

Chapter 3. Integration

3.1 Indefinite Integral

Integration can be considered as the antithesis of differentiation, and they are subtly linked by the **Fundamental Theorem of Calculus**. We first introduce indefinite integration as an “inverse” of differentiation.

3.1.1 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 , denoted by

$$\int f(x) dx.$$

Terminology:

f : *integrand* of the integral x : *variable of integration*

3.1.2 Constant of Integration

Any constant function has zero derivative. Hence the antiderivatives of the zero function are all the constant functions.

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

where C is some constant. So

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

C here is called the *constant of integration* or an

arbitrary constant. Thus,

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

means the same as

$$\frac{d}{dx}F(x) = f(x).$$

In words,

indefinite integral and antiderivative (of a function) differ by an arbitrary constant.

3.1.3 Integral formulas

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

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

$$2. \int \sin kx dx = -\frac{\cos kx}{k} + C$$

$$3. \int \cos kx dx = \frac{\sin kx}{k} + C$$

$$4. \int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + C$$

$$5. \int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + C$$

$$6. \int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + C$$

$$7. \int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x + C$$

3.1.4 Rules for indefinite integration

$$1. \int kf(x) dx = k \int f(x) dx,$$

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

$$2. \int -f(x) dx = - \int f(x) dx$$

(Rule 1 with $k = -1$)

$$3. \int [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$$

3.1.5 Example

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

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

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

Solving (i), we get

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

$$\text{By (ii), } 4 = (2)9^{3/2} + C = (2)27 + C,$$

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

$$\text{Hence } y = 2x^{3/2} - 50.$$

3.2 Riemann Integrals

3.2.1 Area under a curve

Let $f = f(x)$ be a non-negative continuous function

$f = f(x)$ on an interval $[a, b]$.

Partition $[a, b]$ into n consecutive sub-intervals $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$

$(i = 1, 2, \dots, n)$ each of length $\Delta x = \frac{b - a}{n}$, where

we set $a = x_0$, $b = x_n$, and x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1} to be

successive points between a and b with $x_k - x_{k-1} =$

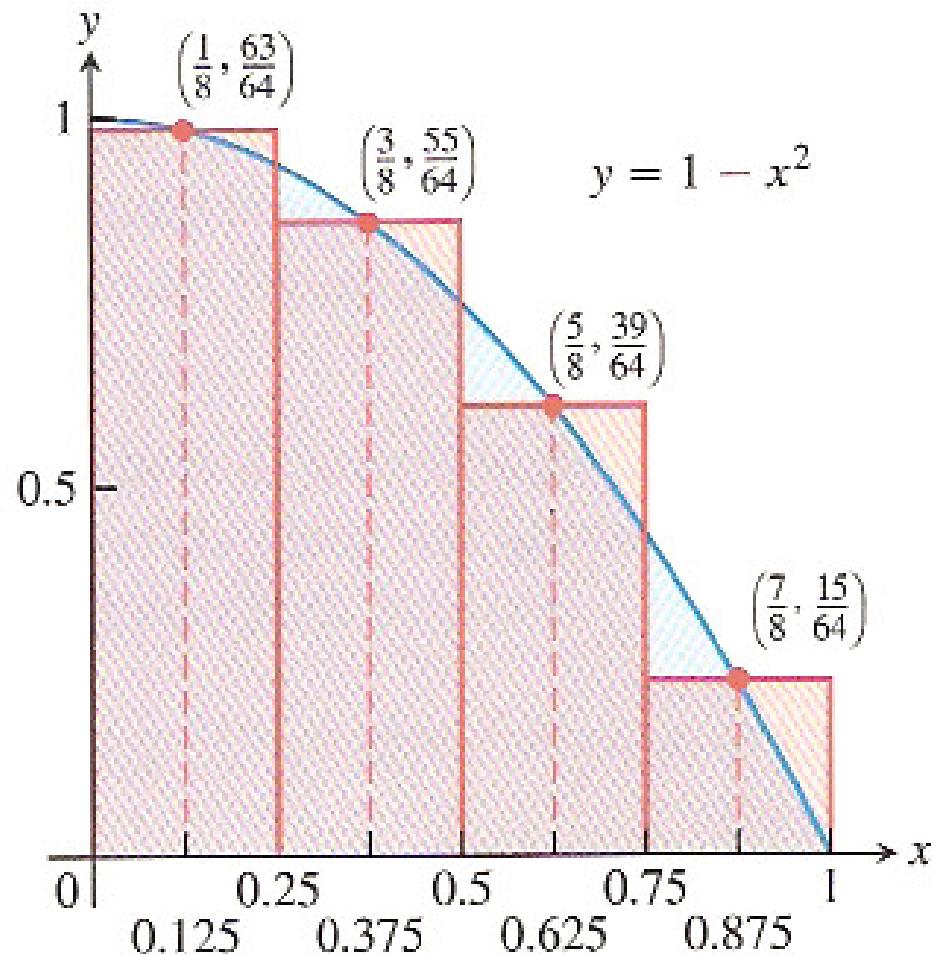
Δx .

