



Calculus is build on two operations: **differentiation** and **integration**.

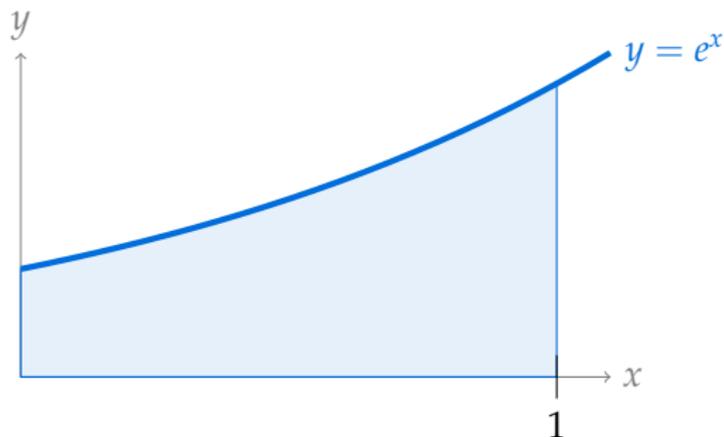
## Differentiation

- ▶ Slope of a line
- ▶ Rate of change
- ▶ Optimization
- ▶ Numerical Approximations

## Integration

- ▶ Area under a curve
- ▶ “Reverse” of differentiation
- ▶ Solving differential equations
- ▶ Calculate net change from rate of change
- ▶ Volume of solids
- ▶ Work (in the physics sense)

Approximate the area of the shaded region using rectangles.



We're going to be doing a lot of adding.

# SUMMATION (SIGMA) NOTATION

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i)$$

- ▶  $a, b$  (integers with  $a \leq b$ ) “bounds”
- ▶  $i$  “index:” integer which runs from  $a$  to  $b$
- ▶  $f(i)$  “summands:” compute for every  $i$ , add

$$\sum_{i=a}^b f(i) = f(a) + f(a+1) + f(a+2) + \cdots + f(b)$$

# SIGMA NOTATION

Expand  $\sum_{i=2}^4 (2i + 5)$ .

# SIGMA NOTATION

Expand  $\sum_{i=1}^4 (i + (i - 1)^2)$ .



# ARITHMETIC OF SUMMATION NOTATION

Let  $c$  be a constant.

▶ Adding constants:  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} c =$

▶ Factoring constants:  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} 5(i^2) =$

▶ Addition is Commutative:  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} (i + i^2) =$

# ARITHMETIC OF SUMMATION NOTATION

Let  $c$  be a constant.

▶ Adding constants:  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} c = 10c$

▶ Factoring constants:  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} 5(i^2) = 5 \sum_{i=1}^{10} (i^2)$

▶ Addition is Commutative:  $\sum_{i=1}^{10} (i + i^2) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^{10} i \right) + \left( \sum_{i=1}^{10} i^2 \right)$

# COMMON SUMS

Let  $n \geq 1$  be an integer,  $a$  be a real number, and  $r \neq 1$ .

$$\sum_{i=0}^n ar^i = a + ar + ar^2 + \cdots + ar^n = a \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

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

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = 1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = 1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Simplify:  $\sum_{i=1}^{13} (i^2 + i^3)$

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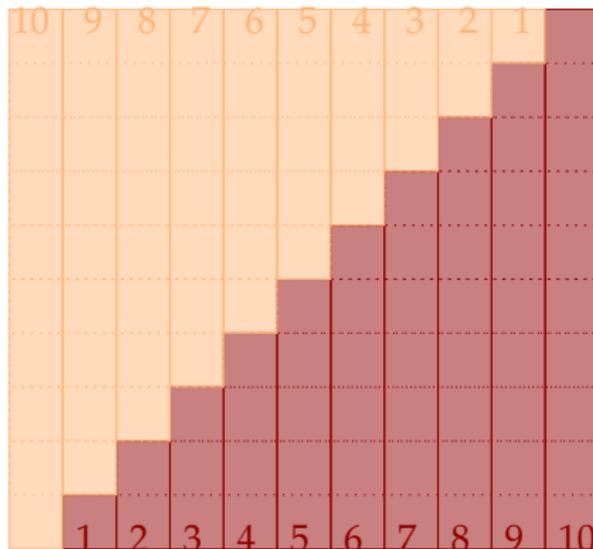
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = 1^3 + 2^3 + \cdots + n^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Simplify:  $\sum_{i=1}^{50} (1 - i^2)$



