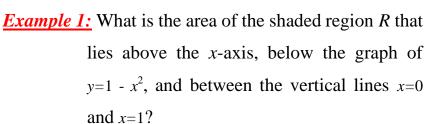
Definite Integrals:

Area under Curve:

The area of the region with a curved boundary can be approximated by summing the areas of a collection of rectangles. Using more rectangles can increase the accuracy of approximation.



Sol.: 1. If we divide the region into two rectangles (two sub-intervals each sub interval length $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{1-0}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$), and we take the height of

rectangles at the left-end of those sub-intervals.

$$\therefore A \approx \frac{1}{2} * 1 + \frac{1}{2} * \frac{3}{4} = \frac{7}{8} = 0.875$$

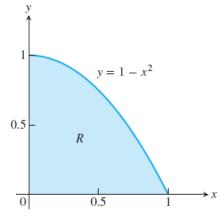
We get an upper estimated of the area A.

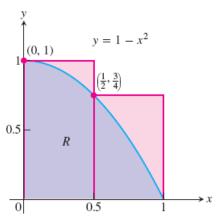
If we use four rectangles we get a better upper estimate.

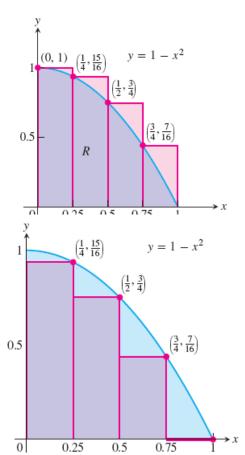
$$\therefore \Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{1-0}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

and $\therefore A \approx \frac{1}{4} (1 + \frac{15}{16} + \frac{3}{4} + \frac{7}{16}) = \frac{25}{32} = 0.78125$

which is still greater than the area *A* since the rectangles all lies outside the region *R*.







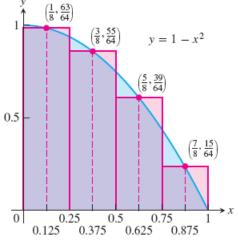
2. If we take the height of rectangles at the right-end of those sub-intervals,

$$\therefore A \approx \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{15}{16} + \frac{3}{4} + \frac{7}{16} + 0 \right) = \frac{17}{32} = 0.53125$$

This estimate is smaller than the area *A* since the rectangles all lies inside the region *R*.

So, the true value of *A* lies somewhere between these lower and upper sums;

3. Another estimate can be obtained by using rectangles whose heights are the values of fat the midpoint of their bases. This gives an estimate that is between the lower sum and upper sum, but is not clear whether it overestimates or underestimates the true area.



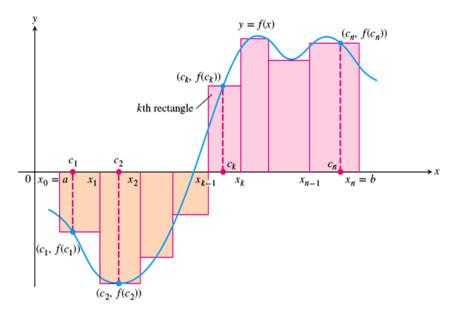
$$\therefore A \approx \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{63}{64} + \frac{55}{64} + \frac{39}{64} + \frac{15}{64} \right) = \frac{1}{4} * \frac{172}{64} = 0.671875$$

Number of **Midpoint sum Upper sum** Lower sum **Sub-intervals** 0.875 0.375 0.6875 2 4 0.53125 0.671875 0.78125 16 0.634765625 0.6669921875 0.697285625 50 0.6566 0.6667 0.6766 0.66165 100 0.666675 0.67165 0.6661665 0.66666675 1000 0.6671665

If we increase the subdivisions we obtain:

Riemann Sums:

Suppose y=f(x) is an arbitrary continuous function over closed interval [*a*, *b*], *f*(*x*) may have negative as well as positive values.



