

# Chapter 3

## Integration

# Key Results

- Indefinite integrals
- Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (FTC)
- Area of region under a graph

Great achievement of **Newton** and **Leibniz** to connect FTC to calculations of area and volume, among other applications.





Isaac Newton

(1643 – 1727)



Gottfried Wilhelm von Leibniz

(1646 – 1716)

# Antiderivatives

A (differentiable) function  $F(x)$  is an **antiderivative** of a function  $f(x)$  if

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$

for all  $x$  in the domain of  $f$ .

The set of all antiderivatives of  $f$  is the **indefinite integral** of  $f$  with respect to  $x$ . It is denoted by



The diagram shows the notation for an indefinite integral,  $\int f(x) dx$ . The integral symbol  $\int$  is on the left. To its right is the expression  $f(x) dx$ . The term  $f(x)$  is enclosed in an orange rectangular box, and an orange arrow points from the word "integrand" below to this box. The term  $dx$  is enclosed in a green rectangular box, and a green arrow points from the text "variable of integration  $x$ " to this box.

$$\int f(x) dx$$

variable of integration  $x$

integrand

**Fact:** *Only the constant functions have zero derivative. Therefore, the antiderivatives of the zero function are all the constant functions.*

This leads to

If  $F'(x) = f(x) = G'(x)$ , then  $G(x) = F(x) + C$ ,

$$\int f(x)dx = F(x) + C.$$

$$F(x) = \sin x$$

$$F'(x) = \cos x = G'(x)$$

$$\text{e.g. } G(x) = \sin x + 1$$

$C$  here is called a **constant of integration**

# Some Basic Integral Formulas

$$(1) \int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C, \quad n \neq -1, \quad n \text{ rational}$$

power rule

$$\int 1 dx = \int dx = x + C \quad (\text{Special case, } n = 0)$$

$$(2) \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln |x| + C$$

$$(3) \int \sin kx dx = -\frac{\cos kx}{k} + C, \quad k \neq 0$$

$$(4) \int \cos kx dx = \frac{\sin kx}{k} + C, \quad k \neq 0$$

## Basic Formula List (cont'd)

$$(5) \int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + C$$

$$(6) \int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + C$$

$$(7) \int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + C$$

$$(8) \int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x + C$$

## Some Basic Rules

$$\int k f(x) dx = k \int f(x) dx,$$

$k = \text{constant (independent of } x)$

$$\int [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$$



## Example

Find the curve in the  $xy$ -plane which passes through the point  $(9, 4)$  and whose slope at each point  $(x, y)$  is  $3\sqrt{x}$ .

The curve is given by  $y = y(x)$ , satisfying

$$(i) \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = 3\sqrt{x} \qquad (ii) \quad y(9) = 4.$$

$$y = \int 3\sqrt{x} \, dx = 3 \frac{x^{3/2}}{3/2} + C = 2x^{3/2} + C.$$

## Example (cont'd)

(ii)  $y(9) = 4.$

$$y = 2x^{3/2} + C$$

$$4 = (2)9^{3/2} + C$$

$$C = 4 - 54 = -50$$

Thus, the curve has equation  $y = 2x^{3/2} - 50.$

# Area under a Curve

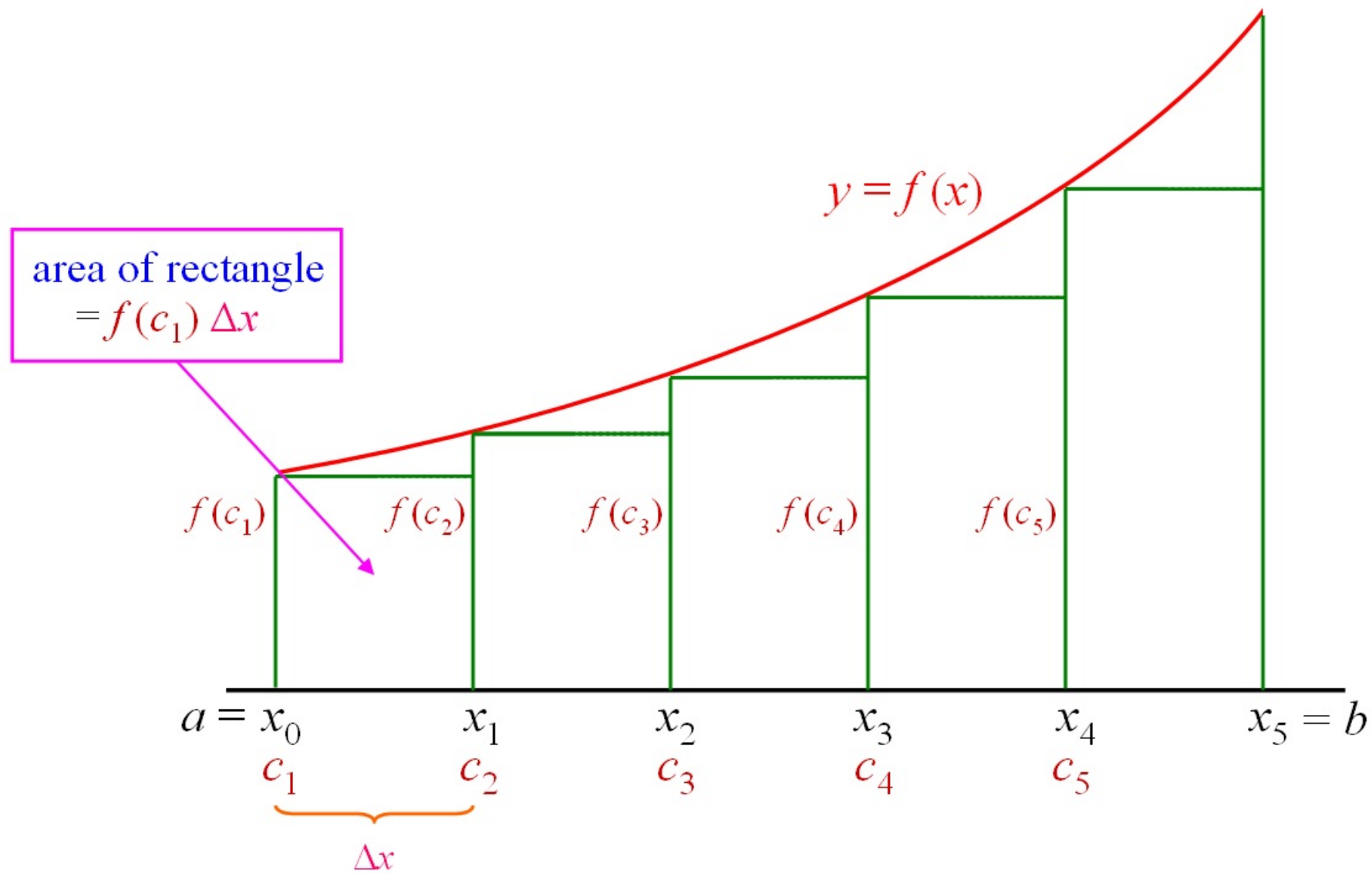
## Special Case

Consider a **non-negative continuous** increasing function  $f = f(x)$  over an interval  $[a, b]$ .