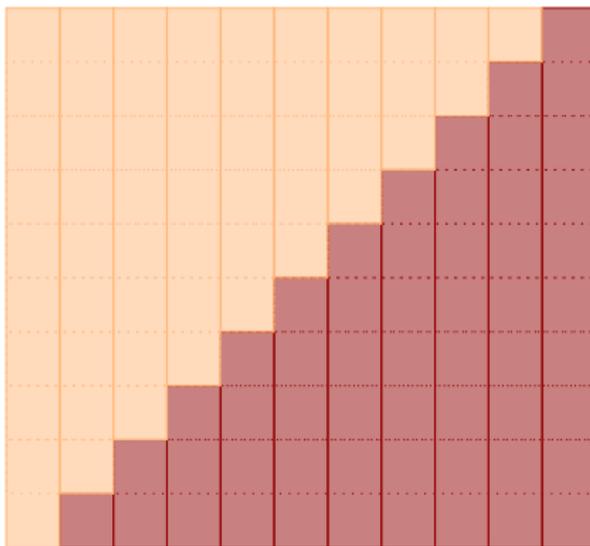
# (OPTIONAL) PROOF OF ANOTHER COMMON SUM

$$\sum_{i=1}^{10} i = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6 + 7 + 8 + 9 + 10 =$$



# (OPTIONAL) PROOF OF A COMMON SUM

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





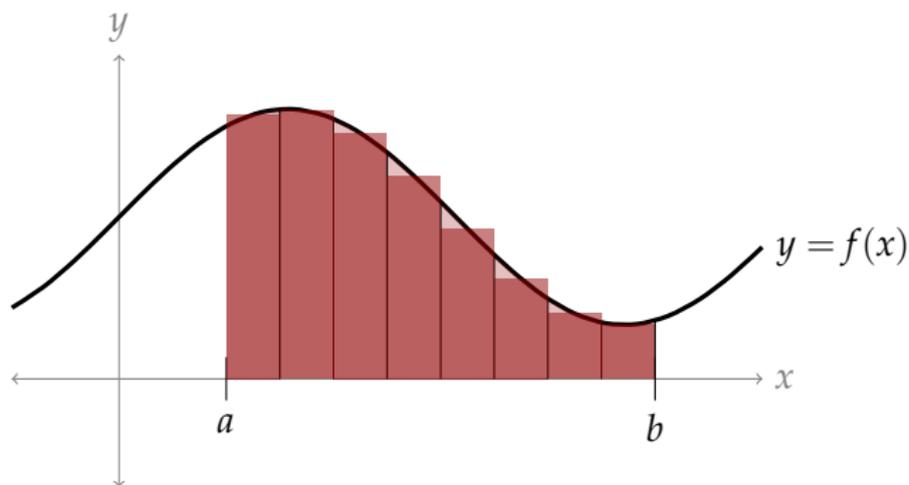






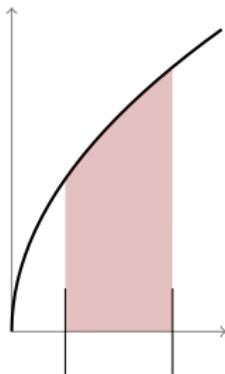
# RIEMANN SUMS

A **Riemann sum** approximates the area under a curve by cutting it into equal-width segments, and approximating each segment as a rectangle.

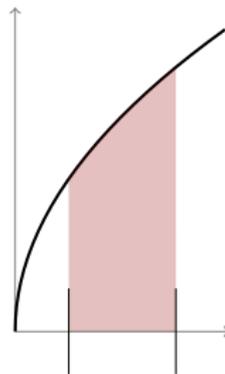


There are different ways to choose the height of each rectangle.

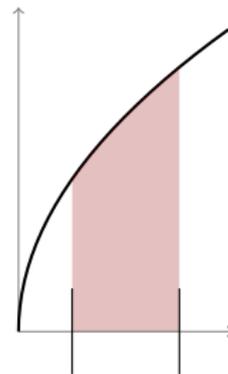
# TYPES OF RIEMANN SUMS (RS)



