

MA 137 — Calculus 1 with Life Science Applications
The Definite Integral
(Section 6.1)

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Sigma (Σ) Notation

In approximating areas we have encountered sums with many terms. A convenient way of writing such sums uses the Greek letter Σ (which corresponds to our capital S) and is called *sigma notation*. More precisely, if a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n are real numbers we denote the sum

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$$

by using the notation $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k$.

The integer k is called an *index* or *counter* and takes on the values $1, 2, \dots, n$. For example,

$$\sum_{k=1}^6 k^2 = 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2 + 6^2 = 1 + 4 + 9 + 16 + 25 + 36 = 91$$

whereas

$$\sum_{k=3}^6 k^2 = 3^2 + 4^2 + 5^2 + 6^2 = 9 + 16 + 25 + 36 = 86.$$

Summation Rules

The rules and formulas given next allow us to compute fairly easily Riemann sums where the number n of subintervals is rather large. We can also get compact and manageable expressions for the sum so that we can readily investigate what happens as n approaches infinity.

$$[\text{sr}_1] \quad \sum_{k=1}^n c = n c \qquad [\text{sr}_2] \quad \sum_{k=1}^n (c a_k) = c \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$$

$$[\text{sr}_3] \quad \sum_{k=1}^n (a_k \pm b_k) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k \pm \sum_{k=1}^n b_k$$

Note: The summations rules are nothing but the usual rules of arithmetic rewritten in the Σ notation.

For example, $[\text{sr}_2]$ is nothing but the distributive law of arithmetic

$$c a_1 + c a_2 + \dots + c a_n = c (a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n);$$

$[\text{sr}_3]$ is nothing but the commutative law of addition

$$(a_1 \pm b_1) + \dots + (a_n \pm b_n) = (a_1 + \dots + a_n) \pm (b_1 + \dots + b_n).$$

Formulas [Neuhauser, Example #3 (p. 279); Problem # 31 (p. 291)]

$$[\text{sf}_1] \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \qquad [\text{sf}_2] \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

Proof: In the case of $[\text{sf}_1]$, let S denote the sum of the integers $1, 2, 3, \dots, n$. Let us write this sum S twice: we first list the terms in the sum in increasing order whereas we list them in decreasing order the second time:

$$\begin{array}{r} S = 1 + 2 + \dots + n \\ S = n + n-1 + \dots + 1 \end{array}$$

If we now add the terms along the vertical columns, we obtain

$$2S = \underbrace{(n+1) + (n+1) + \dots + (n+1)}_{n \text{ times}} = n(n+1).$$

This gives our desired formula, once we divide both sides of the above equality by 2.

In the case of $[\text{sf}_2]$, let S denote the sum of the integers $1^2, 2^2, 3^2, \dots, n^2$. The *trick* is to consider the sum

$\sum_{k=1}^n [(k+1)^3 - k^3]$. On the one hand, this new sum collapses to

$$(2^3 - 1^3) + (3^3 - 2^3) + (4^3 - 3^3) + \dots + (n^3 - (n-1)^3) + ((n+1)^3 - n^3) = (n+1)^3 - 1^3 = n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n$$

On the other hand, using our summation rules together with $[\text{sf}_1]$ gives us

$$\sum_{k=1}^n [(k+1)^3 - k^3] = \sum_{k=1}^n [3k^2 + 3k + 1] = 3 \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 + 3 \sum_{k=1}^n k + \sum_{k=1}^n 1 = 3S + 3 \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + n$$

Equating the right hand sides of the above identities gives us: $3S + 3 \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + n = n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n$.

If we solve for S and properly factor the terms, we obtain our desired expression.

