

Antiderivatives:

A function F is an antiderivative of f on an interval I if $F'(x) = f(x)$ for all x in I .

- The process of recovering a function $F(x)$ from its derivative $f(x)$ is called antidifferentiation.

Ex: $f(x) = 2x$, $g(x) = \cos x$, $h(x) = \sec^2 x + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$.

Antiderivatives are:

$$F(x) = x^2, \quad G(x) = \sin x, \quad H(x) = \tan x + \sqrt{x}.$$

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 an arbitrary constant.

Problem: Find an antiderivative of $f(x) = 3x^2$ that satisfies $F(1) = -1$.

Solution: General antiderivative of $f(x)$ is.

$$F(x) = x^3 + C, \quad C = \text{const.}$$

Now since $F(1) = -1$,

$$-1 = 1 + C \Rightarrow C = -2.$$

Hence $F(x) = x^3 - 2$.

Antiderivative formulas: ($k = \text{non zero constants}$)

Function	General Antiderivative
x^n	$\frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + C, n \neq -1$
$\sin kx$	$-\frac{1}{k} \cos kx + C$
$\cos kx$	$\frac{1}{k} \sin kx + C$
$\sec^2 kx$	$\frac{1}{k} \tan kx + C$
$\operatorname{cosec}^2 kx$	$-\frac{1}{k} \cot kx + C$
$\sec kx \tan kx$	$\frac{1}{k} \sec kx + C$
$\operatorname{cosec} kx \cot kx$	$-\frac{1}{k} \operatorname{cosec} kx + C$

Indefinite Integrals

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Definition: The collection of all antiderivatives of f is called the indefinite integral of f with respect to x , and is denoted by $\int f(x) dx$.

The symbol \int is an integral sign. The function f is the integrand of the integrand and x is the variable of integration.

Example: Evaluate $\int (x^2 - 2x + 5) dx$.

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

An antiderivative of $f(x)$ is $\left(\frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 + 5x\right)$.

$$\text{Hence } \int (x^2 - 2x + 5) dx = \underbrace{\frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 + 5x + C}_{\text{Antiderivative}}.$$

Problem: Find the general antiderivative or indefinite integral.

(i) $\int \left(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{2}{x^3} + 2x\right) dx$

(ii) $\int \left(\frac{4 + \sqrt{t}}{t^3}\right) dt$

(iii) $\int \frac{\operatorname{cosec} \theta \cot \theta}{2} d\theta$

(iv) $\int \frac{2}{5} \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta$ (v) $\int (4 \sec x \tan x - 2 \sec^2 x) dx$

Integration by parts

The formula for integration by parts is derived from the product rule for differentiation. If u and v are functions of x , then $(uv)' = u'v + uv'$. Integrating both sides gives $uv = \int u'v dx + \int uv' dx$. Rearranging terms yields the formula: $\int u'v dx = uv - \int uv' dx$.

Example 1:

Find $\int x e^x dx$.
Let $u = x$ and $v = e^x$. Then $u' = 1$ and $v' = e^x$.
Using the formula: $\int x e^x dx = x e^x - \int e^x dx = x e^x - e^x + C$.

Example 2: Find $\int x \ln x dx$.

Let $u = \ln x$ and $v = x$. Then $u' = \frac{1}{x}$ and $v' = 1$.
Using the formula: $\int x \ln x dx = \frac{1}{2} x^2 \ln x - \int \frac{1}{2} x dx = \frac{1}{2} x^2 \ln x - \frac{1}{4} x^2 + C$.

Example 3: Find $\int x^2 e^x dx$.
Let $u = x^2$ and $v = e^x$. Then $u' = 2x$ and $v' = e^x$.
Using the formula: $\int x^2 e^x dx = x^2 e^x - \int 2x e^x dx = x^2 e^x - 2(x e^x - e^x) + C = x^2 e^x - 2x e^x + 2e^x + C$.

Example 4: Find the integral $\int \ln x dx$.

Let $u = \ln x$ and $v = x$. Then $u' = \frac{1}{x}$ and $v' = 1$.
Using the formula: $\int \ln x dx = x \ln x - \int 1 dx = x \ln x - x + C$.

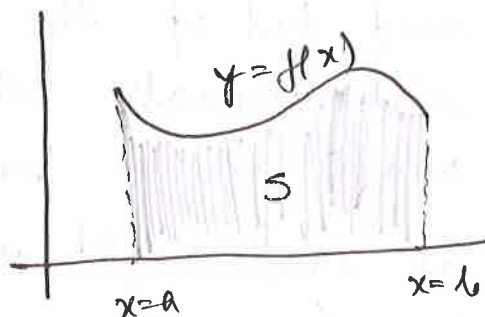
Example 5: Find $\int x \cos x dx$.
Let $u = x$ and $v = \cos x$. Then $u' = 1$ and $v' = -\sin x$.
Using the formula: $\int x \cos x dx = x \sin x - \int -\sin x dx = x \sin x + \cos x + C$.