Left RS

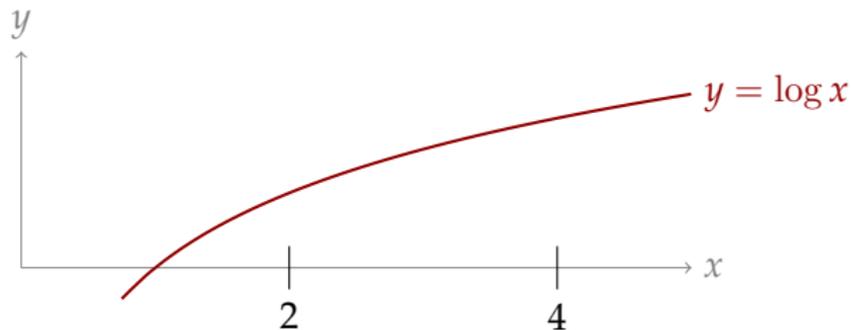


Right RS

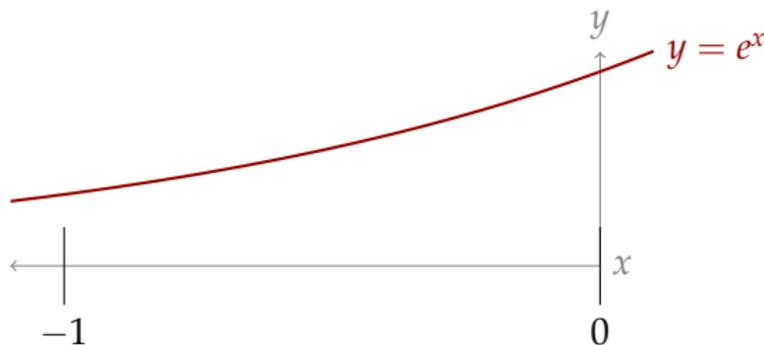


Midpoint RS

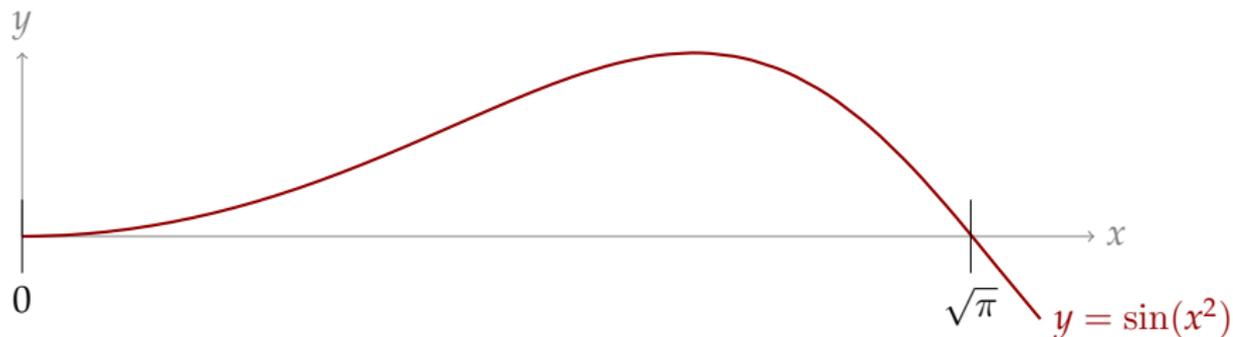
Approximate  $\int_2^4 \log(x) dx$  using a **right Riemann sum** with  $n = 4$  rectangles. For now, do not use sigma notation.



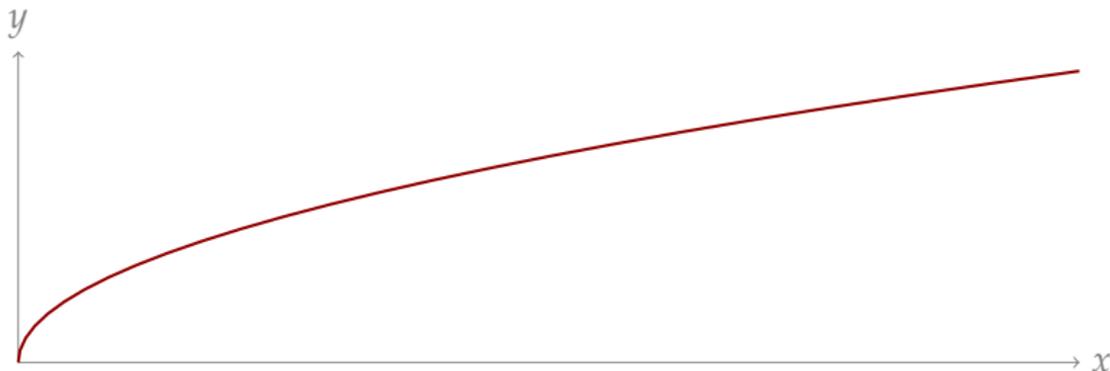
Approximate  $\int_{-1}^0 e^x dx$  using a **left Riemann sum** with  $n = 3$  rectangles. For now, do not use sigma notation.



