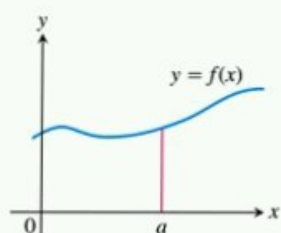


THEOREM 2 When f and g are integrable over the interval $[a, b]$, the definite integral satisfies the rules in Table 5.4.

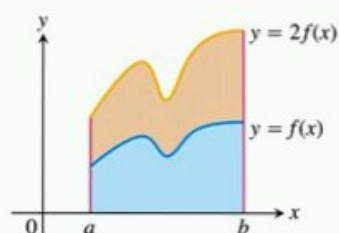
TABLE 5.4 Rules satisfied by definite integrals

1. <i>Order of Integration:</i>	$\int_b^a f(x) dx = -\int_a^b f(x) dx$	A Definition
2. <i>Zero Width Interval:</i>	$\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$	A Definition when $f(a)$ exists
3. <i>Constant Multiple:</i>	$\int_a^b kf(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$	Any constant k
4. <i>Sum and Difference:</i>	$\int_a^b (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$	
5. <i>Additivity:</i>	$\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx$	
6. <i>Max-Min Inequality:</i>	If f has maximum value $\max f$ and minimum value $\min f$ on $[a, b]$, then	
	$\min f \cdot (b - a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \max f \cdot (b - a).$	
7. <i>Domination:</i>	$f(x) \geq g(x) \text{ on } [a, b] \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$	
	$f(x) \geq 0 \text{ on } [a, b] \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$	(Special Case)



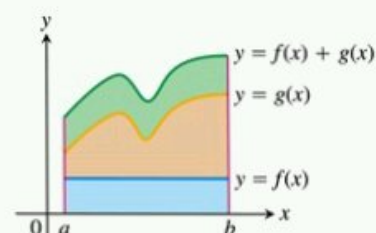
(a) Zero Width Interval:

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



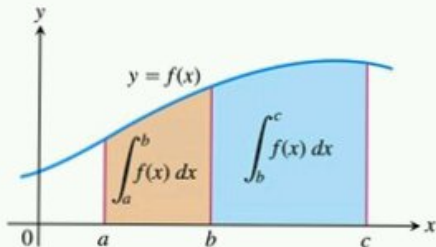
(b) Constant Multiple: ($k = 2$)

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



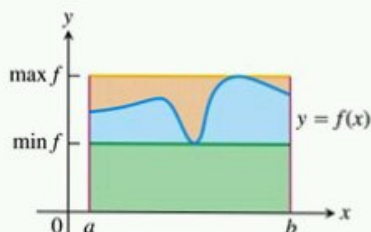
(c) Sum: (areas add)

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



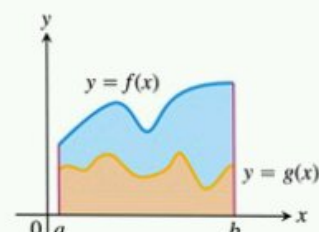
(d) Additivity for definite integrals:

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



(e) Max-Min Inequality:

$$\begin{aligned} \min f \cdot (b - a) &\leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \\ &\leq \max f \cdot (b - a) \end{aligned}$$



(f) Domination:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &\geq g(x) \text{ on } [a, b] \\ \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx &\geq \int_a^b g(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

FIGURE 5.11 Geometric interpretations of Rules 2–7 in Table 5.4.

THEOREM 8 Let f be continuous on the symmetric interval $[-a, a]$.

(a) If f is even, then $\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) \, dx$.

(b) If f is odd, then $\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = 0$.

