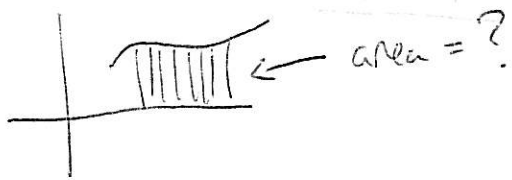
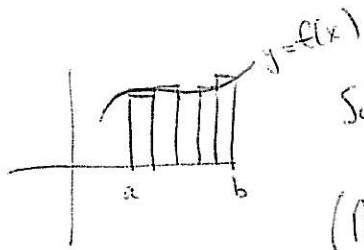


One major tool for computing antiderivatives is left, but, detour to Definite Integrals (the 2<sup>nd</sup> geo. problem). [9]



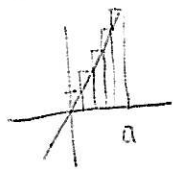
idea: cut into rectangles, take limit as size of rectangles  $\rightarrow 0$ , # rectangles  $\rightarrow \infty$ .



Sum of areas of rectangles  $\rightarrow$  area under curve

(Note area = "algebraic area"; if  $f(x) < 0$ , something strange happens.)

E.g., what is the area under the line  $y=2x$  between  $x=0$  &  $x=a$ ?  
(simple so we can check our answers)



$n$  rectangles; height of  $i^{\text{th}}$  is  $\frac{2ai}{n}$ , base is  $\frac{a}{n}$   
 $\Rightarrow$  area is  $\frac{2a^2i}{n^2}$  & total area is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2a^2i}{n^2} = \frac{2a^2}{n^2} (1+2+\dots+n) = \frac{2a^2}{n^2} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} a^2.$$

But this method would be ridiculous even for moderately more complicated functions. (Polynomials, okay, maybe exponential functions, but everything else is hopeless.)

So, what to do? Well, we get lucky:

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: if  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$  then the area under  $f(x)$  between  $x=a$  &  $x=b$  is equal to  $F(b)-F(a)$ .  
We denote this area by  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ ; it is the definite integral of  $f(x)$  between  $a$  &  $b$ . (S = S for sum). Idea of proof:

$G(t) = \int_a^t f(x) dx$  as a function of  $t$ .

(the height of the "marginal rectangle")  
we want. This also gives us

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

implicit assumptions:  $f$  is "well-behaved" - piecewise continuous, bounded, so  
(negating across big holes or anything)

properties of definite integrals:

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

$$\bullet \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

$$\bullet \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

$$\bullet \int_a^b c f(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$\bullet \int_a^b f(x) + g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

$$\bullet \text{If } f(x) \leq g(x) \text{ for all } x \in [a, b], \quad \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

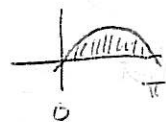
(provided all  $f$ 's are suit well-behaved etc.)  
& This is true "in nature"

Then its derivative is just  
& since  $G(a) = 0$ , this gives  
2<sup>nd</sup> Fund. Thm. Calc.

So, let's compute some areas/integrals:

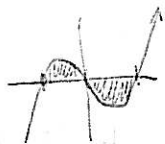
110

• How much area under one arch of  $f(x) = \sin x$ ?



$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = -\cos x \Big|_{x=0}^{\pi} = 1 - (-1) = 2.$$

• What is the area bounded between  $y = x^3 - x$  & the x-axis?

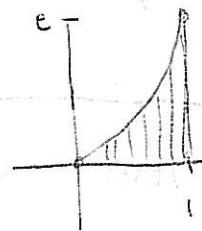


(Rule: always draw the picture.)

• What is the area between  $y = \sqrt{4-x^2}$  & the x-axis?

Note: when making substitutions, in definite integrals, we can change bounds of integration & never back-substitute.