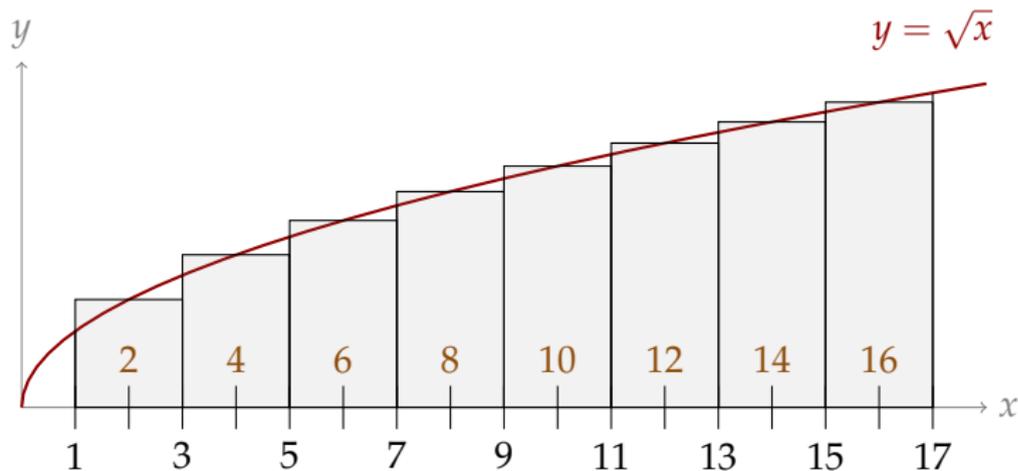
Approximate  $\int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin(x^2) dx$  using a **midpoint Riemann sum** with  $n = 5$  rectangles. For now, do not use sigma notation.



Approximate  $\int_1^{17} \sqrt{x} \, dx$  using a **midpoint Riemann sum** with 8 rectangles. Write the result in sigma notation.



$$\sum_{i=1}^8 2\sqrt{2i} = \underbrace{2\sqrt{2}}_{i=1} + \underbrace{2\sqrt{4}}_{i=2} + \underbrace{2\sqrt{6}}_{i=3} + \underbrace{2\sqrt{8}}_{i=4} + \underbrace{2\sqrt{10}}_{i=5} + \underbrace{2\sqrt{12}}_{i=6} + \underbrace{2\sqrt{14}}_{i=7} + \underbrace{2\sqrt{16}}_{i=8}$$

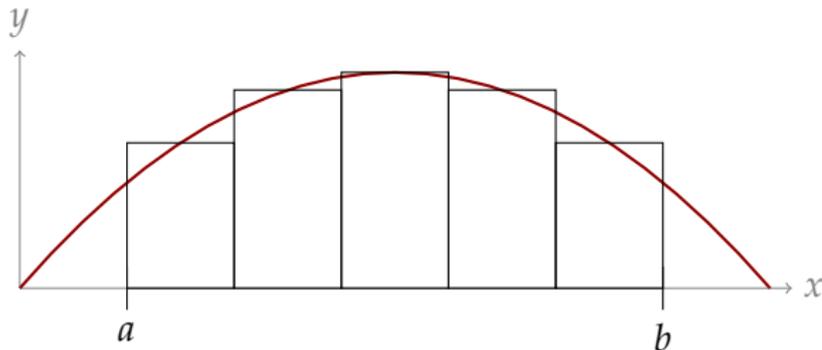


## Riemann sum with $n$ rectangles

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x \cdot f(x_{i,n}^*)$$

where  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$  and  $x_{i,n}^*$  is an  $x$ -value in the  $i$ th rectangle.

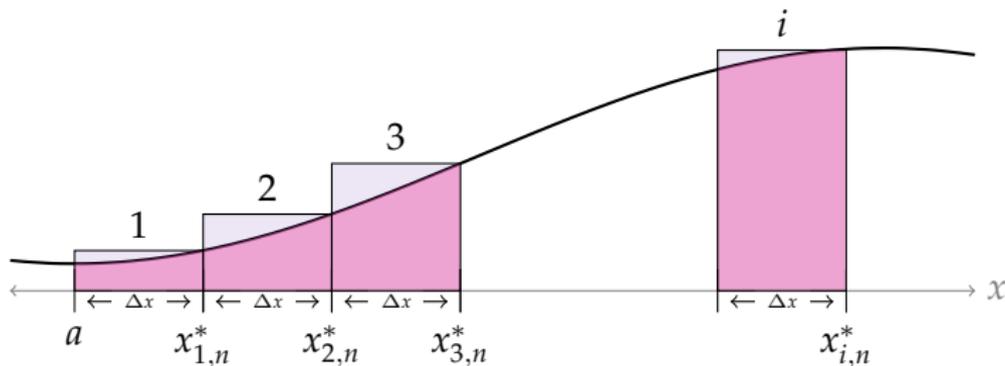
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x \cdot f(x_{i,n}^*) = \Delta x \cdot f(x_{1,n}^*) + \Delta x \cdot f(x_{2,n}^*) + \Delta x \cdot f(x_{3,n}^*) + \cdots + \Delta x \cdot f(x_{n,n}^*)$$



## Right Riemann sum with $n$ rectangles

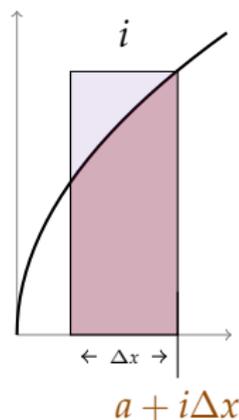
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x \cdot f(\quad)$$

where  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$  and  $x_{i,n}^* =$

