

Sigma notation is a shorthand way to write sums.

**Definition.** Let  $a_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_{n-1}, a_n$  be real numbers,  $m \leq n$ . We define

$$\sum_{i=m}^n a_i = a_m + a_{m+1} + a_{m+2} + \cdots + a_{n-1} + a_n.$$

Often the term  $a_i$  has form  $f(i)$  for some function  $f$ .

**Examples.** Write out the following sums and compute the sums where it is simple to do.

$$\sum_{i=3}^7 \frac{1}{i^2} =$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^5 \frac{1}{2^i} =$$

$$\sum_{i=2}^6 2 =$$

$$\sum_{i=0}^5 \sin\left(\frac{i\pi}{2}\right) =$$

$$\sum_{i=3}^6 (-1)^i x^i =$$

**Theorem.**

$$\sum_{i=m}^n c a_i = c \sum_{i=m}^n a_i$$

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

*Proof.*

**Examples.**

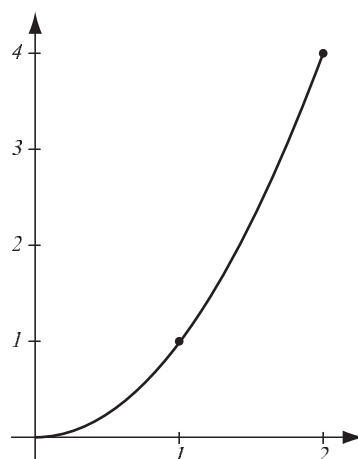
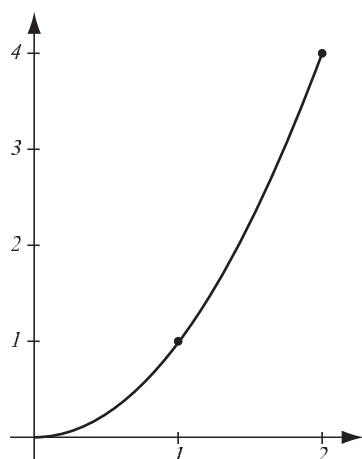
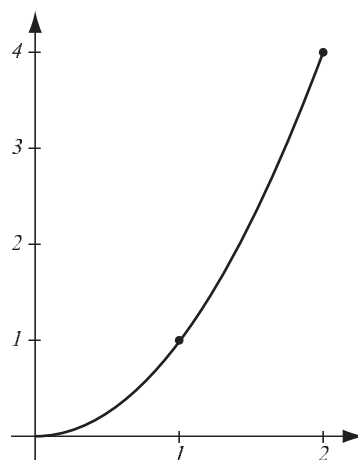
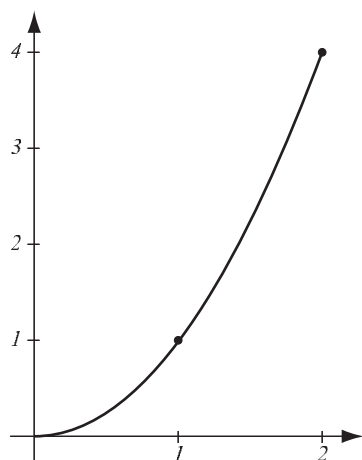
$$\sum_{i=1}^n 1 =$$

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

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

The problem in this chapter is to find the area under the graph of a function  $y = f(x)$ , above the  $x$ -axis, and between vertical lines  $x = a$  and  $x = b$ .

**Example.** Find the area under the parabola  $y = x^2$  between lines  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$ . We can't do this exactly, so we approximate the area with figures whose area we know: rectangles and trapezoids.



**Note.** The terms for rectangles — left, right, midpoint — refers to where  $f$  is evaluated to get height of rectangle: at the left, right endpoint, or at the midpoint of the subinterval.

We see  $L_6 \leq A \leq T_6 \leq R_6$ . Note that  $T_6 = \frac{L_6 + R_6}{2}$ . (It's harder to see where  $M_6$  fits in.)

Investigate values for  $L_n$ ,  $R_n$ ,  $T_n$  and  $M_n$  as  $n$  increases.

$n$	$L_n$	$R_n$	$T_n$	$M_n$
10				
50				
100				
500				

It appears that  $L_n$ ,  $R_n$ ,  $T_n$ ,  $M_n$  all approach the same number, the area of the region.

We show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n$  exists.

More generally, to find area under a curve:

- 1) Subdivide the interval  $[a, b]$  into equal-length subintervals of length  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ .  
Endpoints of the subintervals are  $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b$ .
- 2) Choose a sample point  $x_i^*$  in the subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ , usually left or right endpoint of the subinterval, or the midpoint.
- 3) Area of rectangle whose height is  $f(x_i^*)$  and width is  $\Delta x$  is  $f(x_i^*) \cdot \Delta x$ , so total area of rectangles is  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x$ .
- 4) As a greater number of subintervals ought to give a better approximation of area, we get the area under the curve by taking the limit of the approximations:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x \right).$$

**Example.** The speedometer of a car had readings listed below. Approximate the distance traveled during those 10 minutes.

$t$ (min)	2	4	6	8	10
$v(t)$ (mph)	20	25	15	30	35

Conclusion: distance traveled = area under the curve  $v(t)$

(More precisely: displacement = integral under the curve  $v(t)$ , to allow for negative values of  $v(t)$ .)

The method of section 5.1 can be applied to any function  $f$  over an interval  $[a, b]$ .

**Definition of the definite integral.**

1) Subdivide the interval  $[a, b]$  into equal-length subintervals of length  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ .  
Endpoints of the subintervals are  $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b$ .