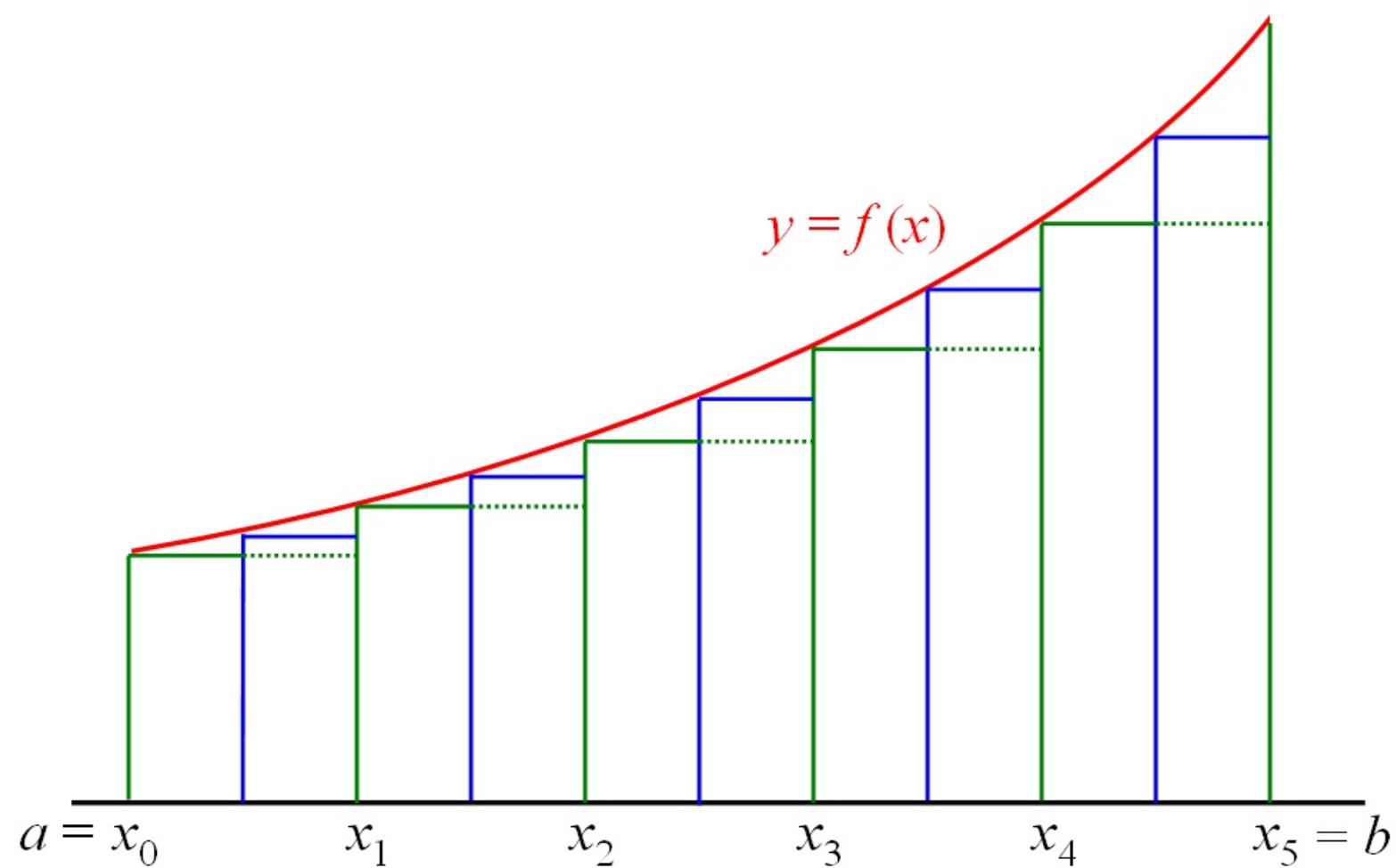
**Partition  $[a, b]$  into sub-intervals**, say 5 sub-intervals, of equal length:

$$[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], [x_2, x_3], [x_3, x_4], [x_4, x_5]$$

Note that  $x_0 = a$ ,  $x_5 = b$



$$\text{total area of rectangles} = \sum_{k=1}^5 f(c_k) \Delta x$$



$$\sum_{k=1}^5 f(c_k) \Delta x < \sum_{k=1}^{10} f(c_k) \Delta x$$

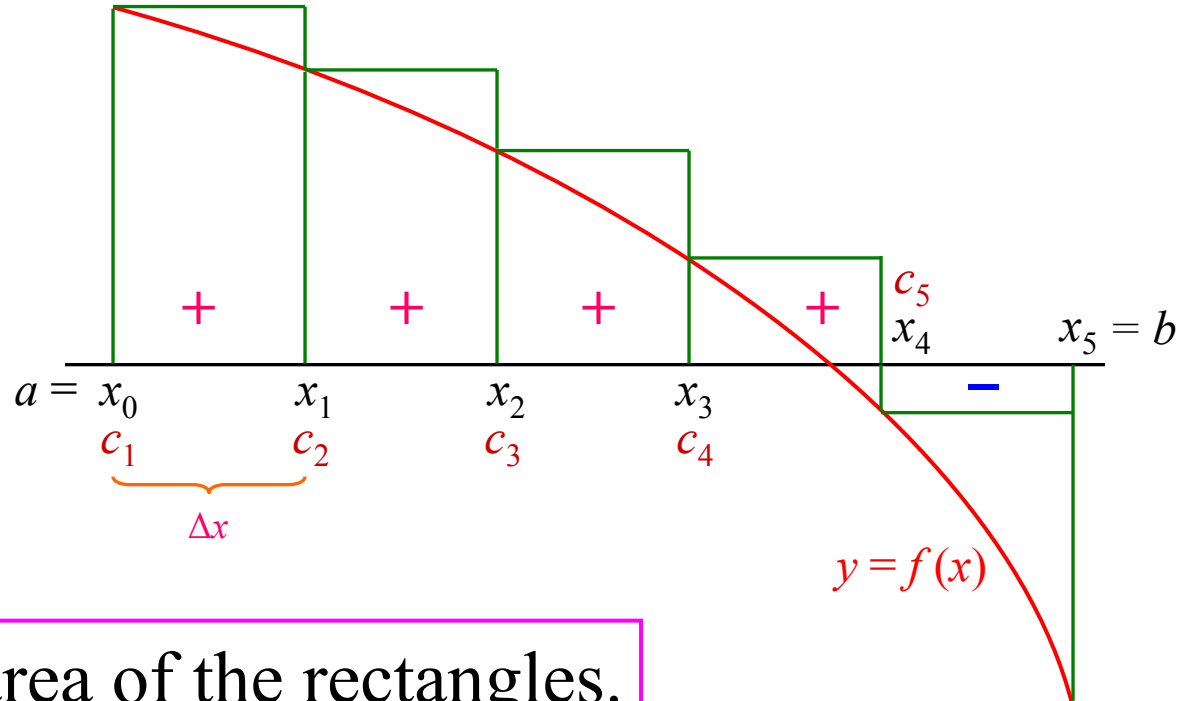
$$\sum_{k=1}^5 f(c_k) \Delta x < \sum_{k=1}^{10} f(c_k) \Delta x < \sum_{k=1}^{20} f(c_k) \Delta x$$