Let c_k be any intermediate point in the sub-interval $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$.

Then the sum

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

gives an approximate area under the curve of $y = f(x)$ from $x = a$ to $x = b$.



The *exact* area A under the curve of $y = f(x)$ is achieved by letting the partition of the interval $[a, b]$ tends to infinity:

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

3.2.2 Riemann Integral

Let us continue with the notation as in the previous section and denote the limit by I .

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

We call I the **Riemann integral** (or **definite**

integral) of f over $[a, b]$ and we write

$$I = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

3.2.3 Terminology

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx$$

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

a : lower limit of integration

b : upper limit of integration

x : variable of integration

$f(x)$: the integrand

x is a *dummy* variable, i.e.

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

3.2.4 Rules of algebra for definite integrals

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

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

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

In particular, $\int_a^b -f(x) dx = - \int_a^b f(x) dx$

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

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

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

3.3 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

3.3.1 Part 1

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

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \quad (1)$$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} F(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x). \quad (2)$$

3.3.2 Examples

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{-\pi}^x \cos t dt = \cos x$$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_1^{x^2} \cos t dt = \left[\frac{d}{d(x^2)} \int_1^{x^2} \cos t dt \right] \frac{d(x^2)}{dx} = (\cos x^2) 2x$$

$$= 2x \cos(x^2)$$

3.3.3 Part 2

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

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

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

By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 1,

above,

$$G'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} G(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x).$$

We also know that $F'(x) = f(x)$. Thus $G'(x) = F'(x)$ for $x \in [a, b]$.

Hence we have $F(x) = G(x) + c$ throughout $[a, b]$

for some constant c . Thus

$$\begin{aligned} F(b) - F(a) &= G(b) + c - (G(a) + c) \\ &= G(b) - G(a) \\ &= \int_a^b f(t) dt - \int_a^a f(t) dt \\ &= \int_a^b f(t) dt. \end{aligned}$$

3.3.4 Examples

$$\int_0^\pi \cos x \, dx = \sin x \Big|_0^\pi = \sin \pi - \sin 0 = 0$$

$$\int_0^2 t^2 \, dt = \frac{1}{3} t^3 \Big|_0^2 = \frac{8}{3}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-2}^2 (4 - u^2) du &= \left[4u - \frac{1}{3}u^3 \right] \Big|_{-2}^2 \\&= \left(8 - \frac{8}{3} \right) - \left(-8 + \frac{8}{3} \right) \\&= \frac{32}{3}\end{aligned}$$

3.4 Integration by substitution

To evaluate $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx$ where f and g' are continuous:

1. Set $u = g(x)$. Then $g'(x) = \frac{du}{dx}$, the given integral becomes $\int f(u) du$.
2. Integrate with respect to u .
3. Replace u by $g(x)$ in the result of step 2.

3.4.1 Examples

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

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

$$du = (2x+2)dx$$

$$= 2(x+1)dx$$

$$I = \int u^2 \frac{1}{2} du = \frac{1}{2} \int u^2 du$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} u^3 + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} (x^2 + 2x - 3)^3 + C$$

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

$$\text{Let } u = \sin x$$

$$du = \cos x dx$$

$$I = \int u^4 du$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} u^5 + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} \sin^5 x + C$$

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3.4.2 Substitution in definite integrals

The limits change accordingly:

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

Note that in general we require $g' \geq 0$ or $g' \leq 0$ in $[a, b]$.

3.4.3 Example

$$I = \int_0^{\pi/4} \tan x \sec^2 x \, dx$$

Let $u = \tan x$

$$x=0 \Rightarrow u=0$$

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

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

$$\begin{aligned}I &= \int_0^1 u du \\&= \frac{1}{2} u^2 \Big|_0^1 \\&= \frac{1}{2}\end{aligned}$$

3.5 Integration by parts

Integration by parts is a technique for evaluating integrals of the form

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

in which f can be differentiated repeatedly and g can be integrated without difficulty.