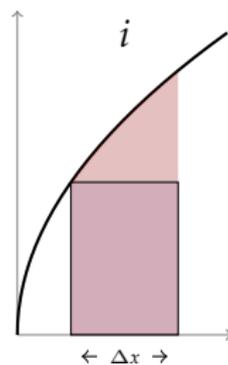


# TYPES OF RIEMANN SUMS (RS)

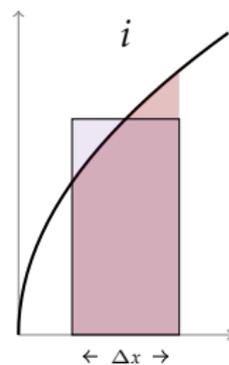
What height would you choose for the  $i$ th rectangle?



Right RS



Left RS



Midpoint RS

Riemann sums with  $n$  rectangles. Let  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$

The **right** Riemann sum approximation of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x \cdot f(a + i\Delta x)$$

The **left** Riemann sum approximation of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x \cdot f(a + (i-1)\Delta x)$$

The **midpoint** Riemann sum approximation of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x \cdot f\left(a + \left(i - \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta x\right)$$

Riemann sums with  $n$  rectangles: Let  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$

The **right** Riemann sum approximation of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x \cdot f(a + i\Delta x)$$

Give a right Riemann Sum for the area under the curve  $y = x^2 - x$  from  $a = 1$  to  $b = 6$  using  $n = 1000$  intervals.

Riemann sums with  $n$  rectangles: Let  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$

The **midpoint** Riemann sum approximation of  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x \cdot f\left(a + \left(i - \frac{1}{2}\right) \Delta x\right)$$

Give a midpoint Riemann Sum for the area under the curve  $y = 5x - x^2$  from  $a = 6$  to  $b = 9$  using  $n = 1000$  intervals.

# EVALUATING RIEMANN SUMS

[▶ SKIP RIEMANN EVALUATIONS](#)

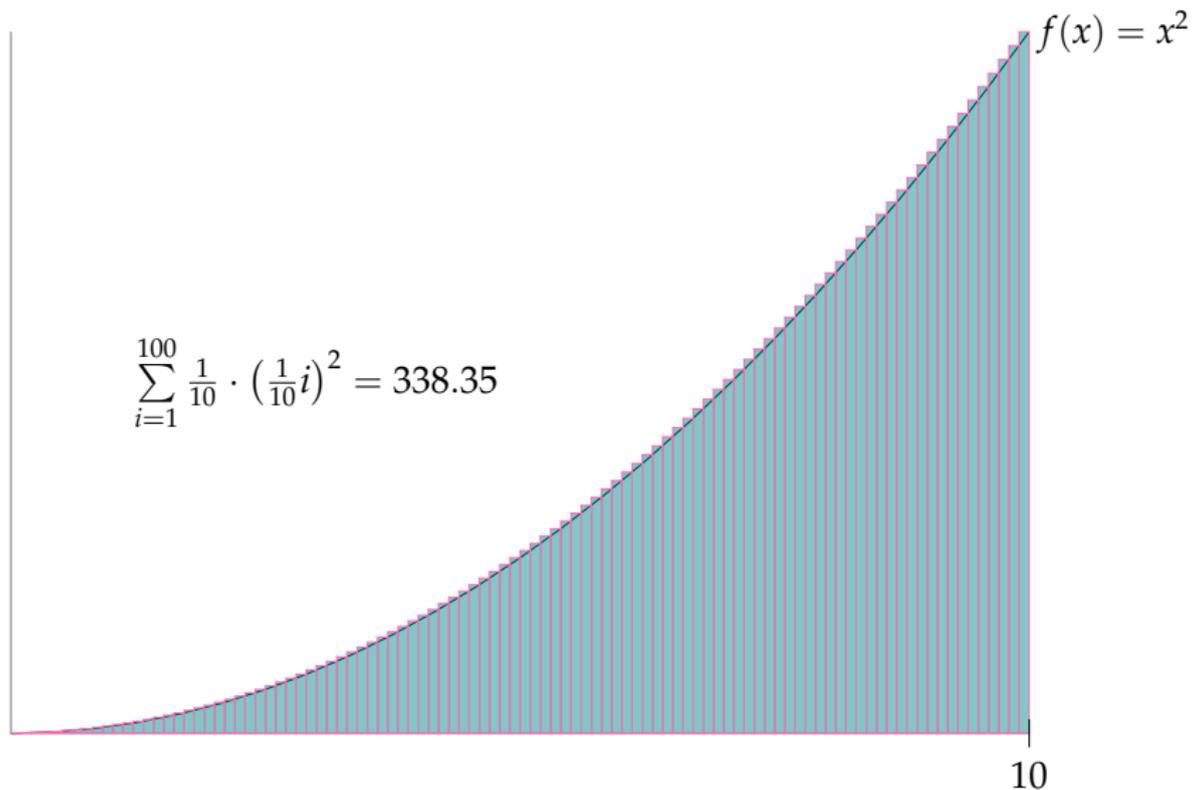
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Give the right Riemann sum of  $f(x) = x^2$  from  $a = 0$  to  $b = 10$ ,  $n = 100$ :

