

# Taylor Series, Integral

Hayk Aprikyan, Hayk Tarkhanyan

# Convex and Concave Functions

We know that the sign of the derivative tells us whether a function is increasing or decreasing:

$f' > 0 \Rightarrow$  increasing,

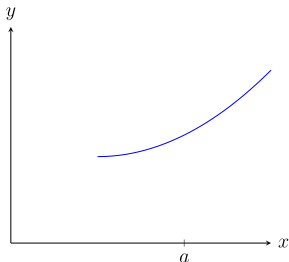
$f' < 0 \Rightarrow$  decreasing

# Convex and Concave Functions

We know that the sign of the derivative tells us whether a function is increasing or decreasing:

$$f' > 0 \Rightarrow \text{increasing}, \quad f' < 0 \Rightarrow \text{decreasing}$$

However, a function can increase like this



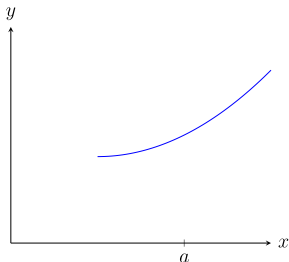
# Convex and Concave Functions

We know that the sign of the derivative tells us whether a function is increasing or decreasing:

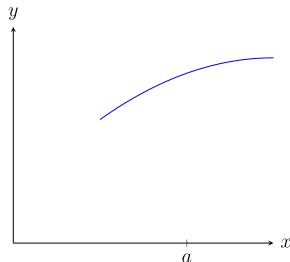
$f' > 0 \Rightarrow$  increasing,

$f' < 0 \Rightarrow$  decreasing

However, a function can increase like this



or like this



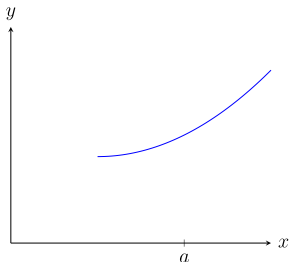
# Convex and Concave Functions

We know that the sign of the derivative tells us whether a function is increasing or decreasing:

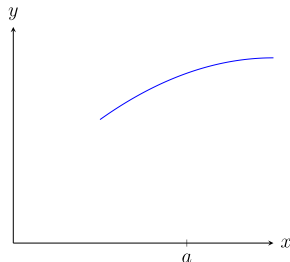
$$f' > 0 \Rightarrow \text{increasing,}$$

$$f' < 0 \Rightarrow \text{decreasing}$$

However, a function can increase like this

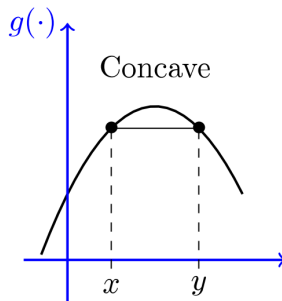
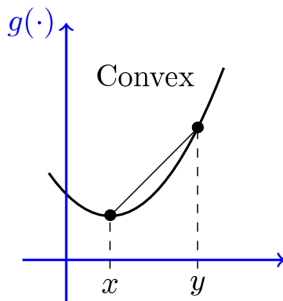


or like this



How can you determine which way it is?

# Convex and Concave Functions



## Definition

We say that  $f(x)$  is **convex** on some interval if for any two points on its graph, the line connecting them always lies **above** the graph of  $f(x)$ .

## Definition

We say that  $f(x)$  is **concave** on some interval if for any two points on its graph, the line connecting them always lies **below** the graph of  $f(x)$ .

# Convex and Concave Functions

More technically, a function is

- convex if

$$f(\alpha p + (1 - \alpha)q) \leq \alpha f(p) + (1 - \alpha)f(q)$$

- concave if

$$f(\alpha p + (1 - \alpha)q) \geq \alpha f(p) + (1 - \alpha)f(q)$$

for any two points  $p$  and  $q$ , and for any number  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ .

# Convex and Concave Functions

More technically, a function is

- convex if

$$f(\alpha p + (1 - \alpha)q) \leq \alpha f(p) + (1 - \alpha)f(q)$$

- concave if

$$f(\alpha p + (1 - \alpha)q) \geq \alpha f(p) + (1 - \alpha)f(q)$$

for any two points  $p$  and  $q$ , and for any number  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ .

We will not prove this



# Convex and Concave Functions

More technically, a function is

- convex if

$$f(\alpha p + (1 - \alpha)q) \leq \alpha f(p) + (1 - \alpha)f(q)$$

- concave if

$$f(\alpha p + (1 - \alpha)q) \geq \alpha f(p) + (1 - \alpha)f(q)$$

for any two points  $p$  and  $q$ , and for any number  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ .

We will not prove this but open the link and play with  $\alpha$  to get a feeling of what this means:

- [www.desmos.com/calculator/ujoh0mh59d](http://www.desmos.com/calculator/ujoh0mh59d)

# Convex and Concave Functions

So, how to know if a function is convex or concave?

# Convex and Concave Functions

So, how to know if a function is convex or concave?

Again, derivative is all you need!

## Theorem

If  $f(x)$  is twice-differentiable (i.e. there exists  $f''(x)$ ), then:

- $f$  is convex if and only if  $f''(x) \geq 0$
- $f$  is concave if and only if  $f''(x) \leq 0$

# Convex and Concave Functions

So, how to know if a function is convex or concave?

Again, derivative is all you need!

## Theorem

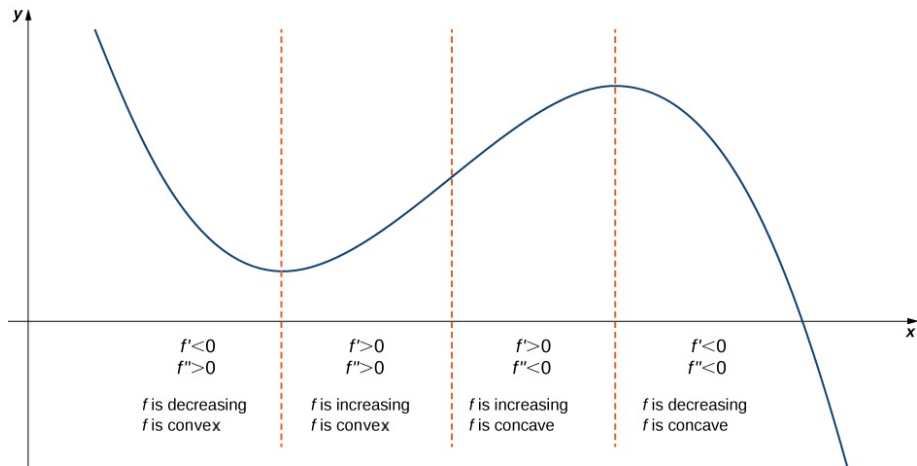
If  $f(x)$  is twice-differentiable (i.e. there exists  $f''(x)$ ), then:

- $f$  is convex if and only if  $f''(x) \geq 0$
- $f$  is concave if and only if  $f''(x) \leq 0$

## Examples

- 1  $f(x) = x^2$  is convex on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .  
 $f''(x) = 2 > 0$
- 2  $f(x) = -x^2$  is concave on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .  
 $f''(x) = -2 < 0$
- 3  $f(x) = x$  is both convex and concave on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .  
 $f''(x) = 0$

# Convex and Concave Functions



As we saw, the derivatives of a function tell so much about them. Can they be used to approximate the function?

# Taylor Series

As we saw, the derivatives of a function tell so much about them. Can they be used to approximate the function?

Suppose we have a function  $f(x)$ . Let us construct another function  $g(x)$  which, at some point  $a$  has:

As we saw, the derivatives of a function tell so much about them. Can they be used to approximate the function?