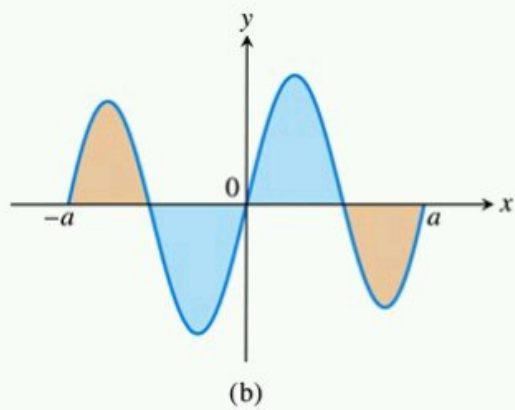
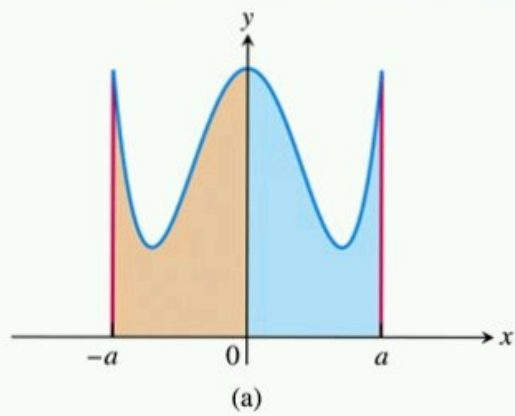


FIGURE 5.24 (a) f even, $\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) \, dx$
 (b) f odd, $\int_{-a}^a f(x) \, dx = 0$

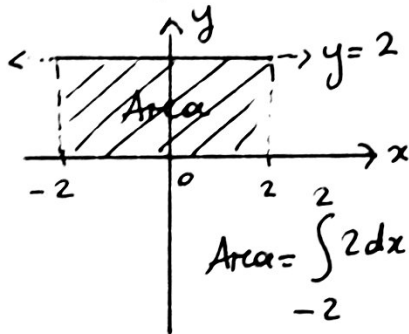
Example: Evaluate

a) $\int_{-2}^2 (2+5x) dx$

b) $\int_0^3 (2+x) dx$

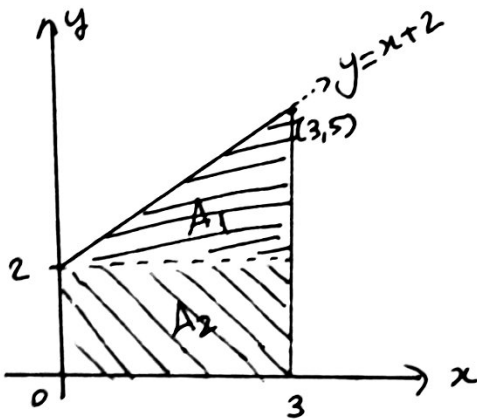
c) $\int_{-3}^3 \sqrt{9-x^2} dx$

a) $\int_{-2}^2 (2+5x) dx = \int_{-2}^2 2 dx + 5 \int_{-2}^2 x dx = 8 + 0 = 8 //$



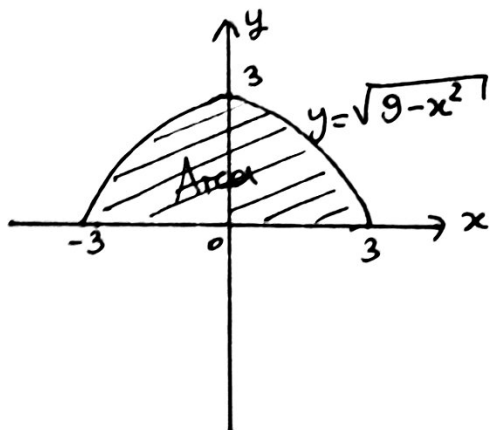
The integrand "x" is an odd fnc. and interval is symmetric about origin. Thus, the integral $\int_{-2}^2 x dx = 0$.

b)



$$\int_0^3 (2+x) dx = A_1 + A_2 = \left(\frac{3 \times 3}{2} \right) + (3 \times 2) = \frac{21}{2} //$$

c)



$$A = \int_{-3}^3 \sqrt{9-x^2} dx = \frac{\pi(3^2)}{2} = \frac{9\pi}{2}$$

A Mean-Value Theorem for Integrals

Let f be a function continuous on $[a, b]$. Then f assumes a minimum value " m " and a maximum value " M " on the interval, say at points $x=l$ and $x=u$, respectively:

$$m = f(l) \leq f(x) \leq f(u) = M \quad \text{for all } x \in [a, b].$$

For the 2-point partition P of $[a, b]$ having $x_0 = a$ and $x_1 = b$, we have

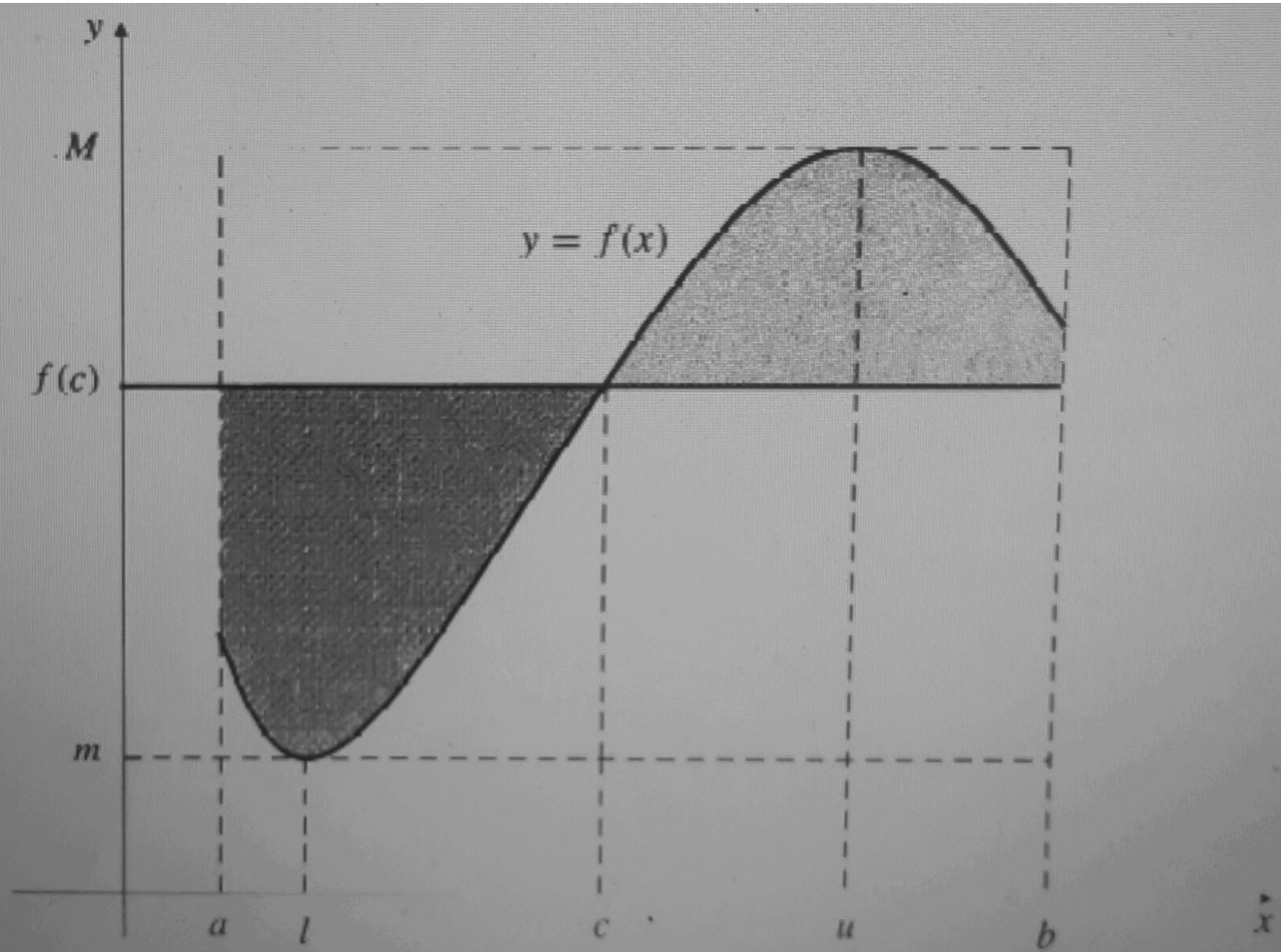
$$m(b-a) = L(f, P) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq U(f, P) = M(b-a)$$