More Formulas

The next formulas can be verified in a sequential order using the same type of trick used in the proof for [sf₂]. The proofs get increasingly more tedious.

$$[\text{sf}_3] \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$$

$$[\text{sf}_4] \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k^4 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)(3n^2+3n-1)}{30}$$

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Example 1: (Online Homework, HW 23, # 15)

Find the numerical value of the sums below:

$$\bullet \sum_{j=3}^7 (4j - 1)$$

$$\bullet \sum_{i=3}^5 (i^2 - i)$$

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$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{j=3}^7 (4j - 1) &= [4 \cdot \underline{3} - 1] + [4 \cdot \underline{4} - 1] + [4 \cdot \underline{5} - 1] + [4 \cdot \underline{6} - 1] + [4 \cdot \underline{7} - 1] \\ &= 11 + 15 + 19 + 23 + 27 = 95 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=3}^5 (i^2 - i) &= [3^2 - 3] + [4^2 - 4] + [5^2 - 5] \\ &= 6 + 12 + 20 = 38 \end{aligned}$$

Example 2:

Find the numerical value of the sums below:

$$\bullet \sum_{j=3}^n (4j - 1)$$

$$\bullet \sum_{i=3}^n (i^2 - i)$$

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$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=3}^n (4j-1) &= \sum_{j=1}^n (4j-1) - \sum_{j=1}^2 (4j-1) \\
&= \sum_{j=1}^n (4j-1) - [(4 \cdot 1 - 1) + (4 \cdot 2 - 1)] \\
&= 4 \sum_{j=1}^n j - \sum_{j=1}^n 1 - 10 \\
&= 4 \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - n - 10 \\
&= 2n(n+1) - n - 10 \\
&= 2n^2 + 2n - n - 10 \\
&= \boxed{2n^2 + n - 10} \quad \text{|||}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=3}^n (i^2 - i) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (i^2 - i) - \sum_{i=1}^2 (i^2 - i) \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n (i^2 - i) - [(1^2 - 1) + (2^2 - 2)] \\
&= \sum_{i=1}^n (i^2 - i) - [0 + 2 = 2] \\
&= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 \right) - \left(\sum_{i=1}^n i \right) - 2 \\
&\stackrel{\text{use the rules}}{=} \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} - \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - 2 \\
&\stackrel{\text{simplify}}{=} \frac{2n^3 + 3n^2 + n - 3n(n+1) - 12}{6} \\
&= \frac{2n^3 + \cancel{3n^2} + n - \cancel{3n^2} - 3n - 12}{6} = \frac{2n^3 - 2n - 12}{6} \\
&= \boxed{\frac{n^3 - n - 6}{3}} \quad \text{|||}
\end{aligned}$$

Back to the Area Problem: Partitions

The idea we have used so far is to “to partition” or subdivide the given interval $[a, b]$ into smaller subintervals on each of which the variable x , and thus the function $f(x)$, does not change much.

Definition of a Partition

A *partition* of an interval $[a, b]$ is a set of points $\{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n\}$, listed increasingly, on the x -axis with $a = x_0$ and $x_n = b$. That is:

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

These points subdivide the interval $[a, b]$ into n subintervals

$$[a, x_1], [x_1, x_2], [x_2, x_3], \dots, [x_{n-1}, b].$$

The k -th subinterval is thus of the form $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ and it has length

$$\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1}.$$

Assumption

Set $\|P\| = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{\Delta x_i\}$. We assume that our partition P is such that

$\|P\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. In other words, we assume that the length of the longest (and, hence, of all) subinterval(s) tend(s) to zero whenever the number of subintervals in P becomes very large.

The Definite Integral

Let $f(x)$ be a function defined on an interval $[a, b]$.

- Partition the interval $[a, b]$ in n subintervals of lengths $\Delta x_1, \dots, \Delta x_n$, respectively.
- For $k = 1, \dots, n$ pick a representative point c_k in the corresponding k -th subinterval.

The **definite integral of f from a to b** is defined as

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$$

and it is denoted by $\int_a^b f(x) dx$.

The sum $\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$ is called a *Riemann sum* in honor of the German mathematician Bernhard Riemann

(1826-1866), who developed the above ideas in full generality. The symbol \int is called the *integral sign*. It is an elongated capital S , of the kind used in the 1600s and 1700s. The letter S stands for the summation performed in computing a Riemann sum. The numbers a and b are called the *lower and upper limits of integration*, respectively. The function $f(x)$ is called the *integrand* and the symbol dx is called the *differential* of x . You can think of the dx as representing what happens to the term Δx in the limit, as the size Δx of the subintervals gets closer and closer to 0.