$$< \dots < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x$$

= exact area of region under the curve

# More General Form

$f$  continuous, but  $f(x)$  may be negative for some values of  $x$ .



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

gives total *signed* area of the rectangles.

(positive/negative)

# Riemann Integral

As more sub-intervals are used, the rectangles will approximate the region between the  $x$ -axis and  $f$  with increasing accuracy.

Obtain

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

Riemann integral (or definite integral) of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$ .

Riemann integral gives the signed area of the region under the graph of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$ .







Georg Friedrich Bernhard Riemann  
(1826 – 1866)

# Terminology

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(u) du = \int_a^b f(t) dt, \text{ etc.}$$

$[a, b]$  : the interval of integration

$a$  : lower limit of integration

$b$  : upper limit of integration

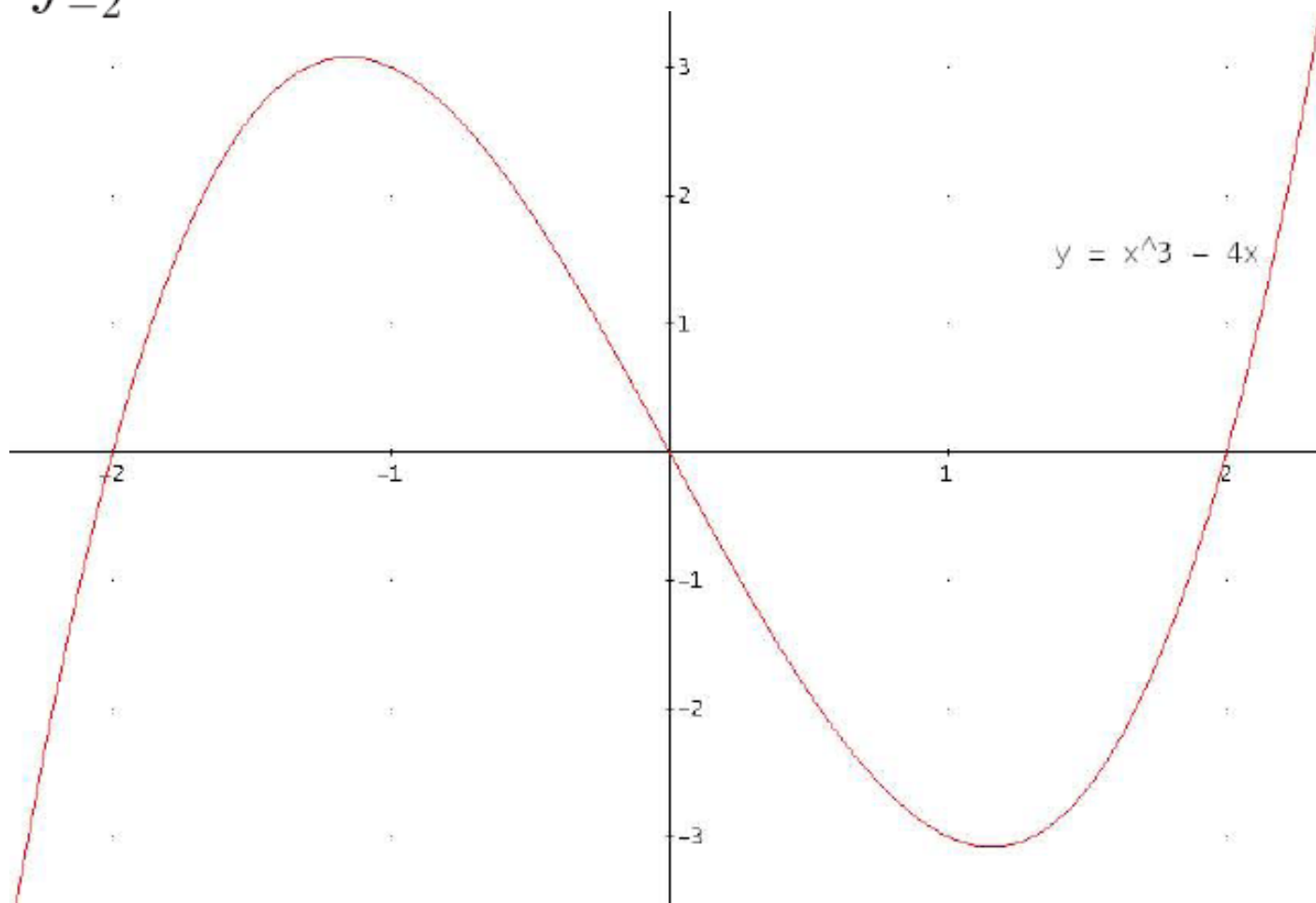
$f(x)$  : the integrand

$x$  : variable of integration

$x$  is a *dummy* variable

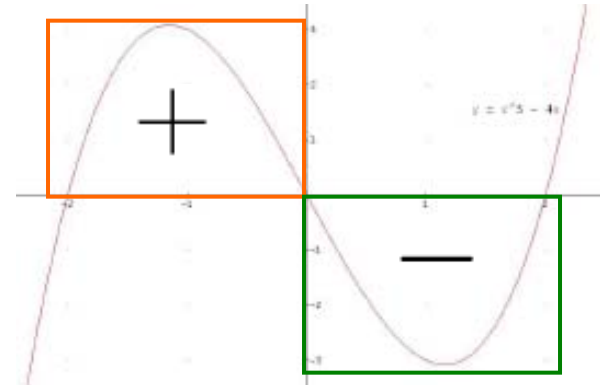
# Example

Find  $\int_{-2}^2 (x^3 - 4x) \, dx$



## Example (cont'd)

Find  $\int_{-2}^2 (x^3 - 4x) \, dx$



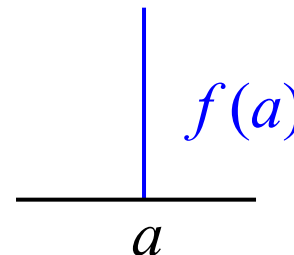
The graph is **symmetrical about the origin**.