2) Choose a sample point  $x_i^*$  in the subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

3) Form the sum  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x$ , called a *Riemann sum* for  $f$  over the interval  $[a, b]$ .

4) If the limit  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x$  exists, we say  $f$  is *integrable* and

define the *definite integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$*  to be  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x \right)$ .

**Example.** What does the Riemann sum represent for the picture above?

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , the sum of areas of rectangles above the  $x$ -axis approaches the area under the curve and above the  $x$ -axis, and the sum of areas of rectangles below the  $x$ -axis approaches the area above the curve and below the  $x$ -axis.

Therefore, the definite integral represents “signed area” — the area between the curve and the  $x$ -axis, where the pieces above the  $x$ -axis count as positive, and pieces below the  $x$ -axis count as negative.

Use the “signed area” interpretation to compute the following integrals.

**Example.**  $\int_{-3}^3 \sqrt{9 - x^2} \, dx =$

**Example.**  $\int_{-1}^2 1 - x \, dx =$

**Example.**  $\int_{-1}^2 |1 - x| \, dx =$

**Example.**  $\int_a^b c \, dx =$

**Note.**  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$  is a number (not a function). The  $dx$  does not have any special meaning, but serves as a right parenthesis, marking the end of the function that is being integrated, as well as identifying the variable when there are several letters in the function.

**Properties of the definite integral.**

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) \pm g(x) \, dx &= \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) \, dx & \int_a^b c f(x) \, dx &= c \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \\ \int_a^c f(x) \, dx &= \int_a^b f(x) \, dx + \int_b^c f(x) \, dx \end{aligned}$$

**Example.** If  $\int_1^7 f = 3$  and  $\int_1^4 f = -2$ , how much is  $\int_4^7 f$ ?

**More properties of the definite integral.**

If  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$ .

In particular, if  $f(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$ .

If  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  on  $[a, b]$ , then  $m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$ .

*Picture proofs.*

**Example.** Estimate  $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin x dx$ .

**Definition.** If  $b < a$ , we define (or derive from existing definition, using  $\Delta x = \frac{a-b}{n}$ ):

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$$

.



**Evaluation Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus).** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$ , then

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

**Notation.**  $F(b) - F(a)$  is written as  $F(x)|_a^b$ .

**Example.**  $\int_0^2 x^2 \, dx =$

**Example.**  $\int_1^2 \frac{x^6 - x^2}{x^3} \, dx =$

**Example.**  $\int_0^{\ln 5} e^{2x} \, dx =$

**Example.** Find the area under the curve  $y = \sin x$  from  $x = 0$  to  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

**Example.**  $\int_{-1}^2 \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx =$

**Net Change Theorem.**

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

integral of rate = net change of  $F$   
of change of  $F$  from  $a$  to  $b$

**Example.** At  $t = 0$ , there are 5 liters of water in a tank, and water is being added at rate  $3 - \frac{1}{2}t$  liters per minute at time  $t$  minutes.

- a) How much water was added from  $t = 0$  minutes to  $t = 4$  minutes?
- b) How much water is in the tank at  $t = 4$  minutes?
- c) How much water is in the tank at  $t = 12$  minutes?

**Example.** The velocity of an object is given by  $v(t) = 9 - t^2$ . By how much has it moved from  $t = 2$  to  $t = 4$ ?

Note that, since  $v(t)$  is derivative of position, the  $\int_2^4 v(t) dt$  represents change in position, or displacement. If we wanted *distance traveled*, we would compute  $\int_2^4 |v(t)| dt$ .

**Definition.** Because of the close connection between the definite integral and the antiderivative, we introduce notation  $\int f(x) dx$  to denote the antiderivative of  $f$ .

**Example.**  $\int \cos x dx =$

**Example.**  $\int ax + b dx =$

**Example.**  $\int \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta =$

**Example.** Find  $\int ((\ln x)^2 + 3 \ln x + 1) \frac{1}{x} dx$ .

Has form  $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx$ , which looks like the chain rule  $F'(g(x))g'(x)$ .

If we can find a function  $F(x)$  such that  $F'(x) = f(x)$ , then the problem becomes

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int F'(g(x))g'(x) dx = [\text{recognize chain rule}] = F(g(x))$$

which solves it, and all we needed was the antiderivative of  $f$ .

Thus, to integrate the form  $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx$ , we just need to know the antiderivative of  $f$ .

**The substitution rule** formalizes this process:

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du \quad \text{once done, substitute back } g(x) \text{ for } u$$

(we “substitute”  $g(x)$  with  $u$ , and  $g'(x) dx$  with  $du$ )

(The substitution rule is a sort of reverse to the chain rule.)

**Example.**  $\int ((\ln x)^2 + 3 \ln x + 1) \frac{1}{x} dx =$

**Example.**  $\int \sin^4 x \cos x \, dx =$

**Example.**  $\int (6x^2 + 2)(x^3 + x)^{10} \, dx =$

**Example.**  $\int \frac{e^{\sqrt{x}}}{\sqrt{x}} \, dx =$

**The substitution rule for definite integrals.**

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

always change the bounds  
and never go back to  $x$

**Example.**  $\int_2^3 \frac{2x + 1}{(x^2 + x - 3)^3} \, dx =$

**Example.**  $\int_{-2}^2 x \ln(x^2 + 3) dx =$

**Example.**  $\int_0^3 x \sqrt{9 - x^2} dx =$

**Example.** Sometimes substitution helps, even though the integral is not obviously in form  $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx$ .

$$\int \frac{x}{\sqrt{x-1}} dx =$$