Integrals

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The area problem: Find the area of the region S that lies under the curve $y=f(x)$ from $x=a$ to $x=b$.

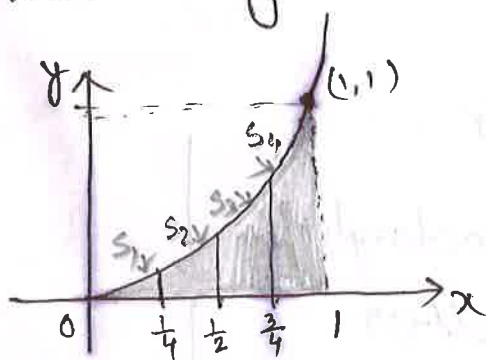
ie. to find the area S bounded by the graph of a cont. f^n $f(x)$, (where $f(x) \geq 0$) the vertical lines $x=a$ & $x=b$ & the x -axis.



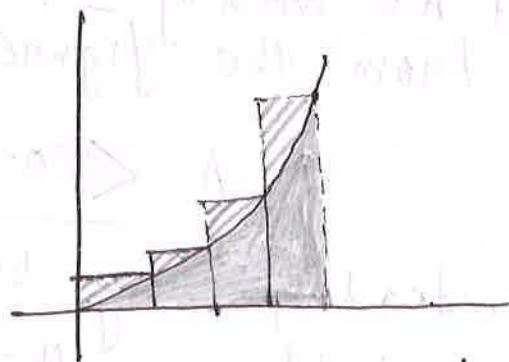
One way to estimate the area;

Example: Use rectangles to estimate the area under the parabola $y=x^2$ from 0 to 1.

Solution:



suppose we divide the area into four strips S_1, S_2, S_3 & S_4 by drawing the vertical lines $x=\frac{1}{4}, x=\frac{1}{2}, x=\frac{3}{4}$.



We can approximate each strip by a rectangle that has the same base as the strip and whose height is same as the right edge of the strip.

Basically, we have divided the interval $[0, 1]$ into four subintervals as

$$\left[0, \frac{1}{4}\right], \left[\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}\right], \left[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{4}\right] \& \left[\frac{3}{4}, 1\right].$$

and put up the rectangles over these subintervals where each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{4}$ & heights are the functional values at the right end pt of the subintervals

$$\text{i.e. } \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2, \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2, \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2, \& (1)^2. \quad \& \text{(Right end pts)}$$

Since we have taken 4 subintervals, we denote the estimated area by R_4 &

$$R_4 = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot (1)^2.$$

$$= \frac{15}{32} = 0.46875.$$

Let $A =$ area of S .

From the figure,

$$A < 0.46875.$$

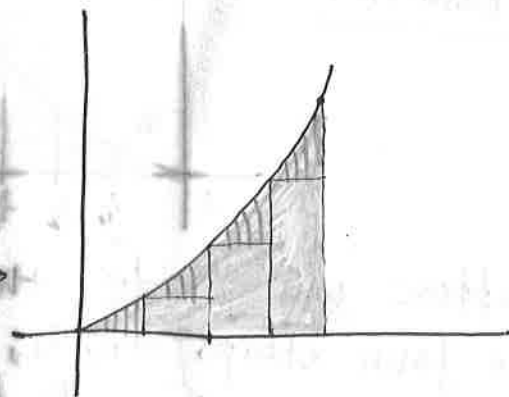
Instead of using bigger rectangles we could use the smaller rectangles as

whose heights are the functional values of f at left endpts of the subintervals.

$$L_4 = \frac{1}{4} \cdot 0^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 = 0.21875.$$

From the figure

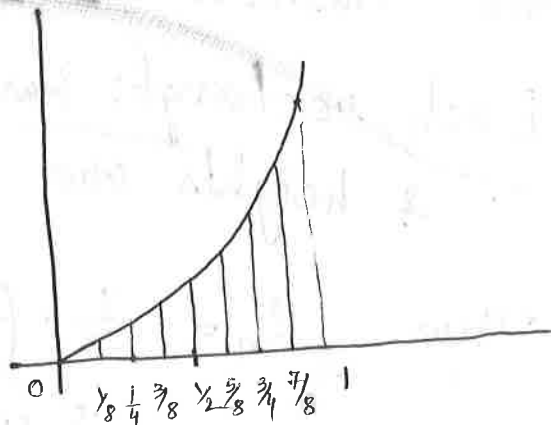
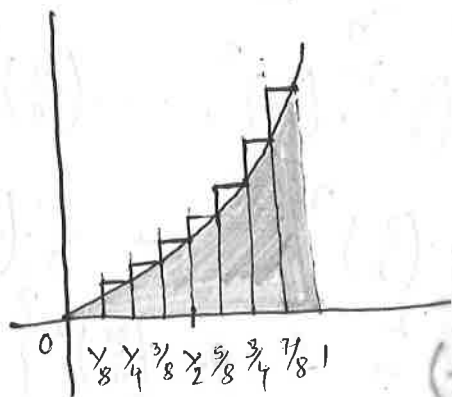
$$A > 0.21875.$$



Hence

$$0.21875 < A < 0.46875.$$

- We can repeat this procedure with a larger number of strips.