- The role of x in a definite integral is the one of a *dummy variable*. In fact $\int_a^b x^2 dx$ and $\int_a^b t^2 dt$ have the same meaning. They represent the same number.
- We recall that a limit does not necessarily exist. However:

Theorem

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ then $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ exists.

- As we observed earlier, it is computationally easier to partition the interval $[a, b]$ into n subintervals of equal length. Therefore each subinterval has length $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ (we drop the index k as it is no longer necessary). In this case, there is a simple formula for the points of the partition, namely:

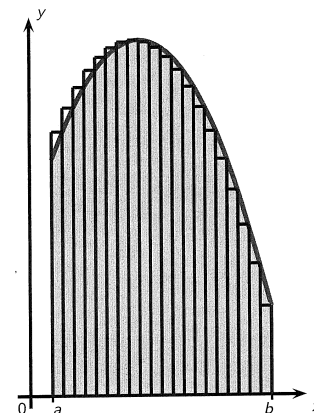
$$x_0 = a + 0 \cdot \Delta x = a, \quad x_1 = a + \Delta x, \quad \dots, \quad x_k = a + k \cdot \Delta x, \quad \dots, \quad x_n = a + n \cdot \Delta x = b$$

$$\text{or, more concisely, } x_k = a + k \cdot \frac{b-a}{n} \quad \text{for } k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

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Definite Integrals and Areas

We stress the fact that if the function f takes on only positive values then the definite integral is nothing but the area of the region below the graph of f , lying above the x -axis, and bounded by the vertical lines $x = a$ and $x = b$.



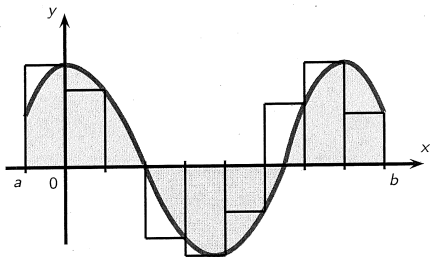
Distance traveled by an object:

If the positive valued function under consideration is the velocity $v(t)$ of an object at time t , then the area underneath the graph of the velocity function and lying above the t -axis represents the total distance traveled by the object from $t = a$ to $t = b$.

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What if the Function Takes on Negative Values?

If f happens to take on both positive and negative values, then the Riemann sum is the sum of the areas of rectangles that lie above the x -axis and the negatives of the areas of rectangles that lie below the x -axis. Passing to the limit, we obtain that, in general, a definite integral can be interpreted as a difference of areas:



$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = [\text{area of the region(s) lying above the } x\text{-axis}] - [\text{area of the region(s) lying below the } x\text{-axis}]$$

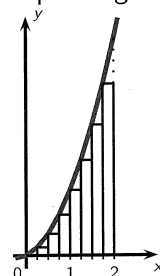
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Right Versus Left Endpoint Estimates

Observe that x_k , the right endpoint of the k -th subinterval, is also the left endpoint of the $(k+1)$ -th subinterval. Thus the Riemann sum estimate for the definite integral of a function f defined over an interval $[a, b]$ can be written in either of the following two forms

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(x_k) \cdot \Delta x_{k+1} \qquad \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$$

depending on whether we use left or right endpoints, respectively.

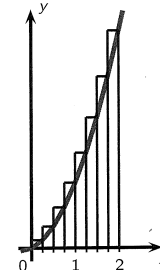


Left endpoint Riemann sum estimate

If we are dealing with a regular partition, the above sums become

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} f(a + k \cdot \Delta x) \cdot \Delta x \qquad \sum_{k=1}^n f(a + k \cdot \Delta x) \cdot \Delta x$$

with $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ and $x_k = a + k \cdot \Delta x$ for $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$.



