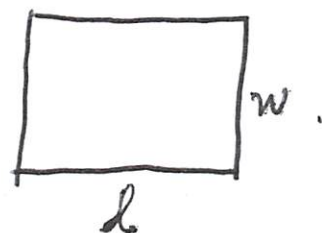


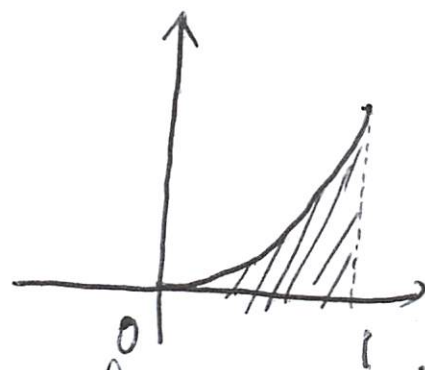
Recall: Area of a rectangle.

$$\text{Area} = \text{length} \cdot \text{width}.$$

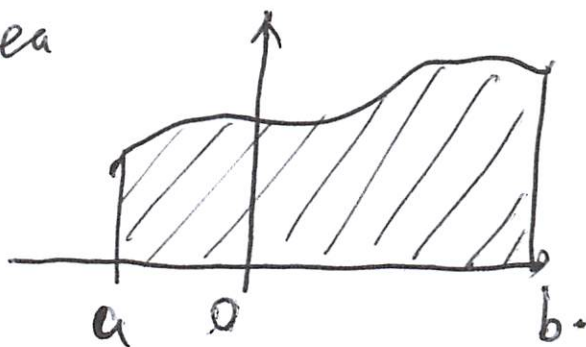


Question: $y = x^2$, $0 \leq x \leq 1$

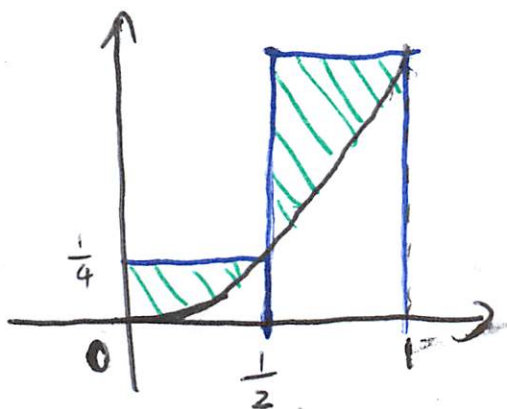
Area of shaded region?



More generally, for any curve $y = f(x)$,
 $a \leq x \leq b$, what is the area
 below the curve?



Idea: Approximate by rectangles.

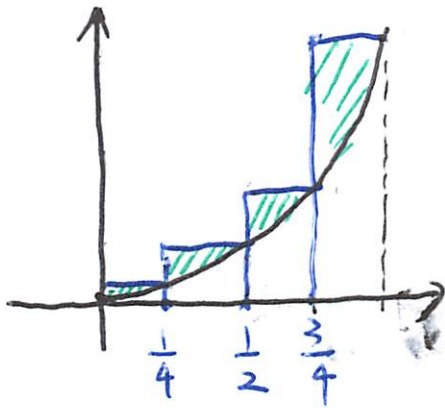


Area of ~~the~~ rectangles

$$= \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{2} + 1 \times \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{5}{8}$$

Difference (Error):

Shaded area in green.



Area of the rectangles

$$= \frac{1}{16} \times \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} \times \frac{1}{4} + \frac{9}{16} \times \frac{1}{4} + 1 \times \frac{1}{4}$$

Difference (Error)
becomes smaller.

Expectation: Error goes to 0 as partition become finer.

If $[0, 1]$ is partitioned into n parts, i.e. each rectangle has the width $\frac{1}{n}$.

height of the i -th rectangle, whose x -coordinates ranges from $\frac{i-1}{n}$ to $\frac{i}{n}$, would then be.

$$h_i = \left(\frac{i}{n}\right)^2$$

So the area of all those n rectangles

$$A(n) = \frac{1}{n} \cdot h_1 + \frac{1}{n} \cdot h_2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \cdot h_n$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1^2}{n^2} + \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{2^2}{n^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{n^2}{n^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^3} (1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2)$$

Digression: $1 + 1 + 1 + \dots + 1 = n$

$$1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

Gauss's idea: $1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + (n-2) + (n-1) + n$

When n is an even number, there are $\frac{n}{2}$ pairs of number with the sum $1+n \Rightarrow \text{sum} = \frac{n}{2}(n+1)$.

