## MH1810 Math 1 Part 4 Integration

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### **Antiderivatives**

We now consider the 'inverse problem' to differentiation:

Given a function f, is there a function F such that F'(x) = f(x)?

If such a function F exists, it is called an antiderivative of f.

The process of finding F(x) is called integration.

### **Antiderivatives**

#### **Definition**

A function F is said to be an antiderivative of f on an interval (a, b) if F'(x) = f(x) for all x in (a, b).

### Example

- (a)  $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ :  $\sin x$  is an antiderivative of  $\cos x$ .
- (b)  $\frac{d}{dx}\left(x^3 4\sqrt{x} + 179\right) = 3x^2 \frac{2}{\sqrt{x}}$  on  $(0, \infty)$ :  $\left(x^3 4\sqrt{x} + 179\right)$  is an antiderivative of  $3x^2 \frac{2}{\sqrt{x}}$ .

### General Antiderivatives

#### Theorem

If F is an antiderivative of f on an interval I, then the most general antiderivative of f on I is F(x) + C where C is any arbitrary constant.

### Example

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$$
 on  $\mathbb{R}$ :

 $\sin x$  is an antiderivative of  $\cos x$ .

The most general antiderivative of  $\cos x$  is  $\sin x + C$ .

## Indefinite Integrals

#### **Definition**

The indefinite integral of f, denoted by  $\int f(x) dx$  is the most general derivative of f.

The function f is called the integrand.

### Example

$$\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C$$

$$\int 3x^2 - \frac{2}{\sqrt{x}} dx = x^3 - 4\sqrt{x} + 179 + C$$

## Integration

 By integration, we mean the process of finding antiderivative or the indefinite integral

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

By definition, we have

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left(\int f(x)dx\right)=f(x).$$

## Example

## Example

Prove that  $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C$ .

#### Solution

It suffices for us to prove

$$\frac{d}{dx}\ln|x| = \frac{1}{x}.$$

For 
$$x > 0$$
, we have  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln |x| = \frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$ .

For 
$$x>0$$
, we have  $\dfrac{d}{dx}\ln|x|=\dfrac{d}{dx}\ln x=\dfrac{1}{x}.$  For  $x<0$ , we have  $\dfrac{d}{dx}\ln|x|=\dfrac{d}{dx}\ln(-x)=\dfrac{-1}{-x}=\dfrac{1}{x}.$ 

dx dx -x xTherefore, we have proven that for  $x \neq 0$ ,  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln |x| = \frac{1}{x}$ ; which is equivalent to  $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln |x| + C$ .

## Rules for Integration

## Theorem (Rules for integration)

## Rules for Integration: Proof

We shall prove (1) by differentiating the expression on the right.

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left( \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx \right)$$

$$= \frac{d}{dx} \left( \int f(x) dx \right) + \frac{d}{dx} \left( \int g(x) dx \right)$$

$$= f(x) + g(x)$$

Thus, we have  $\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x)dx + \int g(x)dx$ .

# Examples (Independent Reading)

(a) 
$$\int \left(2x^3 + 3x^{\frac{3}{2}}\right) dx = \frac{1}{2}x^4 + \frac{6}{5}x^{\frac{5}{2}} + C$$

(b) 
$$\int (4u^{-5} - 2\cos u + e^u) du = -u^{-4} - 2\sin u + e^u + C$$

(c) 
$$\int \frac{(1+x^2)^2}{x^4} dx = \int x^{-4} + 2x^{-2} + 1 dx$$
$$= \frac{-1}{3}x^{-3} - 2x^{-1} + x + C$$

(d) 
$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{t}} + \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} dt = 2\sqrt{t} + \pi \sin^{-1}(t) + C$$

# Examples (Independent Reading)

#### Example

If f'(x) = 2x - 3 and f(2) = 3, find f(x).

#### Solution

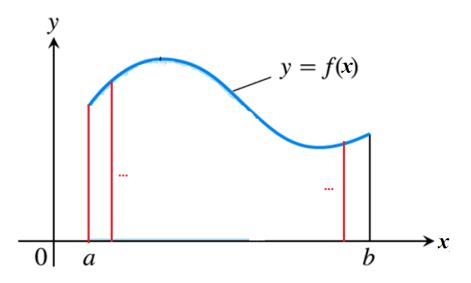
If 
$$f'(x) = 2x - 3$$
, then  $f(x) = \int 2x - 3 dx = x^2 - 3x + C$  for some constant  $C$ .

Since f(2) = 3, we obtain C = 5.

Thus,  $f(x) = x^2 - 3x + 5$ .