The region under the graph over  $[-2, 0]$  is of the **same (physical) area** as the region under the graph over  $[0, 2]$ . But the **areas** are of '***different signs***'.

$$\int_{-2}^2 (x^3 - 4x) \, dx = \boxed{0}$$

# Definite Integral Rules

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



Interval  $[a, a]$  is the point  $x = a$ .

Region under graph is a **vertical line** with ***no area***.

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

$$\int_2^1 f(x) dx \stackrel{\text{define}}{=} - \int_1^2 f(x) dx$$

**Does not make sense** as the interval is  $[2, 1]$ .

## Other Routine Rules

$$3. \int_a^b k f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx, \quad (\text{any constant } k)$$

$$\left( \text{In particular, } \int_a^b -f(x) dx = - \int_a^b f(x) dx \right)$$

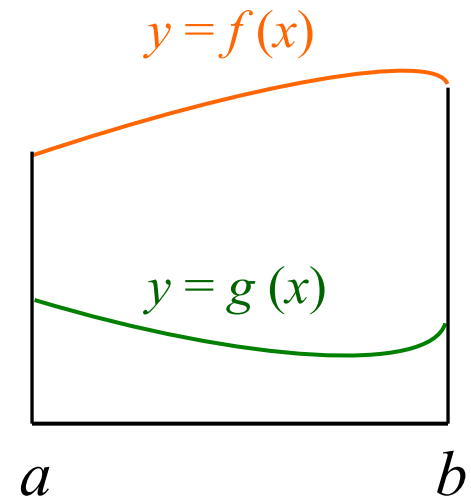
$$4. \int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

5. If  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ , then

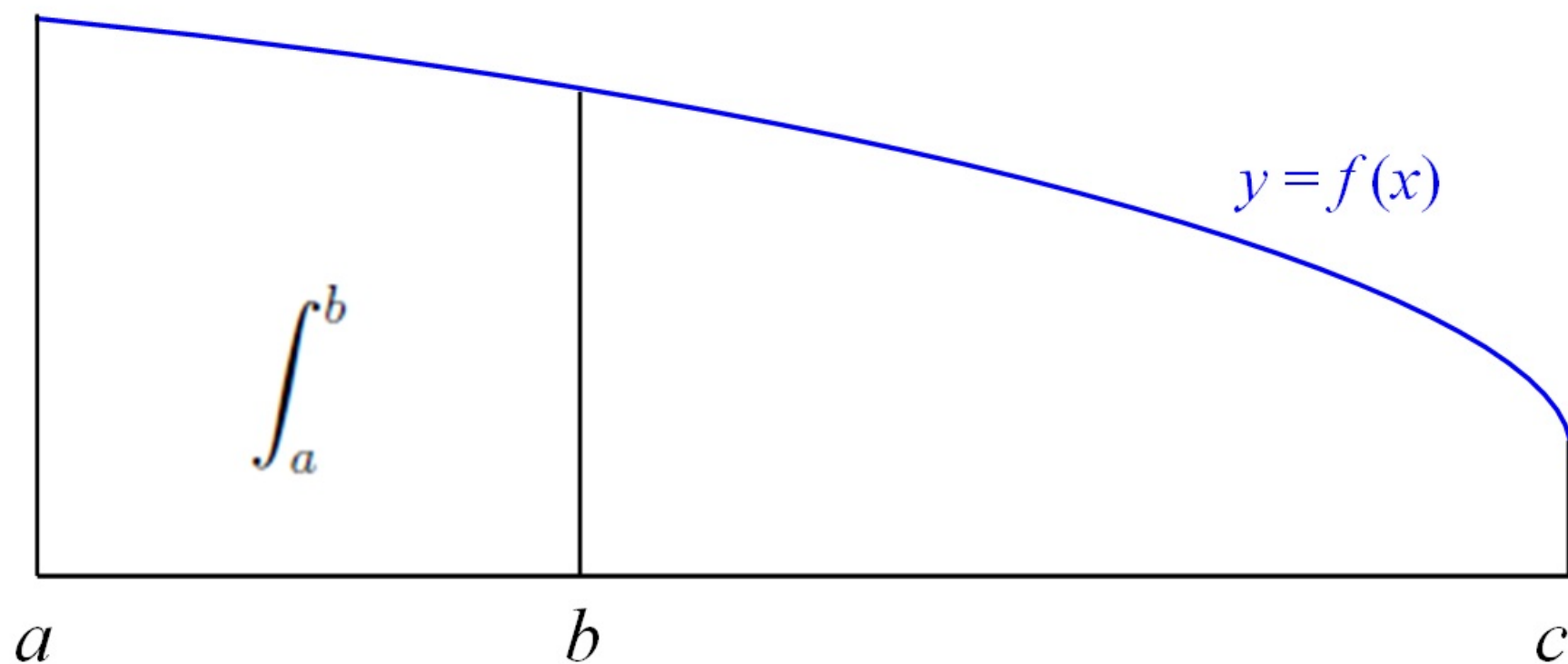
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx.$$