Therefore,

$$f(l) = m \leq \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M = f(u)$$

By the Intermediate Value Theorem, $f(x)$ must take on every value between the two values $f(l)$ and $f(u)$ at some point between l and u . Hence, there is a number c between l and u such that,

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$



THEOREM 3—The Mean Value Theorem for Definite Integrals If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then at some point c in $[a, b]$,

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx.$$

DEFINITION If f is integrable on $[a, b]$, then its **average value on $[a, b]$** , also called its **mean**, is

$$\text{av}(f) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx.$$

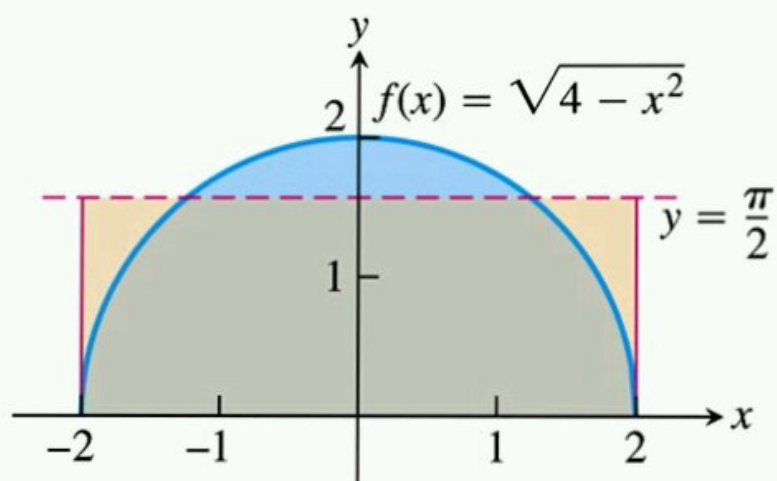


FIGURE 5.15 The average value of $f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ on $[-2, 2]$ is $\pi/2$ (Example 5).

Find the average value of $f(x) = \sqrt{4-x^2}$ on $[-2, 2]$.

$$\text{avg}(f) = \bar{f} = \frac{1}{2 - (-2)} \int_{-2}^2 \sqrt{4-x^2} dx$$

$$\text{avg}(f) = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{\pi(2^2)}{2}}_{\text{Area of semicircle with radius } r=2}.$$

$$\text{avg}(f) = \frac{\pi}{2} //$$

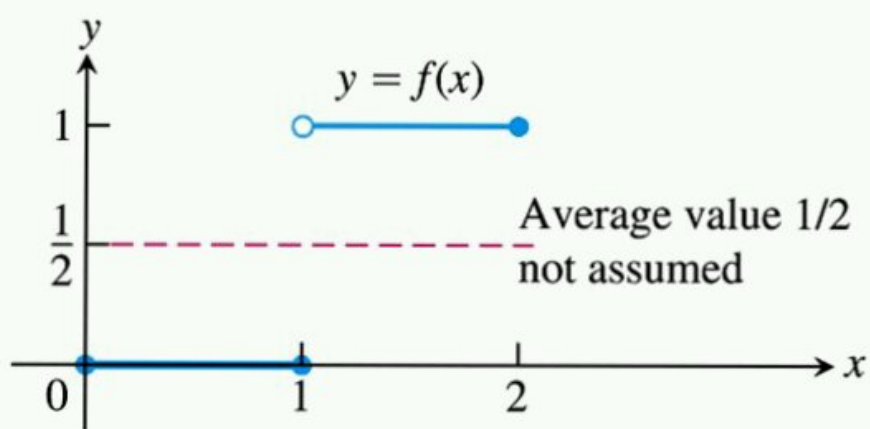


FIGURE 5.17 A discontinuous function need not assume its average value.

Summary:

To find the area between the graph of $y = f(x)$ and the x -axis over the interval $[a, b]$:

1. Subdivide $[a, b]$ at the zeros of f .
2. Integrate f over each subinterval.
3. Add the absolute values of the integrals.