Suppose we have a function  $f(x)$ . Let us construct another function  $g(x)$  which, at some point  $a$  has:

- the same value as  $f$



As we saw, the derivatives of a function tell so much about them. Can they be used to approximate the function?

Suppose we have a function  $f(x)$ . Let us construct another function  $g(x)$  which, at some point  $a$  has:

- the same value as  $f$
- the same rate of change as  $f$

As we saw, the derivatives of a function tell so much about them. Can they be used to approximate the function?

Suppose we have a function  $f(x)$ . Let us construct another function  $g(x)$  which, at some point  $a$  has:

- the same value as  $f$
- the same rate of change as  $f$
- the same rate of the rate of change as  $f$

As we saw, the derivatives of a function tell so much about them. Can they be used to approximate the function?

Suppose we have a function  $f(x)$ . Let us construct another function  $g(x)$  which, at some point  $a$  has:

- the same value as  $f$
- the same rate of change as  $f$
- the same rate of the rate of change as  $f$
- ...

As we saw, the derivatives of a function tell too much about them. Can they be used to approximate the function?

Suppose we have a function  $f(x)$ . Let us construct another function  $g(x)$  which, at some point  $a$  has (or, equivalently):

- $g(a) = f(a)$
- $g'(a) = f'(a)$
- $g''(a) = f''(a)$
- ...

# Taylor Series

For example, suppose  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(0) = 1$ .

# Taylor Series

For example, suppose  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(0) = 1$ .

## Question

Which simple function has the value 1 at  $x = 0$ , and derivative 1 at  $x = 0$ ?

# Taylor Series

For example, suppose  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(0) = 1$ .

## Question

Which simple function has the value 1 at  $x = 0$ , and derivative 1 at  $x = 0$ ?

The polynomial  $g(x) = 1 + x$  has just that properties. Moreover, it is easy to work with, since it is a polynomial!

# Taylor Series

For example, suppose  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(0) = 1$ .

## Question

Which simple function has the value 1 at  $x = 0$ , and derivative 1 at  $x = 0$ ?

The polynomial  $g(x) = 1 + x$  has just that properties. Moreover, it is easy to work with, since it is a polynomial!

## Definition

If there exist derivatives  $f', f'', \dots, f^{(k)}$ , then the polynomial

$$P_k(x) = f(a)$$



# Taylor Series

For example, suppose  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(0) = 1$ .

## Question

Which simple function has the value 1 at  $x = 0$ , and derivative 1 at  $x = 0$ ?

The polynomial  $g(x) = 1 + x$  has just that properties. Moreover, it is easy to work with, since it is a polynomial!

## Definition

If there exist derivatives  $f'$ ,  $f''$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $f^{(k)}$ , then the polynomial

$$P_k(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$$

# Taylor Series

For example, suppose  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(0) = 1$ .

## Question

Which simple function has the value 1 at  $x = 0$ , and derivative 1 at  $x = 0$ ?

The polynomial  $g(x) = 1 + x$  has just that properties. Moreover, it is easy to work with, since it is a polynomial!

## Definition

If there exist derivatives  $f', f'', \dots, f^{(k)}$ , then the polynomial

$$P_k(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2$$

# Taylor Series

For example, suppose  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(0) = 1$ .

## Question

Which simple function has the value 1 at  $x = 0$ , and derivative 1 at  $x = 0$ ?

The polynomial  $g(x) = 1 + x$  has just that properties. Moreover, it is easy to work with, since it is a polynomial!

## Definition

If there exist derivatives  $f', f'', \dots, f^{(k)}$ , then the polynomial

$$P_k(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x - a)^k$$

is called the *Taylor polynomial* of order  $k$  of the function  $f(x)$  around the point  $a$ .

# Taylor Series

For example, suppose  $f(x) = e^x$ . Then  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(0) = 1$ .

## Question

Which simple function has the value 1 at  $x = 0$ , and derivative 1 at  $x = 0$ ?