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x \cdot f(a + i\Delta x) =$$



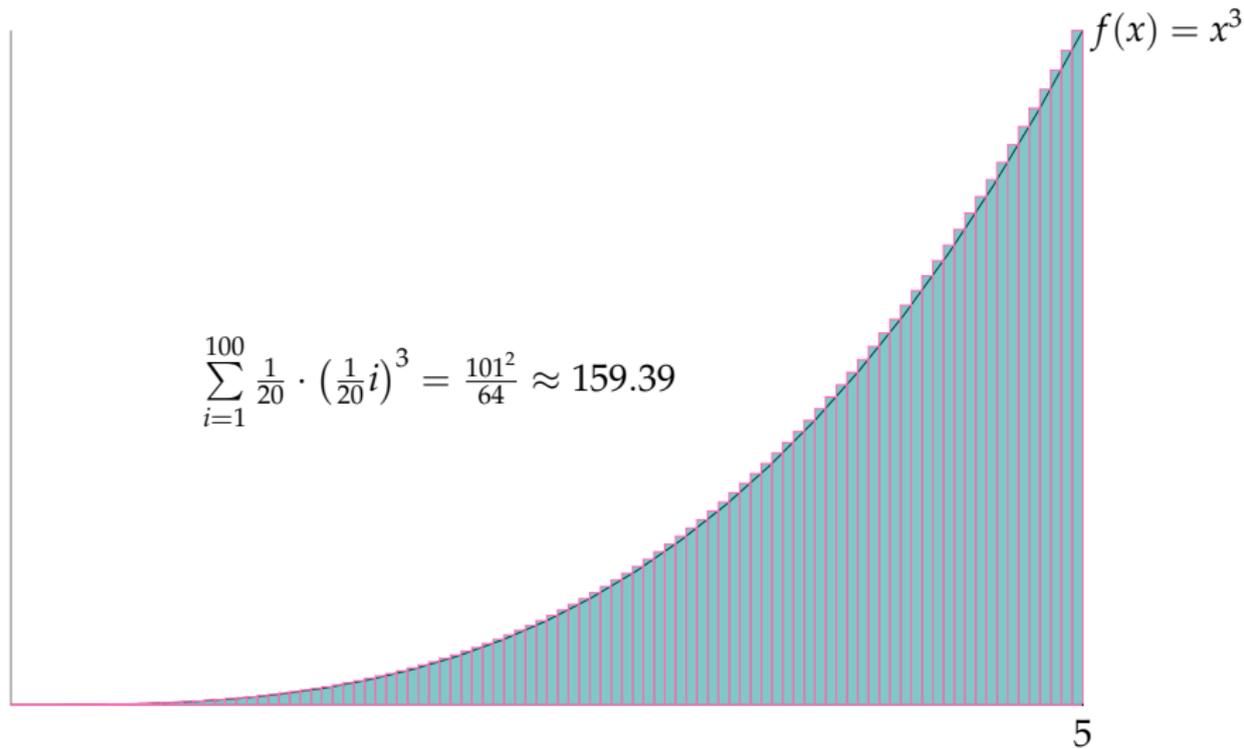
# EVALUATING RIEMANN SUMS IN SIGMA NOTATION

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

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

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Give the right Riemann sum of  $f(x) = x^3$  from  $a = 0$  to  $b = 5$ ,  $n = 100$ :



## Definition

Let  $a$  and  $b$  be two real numbers and let  $f(x)$  be a function that is defined for all  $x$  between  $a$  and  $b$ . Then we define  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{N}$  and