## Other Special Rules

There are integration rules correspond to the product rule and the chain rule for differentiation. These will be discussed later. They lead to special integration methods, namely **integration by parts** and **substitution rule** respectively.



To find the area under a curve y = f(x), where f(x) > 0 from x = a to x = b, we divide the interval [a, b] into n equal subintervals

$$[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \ldots, [x_{k-1}, x_k], \ldots [x_{n-1}, x_n].$$

The width of each subinterval is  $\Delta x = x_k - x_{k-1} = \frac{b-a}{n}$ . We have  $x_0 = a$  and  $x_n = b$ . Thus, we have

$$x_k = x_0 + k(\frac{b-a}{n})$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, 3, ..., n$ .

In each kth subinterval  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , we choose a point  $x_k^*$  and evaluate the value  $f(x_k^*)$ . The area of the k-th rectangle, over  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , with height  $f(x_k^*)$ , is

$$f(x_k^*)\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}f(x_k^*).$$

Now, we approximate the area under the curve y = f(x) by the total areas of all these rectangles.

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{b-a}{n} f(x_k^*).$$

If the function is well behaved, as we increase the number n of subintervals, the length of the subinterval  $\Delta x$  tends to zero, the approximations, which are independent of how the sample points  $x_k^*$  are chosen, should approach the area A under the curve. We write this shortly as

$$A = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{b-a}{n} f(x_k^*).$$

### Riemann Sum

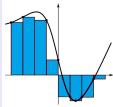
### **Definition**

Let f be a function on [a, b] and

$$x_k = a + k \left(\frac{b-a}{n}\right)$$
 for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots n$ .

With  $x_k^* \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , the finite sum

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{b-a}{n} f(x_k^*),$$



is called a Riemann sum of f on [a, b].

## Example

### Example

Riemann sum of  $f(x) = x^2$  on [1, 3].

For  $k = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, n$ , note that

$$x_k = 1 + k\left(\frac{3-1}{n}\right) = 1 + \frac{2k}{n}.$$

Suppose we take  $x_k^* = x_k$ , the right end point of the kth subinterval. We have the following Riemann sum f(x) on [1,3]:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{2}{n} f(x_k^*) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \left(\frac{2}{n}\right) \left(1 + \frac{2k}{n}\right)^2.$$

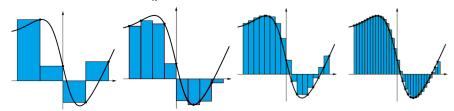
## Definite Integrals

Let f be a function on [a, b].

The definite integral of f from a to b, denoted by  $\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$ , is defined as follows

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{b-a}{n} f(x_{k}^{*}),$$

where the limit of the Riemann sums as  $n \to \infty$  must be independent of how the sample points  $x_k^*$  are chosen.



## Definite Integrals

• If a > b, we define

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

• If a = b, we define

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

## Definite Integrals

In general, the definite integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{b-a}{n} f(x_k^*),$$

may not exist.

If  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  exists, we say that f is (Riemann) integrable on [a, b].

## Some Riemann Integrable Functions

#### Theorem

If f is

- (a) continuous,
- (b) monotonic, or
- (c) piecewise continuous with finite number of jump discontinuities

on [a, b], then the definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  exists.

# Example (Optional)

### Example

Find  $\int_{1}^{3} x^{2} dx$ .

#### Solution

We partition the interval [1,3] into n subintervals of equal width,  $\Delta x = \frac{2}{n}$ , so that  $x_k = 1 + k\Delta x = 1 + \frac{2k}{n}$ . The subintervals are

$$[1, 1+\frac{2}{n}], [1+\frac{2}{n}, 1+2(\frac{2}{n})], \dots, [1+(k-1)(\frac{2}{n}), 1+(k)(\frac{2}{n})], \dots,$$

..., 
$$[1+(n-1)(\frac{2}{n}), 3]$$

Take  $x_k^* = x_k = 1 + \frac{2k}{n}$ .