By a similar way,

$$0.2734375 < A < 0.3984375.$$

which is a better lower & upper estimates for A .

- In this way, we can obtain better estimates by increasing the number of strips.

$$A \approx 0.3328335$$

● Yet another estimate can be obtained by using rectangles whose heights are values of f at the midpts of the rectangles.



In this case, it is not clear whether it overestimates or underestimates the true area.

n	L_n	R_n
10	0.2850000	0.3850000
20	0.3087500	0.3587500
30	0.3168519	0.3501852
50	0.3234000	0.3434000
100	0.3283500	0.3383500
1000	0.3328335	0.3338335

For the above example, show that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

Solution: For n rectangles, i.e. we have divided the interval $[0, 1]$ into n subintervals.

Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.

& heights are $\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2, \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2, \left(\frac{3}{n}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } R_n &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2 \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{n^2} \cdot \{ 1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2 \} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^3} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} = \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{6n^2}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{6n^2} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{6} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(2 + \frac{1}{n}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{6} \cdot 1 \cdot 2 = \frac{1}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, it can be shown that,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

Riemann Sums:

- Let us begin with an arbitrary bounded fcn. f on $[a, b]$.
 Δ the fcn. may have +ve as well as -ve values.
- We divide the interval $[a, b]$ into subintervals,
 not necessarily of equal widths.
 Let us take $(n-1)$ pts $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$ between a & b ,
 that are s.t.

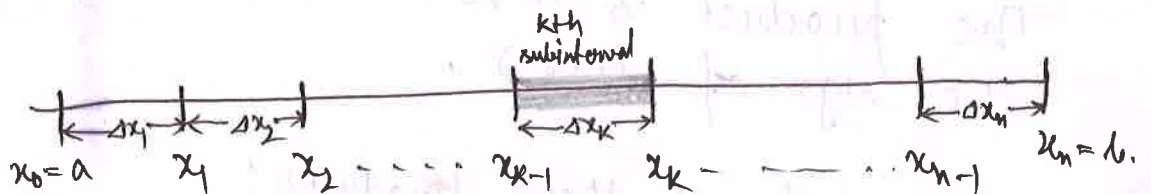
$$a < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n-1} < b.$$

$$\text{Let } a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b.$$

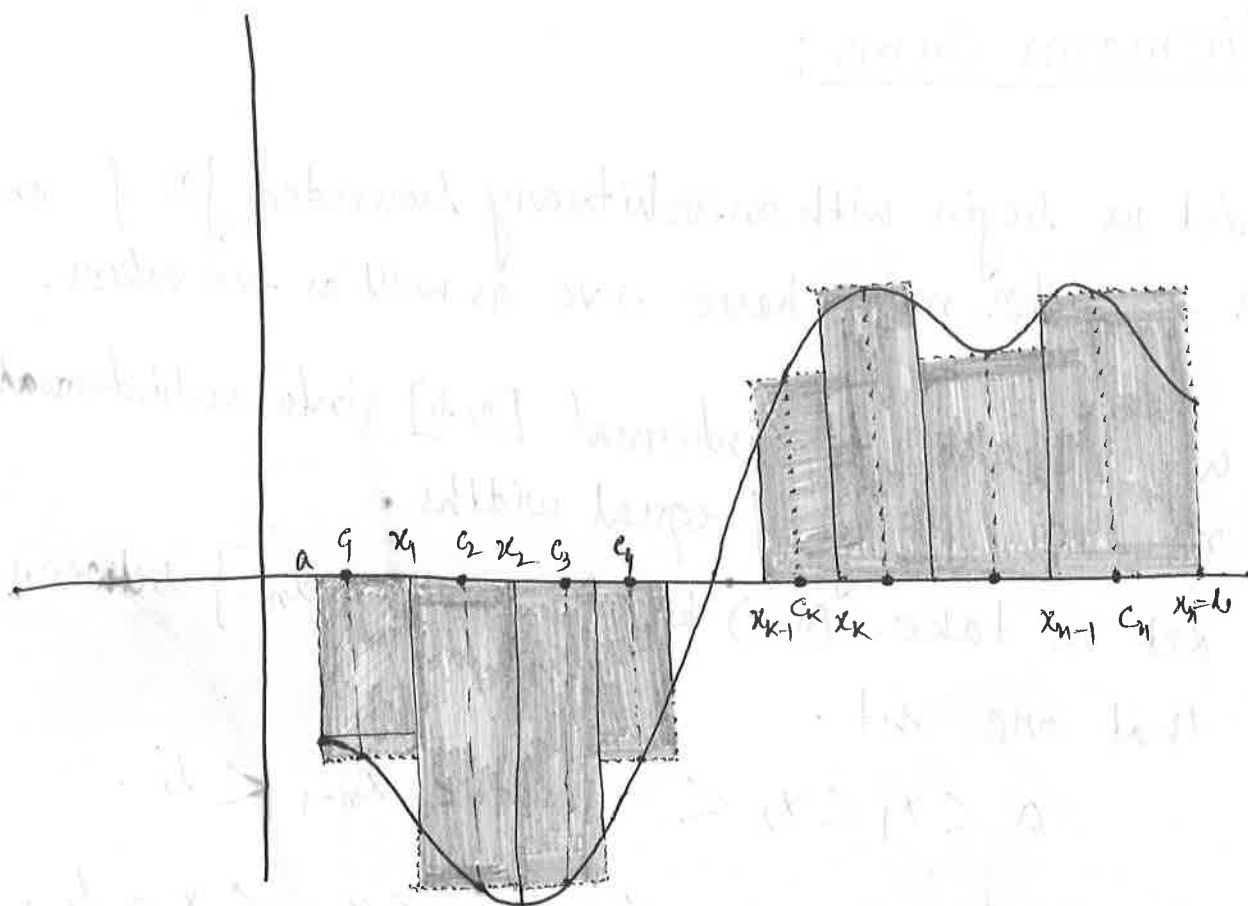
- The set of all pts,
 $P = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ is called a partition
 of $[a, b]$.