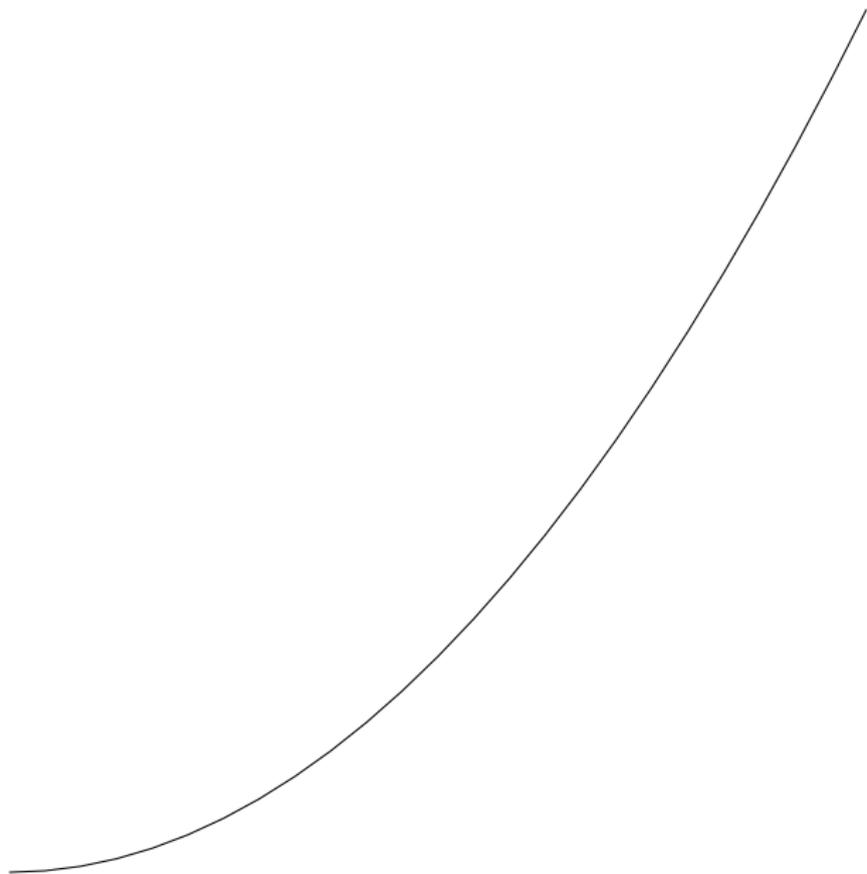
$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_{i,N}^*) \cdot \Delta x$$

when the limit exists and when the choice of  $x_{i,N}^*$  in the  $i^{\text{th}}$  interval doesn't matter.

$\sum, \int$  both stand for “sum”

$\Delta x, dx$  are tiny pieces of the  $x$ -axis, the bases of our very skinny rectangles

It's understood we're taking a limit as  $N$  goes to infinity, so we don't bother specifying  $N$  (or each location where we find our height) in the second notation.



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

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

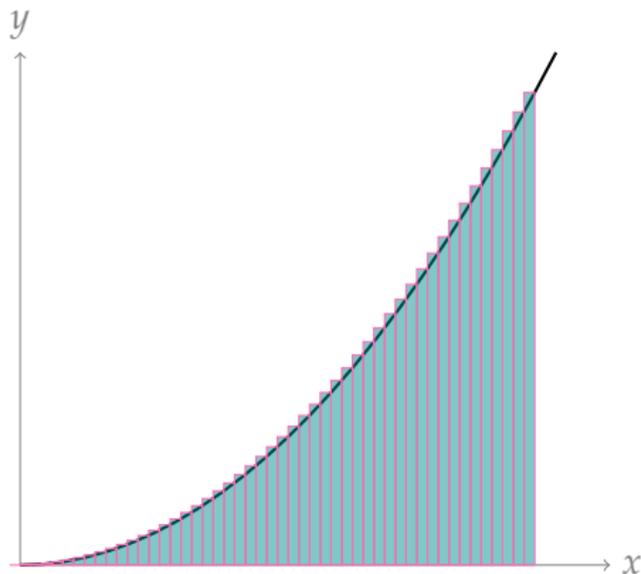
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Give the right Riemann sum of  $y = x^2$  from  $a = 0$  to  $b = 5$  with  $n$  slices, and simplify:

We found the right Riemann sum of  $y = x^2$  from  $a = 0$  to  $b = 5$  using  $n$  slices:

$$\frac{125}{6} \cdot \frac{2n^2 + 3n + 1}{n^2}$$

Use it to find the exact area under the curve.



# REFRESHER: LIMITS OF RATIONAL FUNCTIONS

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 + 2n + 15}{3n^2 - 9n + 5} =$$

When the degree of the top and bottom are the same, the limit as  $n$  goes to infinity is the ratio of the leading coefficients.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2 + 2n + 15}{3n^3 - 9n + 5} =$$

When the degree of the top is smaller than the degree of the bottom, the limit as  $n$  goes to infinity is 0.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3 + 2n + 15}{3n^2 - 9n + 5} =$$

When the degree of the top is larger than the degree of the bottom, the limit as  $n$  goes to infinity is positive or negative infinity.