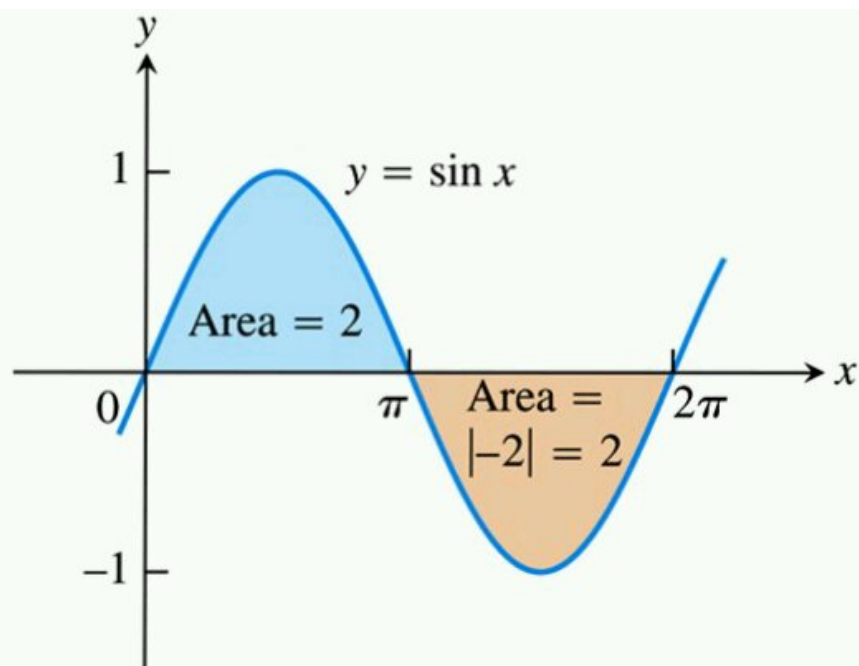


FIGURE 5.21 The total area between $y = \sin x$ and the x -axis for $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$ is the sum of the absolute values of two integrals (Example 7).

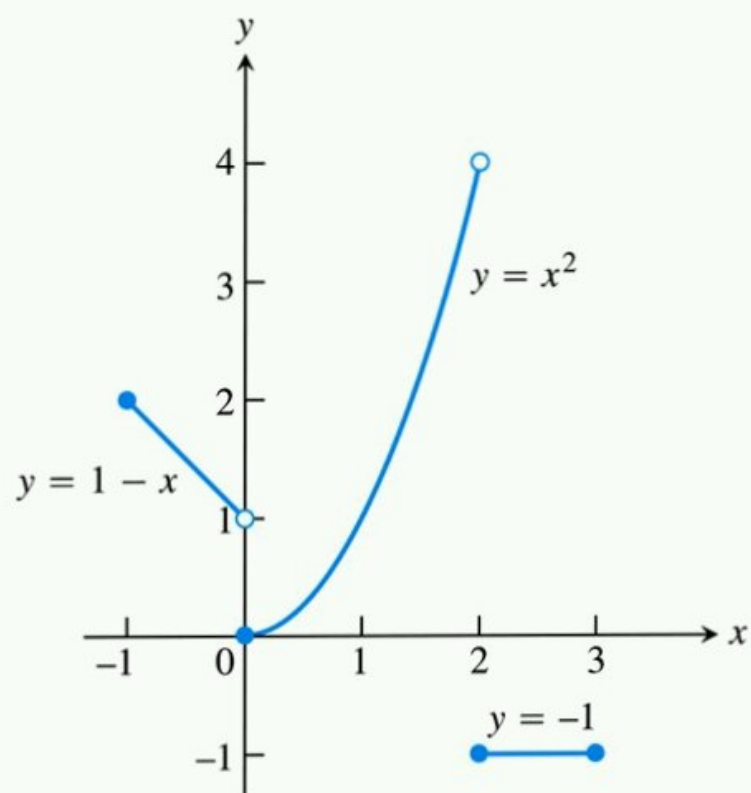


FIGURE 5.31 Piecewise continuous functions like this are integrated piece by piece.

Example: Find the area₃ between piece wise defined function $f(x)$ and x -axis; (Find $\int f(x)dx$) where

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1-x & ; -1 \leq x < 0 \\ x^2 & ; 0 \leq x < 2 \\ -1 & ; 2 \leq x \leq 3 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Area} = \left| \int_{-1}^0 (1-x) dx \right| + \left| \int_0^2 x^2 dx \right| + \left| \int_2^3 (-1) dx \right|$$

We will compute it after we give integration method.