- Subintervals are s.t.

$$[a, b] = [x_0, x_1] \cup [x_1, x_2] \cup \dots \cup [x_{n-1}, x_n].$$



- Let $\Delta x_1 = x_1 - x_0$, $\Delta x_2 = x_2 - x_1$, \dots , $\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1}$, \dots , $\Delta x_n = x_n - x_{n-1}$.
- If all n subintervals have equal length, then $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$.
- In each subinterval, select some point. The pt. chosen in k th subinterval $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ is called c_k .



- On each subinterval, we stand a vertical rectangle that stretches from the x -axis to touch the curve at $(c_k, f(c_k))$. These rectangles can lie above or below the x -axis, depending on whether $f(c_k)$ is +ve or -ve or on the x -axis if $f(c_k) = 0$.

- On each subinterval, form the product $f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$. The product is +ve, -ve or zero, depending on the sign of $f(c_k)$.

Sum of all these products:

$$S_p = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k.$$

- The sum S_p is called a Riemann sum for f on the interval $[a, b]$.

Note: There are many such sums, depending on

- (i) the partition P we choose, and
- (ii) the choices of the points c_k in the subintervals.

● When subintervals have equal width $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$, we can make them thinner by simply increasing their number n .

In this case, if we choose c_k to be the right end pt. of each subinterval, the Riemann sum,

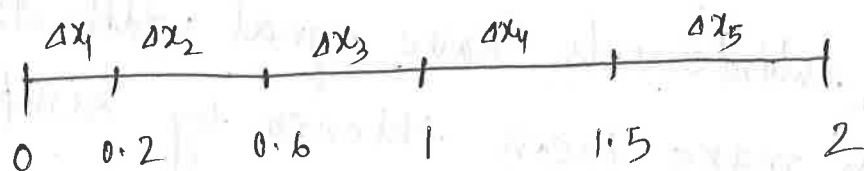
$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(a + k \frac{(b-a)}{n}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{b-a}{n}\right).$$

— similar formulas can be obtained if instead we choose c_k to be the left-hand end pt or mid point, of each subinterval.

● When a partition has subintervals of varying widths, we can ensure, they are all thin by controlling the width of the widest (largest) subinterval.

Norm of a partition: Norm of a partition P , denoted as $\|P\|$, is defined as, to be the largest of all the subinterval widths.

Example: The set $P = \{0, 0.2, 0.6, 1, 1.5, 2\}$ is a partition of $[0, 2]$. There are five subintervals of P : $[0, 0.2]$, $[0.2, 0.6]$, $[0.6, 1]$, $[1, 1.5]$, and $[1.5, 2]$.



The length of the subintervals are

$$\Delta x_1 = 0.2, \Delta x_2 = 0.4, \Delta x_3 = 0.4, \Delta x_4 = 0.5, \Delta x_5 = 0.5.$$

So $\|P\| = 0.5$.

The Definite Integral

Definition: Let $f(x)$ be a function defined on a closed interval $[a, b]$. We say that a number J is the definite integral of f over $[a, b]$ and that J is the limit of the Riemann sums $\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$ if the following conditions are satisfied:

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a corresponding $\delta > 0$ such that, for every partition $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ of $[a, b]$ with $\|P\| < \delta$ and any choice of c_k in $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$, we have

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k - J \right| < \varepsilon.$$

● In easier words:

When the limit exists, we write

$$J = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k \text{ and we say}$$

that the definite integral exists.

● The limit of any Riemann sum is always taken as the norm of the partitions $\rightarrow 0$ & number of subintervals goes to infinity. & the same limit J must be obtained no matter what choices we make for the points c_k .