We subdivide the interval [a, b] into subintervals not necessary of equal width (length). To do so, we choose *n*-1 points $\{x_1, x_2, x_3..., x_{n-1}\}$ between *a* and *b* and satisfying

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \ldots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b$$

the set

 $P = \{x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots x_{n-1}\}$

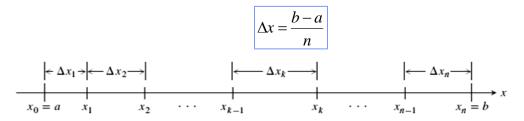
is called a **partition** of [*a*, *b*]

The partition *P* divides [*a*, *b*] into *n* closed sub intervals,

 $[x_o, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n]$

The first of these subintervals is $[x_o, x_1]$, the second is $[x_1, x_2]$ and the k^{th} subintervals of *P* is $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$, for *k* an integer between 1 and *n*.

The width of the first subintervals $[x_o, x_1]$ is denoted Δx_1 , the width of the second $[x_1, x_2]$ is Δx_2 , and the width of the k^{th} is $\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1}$. If all *n* subintervals have the equal width, then the common width Δx is equal to



In each subinterval we select some point. The point chosen in the k^{th} subinterval is called c_k . Then on each subinterval we stand a vertical rectangle that stretches from the *x*-axis to touch the curve at $(c_k, f(c_k))$. These rectangles can be above or below the *x*-axis, depending whether $f(c_k)$ is positive or negative, or on it $f(c_k)=0$.

On each subinterval we form the product $f(c_k)$. Δx_k . This product is positive, negative or zero, depending on the sign of $f(c_k)$.

If $f(c_k) > 0$, the product $f(c_k)$. Δx_k is the area of a rectangle with height $f(c_k)$ and width Δx_k .

If $f(c_k) < 0$, the product $f(c_k)$. Δx_k is a negative number, the negative of the area of a rectangle with height $f(c_k)$ and width Δx_k that drops from the *x*-axis to the negative number of $f(c_k)$.

Finally we sum all of these products to get

$$S_P = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) . \Delta x_k$$

The sum S_P is called a **Riemann Sum** for *f* on the interval [*a*, *b*]. There are many such sums, depending on the partition *P* we choose, and the choice of the point c_k in the subintervals.

We define the **norm** of a partition *P*, written ||P||, to be the largest of all subinterval widths. If ||P|| is a small number, then all of the subintervals in the partition *P* have a small width.

Example 1: Partitioning a Closed Interval.

The set *P* = {0. 0.2, 0.6, 1, 1.5, 2} is a partition of [0,2]. There are five subintervals *P*: [0, 0.2], [0.2, 0.6], [0.6, 1], [1, 1.5] and [1.5, 2]



The lengths of the subintervals are: $\Delta x_1 = 0.2 - 0 = 0.2$,

$$\Delta x_2 = 0.6 - 0.2 = 0.4$$

 $\Delta x_3 = 0.4$
 $\Delta x_4 = 0.5$
 $\Delta x_5 = 0.5$

and

The longest subinterval length is 0.5, so the norm of the partition ||P||=0.5. In this example there are two subintervals of this length.

Any Riemann sum associated with a partition of a closed interval [a,b] defines rectangles that approximate the region between the graph of a continuous function f and the x-axis. Partitions with norm approaching to zero lead to collections of rectangles that approximate this region with increasing accuracy.

Example 2: Find the Riemann sum for $f(x) = \sin \pi x$ on the interval [0, 3/2]. Use n=3.

Sol.:
$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{3/2-0}{3} = \frac{1}{2} \implies x_0 = a = 0, x_1 = \frac{1}{2}, x_2 = 1 \text{ and } x_3 = b = \frac{3}{2}$$

1. Choice of c_k : the interval midpoint

$$c_1 = \frac{1/2 + 0}{2} = \frac{1}{4}, \ c_2 = \frac{1 + 1/2}{2} = \frac{3}{4}, \ c_3 = \frac{3/2 + 1}{2} = \frac{5}{4}$$

The Riemann sum:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{3} f(c_k) \Delta c_k = \sum_{k=1}^{3} \sin \pi c_k * \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sin \frac{\pi}{4} + \sin \frac{3\pi}{4} + \sin \frac{5\pi}{4} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \right) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{4}$$

