quad kx > 1$
6.	$\cancel{\sec kx \tan kx}$	$\cancel{\frac{1}{k}\sec kx + C}$	**13.**	a^{kx}	$\left(\frac{1}{k\ln a}\right)a^{kx} + C, \quad a > 0, \ a \neq 1$
7.	$\cancel{\csc kx \cot kx}$	$\cancel{-\frac{1}{k}\csc kx + C}$			

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

THEOREM **The Net Change Theorem** The net change in a function $F(x)$ over an interval $a \leq x \leq b$ is the integral of its rate of change:

$$F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b F'(x)\,dx.$$

Remember the differential: $dF = F'(x)dx$

Then: $$F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b dF$$

Variations on the Fundamental Theorem

Define:

$$g(x) = \int_x^b f(t)\,dt$$

where f is continuous is on $[a, b]$. Then g is differentiable on (a, b), and

$$g'(x) = -f(x)$$

Examples:

$$g(x) = \int_2^x \sqrt{1+t^4}\,dt \quad \rightarrow \quad g'(x) = \sqrt{1+x^4}$$

$$k(t) = \int_t^0 \ln\left(1+s^2\right) ds \quad \rightarrow \quad k'(t) = -\ln\left(1+t^2\right)$$

Variations on the Fundamental Theorem

Example:

$$f(x) = \int_0^{x^2} \sqrt{1+t}\,dt$$

Then $f(x) = g(x^2)$, where

$$g(u) = \int_0^{u} \sqrt{1+t}\,dt$$

Then

$$f'(x) = g'(x^2) \cdot 2x = \sqrt{1+x^2} \cdot 2x$$

Quiz

Given

$$h(x) = \int_x^{x^2} \tan(t)dt$$

Then $h'(x)$ equals

a) $\tan(x^2)$

b) $\tan(x^2) - \tan(x)$

c) $2x\tan(x^2) - \tan(x)$

d) $2x\tan(x^2) - 2x\tan(x)$

Indefinite integrals

Indefinite integrals

DEFINITION The collection of all antiderivatives of f is called the **indefinite integral** of f with respect to x, and is denoted by

$$\int f(x)\,dx.$$

The symbol $\int$ is an **integral sign**. The function f is the **integrand** of the integral, and x is the **variable of integration**.

Examples:

$$\int \left(\frac{3}{x} - \frac{2}{1+x^2} \right) dx$$

$$\int \left(2^x - 2\sqrt{x} \right) dx$$

Summarizing Exercise

Determine *dy/dx* in case *y* is given by

$$y(x) = x \int_1^x \frac{t}{1+t^4}\, dt$$