

# Calculus Notes

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## Part I

# Integral Calculus in One Variable

## 1 Indefinite Integrals

### 1.1 Integral of a function

The integral is the inverse of the derivative operator. Given a function  $f(x)$ , we can find a function  $F(x)$  such that  $F'(x) = f(x)$ . The integral of a function is not unique, as for each  $f(x)$ ,  $F(x) + C$  is also an integral of that function.

#### Concept

Both the derivative and the integral are linear operators, so we have:

$$\int [\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)] dx = \alpha \int f(x) dx + \beta \int g(x) dx$$

### 1.2 Ways to calculate indefinite integrals

#### 1. Expansion

We use the linearity rule to turn a complicated integral into the sum of many simpler ones, then calculate one by one.

#### 2. Changing the differential expression ( $u$ -substitution)

If  $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$  then  $\int f(u) dx = F(u) + C$ , where  $u = u(x)$  is a continuously differentiable function. Then, we can change the integrand  $g(x) dx$  into:

$$g(x) = f(u(x))u'(x)dx$$

Then the integral turns into:

$$\int g(x) dx = \int f(u(x))u'(x) dx = \int f(u(x)) du = F(u) + C$$

#### Insight

In the simple case  $u = ax + b$ , we have  $du = a dx$ . Then if  $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$  then:

$$\int f(ax + b) dx = \frac{1}{a} F(ax + b) + C$$

3. **Change of variables** Consider the integral  $I = \int f(x)dx$ , where  $f(x)$  is a continuous function. We can change  $f(x)$  such that we work with functions with known or easier antiderivatives:

(a) **Change of variables type 1:**

Let  $x = \varphi(t)$ , where  $\varphi(t)$  is a monotonic and continuously differentiable function. Then:

$$I = \int f(x)dx = \int f[\varphi(t)]\varphi'(t)dt$$

Denote the antiderivative of  $g(t) = f[\varphi(t)]\varphi'(t)$  as  $G(t)$  and  $h(x)$  as the inverse of  $x = \varphi(t)$ , we then have:

$$\int g(t)dt = G(t) + C \Rightarrow I = G[h(x)] + C$$

(b) **Change of variables type 2:**

Let  $t = \psi(x)$ , where  $\psi(x)$  is a continuously differentiable function and we can write  $f(x) = g[\psi(x)]\psi'(x)$ . Then:

$$I = \int f(x)dx = \int g[\psi(x)]\psi'(x)dx$$

Denote the antiderivative of  $g(t)$  as  $G(t)$ , then:

$$I = G[\psi(x)] + C$$

Important

Remember to change back to the original variable!

4. **Integration by parts** Let  $u = u(x)$  and  $v = v(x)$  be continuously differentiable functions. We know:

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

Then we have the following formula:

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

Consider the integral  $I = \int f(x)dx$  We need to express:

$$f(x)dx = [g(x)h(x)]dx = g(x)[h(x)dx] = u dv$$

then apply the integration by parts formula to  $u = g(x)$ ,  $v = h(x)dx$

### 1.3 Integral of rational functions

A rational function is one with the form  $f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ , where  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  are polynomials in  $x$ . If  $\deg P(x) < \deg Q(x)$  then it's called a *true rational function*.

Using polynomial division, we can rewrite any rational function:

$$f(x) = H(x) + \frac{r(x)}{Q(x)}$$

The integral of  $H(x)$  can easily be computed. As for the true rational function  $\frac{r(x)}{Q(x)}$ , we will use partial fractions to decompose it into four simpler types of functions. First, using the method of Undetermined Coefficients, we can write  $Q(x)$  as the product of linear polynomials and quadratic polynomials with no real roots:

$$Q(x) = \prod_{k=1}^n (x - a_k)^{\alpha_k} \prod_{k=1}^n (x^2 + p_k x + q_k)^{\beta_k}$$