When n is odd, the middle one cannot be paired.

pairs = $\frac{n-1}{2}$, sum of these pairs = $\frac{n-1}{2}(n+1)$.

middle # = $\frac{n+1}{2}$, thus the total sum = $\frac{n-1}{2}(n+1) + \frac{n+1}{2}$
 $= \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

Polya's computation: $(n+1)^3 - n^3 = 3n^2 + 3n + 1$

$$n^3 - (n-1)^3 = 3(n-1)^2 + 3(n-1) + 1$$

$$2^3 - 1^3 = 3 \cdot 1^2 + 3 \cdot 1 + 1$$

Add all these eqns together!

$$\text{LHS} = (n+1)^3 - \cancel{n^3} + \cancel{n^3} - \cancel{(n-1)^3} + \dots + \cancel{2^3} - \cancel{1^3}$$

$$= (n+1)^3 - 1^3$$

$$\text{RHS} = 3(\cancel{1^2} + n^2 + (n-1)^2 + \dots + 1^2) + 3(n + (n-1) + \dots + 1)$$

$$+ (1 + 1 + \dots + 1)$$

$$= 3(1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2) + 3 \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + n$$

$$1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + (n-1)^2 + n^2 = \frac{1}{3} \left((n+1)^3 - 1^3 - \frac{3}{2}n(n+1) - n \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left((n+1)^3 - \frac{3}{2}n(n+1) - (n+1) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} (n+1) \left((n+1)^2 - \frac{3}{2}n - 1 \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} (n+1) \left(n^2 + 2n - \frac{3}{2}n \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} (n+1) \left(n^2 + \frac{1}{2}n \right) = \frac{1}{6} n(n+1)(2n+1)$$

Rmk: Polya's method can be used to compute $1^k + 2^k + \dots + n^k$

Answer is characterized by Riemann sum.

Digression: Σ - notation

$$1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n i^2$$

Annotations:
 - n (top of sum) → terminal term.
 - i^2 (inside sum) → what is to be summed.
 - $i=1$ (bottom of sum) → ~~start~~ initial term.

Default: ~~diff~~ terms have difference 1.

Example: $1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 = \sum_{i=1}^5 i$

Exercises: $1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2 + 6^2 = \sum_{i=1}^6 i^2$

Exercises: $10^2 + 11^2 + 12^2 + 13^2 = \sum_{i=10}^{13} i^2$

Exercises: $\frac{1}{5^3} + \frac{2}{5^3} + \frac{3}{5^3} + \frac{4}{5^3} + \dots + \frac{10}{5^3} = \sum_{i=1}^{10} \frac{i}{5^3}$

Exercises: $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{100}} = \sum_{i=0}^{100} \frac{1}{2^i}$

Annotations:
 - 1 (first term) → $\frac{1}{2^0}$
 - $\frac{1}{2}$ (second term) → $\frac{1}{2^1}$

for any k .

Exercise: $1^3 + 2^3 + \dots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$.

Return to the area below $y = x^2, x \in [0, 1]$

$$A(n) = \frac{1}{n^3} (1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^3} \cdot \frac{1}{6} n(n+1)(2n+1) = \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{6n^2}$$

Area below $y = x^2, x \in [0, 1]$ (by Newton)

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A(n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{2n^2 + 3n + 1}{6n^2} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{6n^2} \right) = \frac{1}{3}$$

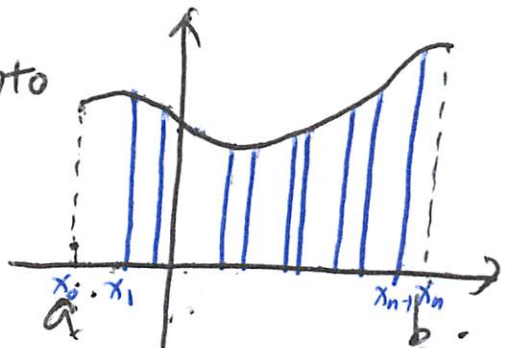
Questions: ① Is the expectation correct? How to justify it?

② (Riemann). Can one partition the interval ~~arbitrarily~~ arbitrarily? Can one choose the height arbitrarily?

Riemann Sum: $y = f(x)$. $a \leq x \leq b$.

- Partition $[a, b]$ *arbitrarily* into n parts,

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b$$



- Height of each rectangle is to be chosen *arbitrarily*, more precisely, height would be chosen as $f(x_i^*)$ *of the i th rectangle*

where $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$ and x_i^* *arbitrarily chosen*.

- Riemann Sum =
$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) (x_i - x_{i-1})$$

- $\|x\| \iff \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} (x_i - x_{i-1})$.

Integrable function: We say $f(x)$ is integrable on $[a, b]$ if the following limit exists

$$\lim_{\|x\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) (x_i - x_{i-1})$$

and is independent of the choice of partition or x_i^*

If $f(x)$ is integrable on $[a, b]$, the integration of $f(x)$ is defined as the limit.