In particular, if  $f(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0.$$

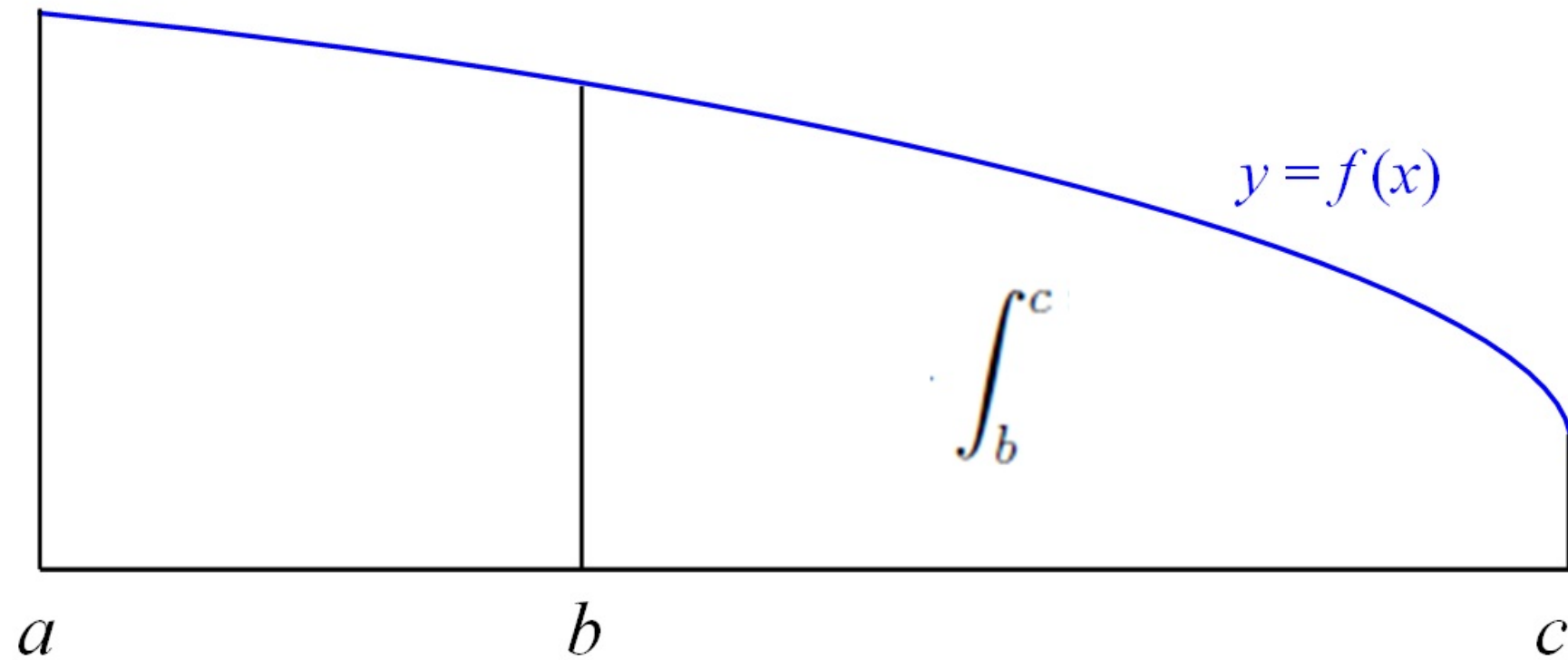


6. If  $f$  is continuous on the interval joining  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ , then



$$\boxed{\int_a^b f(x) dx} + \int_b^c f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx$$

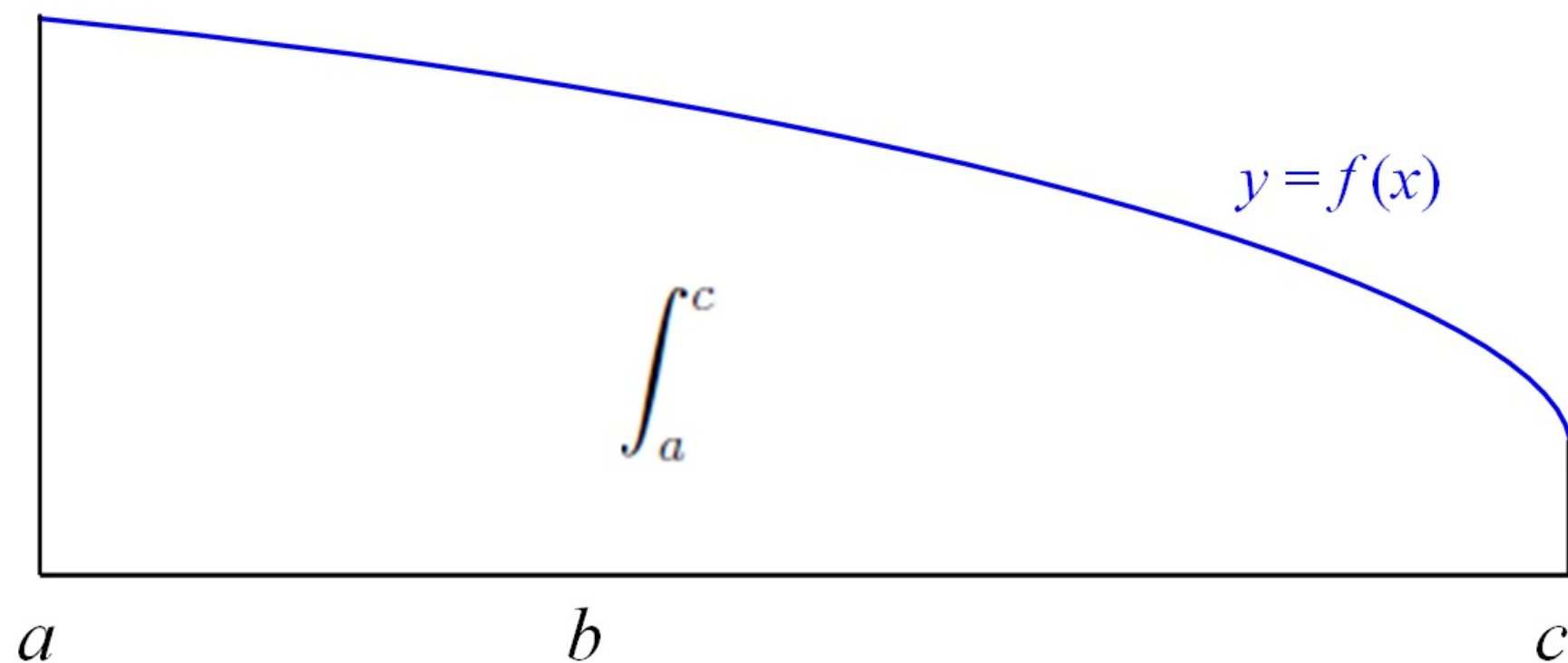
6. If  $f$  is continuous on the interval joining  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ , then



$$\int_a^b f(x) dx + \boxed{\int_b^c f(x) dx} = \int_a^c f(x) dx$$



6. If  $f$  is continuous on the interval joining  $a$ ,  $b$  and  $c$ , then



$$\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx = \boxed{\int_a^c f(x) dx}$$

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (FTC)