Leibniz Notation:

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

A formula for the Riemann Sum with equal-width subintervals:

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

Theorem:

Integrability of continuous functions:

If a function f is continuous over the interval $[a, b]$, or if f has at most finitely many jump discontinuities there, then the definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ exists and f is integrable over $[a, b]$.

Problem: ^{show that} The function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is rational} \\ 0, & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational.} \end{cases}$$

is not integrable over $[0, 1]$.

Solution: Let $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of $[0, 1]$.

Subintervals are,

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

In each of these subintervals there are rational pts as well as irrational points.

~~choice-1~~

choice-1 of c_k 's: c_k 's are all rational numbers.
then $\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n 1 \cdot \Delta x_k = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n \Delta x_k = 1.$

choice-2 of c_k 's: c_k 's are all irrational numbers.
then $\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k = 0.$

Thus for different choices for the pts c_k , we get different limits for Riemann sums.

Hence, the definite integral does not exist.

Properties of Definite Integrals:

When f & g are integrable over $[a, b]$.

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

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

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

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

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

(vi) If f has a maximum value M & minimum value m on $[a, b]$, then

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

(vii) If $f(x) \geq g(x)$ on $[a, b]$ then $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$.

If $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[a, b]$ then $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$.

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Problem: Show that $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + \cos x} \, dx \leq \sqrt{2}$.

Solution: Find maximum value of
 $f(x) = \sqrt{1 + \cos x}$ over $[0, 1]$.

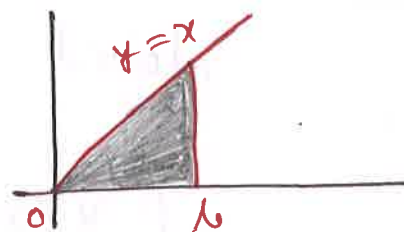
$\frac{1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{x \cos \theta + 1} \leq \frac{1}{2}$ best constant inequality

equation
for unknown value of θ
[1.2] $\cos \theta = \frac{1}{x \cos \theta + 1} = (x)$

Area under the graph of a Non-negative Function

Definition: If $y = f(x)$ is nonnegative and integrable over a closed interval $[a, b]$, then the area under the curve $y = f(x)$ over $[a, b]$ is the integral of f from a to b ,

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



Example: Compute $\int_a^b x dx$ and find the area A under $y = x$ over the interval $[0, b]$, $b > 0$.

Solution: We compute the area in two ways.

(a) By computing Riemann sums, let $\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k$.

- consider the partition P of $[0, b]$ of n subintervals of equal width $\Delta x = \frac{b-0}{n}$ & choose c_k to be the right endpt. of each subinterval.

$$P = \left\{ 0, \frac{b}{n}, \frac{2b}{n}, \dots, \frac{(n-1)b}{n}, \frac{nb}{n} \right\}.$$

$$\& c_k = \frac{kb}{n}, \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{kb}{n} \cdot \frac{b}{n} = \frac{b^2}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n k \\ &= \frac{b^2}{n^2} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{b^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right). \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now as } n \rightarrow \infty \& \|P\| \rightarrow 0, \quad \int_0^b x dx = \frac{b^2}{2} =$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad A = \text{Area of the triangle} \\ = \frac{1}{2} \cdot b \cdot b = \frac{b^2}{2} =$$

Note: This example can be generalized to any closed interval $[a, b]$, $0 < a < b$.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b x \, dx &= \int_a^0 x \, dx + \int_0^b x \, dx \\ &= -\int_0^a x \, dx + \int_0^b x \, dx = \frac{b^2}{2} - \frac{a^2}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Average Value of a continuous Function Revisited!

Definition: If f is integrable on $[a, b]$, then its average value on $[a, b]$, which is also called its mean, is

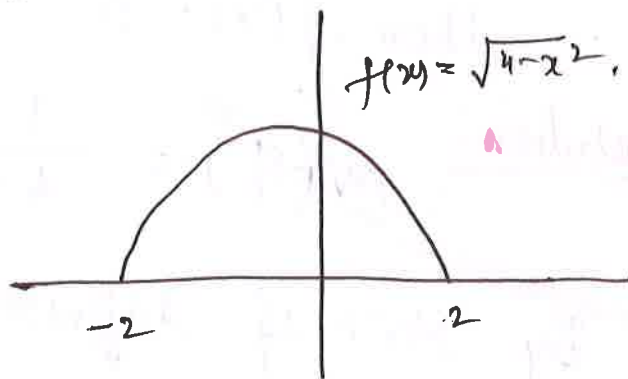
$$av(f) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

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

Solution:

$$\text{Area} = \frac{1}{2} \pi r^2.$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \pi \times 4 = 2\pi$$



$$av(f) = \frac{1}{2-(-2)} \times \int_{-2}^2 \sqrt{4-x^2} dx = \frac{1}{4} \times 2\pi = \pi/2.$$

Mean Value theorem for Definite Integrals

Theorem: If f is continuous on $[a, b]$,
then at some point c in $[a, b]$,

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

Problem: Show that if f is continuous on $[a, b]$,
 $a \neq b$ & if $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$,

then $f(x) = 0$ at least once in $[a, b]$.