Recall the product rule

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

In differential form it becomes

$$d(uv) = u\,dv + v\,du$$

or, equivalently,

$$u\,dv = d(uv) - v\,du.$$

Thus we have the **Integration-by-parts Formula:**

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

or,

$$\int u \frac{dv}{dx} \, dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} \, dx.$$

3.5.1 Example

Evaluate $I = \int x \cos x dx$.

Solution.

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int x \cos x \, dx = \int x \, d(\sin x) \\ &= x \sin x - \int \sin x \, dx \\ &= x \sin x + \cos x + C \end{aligned}$$

3.5.2 Exercise

(a) $\int \ln x dx$

$$\int \underbrace{\ln x}_{u} dx - \int \underbrace{x}_{v}$$

$$= x \ln x - \int x \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= x \ln x - \int dx$$

$$= x \ln x - x + C$$

$$(b) \int x^2 e^x dx$$

$$\int x^2 e^x dx$$

$$= \int x^2 d(e^x)$$

$$= x^2 e^x - 2 \int x e^x dx$$

$$= x^2 e^x - 2 \int x d(e^x)$$

$$= x^2 e^x - 2x e^x + 2 \int e^x dx$$

$$= x^2 e^x - 2x e^x + 2e^x + C$$

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$$(d) \int e^x \cos x \, dx \quad (\text{Hint: Consider also } \int e^x \sin x \, dx.)$$

To find: $A = \int e^x \cos x \, dx$

Let $B = \int e^x \sin x \, dx$

$$A = \int e^x \cos x dx$$

$$= \int e^x d(\sin x)$$

$$= e^x \sin x - \int e^x \sin x dx$$

$$A+B = e^x \sin x \dots \dots \textcircled{1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}B &= \int e^x \sin x \, dx \\&= - \int e^x d(\cos x) \\&= -e^x \cos x + \int e^x \cos x \, dx\end{aligned}$$

$$A - B = e^x \cos x \quad \dots \quad \textcircled{2}$$

$$A = \frac{1}{2}(e^x \sin x + e^x \cos x)$$

$$B = \frac{1}{2}(e^x \sin x - e^x \cos x)$$

3.6 Area between two curves

If f_1 and f_2 are continuous functions with $f_1(x) \leq$

$f_2(x)$ in the interval $a \leq x \leq b$, then the area of the

region between the curves $y = f_1(x)$ and $y = f_2(x)$

from a to b is the integral of $f_2 - f_1$ from a to b ,

i.e.

$$\text{Area} = \int_a^b [f_2(x) - f_1(x)] dx. \quad (1)$$

This is the basic formula.

If the curves only cross at one or both end points of $[a, b]$, we apply (1) once to find the area. If the curves cross within the interval $[a, b]$, we need to apply (1) more than once. Thus, to find the area of the region between two curves

- (i) Sketch the curves and determine the crossing points.
- (ii) Evaluate the area(s) using (1). **Or**, integrate $|f_2 - f_1|$ over $[a, b]$.

3.6.1 Example

Find area enclosed by the parabola $y = 2 - x^2$ and the line $y = -x$.