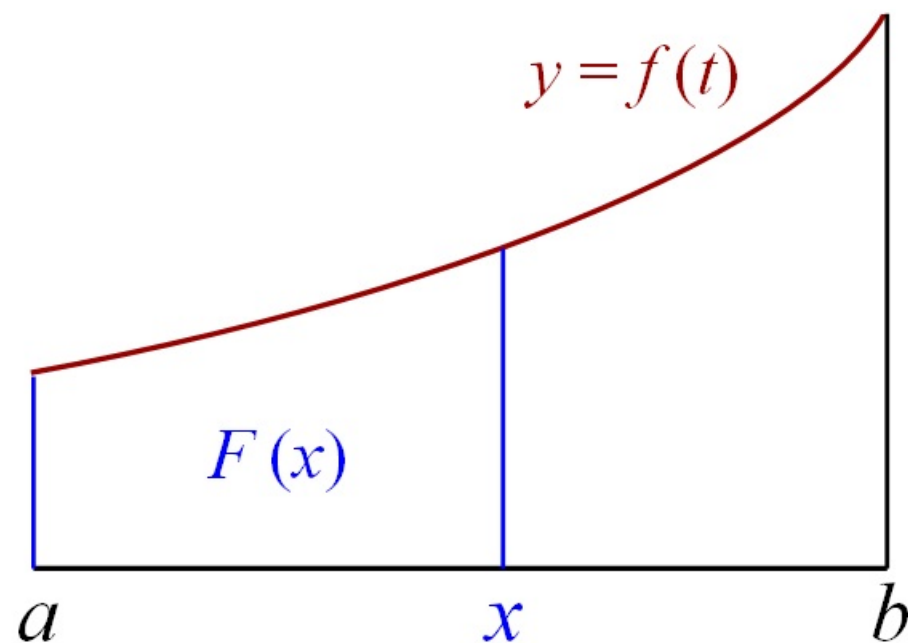
## Part 1

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then the function

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

Area function  
of  $x$

has a derivative at every point of  $[a, b]$ , and

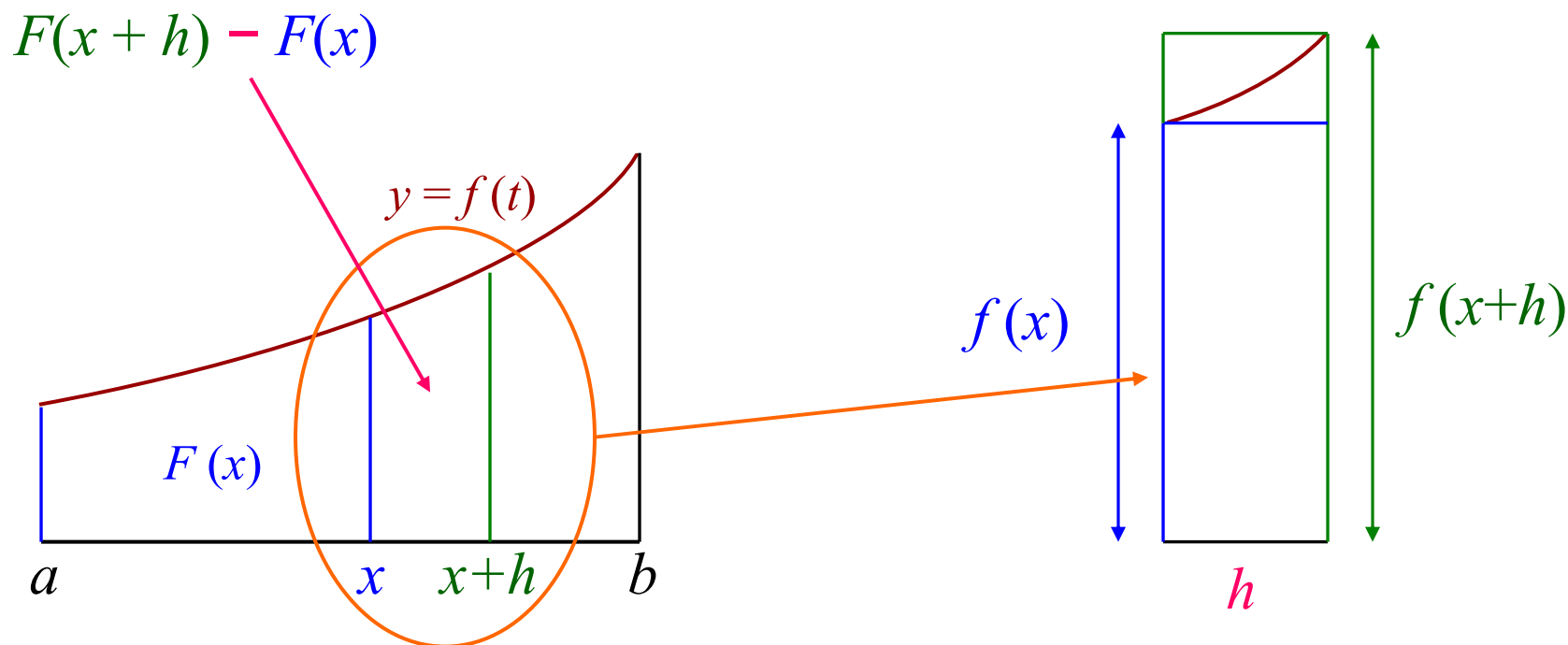


$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x).$$

Main idea in proof: consider areas of rectangles

First consider a change in value of  $x$ :

$$f(x) h \leq F(x+h) - F(x) \leq f(x+h) h$$



$$f(x) h \leq F(x+h) - F(x) \leq f(x+h) h$$

Divide by  $h$

$$f(x) \leq \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} \leq f(x+h)$$

Now take limits as  $h \rightarrow 0$ .

Noting that  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(x+h) = f(x)$ , obtain

$$\underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{green circle}} \leq \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} \leq \underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{green circle}} \quad \text{f is continuous}$$

Therefore,

$$\underbrace{f(x)}_{\text{purple box}} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = \underbrace{\frac{d}{dx} F(x)}_{\text{purple box}}$$

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}.$$

# Examples

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x) \quad a = -\pi \quad f(t) = \cos t$$

$$(1) \quad \frac{d}{dx} \int_{-\pi}^x \cos t dt = \boxed{\cos x}$$

# Examples

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = \boxed{f(x)} \quad a = 0$$

$$\boxed{f(t) = \frac{1}{1+t^2}}$$

$$(1) \quad \frac{d}{dx} \int_{-\pi}^x \cos t dt = \boxed{\cos x}$$

$$(2) \quad \frac{d}{dx} \int_0^x \frac{dt}{1+t^2} = \boxed{\frac{1}{1+x^2}}$$

# Example

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x) \quad a = 1 \quad f(t) = \cos t$$

$$(3) \quad \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^{x^2} \cos t dt$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^u \cos t dt$$

Let  $u = x^2$ .