Suppose wanted area beneath  $y = xe^{x^2}$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 1$



One method is  $\int xe^{x^2} dx = \int_{u=x^2}^{u=2x dx} \frac{1}{2} e^u du = \frac{1}{2} e^u = \frac{1}{2} e^{x^2}$

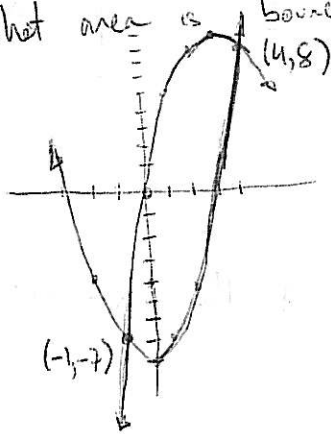
$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 xe^{x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} e^{x^2} \Big|_{x=0}^1 = \frac{1}{2} e - \frac{1}{2}.$$

Other method is  $\int_0^1 xe^{x^2} dx = \int_{x=0 \Rightarrow u=0}^{x=1 \Rightarrow u=1} \frac{1}{2} e^u du = \frac{1}{2} e^u \Big|_{u=0}^1 = \frac{1}{2} e - \frac{1}{2}.$

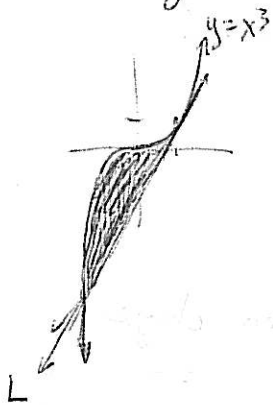
Try something similar for  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin t \cos t \, dt.$

Moving on to more complicated problems:

What area is bounded between  $y = x^2 - 8$  &  $y = -x^2 + 6x$ ?

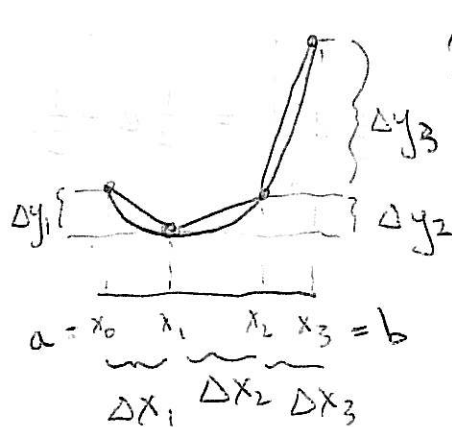


Challenge: What area is bounded between  $y = x^3$  & the line tangent to it @  $x=1$ ?



Another use of integrals: arclength: estimate curve is a polygon,

length of polygon  $\approx$  length of curve, & approximation gets better & better as # of edges increases.



Length of polygon =  $\sum$  lengths of chords

$$= \sum_k \sqrt{(\Delta x_k)^2 + (\Delta y_k)^2}$$

$$= \sum_k \Delta x_k \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\Delta y_k}{\Delta x_k}\right)^2}$$

Now in the limit ( $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\Delta x_k \rightarrow 0$  for all  $k$ ) we have

$$\sum_k \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\Delta y_k}{\Delta x_k}\right)^2} \Delta x_k \rightarrow \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + f(x)^2} dx.$$

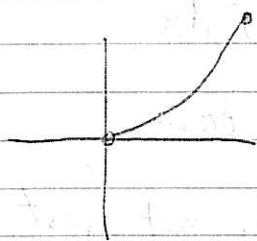
(Easier to remember maybe:  $\int_a^b \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx$ )

$$= \int_a^b \underbrace{\sqrt{(dx)^2 + (dy)^2}}_{(ds)^2} \quad \text{where } s = \text{arclength}$$

Sad fact: arclength is very difficult to compute exactly for many (most) curves — few nice antiderivatives. But

There are a few functions for which it's nice:

e.g.,  $y = 2x^{3/2}$  ( $x > 0$ ) for  $0 \leq x \leq 2$



$$y' = 3x^{1/2}$$

$$s = \int_0^2 \sqrt{1 + (3x^{1/2})^2} dx$$

$$= \int_0^2 \sqrt{1 + 9x} dx$$

=

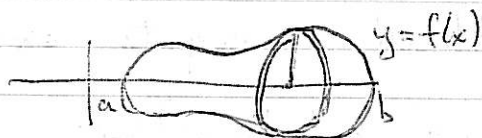
First step into 3-D: solids of revolution, volumes, surface areas

A solid of revolution is what we get when we rotate a plane region around an axis.