### Solution

#### Solution

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Riemann} \quad \textit{Sum} &= \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(x_k^*) \ \Delta x = \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(1 + \frac{2k}{n}) \Delta x \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{n} (1 + \frac{2k}{n})^2 \cdot \frac{2}{n} = \frac{2}{n} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n} (1 + \frac{4k}{n} + \frac{4k^2}{n^2}) \right) \\ &= \frac{2}{n} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n} 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{4k}{n} + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{4k^2}{n^2} \right) = \frac{2}{n} \left( n + \frac{4}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k + \frac{4}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2 \right) \end{aligned}$$

## Solution

Riemann Sum = 
$$\frac{2}{n} \left( n + \frac{4}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k + \frac{4}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2 \right)$$
  
=  $\frac{2}{n} \left( n + \frac{4}{n} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \frac{4}{n^2} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \right)$   
=  $2 \left( 1 + 2 + \frac{2}{n} + \frac{2}{3} (2 + \frac{3}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2}) \right)$ 

We have used:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}, \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$



### Solution

Therefore, the definite integral

$$\int_{1}^{3} x^{2} dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} 2\left(1 + 2 + \frac{2}{n} + \frac{2}{3}\left(2 + \frac{3}{n} + \frac{1}{n^{2}}\right)\right) = \frac{26}{3}.$$

#### Remarks:

Since  $x^2 \ge 0$ , the value  $\int_1^3 x^2 \ dx = \frac{26}{3}$  is the area of the region under of the graph of  $y = x^2$ , and above the x-axis, for  $1 \le x \le 3$ .

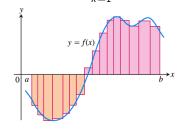
# Meaning of Definite Integral

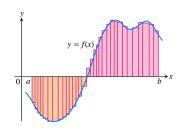
The definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x) \ dx$  is the net area between the graph of y = f(x) and the x-axis.

Parts of the graph lying above (resp. under) the x-axis gives a positive (resp. negative) contribution to the area.

This is because terms where  $f(x_k^*) < 0$  give a negative contribution to the

Riemann sum  $\sum_{k=1}^{n} f(x_k^*) \Delta x$ .





# Definite Integral

Suppose  $f(x) \ge 0$  on [a,b]. The definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x) \ dx$  is the area of the region bounded below by the graph y=f(x) and above the x-axis, on [a,b].

Lastly, the definite integral  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  is a number which is independent of the variable x.

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(t) dt = \int_a^b f(s) ds = \dots$$

The variables x, t, s are dummy variables.

# Properties of Definite Integrals

#### Theorem

Suppose all the definite integrals below exist. Then,

## Example

### Example

Evaluate  $\int_1^3 (4+x^2) dx$ .

### Solution

We have evaluated 
$$\int_1^3 x^2 dx = \frac{26}{3}$$
.

By property 1, 
$$\int_{1}^{3} 4 dx = 4(3-1) = 8$$
.

By property 2, we have

$$\int_{1}^{3} (4 + x^{2}) dx = \int_{1}^{3} 4 dx + \int_{1}^{3} x^{2} dx$$
$$= 8 + \frac{26}{3} = \frac{50}{3}.$$

# Order Preserving Property

#### Theorem

Suppose the following integrals exist and a < b.

- $f(x) \ge 0$  on  $[a, b] \implies \int_a^b f(x) dx \ge 0$ .

$$\implies m(b-a) \le \int_a^b f(x) dx \le M(b-a).$$

# Proofs (Optional)

- Proof of (1) follows from the definition.
- ② Proof of (2) follows from (1) by applying (1) to h(x) = f(x) g(x) on [a, b].
- Proof of (3) follows from (2):  $m \le f(x) \le M$  on [a, b]

$$\implies \underbrace{\int_a^b m \, dx}_{=m(b-a)} \leq \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \leq \underbrace{\int_a^b M \, dx}_{=M(b-a)}.$$

## Rough Estimates

### Example

Estimate the value of the integral  $\int_{1}^{2} \frac{1}{x} dx$  without evaluating it.

#### Solution

On the interval [1,2], the function f(x)=1/x is decreasing so that its largest value occurs at the left endpoint and its smallest value at the right endpoint. So, we have

$$\frac{1}{2} \le f(x) \le 1$$
, for  $x \in [1, 2]$ .

## Rough Estimates

$$\frac{1}{2} \le f(x) \le 1$$
, for  $x \in [1, 2]$ ..

By the Order-preserving property, we have

$$\frac{1}{2}(2-1) \le \int_1^2 f(x) \, dx \le 1 \cdot (2-1),$$

which means

$$\frac{1}{2} \le \int_1^2 \frac{1}{x} \, dx \le 1.$$

## **Even Functions**

## Proposition

Suppose f is an even continuous function. Then  $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x) \ dx = 2 \int_{0}^{a} f(x) \ dx.$ 

## Examples:

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

(b) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos x \ dx = 2 \int_{0}^{\pi} \cos x \ dx$$

### **Odd Functions**

### Proposition

Suppose f is an odd continuous function. Then  $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x) dx = 0$ .

#### Examples:

(a) 
$$\int_{-179}^{179} x^3 dx = 0$$

(b) 
$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin x \ dx = 0$$