Solution: $AV(f) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{1}{b-a} \cdot 0 = 0.$

By MVT of definite integral, there is
some pt. $c \in [a, b]$ s.t.

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(c) = 0.$$

Fundamental Theorem of Integral 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 $f(x)$:

$$F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\int_a^x f(t) dt \right] = f(x).$$

Part-2: If f is continuous over $[a, b]$ and F is any antiderivative of f on $[a, b]$, then

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

Problem: Use the Fundamental Theorem to find

$\frac{dy}{dx}$ of

(i) $y = \int_a^x (t^3 + 1) dt$

(ii) $y = \int_x^5 3t \sin t dt$

(iii) $y = \int_1^{x^2} \cos t dt$

(iv) $y = \int_{1+3x^2}^4 \frac{1}{2+t} dt$

Solution:

(i) $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x (t^3 + 1) dt = x^3 + 1$

(ii) $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\int_x^5 3t \sin t dt \right] = \frac{d}{dx} \left[- \int_5^x 3t \sin t dt \right]$
 $= -3x \sin x$

(iii) $y = \int_1^{x^2} \cos t dt$

Let $y = \int_1^u \cos t dt$ & $u = x^2$

Now $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{d}{du} \left(\int_1^u \cos t dt \right) \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$
 $= \cos u \cdot 2x = \cos(x^2) \cdot 2x = 2x \cos(x^2)$

(iv) $y = \int_{1+3x^2}^4 \frac{1}{2+t} dt$ | Let $y = - \int_1^u \frac{1}{2+t} dt$ & $u = 1+3x^2$
 $= - \int_1^{1+3x^2} \frac{1}{2+t} dt$ $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} = - \frac{1}{2+u} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$
 $= - \frac{1}{2+(1+3x^2)} \cdot 6x = - \frac{2x}{1+x^2}$

Problem: Find

$$(i) \int_0^{\pi} \cos x \, dx \quad (ii) \int_{-\pi/4}^0 \sec x \tan x \, dx$$

$$(iii) \int_1^4 \left(\frac{3}{2} \sqrt{x} - \frac{4}{x^2} \right) dx$$

Solution: (i) $\int_0^{\pi} \cos x \, dx = \sin x \Big|_0^{\pi} = \sin \pi - \sin 0 = 0.$

$$(ii) \int_{-\pi/4}^0 \sec x \cdot \tan x \, dx = \sec x \Big|_{-\pi/4}^0 = \sec 0 - \sec(-\pi/4) = 1 - \sqrt{2}.$$

$$(iii) \int_1^4 \left(\frac{3}{2} \sqrt{x} - \frac{4}{x^2} \right) dx = \left[x^{3/2} + \frac{4}{x} \right]_1^4 = 4$$

Remark: Relationship between Integration & Differentiation.

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

$$(ii) \int_a^x F'(t) \, dt = F(x) - F(a).$$

Total Area: Area is always a non-negative quantity.

• Riemann Sum = $\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$

• $f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$ gives the area of a rectangle when $f(c_k)$ is +ve.

• $f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$ gives the negative of the area of a rectangle when $f(c_k)$ is -ve.

• To obtain total area, we have to take absolute values of all the areas and add.

Problem:

For the function $f(x) = \sin x$, $x \in [0, 2\pi]$,

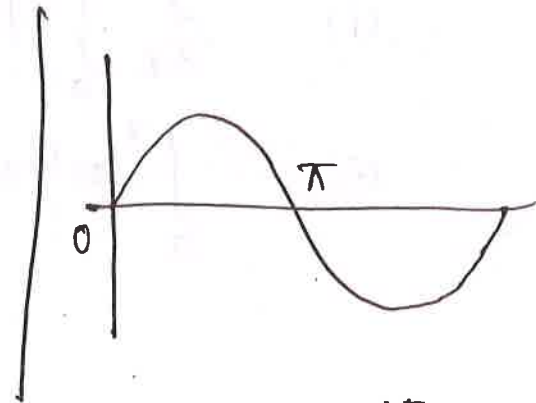
compute

(i) the definite integral of $f(x)$ over $[0, 2\pi]$,

(ii) the area between the graph of $f(x)$ & the x -axis over $[0, 2\pi]$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad \int_0^{2\pi} \sin x \, dx &= -\cos x \Big|_0^{2\pi} \\ &= -(\cos 2\pi - \cos 0) \\ &= -(1 - 1) = 0 \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{(ii)} \quad \text{Area} &= \text{Absolute value of } \int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx + \text{Absolute value of } \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \sin x \, dx \\ &= \left| \int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx \right| + \left| \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \sin x \, dx \right| = 2 + 2 = 4 \end{aligned}$$

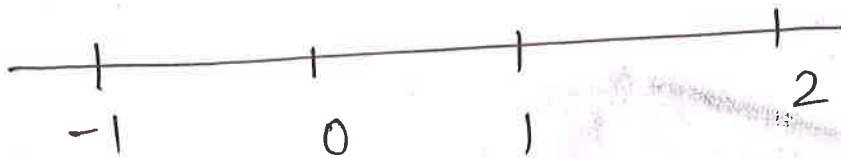
How to find the area between the graph of $y = f(x)$ & the x -axis over $[a, b]$:

- (i) Subdivide $[a, b]$ at the zeros of f .
- (ii) Integrate f over each subinterval.
- (iii) Add the absolute values of the integrals.