# Example

$$\frac{d}{du} \int_a^u f(t) dt = f(u) \quad a = 1 \quad f(t) = \cos t$$

$$(3) \quad \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^{x^2} \cos t dt$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^u \cos t dt = y$$

Let  $u = x^2$ .

$$= \frac{d}{du} \int_1^u \cos t dt \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \quad (\text{chain rule})$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$$



# Example

$$\frac{d}{du} \int_a^u f(t) dt = f(u) \quad a = 1 \quad f(t) = \cos t$$

$$(3) \quad \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^{x^2} \cos t dt$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^u \cos t dt$$

Let  $u = x^2$ . Then  $\frac{du}{dx} = 2x$ .

$$= \frac{d}{du} \int_1^u \cos t dt \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$$

(chain rule)

$$= \cos u \cdot 2x$$

$$= \boxed{2x \cos x^2}$$

## FTC Part 2

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

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \left[ F(x) \right]_a^b = F(b) - F(a).$$

Main idea of proof is to compare two antiderivatives, one given as  $F(x)$  and the other from FTC Part 1:

$$G(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

From page 2, noting that

$$F'(x) = f(x) = G'(x)$$

obtain

$$F(x) = G(x) + c$$

Thus,

$$F(b) - F(a) = G(b) + c - (G(a) + c)$$

$$= G(b) - G(a)$$

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

$$= \int_a^b f(t) dt$$

$$G(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt.$$

## Examples

$$(1) \int_0^{\pi} \cos x \, dx = \left[ \sin x \right]_0^{\pi} = \sin \pi - \sin 0 = \boxed{0}$$

$$(2) \int_0^2 t^2 \, dt = \left[ \frac{1}{3} t^3 \right]_0^2 = \frac{1}{3}(2^3) - \frac{1}{3}(0^3) = \boxed{\frac{8}{3}}$$

$$(3) \int_{-2}^2 (4 - u^2) \, du = \left[ 4u - \frac{1}{3} u^3 \right]_{-2}^2$$
$$= \left[ 4(2) - \frac{1}{3}(2^3) \right] - \left[ 4(-2) - \frac{1}{3}(-2)^3 \right] = \boxed{\frac{32}{3}}$$

# Integration by Substitution

Consider

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

Set  $u = g(x)$ . Then  $g'(x) = \frac{du}{dx}$

Given integral becomes

$$\int f(u) du$$

which may be simpler to calculate

# Example

Let  $u = \sin x$   $\frac{du}{dx} = \cos x$

$$du = \cos x dx$$

$$\int \sin^4 x \cos x dx$$

$$= \int u^4 du = \frac{1}{5}u^5 + c = \frac{1}{5}\sin^5 x + c$$

# Example

Let  $u = x^2 + 2x - 3$

$$\frac{du}{dx} = 2x + 2 = 2(x + 1)$$

$$\frac{1}{2}du = (x + 1)dx$$

$$\int (x^2 + 2x - 3)^2 (x + 1) dx$$

$$= \int u^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} du = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{3} u^3 + c = \frac{1}{6} (x^2 + 2x - 3)^3 + c$$

# Changing Limits of Integration

$$\int_a^b f(g(x)) g'(x) dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du$$

Substitution formula requires  $g'$  to be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $f$  to be continuous on the range of  $g$ .

$$\text{Set } u = g(x) \quad g'(x) = \frac{du}{dx}$$



# Example

Let  $u = \tan x$

$$\frac{du}{dx} = \sec^2 x$$

$u = 0$  when  $x = 0$

$$du = \sec^2 x dx$$

$u = 1$  when  $x = \frac{\pi}{4}$

$$\int_0^{\pi/4} \tan x \cdot \sec^2 x dx = \int_0^1 u du = \left[ \frac{1}{2} u^2 \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

# Integration by Parts

Consider

$$\int \boxed{u(x)} \boxed{w(x)} dx = \int u \boxed{\frac{dv}{dx}} dx$$

$u(x)$  can be differentiated (repeatedly)

$w(x)$  can be integrated easily, with antiderivative  $v(x)$ ,

i.e.

$$\boxed{w(x) = \frac{dv}{dx}}$$

Begin with product rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$u \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}(uv) - v \frac{du}{dx}$$

Integrate both sides of the above equation

$$\int u(x) w(x) dx = \int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

More compact form:

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du$$

# Example

Many choices for  $u$  and  $dv$ . But only a few choices may work. For instance,

$$u = x \Rightarrow du = dx$$

$$dv = \cos x \, dx \Rightarrow v = \int \cos x \, dx = \sin x$$

$$\int x \cos x \, dx$$

$$= x \sin x - \int \sin x \, dx$$

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

$$\int u \, dv = uv - \int v \, du$$

# Example

Consider

$$u = \ln x \quad \Rightarrow \quad du = \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$dv = dx \quad \Rightarrow \quad v = x$$

$$\int_1^e \ln x \, dx$$

$$= \left[ (\ln x) x \right]_1^e - \int_1^e x \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= [e - 0] - [x]_1^e$$

$$= 1$$

$$\int u \, dv = uv - \int v \, du$$

# Area between Curves

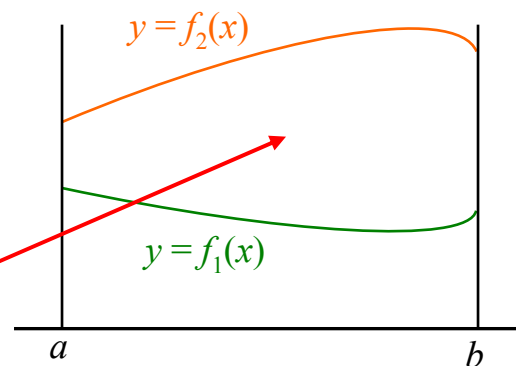
If  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are continuous functions with