Notation:
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\|x\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) (x_i - x_{i-1})$$

As long as ~~the~~ $f(x)$ is integrable, ~~all~~ the questions we raised above have positive answers.

Example:
$$D(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \text{ is rational number} \\ 0 & x \text{ is irrational number} \end{cases}$$

is ~~is~~ NOT integrable. (Dirichlet func).

(Can find two different ~~ways~~ ^{choices} of partitions and heights such that one limit = 1, the other = 0.)

Comments: In practice nobody computes integrals in this way, due to the contribution of Newton and Leibniz.

Fundamental theorem of Calculus.

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

where $F(x)$ is ~~the~~ ^{antiderivative} the antiderivative of $f(x)$,
i.e., $F(x)$ is **ANY** function satisfying $F'(x) = f(x)$.

Example: $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ stands for the area below $y = x^2$.

Take $f(x) = x^2$, then $F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3$ satisfies $F'(x) = f(x)$.

$$\int_0^1 x^2 dx = F(1) - F(0) = \frac{1}{3} - 0 = \frac{1}{3}.$$

Another version of the theorem:

$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ defines a function,

Geometrically it's the area below $y = f(t)$ in the interval $[a, x]$. Then

$$F'(x) = f(x).$$

$$\text{or } \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x).$$

$$\left(\int_a^x f(t) dt \right)' = f(x).$$

Due to the above theorem, in order to compute integrations, all we need to do is to find ~~antidifferentid~~ antiderivatives.

Antiderivative: ^{of $f(x)$} ANY function $F(x)$ s.t. $F'(x) = f(x)$.

WARNING: Antiderivatives are not unique.

Theorem: If $F(x)$ is an antiderivative of $f(x)$, then for **ANY** constant number C , the function

$$G(x) = F(x) + C.$$

is also an antiderivative.

Recall: Zero derivative theorem: If $F'(x) = G'(x)$ then

$F(x)$ and $G(x)$ differ by a constant.

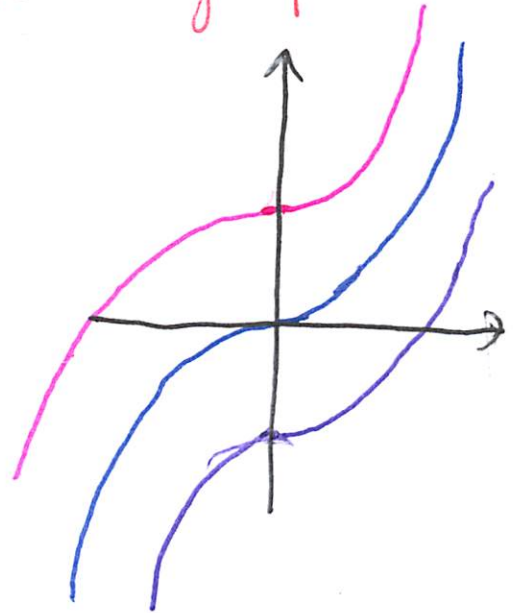
This characterizes **ALL** possible antiderivatives!

Indefinite integral: Suppose $F(x)$ is an antiderivative of $f(x)$, then the indef. int. is defined as.

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C.$$

Rmk: Indef. integral is NOT a one single function but a family of functions.

Example: $\int x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3} x^3 + C.$



Rules: \mathbb{R}

- Multiple rule:

$$\int c f(t) dt = c \int f(t) dt.$$

c is const.

- Sum rule.

$$\int (f(t) + g(t)) dt = \int f(t) dt + \int g(t) dt$$

Recall: $\frac{d}{dt}(cf) = c \frac{df}{dt}$

$$\frac{d}{dt}(f(t) + g(t)) = \frac{df}{dt} + \frac{dg}{dt}$$

• Difference rule.

$$\int (f(t) - g(t)) dt = \int f(t) dt - \int g(t) dt$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} (f(t) - g(t)) = \frac{df}{dt} - \frac{dg}{dt}$$

• Linearity rule.

$$\int (a_1 f_1(t) + a_2 f_2(t)) dt = a_1 \int f_1(t) dt + a_2 \int f_2(t) dt$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} (a_1 f_1 + a_2 f_2) = a_1 \frac{df_1}{dt} + a_2 \frac{df_2}{dt}$$

a_1, a_2 consts.

WARNING: $\int f(t)g(t) dt \neq \int f(t) dt \cdot \int g(t) dt$.