Problem: Find the area of the region between the x -axis & the graph of $f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 2x$, $-1 \leq x \leq 2$.

Solution: $f(x) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow x(x^2 - x - 2) = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0, -1, 2.$$



$$\text{Area} = \left| \int_{-1}^0 (x^3 - x^2 - 2x) dx \right| + \left| \int_0^1 (x^3 - x^2 - 2x) dx \right| + \left| \int_1^2 (x^3 - x^2 - 2x) dx \right|.$$

to find out what is the best way to do it. The
 first thing I did was to get a list of all the
 things I had to do.

I then made a list of all the things I had to do.

I then made a list of all the things I had to do.

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Indefinite Integrals and the Substitution Method:

The substitution Rule: If $u = g(x)$ is a diff'ble function whose range is an interval I , and f is continuous on I , then

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

The method: To evaluate $\int f(g(x)) g'(x) dx$.

Step-1 : Substitute $u = g(x)$ and $du = g'(x) dx$ to obtain $\int f(u) du$

Step-2 : Integrate w.r.t. to u .

Step-3 : Replace u by $g(x)$.

Problem:

Find (i) $\int \sec^2(5x+1) \cdot 5 dx$ (vi) $\int \frac{2z dz}{\sqrt{z^2+1}}$

(ii) $\int \sqrt{2x+5} dx$ (vii)

(iii) $\int \cos(7\theta+3) d\theta$

(iv) $\int x^2 \cos x^3 dx$

v) $\int x \sqrt{2x+1} dx$

Definite Integrals & the substitution method:

Theorem: If g' is cont. on $[a, b]$ & f is cont on the range of $g(x) = u$, then

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

Problem: Evaluate (i) $\int_{-1}^1 3x^2 \sqrt{x^3+1} dx$. (Ans. $\frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3}$)

(ii) $\int_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} \cot \theta \operatorname{cosec}^2 \theta d\theta$ (Ans. $\frac{1}{2}$)

(iii) $\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{2 \sin x \cos x}{(1 + \sin^2 x)} dx$ (Ans. $\frac{3}{8}$)

Definite Integrals of Symmetric Functions:

Theorem: Let f be continuous on the symmetric interval $[-a, a]$.

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

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

Area Between Curves:

Definition: If f and g are continuous with $f(x) \geq g(x)$ throughout $[a, b]$, then the area of the region between the curves $y=f(x)$ & $y=g(x)$ from a to b is

$$A = \int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)] dx$$

Problem: Find the area of the region enclosed by the parabola $y=2-x^2$ & the line $y=-x$.

Solution: • First sketch the two curves.

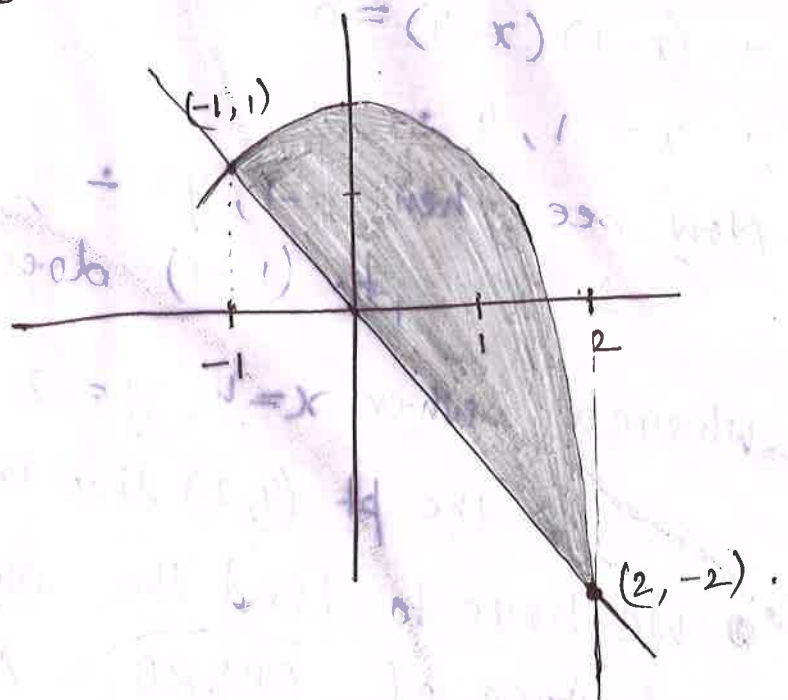
- The limits of integration are found by solving $y=2-x^2$ and $y=-x$ simultaneously for x .