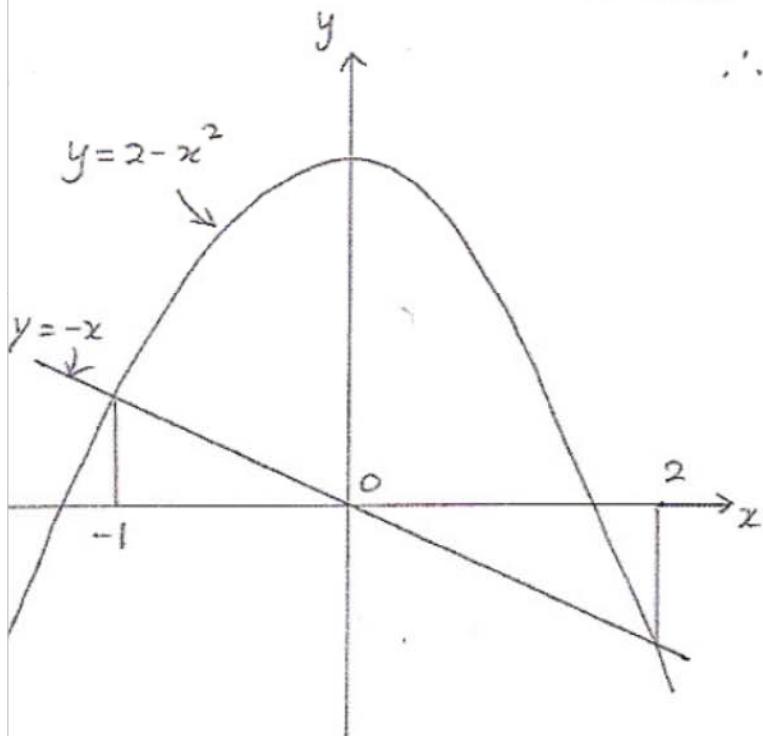
$$y = 2 - x^2, \quad y = -x$$

Points of intersection: Set $2 - x^2 = -x$

$$x^2 + x - 2 = 0$$

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

$$\therefore x = -1, \quad x = 2.$$



$$\text{Area} = \int_{-1}^2 \{(2 - x^2) - (-x)\} dx$$

$$= \int_{-1}^2 (2 - x^2 + x) dx$$

$$= \left[2x - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right]_{-1}^2$$

$$= \left(4 - \frac{8}{3} + 2 \right) - \left(-2 + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{9}{2} //$$

Some examples from past test papers

2007 Question 9

9. Let a be a positive constant. Find the area of the bounded plane region between the parabola $y^2 = x + 12a^2$ and the straight line $y = \frac{1}{a}x$.

(A) $\frac{397}{6}a^3$

(B) $\frac{665}{6}a^3$

(C) $\frac{343}{6}a^3$

(D) $\frac{301}{6}a^3$

(E) $\frac{73}{6}a^3$

$$9). \quad x = y^2 - 12a^2 \text{ and } x = ay$$

$$\Rightarrow y^2 - ay - 12a^2 = 0$$

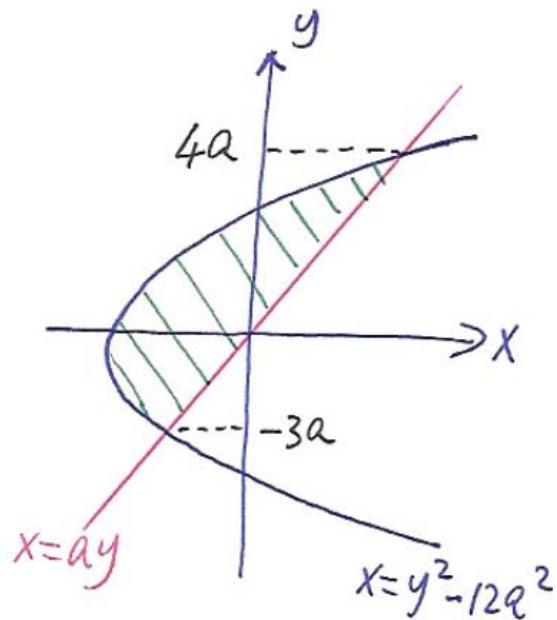
$$\Rightarrow (y-4a)(y+3a) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow y = 4a, \quad y = -3a$$

$$\text{Area} = \int_{-3a}^{4a} \{ay - (y^2 - 12a^2)\} dy$$

$$= \frac{343}{6} a^3$$

(C)



2008 Question 5

5. Evaluate

$$\int_{\frac{1}{e}}^e |\ln x| \, dx$$

(A) $2(1 + e)$

(B) $2(e - 1)$

(C) $2(1 + e^{-1})$

(D) $2(e - e^{-1})$

(E) $2(1 - e^{-1})$

$$\begin{aligned}5). \int_{\frac{1}{e}}^e |\ln x| dx &= \int_{\frac{1}{e}}^1 -\ln x dx + \int_1^e \ln x dx \\&= -x \ln x \Big|_{\frac{1}{e}}^1 + \int_{\frac{1}{e}}^1 dx + x \ln x \Big|_1^e - \int_1^e dx \\&= -\frac{1}{e} + 1 - \frac{1}{e} + e - e + 1 \\&= 2 - \frac{2}{e} = \underline{\underline{2(1-e^{-1})}} \quad (\text{E})\end{aligned}$$