Basic formulas:

$$\int 0 dt = C$$

$$\int e^t dt = e^t + C$$

$$\int x^n dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + C & n \neq -1 \\ \ln|x| + C & n = -1 \end{cases}$$

i.e. $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C$.

$$\frac{d}{dx} (c) = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (e^x) = e^x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (x^n) = n x^{n-1}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\ln|x|) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C.$$

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

$$\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + C.$$

$$\int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + C.$$

$$\int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + C.$$

$$\int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x + C.$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x,$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x.$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = \sec x \tan x.$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cot x) = -\csc^2 x.$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\csc x) = -\csc x \cot x.$$

Attendance Quiz:

1. $\int (x^5 - 3x^2 - 7) \, dx$

2. $\int (5\sqrt{x} + 4\sin x) \, dx$

3. $\int x(x + \sqrt{x}) \, dx$

~~4. \int~~

1. $\int (x^5 - 3x^2 - 7) \, dx = \int x^5 \, dx - 3 \int x^2 \, dx - 7 \int dx$

$1 = x^0$
 $\int dx = \int x^0 dx$
 $= \frac{x^{0+1}}{0+1}$

$$= \frac{1}{6}x^6 - 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3}x^3 - 7x + C.$$

$$= \frac{1}{6}x^6 - x^3 - 7x + C.$$

$$3. \int x(x + \sqrt{x}) dx = \int (x^2 + x\sqrt{x}) dx = \int x^2 dx + \int x^{\frac{3}{2}} dx.$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{\frac{3}{2} + 1} x^{\frac{3}{2} + 1} + C.$$

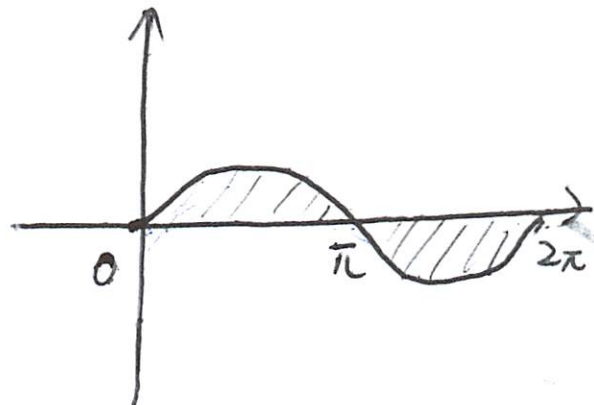
$$= \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{2}{5}x^{\frac{5}{2}} + C.$$

Example: Find the area enclosed by $y = \sin x$ and the x -axis for

- (i) $x \in [0, \pi]$. (ii) $x \in [0, 2\pi]$.

$$(b) \int_0^{\pi} \sin x dx = ?$$

$$\int \sin x dx = -\cos x + C.$$



$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = (-\cos x) \Big|_0^{\pi} = -\cos \pi - (-\cos 0)$$

$$= 1 + 1 = 2.$$

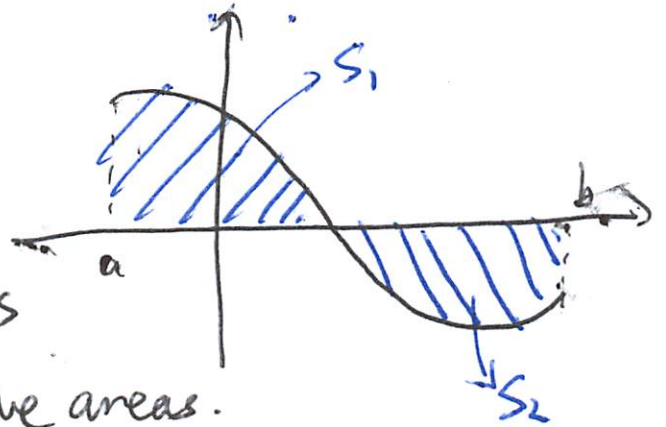
(ii) If I want to know how large this area is.

$\int_0^{\pi} |\sin x| \, dx$ is the absolute area.

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \sin x \, dx = -\cos x \Big|_0^{2\pi} = -\cos 2\pi - (-\cos 0) = 0.$$

Rmk: If $f(x)$ take negative values, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = S_1 - S_2$$



i.e. Area below the x-axis
~~one~~ is regarded as negative areas.

Model of position-velocity-acceleration:

Recall: If we know the position function $s(t)$,
then ~~v(t)~~ velocity $v(t) = s'(t)$, $a(t) = v'(t) = s''(t)$.

With the help of integration, if ~~g~~ $v(t)$ is known, then by integration, the position function ~~is~~ is

$$s(t) = \int_0^t \cancel{v(t)} v(u) du + s(0).$$

↑
gives the position change from 0 to t .

Recall: Total distance the object moved between 0 and t is given by

$$d(t) = \int_0^t |v(u)| du.$$