Right endpoint Riemann sum estimate

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Example 3: (Online Homework, HW 23, # 11)

Express the limit as a definite integral

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{2}{n} \left(5 + \frac{2i}{n} \right)^{10}$$

From page 13, the formula for a Riemann sum using the right endpoints is:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f \left(a + k \cdot \underbrace{\frac{b-a}{n}}_{\Delta x} \right) \cdot \underbrace{\frac{b-a}{n}}_{\Delta x}$$

Hence in our case:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(5 + \frac{2i}{n} \right)^{10} \cdot \frac{2}{n}$$

says that this is $\int_5^7 \frac{x^{10}}{f(x)} dx$

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Example 4: (Online Homework, HW 23, # 12)

Express the limit as a definite integral

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{4}{n} \sqrt{1 + \frac{4i}{n}}$$

We can interpret $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{4}{n} \sqrt{1 + \frac{4i}{n}}$

as $\int_0^4 \underbrace{\sqrt{1+x}}_{f(x)} dx$

(this is the type of answer that WeBWork seeks)

(or $\int_1^5 \sqrt{x} dx$... which are actually equivalent)

this is just a horizontal shift!

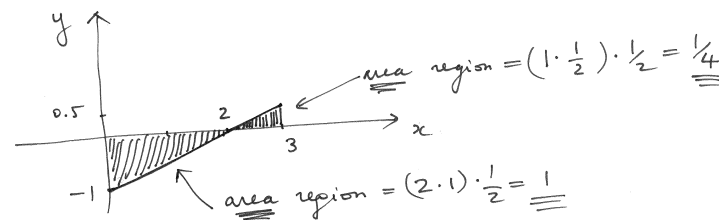
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Example 5: (Online Homework, HW 23, # 7)

Evaluate the following integral by interpreting it in terms of areas:

$$\int_0^3 \left(\frac{1}{2}x - 1\right) dx$$

Let's graph the function $y = \frac{1}{2}x - 1$ on $[0, 3]$

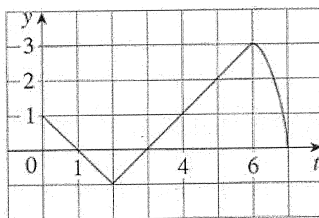


$$\int_0^3 \left(\frac{1}{2}x - 1\right) dx = \underbrace{-1}_{\substack{\text{"signed area"} \\ \text{as it is below} \\ \text{the x-axis}}} + \frac{1}{4} = \underline{\underline{-\frac{3}{4}}}$$

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Example 6: (Online Homework, HW 23, # 10)

Let $g(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$, where f is the function whose graph is shown below.



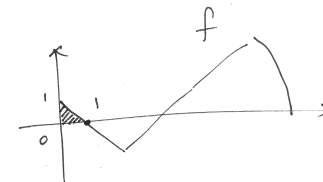
- Evaluate $g(x)$ for $x = 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$, and 6 .
- Estimate $g(7)$.
- At what value of x does g attain its maximum?
- At what value of x does g attain its minimum?

$$g(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$$

$$g(0) = \int_0^0 f(t) dt = 0$$

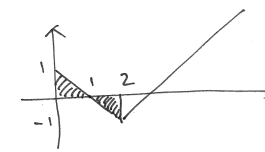
$$g(1) = \int_0^1 f(t) dt$$

$$= \frac{1 \cdot 1}{2} = \underline{\underline{\frac{1}{2}}}$$



$$g(2) = \int_0^2 f(t) dt$$

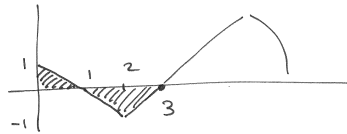
$$= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = \underline{\underline{0}}$$



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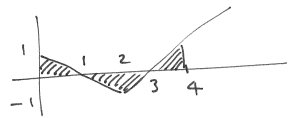
$$g(3) = \int_0^3 f(t) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} - 1 = \boxed{-\frac{1}{2}}$$



$$g(4) = \int_0^4 f(t) dt = \boxed{0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} - 1 + \frac{1}{2} = 0$$



$$g(5) = \boxed{\frac{3}{2}}$$

and $g(6) = \boxed{4}$ check

$$g(7) \cong 6.2 \text{ (estimate)}$$

Max of g occurs at $\boxed{x=7}$; minimum at $\boxed{x=3}$