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

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

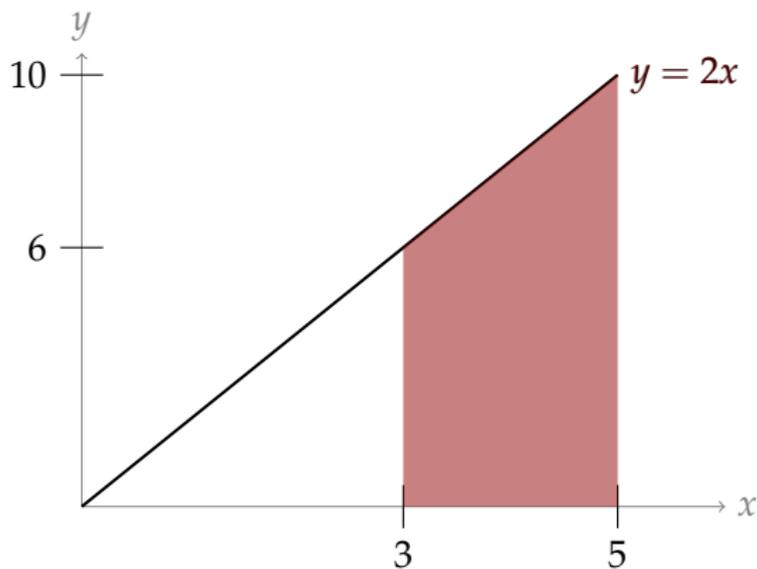
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

Evaluate  $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$  exactly using midpoint Riemann sums.

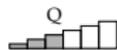
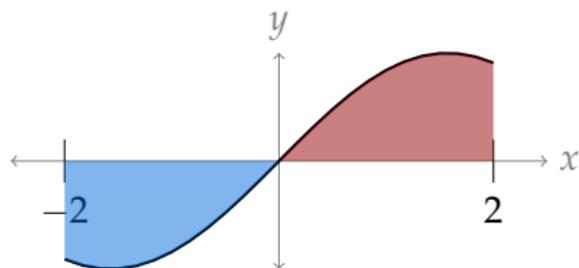
Let's see some special cases where we can use geometry to evaluate integrals without Riemann sums.



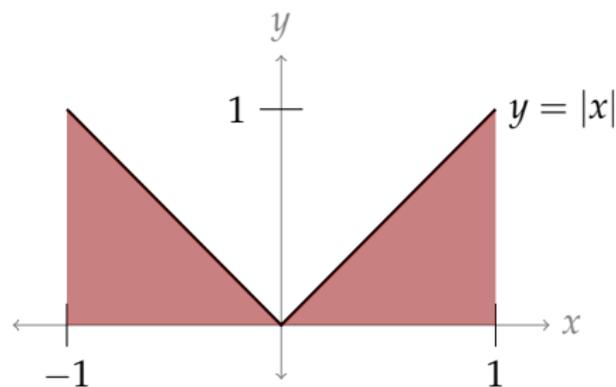
$$\int_3^5 2x \, dx$$



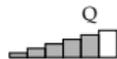
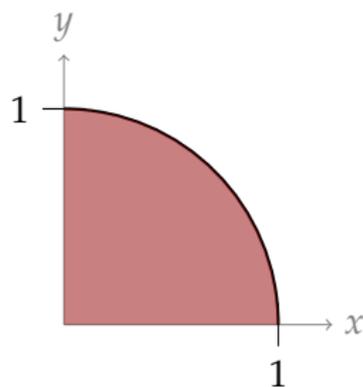
$$\int_{-2}^2 \sin x \, dx$$



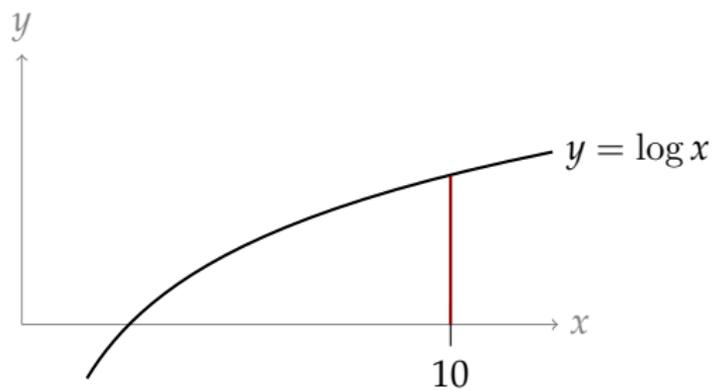
$$\int_{-1}^1 |x| dx$$



$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx$$



$$\int_{10}^{10} \log x \, dx$$



A car travelling down a straight highway records the following measurements:

Time	12:00	12:10	12:20	12:30	12:40	12:50	1:00
Speed (kph)	80	100	100	90	90	75	100

Approximately how far did the car travel from 12:00 to 1:00?



# ANOTHER INTERPRETATION OF THE INTEGRAL

Let  $x(t)$  be the position of an object moving along the  $x$ -axis at time  $t$ , and let  $v(t) = x'(t)$  be its velocity. Then for all  $b > a$ ,

$$x(b) - x(a) = \int_a^b v(t) dt$$

That is,  $\int_a^b v(t) dt$  gives the *net distance* moved by the object from time  $a$  to time  $b$ .