Note that this can always be achieved as per the Fundamental Theorem of Algebra. Then, we just need to compute the following four types of integrals:

#### Insight

1.  $\int \frac{A}{x - a} dx$
2.  $\int \frac{A}{(x - a)^k} dx \quad (k \geq 2)$
3.  $\int \frac{Mx + N}{x^2 + px + q} dx$
4.  $\int \frac{Mx + N}{(x^2 + px + q)^m} dx \quad (m \geq 2)$

These integrals cover all cases because any partial fraction decomposition over  $\mathbb{R}$  involves repeated linear factors and irreducible quadratic factors, possibly raised to powers. The first two ones are simple:

1.  $\int \frac{A}{x - a} dx = A \ln |x - a| + C$
2.  $\int \frac{A}{(x - a)^k} dx = A \int (x - a)^{-k} = \frac{-A}{(k - 1)(x - a)^{k-1}} \quad (k \geq 2)$

The third one is a bit more complicated: we need to use a clever substitution, inspired by completing the square, to bring it back to familiar forms:

Let  $a = \sqrt{q - \frac{p^2}{4}}$  and  $t = x + \frac{p}{2}$ , the integral becomes:

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{Mx + N}{x^2 + px + q} dx &= \int \frac{Mt + (N - \frac{Mp}{2})}{t^2 + a^2} dt \\ &= M \int \frac{t}{t^2 + a^2} dt + \left(N - \frac{Mp}{2}\right) \int \frac{1}{t^2 + a^2} dt\end{aligned}$$

For the first integral, substitute in  $u = t^2$  and we have a logarithm. For the second one, divide both the numerator and the denominator by  $a^2$  then substitute  $u = \frac{t}{a}$ , we yield the inverse tangent. Then the integral is simply:

$$\int \frac{Mx + N}{x^2 + px + q} dx = \frac{M}{2} \ln(x^2 + px + q) + \frac{2N - Mp}{\sqrt{4q - p^2}} \arctan \frac{2x + p}{\sqrt{4q - p^2}} + C$$

Before moving on to solve the last integral, let's review a bit of complex numbers:

#### Concept

Some important (and beautiful) formulas::

**Euler's Formula:**  $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$

**De Moivre's Formula:**  $(\cos x + i \sin x)^n = \cos nx + i \sin nx$

We will prove it using ODEs. Let  $f(x) = e^x$  and  $g(x) = \cos x + i \sin x$ . We know:

$$f'(x) = ie^{ix} = if(x)$$

$$g'(x) = -\sin x + i \cos x = ig(x)$$

And also the initial values:

$$f(0) = g(0) = 1$$

By uniqueness of solutions to first-order linear ODEs, Euler's formula is proven. By substituting  $f(nx) = g(nx)$ , De Moivre's formula is proven. Then we have:

#### Insight

- $\cos x = \Re(e^{ix}) = \frac{e^{ix} + e^{-ix}}{2}$

- $\sin x = \Im(e^{ix}) = \frac{e^{ix} - e^{-ix}}{2i}$

From this, we can derive a general formula for powers of the sine and cosine:

$$\cos^n x = \left( \frac{e^{ix} + e^{-ix}}{2} \right)^n = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} e^{i(n-2k)x}$$

Now if we group  $k$  and  $n - k$  in pairs to get  $\cos(n - 2k)$ , we get:

$$\cos^n x = \frac{1}{2^n} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \cos((n - 2k)x)$$

Analogously, we also have:

$$\sin^n x = \frac{1}{(2i)^n} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} (-1)^k \cos\left(\frac{\pi n}{2} - (n - 2k)x\right)$$

Now, back to the fourth integral, we first do the same thing: change variables  $a = \sqrt{q - \frac{p^2}{4}}$  and  $t = x + \frac{p}{2}$ . This yields:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{Mx + N}{(x^2 + px + q)^m} dx &= \int \frac{Mt + (N - \frac{Mp}{2})}{(t^2 + a^2)^m} dt \\ &= M \int \frac{t}{(t^2 + a^2)^m} dt + \left(N - \frac{Mp}{2}\right) \int \frac{1}{(t^2 + a^2)^m} dt \end{aligned}$$