The polynomial  $g(x) = 1 + x$  has just that properties. Moreover, it is easy to work with, since it is a polynomial!

## Definition

If there exist derivatives  $f', f'', \dots, f^{(k)}$ , then the polynomial

$$P_k(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x - a)^k$$

is called the *Taylor polynomial* of order  $k$  of the function  $f(x)$  around the point  $a$ .

If we take  $k = \infty$ , we will get an infinite sum which is called the *Taylor series* of  $f(x)$  around the point  $a$ .

# Taylor Series

## Taylor's Theorem

If a function  $f(x)$  is  $k$  times differentiable at the point  $a$ , then

$$P_k(x) \rightarrow f(x), \quad k \rightarrow \infty$$

around some (maybe small) interval around  $a$ .

# Taylor Series

## Taylor's Theorem

If a function  $f(x)$  is  $k$  times differentiable at the point  $a$ , then

$$P_k(x) \rightarrow f(x), \quad k \rightarrow \infty$$

around some (maybe small) interval around  $a$ .

## Example

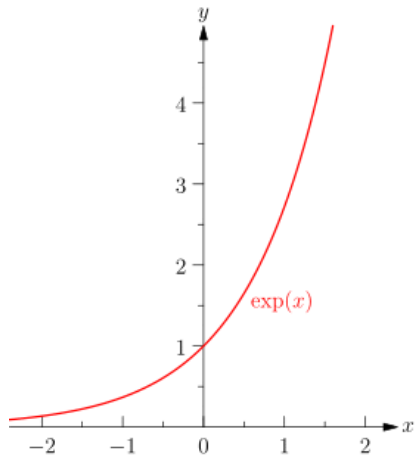
- The Taylor series for any polynomial is the polynomial itself.

- $$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots$$

- $$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$

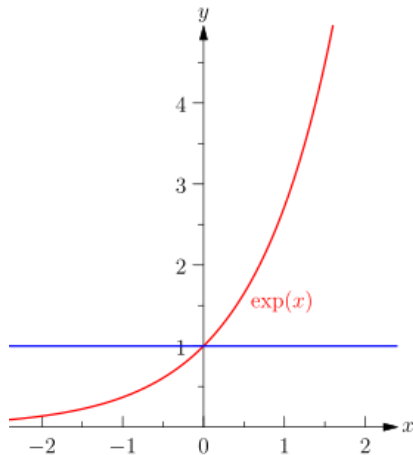
- $$e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

