CMI - 2020-2021: DS-Analysis

Calculus-6

Riemann integration

Objectives: (i) Given a function f, to find a function F such that F'(x) = f(x). This is the inverse of differentiation, called *integration*.

(ii) Given a function f, with $f(x) \ge 0$, to have a definition of area under the curve of y = f(x).

It turns out that these two problems are related; we will consider a method called *Riemann integration*.

Let f be a function defined on an interval I.

Definition 1 An indefinite integral of f is a function F such that F'(x) = f(x) for all $x \in I$. This is usally denoted by

$$F = \int f$$
, or $F(x) = \int f(x)dx$.

Note: If G is another indefinite integral of f, then G'(x) = f(x). Hence it follows that (F - G)'(x) = 0 for all $x \in I$. By Theorem 5 of Calculus - 4, there exists a constant C such that F(x) = G(x) + C, $x \in I$.

As we know, an advantage of the above definition is that it immediately leads to indefinite integrals of many functions.

Let g be a continuous function on the interval [a, b]. Assume that $g(x) \ge 0$, $x \in [a, b]$. For $x \in [a, b]$ define G(x) = area under the graph of y = g(x) between a and x. Of course, we take G(a) = 0. Then using geometric ideas, the following result can be proved.

Theorem 2 Let g, G be as above. Then G is differentiable, and its derivative is g, that is, G'(x) = g(x), a < x < b.

Let g, G be as above. Let H be any indefinite integral of g. By preceding result, we have H'(x) = G'(x) for all $x \in (a,b)$. Also G(x) = H(x) + C for some constant C. As G(a) = 0 we get H(a) = -C. Hence G(b) = H(b) + C = H(b) - H(a).

Thus the area under the curve between x = a and x = b is H(b) - H(a). If \tilde{H} is another indefinite integral of g, from the above it follows that $\tilde{H}(b) - \tilde{H}(a) = H(b) - H(a)$.

Summarising, we have

Proposition 3 Let f be a continuous function on [a,b] such that $f(x) \ge 0$, $x \in [a,b]$. Denote the area under the graph of f between x=a and x=b by $\int_a^b f(x)dx$. Let F be any indefinite integral of f. Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

Note that heuristic/ intuitive idea of area under the graph of a non-negative continuous function f, lead to the notion of $\int_a^b f(x)dx$. Since we can often guess the function F, it is very useful in practice.

We now state a very basic theorem without proof. The proof is lengthy and tedious. It does not require any notion of indefinite integral. It uses the idea of approximating a continuous function by functions that are piecewise constants.

Theorem 4 Let f be a continuous real valued function on a closed and bounded interval [a, b]. Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$

is well-defined; that is, it is a unique real number. The unique number $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is called the definite integral of f between a and b.

If, in addition, $f(x) \geq 0$, $x \in [a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is the same as the area under the graph of f between x = a and x = b.

Example 1: To find the area under the curve $y = x^2$ between x = 1 and x = 2.

Note that we need to find $\int_1^2 x^2 dx$. So

$$\int_{1}^{2} x^{2} dx = \frac{x^{3}}{3} \mid_{1}^{2} = \frac{7}{3}.$$

Example 2: To find $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x dx$.

Note that the indefinite integral of $\sin x$ is $(-\cos x)$. Hence

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin x dx = -\cos x \mid_0^{\pi} = 2.$$

Exercise: Find $\int_1^3 \frac{1}{x} dx$.

We now state two elementary facts, which are similar to those satisfied by area.