$$2 - x^2 = -x$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 - x - 2 = 0$$

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

$$\Rightarrow x = -1, 2$$



- Area between curves is

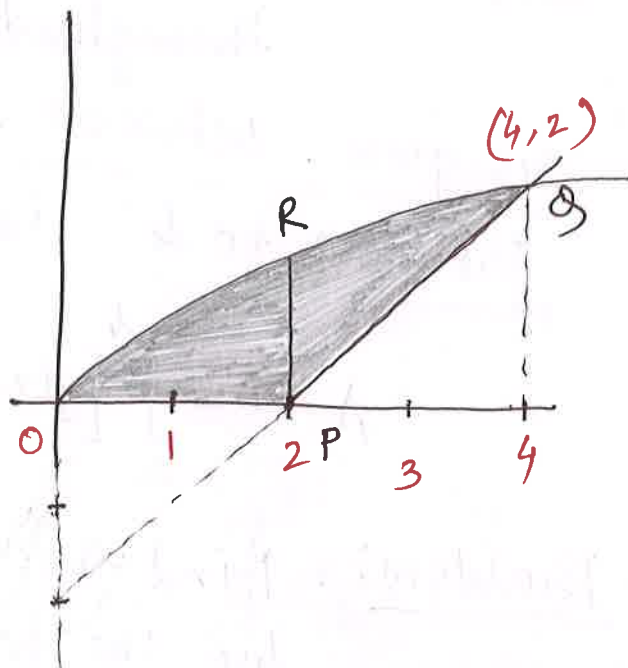
$$A = \int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)] dx = \int_{-1}^2 (2 - x^2 + x) dx = \dots = 9/2$$

Problem: Find the area of the region in the first quadrant that is bounded above by $y = \sqrt{x}$ and below by the x -axis and the line $y = x - 2$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} y = x - 2 &\Rightarrow x - y = 2 \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{x}{2} + \frac{y}{-2} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$y = \sqrt{x}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{x} &= x - 2 \\ \Rightarrow x &= (x - 2)^2 \\ \Rightarrow x^2 - 5x + 4 &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow (x - 1)(x - 4) &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow x &= 1, 4 \end{aligned}$$

Now see when $x = 1$, $y = -1$, ~~not in~~
& the pt. $(1, -1)$ does not lie in 1st quadrant.

whereas when $x = 4$, $y = 2$.
& the pt $(4, 2)$ lies in 1st quadrant.

• We have to find the area of the shaded region - \overline{OPQR}
& Area of \overline{OPQR} = Area of \overline{OPRO} + Area of \overline{PQRQ}

Finding the area \overline{OPRO} ; ~~not in 1st quadrant~~

i.e. when $0 \leq x \leq 2$. In this case $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ & $g(x) = 0$

$$\text{Area} = \int_0^2 [f(x) - g(x)] dx = \int_0^2 \sqrt{x} dx$$

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Finding area of \overline{PQRP} : (ie when $2 \leq x \leq 4$).

In this case $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ & $g(x) = x - 2$.

$$\text{Area} = \int_2^4 (\sqrt{x} - x + 2) dx.$$

Hence ^{total} Area of the shaded region

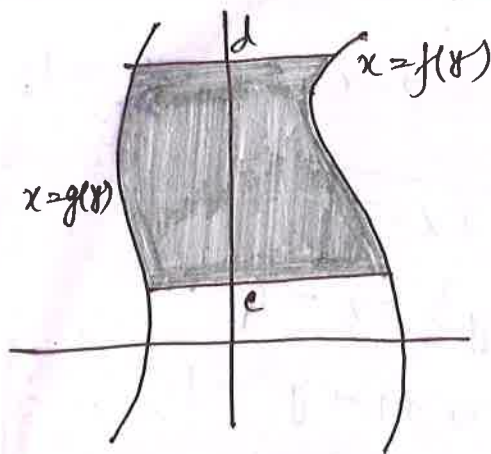
$$= \int_0^2 \sqrt{x} dx + \int_2^4 (\sqrt{x} - x + 2) dx.$$

$$= \frac{10}{3}.$$

Integration w.r. to y :

If a regions bounding curves are described by functions of y , the approximating triangles are horizontal instead of vertical

$$\text{Area} = \int_c^d [f(y) - g(y)] dy$$



In this eqⁿ f always denotes the right hand curve & g the left-hand curve, so $f(y) - g(y)$ is non-ve.

Problem: Find the area of the region in the 1st quadrant that is bounded by $y = \sqrt{x}$, x -axis & $y = x - 2$.

Solution: $f(y) = y + 2$
 $g(y) = y^2$

$$y + 2 = y^2 \Rightarrow y = -1, 2.$$

