

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

$$1. \int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C, \quad n \neq -1, \quad n \text{ rational}$$
$$\int 1 dx = \int dx = x + C \quad (\text{Special case, } n = 0)$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

3.1.4 Rules for indefinite integration

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

$k = \text{constant}$ (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

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

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

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

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

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 sums

Let $f: [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function, not necessarily nonnegative. Partition $[a, b]$ as in the previous section.

If $f(c_k) > 0$, the product $f(c_k) \Delta x$ is the area of the rectangle between the x -axis and the curve over the

interval $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$. If $f(c_k) < 0$, it is the negative of that area. Thus it is the *signed area* in general.

The sum

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

is called a **Riemann sum** for f on $[a, b]$.

It is the *algebraic* (or total *signed*) *area* of the rectangles.

Note that the value of S depends on the choice of the partition P and the points c_k .

As the partition becomes finer, the rectangles will approximate the region between the x -axis and f with increasing accuracy.

3.2.3 Riemann Integral

Let us continue with the notation as in the previous section. Suppose we let the number of partition in P tends to infinity.

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

We call I the **Riemann integral** (or **definite integral**) of f over $[a, b]$ and we write

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

3.2.4 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.

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

3.2.5 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. $\int_a^b k f(x) \, dx = k \int_a^b f(x) \, dx, \quad (\text{any constant } k)$
 $\left(\text{In particular, } \int_a^b -f(x) \, dx = -\int_a^b f(x) \, dx \right)$
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
$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) \, dx$$
6. If $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx \geq 0$

7. If M and m are maximum and minimum values respectively of f on $[a, b]$,

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

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

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

3.2.6 Finding absolute (rather than algebraic) area

When f takes both positive and negative values on $[a, b]$, we can find its absolute area over $[a, b]$ as follows:

1. Find points where $f = 0$.
2. Use these points to partition $[a, b]$ into sub-intervals.

3. Integrate over each sub-interval.
4. Required area is the sum of the absolute values of the results found in 3.

3.2.7 Example

Find the area of the region bounded by the curve

$y = x^3 - 4x$ and the x -axis on the interval $[-3, 3]$.

Solution. $x^3 - 4x = x(x^2 - 4) = x(x - 2)(x + 2)$.

So y is zero when $x = -2, 0$ and 2 . i.e. the curve of the function intersects the x -axis at these points.

Moreover, the curve is below the x -axis on the sub-intervals $[-3, -2]$ and $[0, 2]$; and is above the x -axis on the sub-intervals $[-2, 0]$ and $[2, 3]$.

Integrating over each sub-interval:

$$\int_{-3}^{-2} x^3 - 4x \, dx = -25/4, \quad \int_{-2}^0 x^3 - 4x \, dx = 4,$$

$$\int_0^2 x^3 - 4x \, dx = -4, \quad \int_2^3 x^3 - 4x \, dx = 25/4.$$

So the absolute area is

$$\left| -\frac{25}{4} \right| + 4 + | -4 | + \frac{25}{4} = \frac{41}{2}.$$

3.3 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

3.3.1 Part 1

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

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) \, dt \tag{1}$$

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

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

3.3.2 Examples

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

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_1^{x^2} \cos t \, dt =$$

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

$$\int_0^\pi \cos x dx =$$

$$\int_0^2 t^2 dt =$$

$$\int_{-2}^2 (4 - u^2) du =$$

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

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

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

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

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

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. (To get workable u and v at first attempt it requires some familiarity of the table of differentiation/integration formulas, plus a keen observation. Needs **practice**.)

Let's look at $\int x \cos x \, dx$. To put it in the form $\int u \, dv$, we have 4 obvious choices:

1. $u = 1, \, dv = x \cos x \, dx$

2. $u = x, \, dv = \cos x \, dx$

3. $u = x \cos x, \, dv = dx$

4. $u = \cos x, \, dv = x \, dx$

The second choice works:

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

3.5.2 Summary

To apply the method of integration by parts, the goal is to go from $\int u \, dv$ to $\int v \, du$, which should be **easier to handle**.

The method does not always work. (Try choices 1, 3, 4 above.)

3.5.3 Exercise

Evaluate

(a) $\int \ln x \, dx$

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

(c) $\int_0^1 x e^x \, dx$

(d) $\int e^x \cos x \, dx$ (*Hint:* Consider also $\int e^x \sin x \, dx$.)

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 $y = -x$.

3.6.2 Example

Find area of the region in the first quadrant bounded by $y = \sqrt{x}$ and $y = x - 2$.

3.6.3 Remark.

Sometimes we may like to view the curve as $x = g(y)$ (instead of $y = f(x)$) when evaluating area.

The area will be $A = \int_c^d [g_2(y) - g_1(y)] dy$.

3.6.4 Example

(Example 3.6.2 revisited)

3.7 Volume of solids of revolution

In general, solids of revolutions are solids which are generated by revolving plane regions about x - or y -axis.

3.7.1 Revolution about x -axis

The volume of a solid generated by revolving *about the* x -axis the region between the graph of a continuous function $y = f(x)$ and the x -axis from $x = a$ to $x = b$ is

$$\text{Volume} = \int_a^b \pi [f(x)]^2 dx.$$

3.7.2 Example

The region between $y = \sqrt{x}$, $0 \leq x \leq 4$, and the x -axis is revolved about the x -axis. Find the volume of the solid generated.

3.7.3 Example

Find the volume of the solid generated by revolving the region bounded by $y = \sqrt{x}$ and the lines $y = 1$ and $x = 4$ about the line $y = 1$.

3.7.4 Revolution about y -axis

The volume of a solid generated by revolving about the y -axis the region between the graph of $x = g(y)$ and the y -axis from $y = c$ to $y = d$ is

$$\text{Volume} = \int_c^d \pi [g(y)]^2 dy.$$

3.7.5 Example

The region between the curve $x = \frac{2}{y}$, $1 \leq y \leq 4$ and the y -axis is revolved about the y -axis to generate a solid. Find its volume.