Fact 1: Let f be continuous function on [a, b]. Suppose that there exist two numbers m, M such that $m \leq f(x) \leq M$, $x \in [a, b]$. Then

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

Fact 2: Let a < b < c. Let f be a continuous function on [a, c]. Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx + \int_{b}^{c} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{c} f(x)dx.$$

Remark 5 Let f be a function on [a, b] such that the following hold. There exist points $\{a_i : 1 \le i \le k\}$ and functions $\{f_i : 1 \le i \le k\}$ such that

$$a = a_0 < a_1 < a_2 < \dots < a_{k-1} < a_k = b$$

 f_j is a bounded continuous function on (a_{j-1}, a_j) , $1 \leq j \leq k$, and $f(x) = f_j(x)$, $x \in (a_{j-1}, a_j)$, $1 \leq j \leq k$. (The values of f at the finite number of points a_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots k$ may not matter.) Then one can define $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ by putting

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \sum_{j=1}^{k} \int_{a_{j-1}}^{a_j} f_j(x)dx.$$

That is, definite integrals can be defined even for bounded piecewise continuous functions on bounded intervals. (Such situations may arise in probability theory.)

Example 3: Let f be a function on [-5, 5] given by

$$f(s) = 0, -5 \le s \le 0,$$

= 1, 0 < s < 1,
= 0, 1 \le s \le 5.

That is f is piecewise continuous. Put $F(x) = \int_{-5}^{x} f(s)ds$, $x \in [-5, 5]$. By the above remark, note that F(x) is well defined. It can be checked that

$$F(x) = 0, -5 \le x \le 0,$$

= $x, 0 \le x \le 1,$
= $1, 1 \le x \le 5.$

These arise in connection with the uniform distribution on (0,1) in probability theory. (In fact, f(s) = 1, $s \in (0,1)$ and f(s) = 0, $s \notin (0,1)$. So F(x) = 0, $x \leq 0$, and F(x) = 1, $x \geq 1$. Note that f and F are defined for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.)

Fact 3: Another elementary fact: Suppose $\int_a^b f(y)dy$, and $\int_a^b g(y)dy$ are well defined. Let α , $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ be constants. Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} (\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)) dx = \alpha \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \beta \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx;$$

that is, integration is a linear operation.

We now state a theorem without proof; this result, called the *fundamental theorem of calculus*, indicates the connection between integration and differentiation.

Theorem 6 Let f be a continuous function on [a, b]. Let

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(s)ds, \ x \in [a, b].$$

Then F is differentiable on (a,b), and F'(x) = f(x), $x \in (a,b)$.

Suppose f is piecewise continuous as in Remark 5. Then F is a continuous function on [a,b]. Also F is differentiable at any point $x \in (a,b)$ where f is continuous, and F'(x) = f(x) at points where f is continuous.

In both cases

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(s)ds = F(x) \mid_{a}^{b} = F(b) - F(a).$$

Exercise: Verify the second part of the above theorem in Example 3.

Now we shall briefly recall technique of integration using substitution. This procedure can be stated as follows:

Fact: Let g be a differentiable function on [a, b]; also let g' be continuous. Let f be a continuous function on an interval containing the values of g. Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(g(x)) \frac{dg(x)}{dx} dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du.$$

Example 4: To find

$$\int_0^3 (x^2+1)^3(2x)dx.$$

Take $f(u) = u^3$ and $g(x) = (x^2 + 1)$. Clearly g'(x) = 2x; hence the integrand is of the form f(g(x))g'(x). First we shall find the indefinite integral. Now

$$\int (x^2 + 1)^3 (2x) dx = \int u^3 du = \frac{u^4}{4}$$
$$= \frac{(x^2 + 1)^4}{4};$$

in the last step, we have expressed all the terms in terms of x. At this stage, it is a good practice to differentiate the indefinite integral to check if it agrees with the integrand. Also g(0) = 1, g(3) = 10. Therefore we have

$$\int_0^3 (x^2 + 1)^3 (2x) dx = \int_{g(0)}^{g(3)} f(u) du$$
$$= \int_1^{10} u^3 du = \frac{u^4}{4} \Big|_1^{10}$$
$$= \frac{9999}{4}.$$

Example 5: To find the indefinite integral $\int xe^{x^2}dx$, and $\int_0^2 xe^{x^2}dx$.