E.g., cylinder, sphere, cone, etc



Volumes via disk method: (rotating around  $x$ -axis)



The disks & adding (integrating)

Volume is approximated by a union of disks - so computing volumes of gives volume.

$$V_{\text{disk}} = \frac{\pi r^2 \cdot h}{A \quad dx}$$

volume of slice at  $x$  is  $A(x) dx$

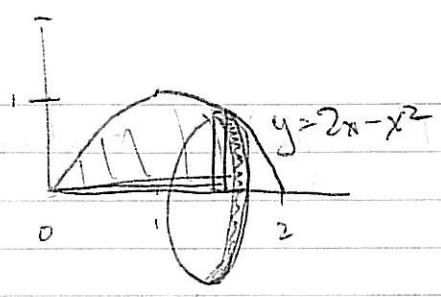
$$\text{So volume is } \int_a^b A(x) dx = \int_a^b \pi f(x)^2 dx$$

in the picture I've drawn

(of course, this formula works for any solid, not just solids of rotation, but computing  $A(x)$  can be hard in general.)

Ex: Suppose the region between the  $x$ -axis &  $y=2x-x^2$  is rotated around the  $x$ -axis. Resulting volume?

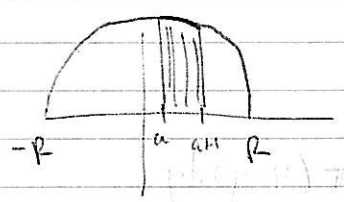
ALWAYS DRAW A PICTURE! (Unless you have really amazing visual intuition :))



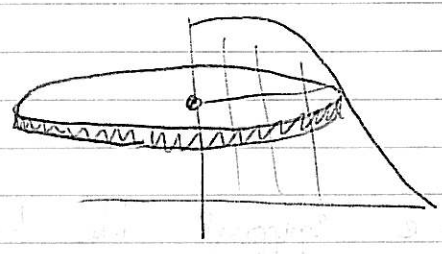
$$V_{\text{slice}} = \pi (2x - x^2)^2 dx$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{total volume} = \int_0^2 \pi (2x - x^2)^2 dx$$

Exercise: Suppose  $-R \leq a \leq a+1 \leq R$ . What is the volume of the solid ~~formed~~ formed when rotating the region under  $y = \sqrt{R^2 - x^2}$  around the x-axis,  $a \leq x \leq a+1$ . (A slice of a sphere of thickness 1.)



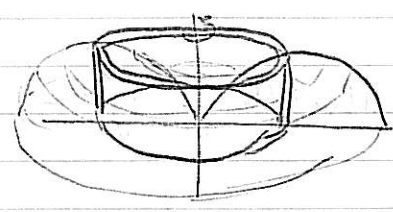
Note: we can also easily adjust this idea to rotate around the y-axis (or any vertical line):



Note: now you're integrating w.r.t. y.

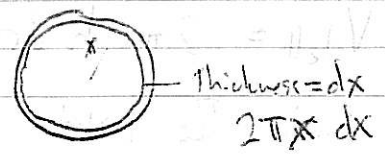
2nd method: cylindrical shells.

if rotation centered at y-axis,  $s = x$ .



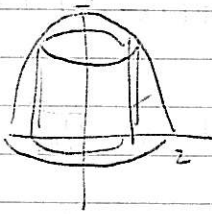
$$V_{\text{shell}} = \text{area} \cdot \text{height} = 2\pi r dx \cdot f(x)$$

(at least in this diagram)



E.g., if region under  $y = 4 - x^2$  in 1st quad is revolved

around  $y$ -axis,

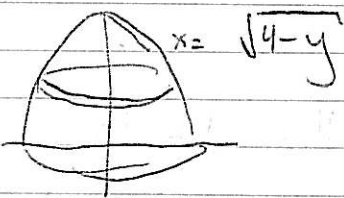


$$V_{\text{shell}} = 2\pi x \cdot (4 - x^2) dx$$

$$V = \int_0^2 2\pi x (4 - x^2) dx$$

=

Double-check w/ disks:



$$V_{\text{disk}} = \pi \sqrt{4 - y}^2 dy = \pi (4 - y) dy$$

$$\text{Volume} = \int_0^4 \pi (4 - y) dy$$

=

(This method is good if our solids are "gappy" like the last one on previous pg ... to do disks w/ such a solid, must take a difference.)

Rule: remember  $V_{\text{disk}} = \pi r^2 \cdot h$ ,  $h = d(\text{variable of integration})$

$$V_{\text{shell}} = 2\pi r h dr$$

Draw picture to find the right  $r, h$ .