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2. Choice of c_k : left-hand of subinterval

$$c_1 = 0, \ c_2 = \frac{1}{2}, \ c_3 = 1$$

The Riemann sum:

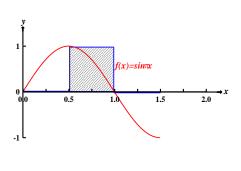
$$\sum_{k=1}^{3} f(c_k) \Delta c_k = \sum_{k=1}^{3} \sin \pi c_k * \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} (\sin 0 + \sin \frac{\pi}{2} + \sin \pi)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} (0 + 1 + 0) = \frac{1}{2}$$

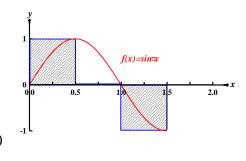
3. Choice of c_k : right-hand of subinterval

$$c_1 = \frac{1}{2}, c_2 = 1, c_3 = \frac{3}{2}$$

The Riemann sum:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{3} f(c_k) \Delta c_k = \sum_{k=1}^{3} \sin \pi c_k * \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sin \frac{\pi}{2} + \sin \pi + \sin \frac{3\pi}{2} \right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} (1 + 0 - 1) = 0$$





Area Is Strictly a Special Case

If an integerable function y=f(x) is nonnegative throughout an interval [*a*, *b*], each term $f(c_k)\Delta x_k$ is the area of a rectangle reaching from the *x*-axis up to the curve y=f(x). The Riemann sum

$$S_P = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k$$

which is the sum of the areas of these rectangles, gives an estimate of the area of the region between the curve and the *x*-axis from *a* to *b*. Since the rectangles give an increasing good approximation of the region as we use subdivisions with smaller and smaller subintervals, we call the limiting value

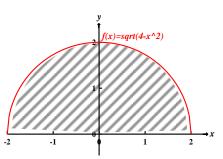
$$\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(c_k) \Delta x_x = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(c_k) \Delta x_x = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$
 the area under the curve.

<u>Note</u>: (remember that when $n \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \Delta x \rightarrow 0$)

Definition: If y=f(x) is nonnegative and integerable function over a closed interval [*a*, *b*], then the integral of *f* from *a* to *b* is the **area** of the region between the graph of *f* and the *x*-axis from *a* to *b*. We sometimes call this number the **area under the curve** y=f(x) from *a* to *b*.

Example 3: Find the value of integral $\int_{-2}^{2} \sqrt{4-x^2} dx$ by

regarding it as the area under the graph of an appropriately chosen function.



Sol.: We graph the integrand $f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ over the $\frac{1}{2}$

interval of integration [-2, 2] and see that the graph is semicircle of radius 2. The area between the semicircle and the *x*-axis is

Area =
$$\frac{1}{2}\pi r^2 = \frac{1}{2}\pi (2)^2 = 2\pi$$

Because the area is also the value of the integral of f from -2 to2:

$$\int_{-2}^{2} \sqrt{4 - x^2} \, dx = 2\pi$$

The First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

If the function *f* is continuous on an interval [*a*, *b*], and *F*(*x*) is the antiderivative of *f*, then the function $F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt$ has a derivative at every point on [*a*, *b*] and

$$\frac{dF}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt = f(x)$$

Examples: Find dy/dx of the following:

1.
$$y = \int_{-\pi}^{x} \cos t \, dt$$

Sol.: $\frac{d}{dx} \int_{-\pi}^{x} \cos t \, dt = \cos x$
2. $y = \int_{0}^{x} \frac{1}{1+t^{2}} \, dt$
Sol.: $\frac{d}{dx} \int_{0}^{x} \frac{1}{1+t^{2}} \, dt = \frac{1}{1+x^{2}}$
3. $y = \int_{1}^{x^{2}} \cos t \, dt$
Sol.: $\frac{d}{dx} \int_{1}^{x^{2}} \cos t \, dt = \cos x^{2} * \frac{d}{dx} (x^{2}) = \cos x^{2} * 2x = 2x \cos x^{2}$

The Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (The Integral Evaluation Theorem)

If *f* is continuous at every point of [a, b] and *F* is antiderivative of *f* on [a,b], then

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