Again, to compute the first integral, we use the substitution  $u = t^2$ . Then it is:

$$M \int \frac{t}{(t^2 + a^2)^m} dt = \frac{-M}{2(m-1)(t^2 + a^2)^{m-1}} + C$$

For the second integral however, this time we need a different substitution. Let  $t = a \tan z$ . Then:  $t^2 + a^2 = a^2 \sec^2 z$ , and  $dt = a \sec^2 z dz$ . Then the integral turns into:

$$\int \frac{1}{(t^2 + a^2)^m} dt = a^{2m-1} \int \cos^{2m-2} z dz$$

Let  $I(z) = \int \cos^{2m-2} z dz$  and now, we can take advantage of the linearity rule and the formula for powers of cosine we just derived. The integral turns into:

$$\begin{aligned} I(z) &= \int \frac{1}{2^{2m-2}} \sum_{k=0}^{2m-2} \binom{2m-2}{k} \cos(2(m-k-1)z) dz \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{2m-2}} \sum_{k=0}^{2m-2} \binom{2m-2}{k} \frac{1}{2m-2-2k} \sin(2(m-k-1)z) + C \\ &= \frac{1}{2^{2m-2}} \left[ \binom{2m-2}{m-1} z + \sum_{k=0, k \neq m-1}^{2m-2} \binom{2m-2}{k} \frac{1}{2m-2-2k} \sin(2(m-k-1)z) \right] + C \end{aligned}$$

Then the integral, as a whole, evaluates to:

$$\int \frac{Mx + N}{(x^2 + px + q)^m} dx = \frac{-M}{2(m-1)(x^2 + px + q)^{m-1}} + \left(N - \frac{Mp}{2}\right) \left(\sqrt{q - \frac{p^2}{4}}\right)^{2m-1} \cdot I(z) + C$$

## 1.4 Integral of trigonometric functions

### 1. The general method

Consider the integral  $\int f(\sin x, \cos x)dx$ , where the integrand is a rational function in terms of  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$ . We can use the "universal trigonometric substitution"  $x = \tan \frac{t}{2}$ . Then:

$$\sin x = \frac{2t}{1+t^2}; \quad \cos x = \frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}; \quad \tan x = \frac{2t}{1-t^2}; \quad dt = \frac{2dt}{1+t^2}$$

The integrand turns into a rational function in terms of  $t$ .

### 2. Integrals of the form $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x dx$ , where $m, n$ are positive integers

- If  $m$  is odd, we let  $t = \cos x$
- If  $n$  is odd, we let  $t = \sin x$
- If both  $m$  and  $n$  are even, we use power-reduction formulae:

$$\sin^2 x = \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2}; \quad \cos^2 x = \frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2}$$

Then we'll have a similar integral with the form  $\int \sin^k 2x \cos^l 2x dx$

### 3. Special forms of $\int f(\sin x, \cos x)dx$

- Let  $t = \cos x$  if  $f(-\sin x, \cos x) = -f(\sin x, \cos x)$
- Let  $t = \sin x$  if  $f(\sin x, -\cos x) = -f(\sin x, \cos x)$
- Let  $t = \tan x$  if  $f(-\sin x, -\cos x) = f(\sin x, \cos x)$

## 1.5 Integral of irrational expressions

There are two main ways to solve these integrals: using trigonometric substitution, and using the Euler substitution. The trig-sub is very intuitive, but the Euler substitution is also very nice:

### Concept

Let  $t = x + \sqrt{x^2 + a}$  for the integral  $\int f(x, \sqrt{x^2 + a})dx$ . Then:

$$dt = 1 + \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + a}}dx = \frac{x + \sqrt{x^2 + a}}{\sqrt{x^2 + a}}dx \Rightarrow \frac{dt}{t} = \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 + a}}$$