Note that

$$\int xe^{x^2}dx = \frac{1}{2} \int 2xe^{x^2}dx.$$

So take $u = x^2$, and hence du = 2xdx. This gives

$$\int xe^{x^2}dx = \frac{1}{2} \int 2xe^{x^2}dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \int e^u du = \frac{1}{2}e^u = \frac{1}{2}e^{x^2},$$

giving the indefinite integral. Easy to verify that $\frac{d}{dx}(\frac{1}{2}e^{x^2}) = xe^{x^2}$.

Therefore

$$\int_0^2 x e^{x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} e^{x^2} \mid_0^2 = \frac{e^4 - 1}{2}.$$

Exercise: Show that $\int \cos(3x) dx = \frac{1}{3}\sin(3x)$.

Now we consider briefly the technique of integration by parts.

Let f, g be two differentiable functions. We know that (fg)'(x) = f(x)g'(x) + g(x)f'(x); so f(x)g'(x) = (fg)'(x) - g(x)f'(x). Note that the indefinite integral of (fg)' is fg; that is, $\int (fg)'(x)dx = f(x)g(x)$. Hence we obtain

$$\int f(x)g'(x)dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g(x)f'(x)dx,$$

which is called *integrating by parts*. To find the integral on the left side, this method is very useful if finding the integral on the right side is simpler.

Example 6: To find $\int \log(x) dx$.

Take $f(x) = \log(x)$, g(x) = x. As g'(x) = 1, note that the integrand is in the form f(x)g'(x). So integrating by parts, we get

$$\int \log(x)dx = x\log(x) - \int x\frac{1}{x}dx = x\log(x) - x.$$

Example 7: To find $\int xe^{-x}dx$.

Note that the choice of f, g should make it easier/ simpler to solve the problem. So take f(x) = x, $g(x) = -e^{-x}$; then f'(x) = 1, $g'(x) = e^{-x}$. Clearly the integrand is in the form f(x)g'(x). Integrating by parts,

$$\int xe^{-x}dx = -xe^{-x} + \int e^{-x}dx = -(x+1)e^{-x}.$$

In the above example, if we had chosen f, g such that g'(x) = x, then it would have complicated the problem rather than simplifying it.

We will look at an example where we first make a substitution before integrating by parts.

Example 8: To find $\int e^{2x} \sin(3x) dx$.

Put $I = \int e^{2x} \sin(3x) dx$.

Using substitution show that $\int \sin(3x)dx = -\frac{1}{3}\cos(3x)$, similar to the exercise above. Take $f(x) = e^{2x}$, $g(x) = -\frac{1}{3}\cos(3x)$. Integrating by parts, as $f'(x) = 2e^{2x}$, we get

$$I = -\frac{1}{3}e^{2x}\cos(3x) + \frac{2}{3}\int e^{2x}\cos(3x)dx.$$

Now apply the same procedure to the integral $J = \int e^{2x} \cos(3x) dx$. By the exercise above $\int \cos(3x) dx = \frac{1}{3} \sin(3x)$. In this case take $f(x) = e^{2x}$, $g(x) = \frac{1}{3} \sin(3x)$. So again, integrating by parts, we get

$$J = \frac{1}{3}e^{2x}\sin(3x) - \frac{2}{3}\int e^{2x}\sin(3x)dx.$$

Thus we have

$$I = -\frac{1}{3}e^{2x}\cos(3x) + \frac{2}{3}J$$
$$= -\frac{1}{3}e^{2x}\cos(3x) + \frac{2}{3}\left[\frac{1}{3}e^{2x}\sin(3x) - \frac{2}{3}I\right]$$

That is,

$$\frac{13}{9}I = \frac{1}{9}e^{2x}[2\sin(3x) - 3\cos(3x)].$$

Therefore

$$\int e^{2x} \sin(3x) dx = \frac{1}{13} e^{2x} [2\sin(3x) - 3\cos(3x)].$$

Note: In the 3 examples above, verify if derivatives of the indefinite integrals agree with the respective integrands.