# Taylor Series



# Taylor Series

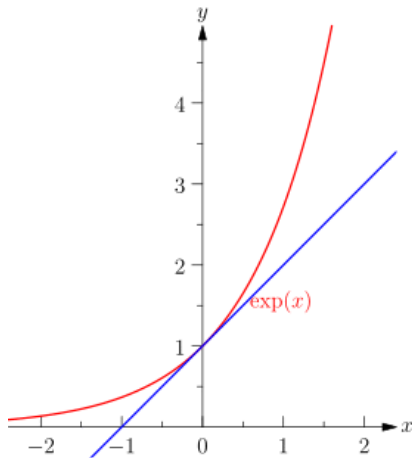
1





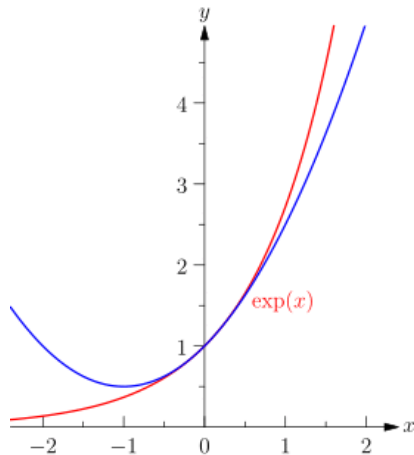
# Taylor Series

$$1 + x$$



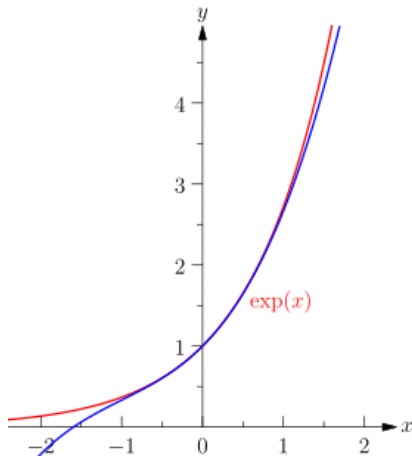
# Taylor Series

$$1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}$$



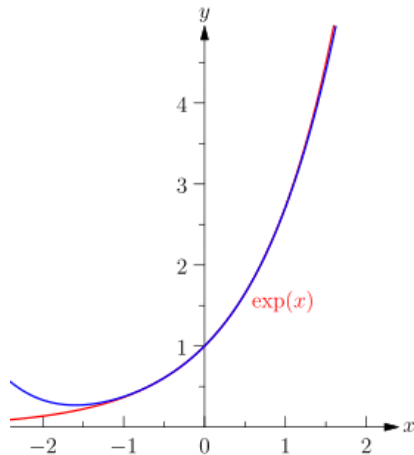
# Taylor Series

$$1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6}$$



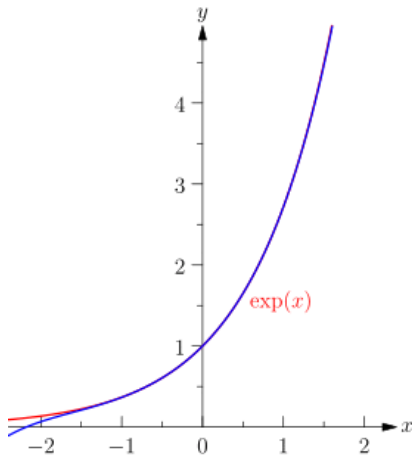
# Taylor Series

$$1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24}$$



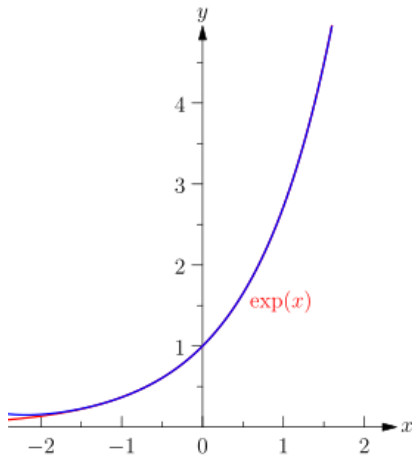
# Taylor Series

$$1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24} + \frac{x^5}{5!}$$



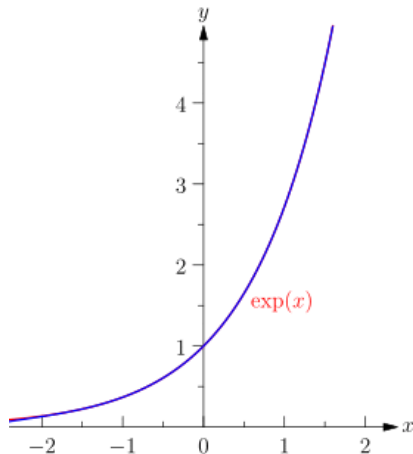
# Taylor Series

$$1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{6!}$$



# Taylor Series

$$1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{6!} + \frac{x^7}{7!}$$



- Try another function yourself!

# Indefinite Integral

$2x$  is the derivative of  $x^2$



# Indefinite Integral

$2x$  is the derivative of  $x^2$

So what is  $x^2$ ?

# Indefinite Integral

$2x$  is the derivative of  $x^2$

So what is  $x^2$ ?