## 2 Definite Integrals

### 2.1 Definition

Say  $f(x)$  is defined and bounded on  $[a, b]$ . Partition  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$  where  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$ . In each interval  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ , we choose a point  $\xi \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]$  and form the expression

$$S_n = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(\xi_i) \Delta x_i$$

where  $\Delta x_i = x_{i+1} - x_i$ . Here,  $S_n$  is the Riemann sum. Denote  $\lambda = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \Delta x_i$ . If there exists the limit  $I = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} S_n$  that doesn't depend on how we partition  $[a, b]$  and how we choose  $\xi_i$

then  $I$  is called the definite integral of the function  $f(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ , denoted  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ . Then we say  $f(x)$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

We then have defined the definite integral for all  $a < b$ . We can then define, if  $b < a$ ,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$  and when  $a = b$ ,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$ .

### 2.2 Riemann Integrability

The sufficient and necessary condition for a bounded function  $f(x)$  to be integrable on  $[a, b]$  is  $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} (S - s) = 0$ , where:

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} M_i \Delta x_i \quad s = \sum_{i=1}^{n+1} m_i \Delta x_i$$

$$M_i = \sup_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x) \quad m_i = \inf_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x)$$

From there, we have a few crucial theorems:

#### Concept

- If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then it is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .
- If  $f(x)$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$  and has discontinuities on  $[a, b]$  then it is integrable on  $[a, b]$
- If  $f(x)$  is bounded and monotonic on  $[a, b]$  then it is integrable on  $[a, b]$

### 2.3 Properties of the Definite Integral

#### 1. Property 1 (Linearity:)

$$\int_a^b [\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)] dx = \alpha \int_a^b f(x) dx + \beta \int_a^b g(x) dx$$



2. **Property 2:** Given three closed intervals  $[a, b]$ ,  $[b, c]$ ,  $[a, c]$ , if  $f(x)$  is integrable on the longest interval then it is also integrable on the other two intervals, and:

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

3. **Property 3:** Suppose  $a < b$ . Then:

- (a) If  $f(x) \geq 0 \forall x \in [a, b]$  then  $\int_a^b f(x)dx \geq 0$
- (b) If  $f(x) \geq g(x) \forall x \in [a, b]$  then  $\int_a^b f(x)dx \geq \int_a^b g(x)dx$
- (c) If  $f(x)$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  then  $|f(x)|$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and:

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x)dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)|dx$$

- (d) If  $m \leq f(x) \leq M \forall x \in [a, b]$  then:

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x)dx \leq M(b-a)$$

4. **Property 4 (First Mean Value Theorem):**

Suppose  $f(x)$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $m \leq f(x) \leq M \forall x \in [a, b]$ , then there exists  $\mu$  such that:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \mu(b-a), \quad m < \mu < M$$

If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  such that:

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

5. **Property 5 (Second Mean Value Theorem):** If we have these three conditions:

- (a)  $f(x)$  and  $f(x)g(x)$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$
- (b)  $m \leq f(x) \leq M \forall x \in [a, b]$
- (c)  $g(x)$  does not change signs on  $[a, b]$

Then there exists  $\mu$  such that:

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = \mu \int_a^b g(x)dx, \quad m < \mu < M$$

If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  then there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  such that:

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

## 2.4 Integral Functions

Suppose  $f(x)$  is an integrable function on  $[a, b]$ , then for all  $x \in [a, b]$ ,  $f$  is also integrable on  $[a, x]$ . We can then define the function  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$ . We then have some very important foundational theorems:

### Concept

- If  $f(x)$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  then  $F(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$
- If  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0 \in [a, b]$  then  $F(x)$  is differentiable at  $x_0$  and

$$F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$$

- If  $f(x)$  is continuous on the closed interval  $[a, b]$  and  $F(x)$  is an integral of  $f(x)$  then:

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

## 2.5 Ways to Calculate Definite Integrals

### 1. Integration by parts:

Suppose  $u(x), v(x)$  are continuously differentiable functions on  $[a, b]$ . Then:

$$\int_a^b u dv = uv \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b v du$$

### 2. Change of variables:

#### (a) Substitute $x = \varphi(t)$

Consider  $I = \int_a^b f(x)dx$  with  $f(x)$  being continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Substitute  $x = \varphi(t)$  with the following three conditions:

- $\varphi(t)$  has a continuous derivative on  $[a, b]$
- $\varphi(a) = \alpha$ ;  $\varphi(b) = \beta$
- When  $t$  changes from  $\alpha$  to  $\beta$  in  $[\alpha, \beta]$  then  $x = \varphi(t)$  continuously changes from  $a$  to  $b$

Then we have the following formula:

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f[\varphi(t)]\varphi'(t)dt$$

#### (b) Substitute $t = \varphi(x)$

Suppose the integral we are trying to solve has the form  $I = \int_a^b f[\varphi(x)]\varphi'(x)dx$ , where  $\varphi(x)$  is monotonic and is continuously differentiable on  $[a, b]$ . Then:

$$\int_a^b f[\varphi(x)]\varphi'(x)dx = \int_{\varphi(a)}^{\varphi(b)} f(t)dt$$

### 3. Recursion or Induction

We can look at an example. Calculate:

$$I_n = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^n x \cos nx dx$$

We use integration by parts: Let  $u = \cos^n x$  and  $dv = \cos nx dx$ . Then  $v = \frac{1}{n} \sin nx$ . Applying the integration by parts formula, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} I_n &= \frac{1}{n} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^n x \cos nx dx \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cos^n x \sin nx \Big|_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} + \frac{1}{n} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} n \cos^{n-1} x \sin x \sin nx dx \\ &= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^{n-1} x \sin x \sin nx dx \end{aligned}$$

Then we see:

$$\begin{aligned} 2I_n &= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^n x \cos nx dx + \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^{n-1} x \sin x \sin nx dx \\ &= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^{n-1} x (\cos x \cos nx + \sin x \sin nx) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^{n-1} x \cos(n-1)x dx \\ &= I_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

It's easy to compute  $I_0 = \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Then this is a geometric series, and  $I_n = \frac{\pi}{2^{n+1}}$ .

## 2.6 Important Results

### 1. The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

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

And more generally:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} \int_a^{g(x)} f(t)dt = f(g(x))g'(x)$$

## 2. Riemann Sum

Recall the formula from earlier:

$$S_n = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(\xi_i) \Delta x_i \quad \Delta x_i \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]$$

If we partition  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals with equal length using  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$ , where  $x_i = a + (b-a)\frac{i}{n}$  then:

$$S_n = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(\xi_i) \quad \xi_i \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]$$

If  $f(x)$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and choosing  $\xi_i = x_i$ , we have the left and right sums:

**Important**

**Choosing  $\xi_i = x_i$  yields:**

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b-a}{n} \left[ \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f\left(a + \frac{b-a}{n}i\right) \right] = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

**Choosing  $\xi_i = x_{i+1}$  yields:**

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b-a}{n} \left[ \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(a + \frac{b-a}{n}i\right) \right] = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

## 3. Integral Equalities

- $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(a+b-x) dx$
- $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} f(\sin x) dx = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} f(\cos x) dx$
- $\int_{-a}^a \frac{f(x)}{1+b^x} dx = \int_0^a f(x) dx$
- $\int_a^b x^m (a+b-x)^n dx = \int_a^b x^n (a+b-x)^m dx$

## 4. Integral Inequalities

**Important**

**Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:**

$$\left( \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx \right)^2 \leq \left( \int_a^b f^2(x) dx \right) \left( \int_a^b g^2(x) dx \right)$$