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

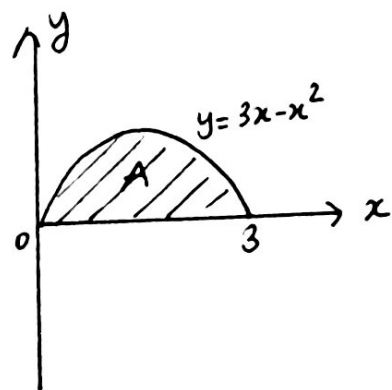
THEOREM 4—The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 1 If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) and its derivative is $f(x)$:

$$F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x). \quad (2)$$

THEOREM 4 (Continued)—The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2 If f is continuous at every point in $[a, b]$ and F is any antiderivative of f on $[a, b]$, then

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

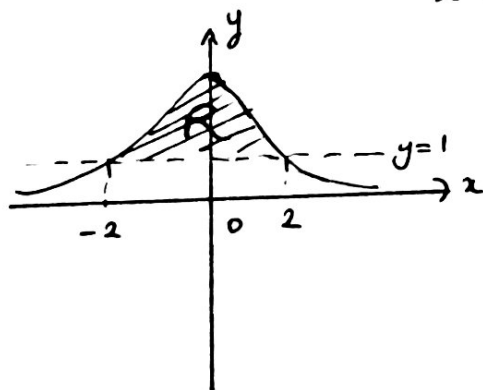
Example: Find the area A of the plane region lying above the x -axis and under the curve $y = 3x - x^2$.



$$3x - x^2 = x(3 - x) = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{matrix} x = 0 \\ x = 3 \end{matrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_0^3 (3x - x^2) dx \\ &= \left(\frac{3}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{3}x^3 \right) \Big|_0^3 \\ &= \left(\frac{27}{2} - \frac{27}{3} \right) - (0 - 0) \\ &= \frac{27}{6} = \frac{9}{2} \text{ square units.} \end{aligned}$$

Example: Find the area of the region R lying above the line $y = 1$ and below the curve $y = \frac{5}{x^2 + 1}$.



Intersections of $y = 1$ and $y = \frac{5}{x^2 + 1}$;

$$1 = \frac{5}{x^2 + 1} \Rightarrow \underline{\underline{x = \pm 2}}$$

$$A = \int_{-2}^2 \frac{5}{x^2 + 1} dx = 4 = 2 \int_0^2 \frac{5}{x^2 + 1} dx - 4$$

Area of the rectangle under region R .

$$= 10 \left(\tan^{-1} x \right) \Big|_0^2 - 4 \text{ square units.}$$

Substitution Method

THEOREM 6—The Substitution Rule If $u = g(x)$ is a differentiable function whose range is an interval I , and f is continuous on I , then

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du.$$

the **method of substitution**, the integral version of the Chain Rule. If we rewrite the Chain Rule, $\frac{d}{dx} f(g(x)) = f'(g(x)) g'(x)$, in integral form, we obtain

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

Observe that the following formalism would produce this latter formula even if we did not already know it was true:

Let $u = g(x)$. Then $du/dx = g'(x)$, or in differential form, $du = g'(x) dx$. Thus,

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

TABLE 8.1 Basic integration formulas

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. $\int k \, dx = kx + C$ (any number k) | 12. $\int \tan x \, dx = \ln \sec x + C$ |
| 2. $\int x^n \, dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$ ($n \neq -1$) | 13. $\int \cot x \, dx = \ln \sin x + C$ |
| 3. $\int \frac{dx}{x} = \ln x + C$ | 14. $\int \sec x \, dx = \ln \sec x + \tan x + C$ |
| 4. $\int e^x \, dx = e^x + C$ | 15. $\int \csc x \, dx = -\ln \csc x + \cot x + C$ |
| 5. $\int a^x \, dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln a} + C$ ($a > 0, a \neq 1$) | 16. $\int \sinh x \, dx = \cosh x + C$ |
| 6. $\int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + C$ | 17. $\int \cosh x \, dx = \sinh x + C$ |
| 7. $\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C$ | 18. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) + C$ |
| 8. $\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + C$ | 19. $\int \frac{dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) + C$ |
| 9. $\int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + C$ | 20. $\int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1} \left \frac{x}{a} \right + C$ |
| 10. $\int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + C$ | 21. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} = \sinh^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) + C$ ($a > 0$) |
| 11. $\int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x + C$ | 22. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = \cosh^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) + C$ ($x > a > 0$) |