$x^2$  is the **antiderivative** of  $2x$

# Indefinite Integral

$2x$  is the derivative of  $x^2$

So what is  $x^2$ ?

$x^2$  is the **antiderivative** of  $2x$

## Definition

$F$  is called an *antiderivative* or *indefinite integral* of  $f$  if  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

# Indefinite Integral

$2x$  is the derivative of  $x^2$

So what is  $x^2$ ?

$x^2$  is the **antiderivative** of  $2x$

## Definition

$F$  is called an *antiderivative* or *indefinite integral* of  $f$  if  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

The indefinite integral is denoted like this:

$$\int f(x) dx$$

# Indefinite Integral

So in this notation,

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2$$

Can you name another function that also has derivative  $2x$ ?

# Indefinite Integral

So in this notation,

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2$$

Can you name another function that also has derivative  $2x$ ?

- $(x^2 + 1)' = 2x$

# Indefinite Integral

So in this notation,

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2$$

Can you name another function that also has derivative  $2x$ ?

- $(x^2 + 1)' = 2x$
- $(x^2 + 2)' = 2x$

# Indefinite Integral

So in this notation,

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2$$

Can you name another function that also has derivative  $2x$ ?

- $(x^2 + 1)' = 2x$
- $(x^2 + 2)' = 2x$
- $(x^2 + c)' = 2x$



# Indefinite Integral

So in this notation,

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2$$

Can you name another function that also has derivative  $2x$ ?

- $(x^2 + 1)' = 2x$
- $(x^2 + 2)' = 2x$
- $(x^2 + c)' = 2x$

If  $F'(x) = f(x)$ , then  $(F(x) + c)' = f(x)$  for any number  $c$ , so actually:

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2 + C$$

for any number  $C$ .

# Indefinite Integral

So in this notation,

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2$$

Can you name another function that also has derivative  $2x$ ?

- $(x^2 + 1)' = 2x$
- $(x^2 + 2)' = 2x$
- $(x^2 + c)' = 2x$

If  $F'(x) = f(x)$ , then  $(F(x) + c)' = f(x)$  for any number  $c$ , so actually:

$$\int 2x \, dx = x^2 + C$$

for any number  $C$ .

$\int f(x) \, dx$  is not one function, but a *set* of functions.

# Indefinite Integral

## Properties

1

$$\int af(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx$$

# Indefinite Integral

## Properties

1

$$\int af(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx$$

2

$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

# Indefinite Integral

## Properties

1

$$\int af(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx$$

2

$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

3

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x) dx$$

## Properties

1

$$\int af(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx$$

2

$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

3

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x) dx$$

# Indefinite Integral

## Properties

1

$$\int af(x) dx = a \int f(x) dx$$

2

$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

3

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x) dx$$

This can also be written as:

$$\int f dg = fg - \int g df,$$

where  $\int f dg = \int fg' dx$ .

# Indefinite Integral

- The antiderivative of any constant  $f(x) = a$  is:

$$\int a \, dx = ax + C$$



# Indefinite Integral

- The antiderivative of any constant  $f(x) = a$  is:

$$\int a \, dx = ax + C$$

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = x$  is:

$$\int x \, dx = \frac{x^2}{2} + C$$

# Indefinite Integral

- The antiderivative of any constant  $f(x) = a$  is:

$$\int a \, dx = ax + C$$

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = x$  is:

$$\int x \, dx = \frac{x^2}{2} + C$$

- For any constant  $n \neq -1$ , the antiderivative of  $f(x) = x^n$  is:

$$\int x^n \, dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$$

# Indefinite Integral

- The antiderivative of any constant  $f(x) = a$  is:

$$\int a \, dx = ax + C$$

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = x$  is:

$$\int x \, dx = \frac{x^2}{2} + C$$

- For any constant  $n \neq -1$ , the antiderivative of  $f(x) = x^n$  is:

$$\int x^n \, dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$$

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  is:

$$\int \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \ln |x| + C$$

# Indefinite Integral

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = e^x$  is:

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + C$$

# Indefinite Integral

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = e^x$  is:

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + C$$

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = \cos x$  is:

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

# Indefinite Integral

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = e^x$  is:

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + C$$

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = \cos x$  is:

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

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = \sin x$  is:

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

# Indefinite Integral

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = e^x$  is:

$$\int e^x dx = e^x + C$$

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = \cos x$  is:

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

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = \sin x$  is:

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

- The antiderivative of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$  is:

$$\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \operatorname{arctg} x + C$$

## Example

Which function should you differentiate to get  $x \cos x$ ?



## Example

Which function should you differentiate to get  $x \cos x$ ?

Notice that  $\cos x = (\sin x)'$ , so by the Property 3,

$$\int x \cos x \, dx = \int x(\sin x)' \, dx = \int x \, d(\sin x) = x(\sin x) - \int (\sin x) \, dx$$

## Example

Which function should you differentiate to get  $x \cos x$ ?

Notice that  $\cos x = (\sin x)'$ , so by the Property 3,

$$\int x \cos x \, dx = \int x(\sin x)' \, dx = \int x \, d(\sin x) = x(\sin x) - \int (\sin x) \, dx$$

and the last integral  $= \cos x + C$  (as we know).

## Example

Which function should you differentiate to get  $x \cos x$ ?

Notice that  $\cos x = (\sin x)'$ , so by the Property 3,

$$\int x \cos x \, dx = \int x(\sin x)' \, dx = \int x \, d(\sin x) = x(\sin x) - \int (\sin x) \, dx$$

and the last integral  $= \cos x + C$  (as we know).

All of this is, of course, computation and tricks (no need to memorize).

## Example

Which function should you differentiate to get  $x \cos x$ ?

Notice that  $\cos x = (\sin x)'$ , so by the Property 3,

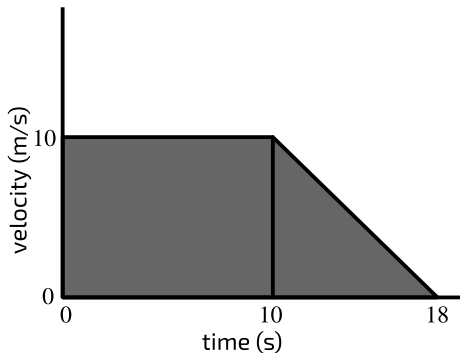
$$\int x \cos x \, dx = \int x(\sin x)' \, dx = \int x \, d(\sin x) = x(\sin x) - \int (\sin x) \, dx$$

and the last integral  $= \cos x + C$  (as we know).

All of this is, of course, computation and tricks (no need to memorize).  
How about we make an *actual* use of this?

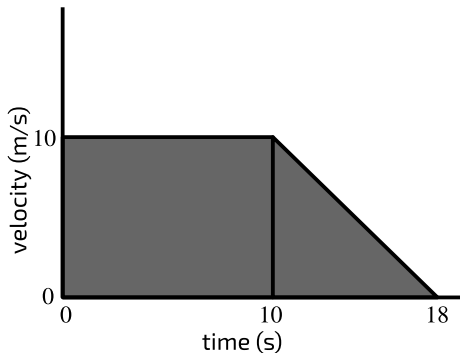
# Definite Integral

Suppose we are given the velocity of a car at each timepoint. How can we calculate the distance travelled by the car?



# Definite Integral

Suppose we are given the velocity of a car at each timepoint. How can we calculate the distance travelled by the car?



According to physics, distance = area under the velocity curve.