$$f_1(x) \leq f_2(x)$$

graph of  $y = f_2(x)$  is higher  
than graph of  $y = f_1(x)$

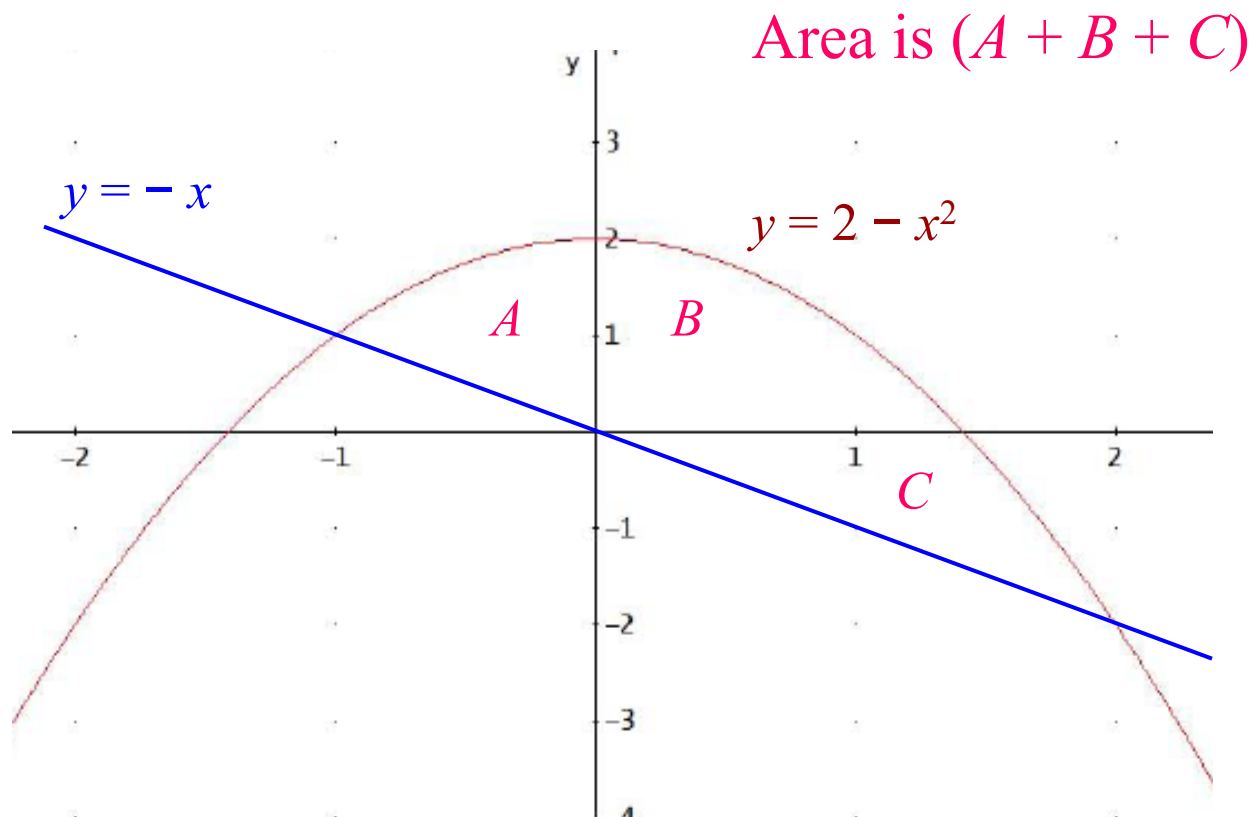
over the interval  $[a, b]$ , then the area of the region  
between the graphs of  $y = f_1(x)$  and  $y = f_2(x)$   
from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$  is

$$\text{Area} = \int_a^b [f_2(x) - f_1(x)] dx$$



# Example

Find the area of the (finite) region enclosed by the parabola  $y = 2 - x^2$  and the line  $y = -x$ .

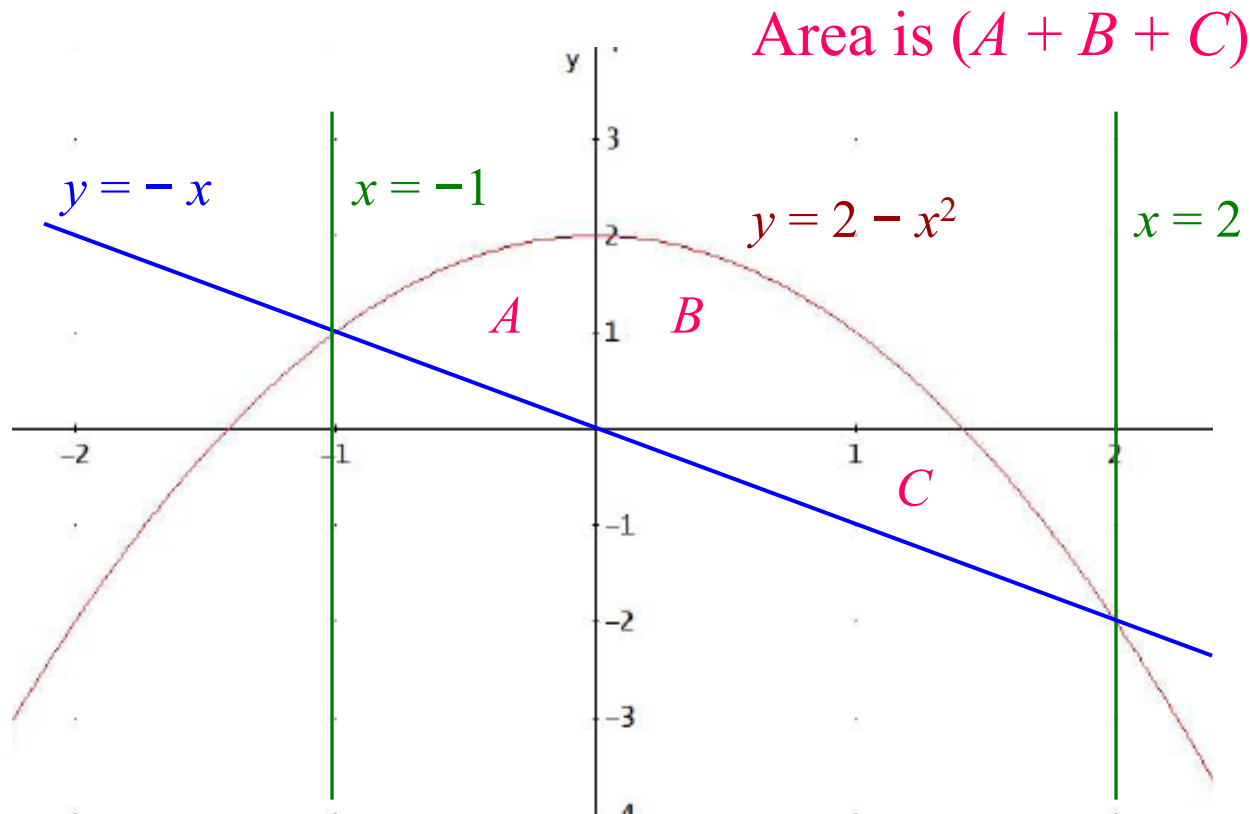


Find the **points of intersection** by setting

$$2 - x^2 = -x$$

$$0 = x^2 - x - 2 = (x + 1)(x - 2)$$

$$x = -1 \quad \text{or} \quad x = 2$$



Parabola is higher than the straight line over the interval  $[-1, 2]$ .



Parabola is higher than the straight line over the interval  $[-1, 2]$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Area} &= \int_{-1}^2 [(2 - x^2) - (-x)] \, dx \\&= \left[ 2x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]_{-1}^2 \\&= \left( 4 - \frac{8}{3} + 2 \right) - \left( -2 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \right) \\&= \boxed{\frac{9}{2}}\end{aligned}$$

End of Chapter 3