EXAMPLE 3**(Examples of substitution)** Find the indefinite integrals:

$$(a) \int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} dx, \quad (b) \int \frac{\sin(3 \ln x)}{x} dx, \text{ and } (c) \int e^x \sqrt{1 + e^x} dx.$$

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} (a) \int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} dx & \quad \text{Let } u = x^2 + 1. \\ & \quad \text{Then } du = 2x \, dx \quad \text{and} \\ & \quad x \, dx = \frac{1}{2} du \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{du}{u} = \frac{1}{2} \ln |u| + C = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + 1) + C = \ln \sqrt{x^2 + 1} + C. \end{aligned}$$

(Both versions of the final answer are equally acceptable.)

$$\begin{aligned} (b) \int \frac{\sin(3 \ln x)}{x} dx & \quad \text{Let } u = 3 \ln x. \\ & \quad \text{Then } du = \frac{3}{x} dx \\ & = \frac{1}{3} \int \sin u \, du = -\frac{1}{3} \cos u + C = -\frac{1}{3} \cos(3 \ln x) + C. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (c) \int e^x \sqrt{1 + e^x} dx & \quad \text{Let } v = 1 + e^x. \\ & \quad \text{Then } dv = e^x dx \\ & = \int v^{1/2} dv = \frac{2}{3} v^{3/2} + C = \frac{2}{3} (1 + e^x)^{3/2} + C. \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE 4 Evaluate (a) $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 4x + 5} dx$ and (b) $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{e^{2x} - 1}}$.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad \int \frac{dx}{x^2 + 4x + 5} &= \int \frac{dx}{(x + 2)^2 + 1} && \text{Let } t = x + 2. \\ &&& \text{Then } dt = dx. \\ &= \int \frac{dt}{t^2 + 1} \\ &= \tan^{-1} t + C = \tan^{-1}(x + 2) + C. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(b)} \quad \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{e^{2x} - 1}} &= \int \frac{dx}{e^x \sqrt{1 - e^{-2x}}} \\
 &= \int \frac{e^{-x} dx}{\sqrt{1 - (e^{-x})^2}} && \text{Let } u = e^{-x}. \\
 &&& \text{Then } du = -e^{-x} dx. \\
 &= - \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}} \\
 &= -\sin^{-1} u + C = -\sin^{-1} (e^{-x}) + C.
 \end{aligned}$$

THEOREM 7—Substitution in Definite Integrals If g' is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$ and f is continuous on the range of $g(x) = u$, then

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

Products of Powers of Sines and Cosines

We begin with integrals of the form:

$$\int \sin^m x \cos^n x \, dx,$$

where m and n are nonnegative integers (positive or zero). We can divide the appropriate substitution into three cases according to m and n being odd or even.

Case 1 If m is odd, we write m as $2k + 1$ and use the identity $\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$ to obtain

$$\sin^m x = \sin^{2k+1} x = (\sin^2 x)^k \sin x = (1 - \cos^2 x)^k \sin x. \quad (1)$$

Then we combine the single $\sin x$ with dx in the integral and set $\sin x \, dx$ equal to $-d(\cos x)$.

Case 2 If m is even and n is odd in $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x \, dx$, we write n as $2k + 1$ and use the identity $\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$ to obtain

$$\cos^n x = \cos^{2k+1} x = (\cos^2 x)^k \cos x = (1 - \sin^2 x)^k \cos x.$$

We then combine the single $\cos x$ with dx and set $\cos x \, dx$ equal to $d(\sin x)$.

Case 3 If both m and n are even in $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x \, dx$, we substitute

$$\sin^2 x = \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2}, \quad \cos^2 x = \frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2} \quad (2)$$

to reduce the integrand to one in lower powers of $\cos 2x$.