# Definite Integral

## Question

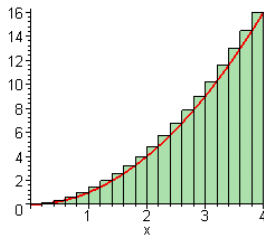
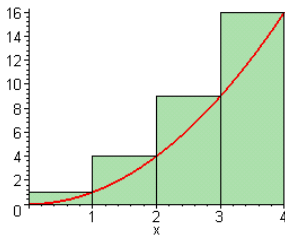
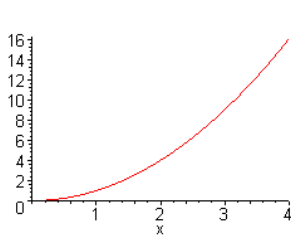
Suppose you have a continuous function  $f$ . How can we calculate the area under its graph?

# Definite Integral

## Question

Suppose you have a continuous function  $f$ . How can we calculate the area under its graph?

By dividing it into tiny rectangles and adding up their areas.





# Definite Integral

Take the interval  $[a, b]$  and divide (partition) it into  $n$  small parts with points  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Let  $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$  denote the length of  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

# Definite Integral

Take the interval  $[a, b]$  and divide (partition) it into  $n$  small parts with points  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Let  $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$  denote the length of  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

## Definition

The *Riemann sum* of a function  $f(x)$  is given by:

$$R_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i$$

where  $c_i$  is any point from  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

# Definite Integral

Take the interval  $[a, b]$  and divide (partition) it into  $n$  small parts with points  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Let  $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$  denote the length of  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

## Definition

The *Riemann sum* of a function  $f(x)$  is given by:

$$R_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i$$

where  $c_i$  is any point from  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

Making the  $\Delta$ s smaller, this sum will get closer to the area.

# Definite Integral

Take the interval  $[a, b]$  and divide (partition) it into  $n$  small parts with points  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ . Let  $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$  denote the length of  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

## Definition

The *Riemann sum* of a function  $f(x)$  is given by:

$$R_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i$$

where  $c_i$  is any point from  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ .

Making the  $\Delta$ s smaller, this sum will get closer to the area.

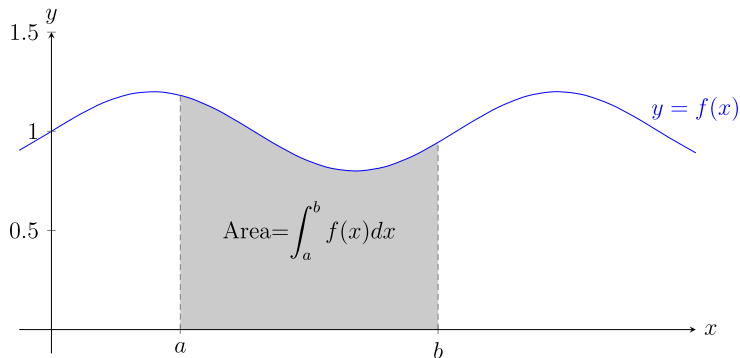
## Definition

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i$$

is called the *definite integral* of the function  $f(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ .

# Definite Integral

The definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  represents the **signed area** between the graph of  $f(x)$  and the  $x$ -axis over the interval  $[a, b]$ .



- Play with Riemann sums!

# Definite Integral

How can we calculate the definite integral without limits?

# Definite Integral

How can we calculate the definite integral without limits?

## Theorem (very important)

Suppose that  $f(x)$  is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$ . If  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , then

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

# Definite Integral

How can we calculate the definite integral without limits?

## Theorem (very important)

Suppose that  $f(x)$  is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$ . If  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , then

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

## Example

- $$\int_0^2 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3} \cdot x^3 \Big|_0^2 = \frac{1}{3}(2^3 - 0^3) = \frac{8}{3}$$

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



# Definite Integral

1

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx, \quad \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

# Definite Integral

1

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx, \quad \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

2

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

# Definite Integral

1

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx, \quad \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

2

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

3

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

# Definite Integral

1

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx, \quad \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

2

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

3

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

4

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

# Definite Integral

1

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx, \quad \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

2

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

3

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

4

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

5

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(y) dy$$

i.e. the name of the variable does not matter.