# Calculus Fundamentals: The Integral Lecture 5

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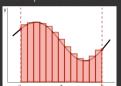
#### basic idea

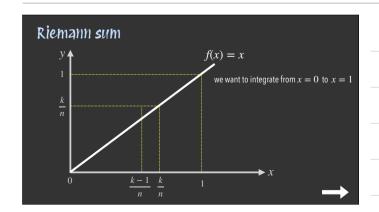
We are interested in calculating areas under curves

- 1. We divide the interval  $a \le x \le b$  into pieces (equal length)
- 2. We build a rectangle on each piece, where the top touches the curve
- 3. We calculate the total area of the rectangles

We watch what happens as we make the division of the "strips" finer and finer...







#### Riemann sum

• we divide [0,1] into n equal pieces ⇒ the divisions occur at

$$0, \frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \dots, \frac{k-1}{n}, \frac{k}{n}, \dots, \frac{n-1}{n}, \frac{n}{n} = 1$$

- we have n+1 points and we put a rectangle on each point
- the rectangle between  $\frac{k-1}{n}$  and  $\frac{k}{n}$  has height  $f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) = \frac{k}{n}$  and area of this rectangle is

$$\frac{k}{\underline{n}} \cdot \frac{1}{\underline{n}} = \frac{k}{n^2}$$





• The sum of the area of all rectangles on the interval is

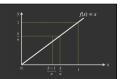
of the area of all rectangles on the interval is 
$$\frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{2}{n^2} + \dots + \frac{k}{n^2} + \dots + \frac{n}{n^2} = \frac{1}{n^2} (1 + 2 + \dots + k + \dots + n)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{n+1}{n} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)$$

#### Riemann sum



• what happens to this expression when  $n \to \infty$ ?

$$\frac{1}{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{n}\right)\to\frac{1}{2} \text{ as } n\to\infty$$

• so as we get finer division of rectangles, the sum is approaching the exact area which is  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

#### Riemann sum

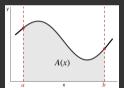
Work out the area bounded by  $f(x) = x^2$ , the limits x = 0 and x = 1 and the x-axis (see figure)



we could do this for all functions, but there is a faster way.

#### area under the curve

- Let's call the curve we want to find the area under y = f(t)
- Let the area be a function of x and denote it A(x)
- If we know A(x) then we know the are that is A(b) A(a)
- I say A(x) = f'(x), do you believe me? Let's take a look...

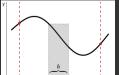


### area under the curve

- The difference A(x+h)-A(x) is the area between t=x and t=x+h• The area is rectangular (if h is small) with height f(x) and base h so area is  $\approx f(x)\cdot h$

$$A(x+h) - A(x) \approx f(x) \cdot h \implies \frac{A(x+h) - A(x)}{h} \approx f(x)$$

$$\frac{A(x+h) - A(x)}{h} \to f(x) \text{ as } h \to 0$$



By the definition of the derivative, we have A'(x) = f(x)and A(x) as the antiderivative of f(x)

note: if A(x) is an antiderivative f(x) then A(x)+C for any constant C is also an antiderivative of f(x)

#### definite and indefinite integral

The indefinite integral of f(x) with respect to x, written as

$$\int f(x)dx = F(x) + c \qquad F'(x) = f(x)$$



The definite integral of f(x) between limits a and b with respect to x, written as

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

where f(x) is called the integrand

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus shows that differentiation and integration are inverse processes in two parts based on indefinite and definite integrals

# definite and indefinite integral

example Consider  $f(t)=t^2$  and let's calculate the area under  $y=t^2$  between 0 and 1.

The area up to 
$$x$$
 is represented by  $A(x) = \int_0^x t^2 dt$  integral

We know 
$$A'(x) = x^2 \implies A(x) = \frac{1}{-x^3}$$

This holds for any constant 
$$C$$
:  $\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{3x^3} + C \right) = x^2$ 

$$dx \setminus 3x^{3} \qquad f$$
What is our  $C$ ?  $A(0) = \left(\frac{1}{3(0)^{3}} + C\right) = \int_{0}^{0} t^{2} dt = 0 \implies C = 0$ 

Further we have 
$$A(1) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 \Longrightarrow \int_0^1 t^2 dt = A(1) - A(0)$$
 where  $A'(x) = x^2$ 

# the fundamental theorem of calculus, part 1

Part 1 is based on indefinite integrals

If f(x) is continuous on an interval, and we define a function:

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt,$$

then 
$$F'(x) = f(x)$$
.

- The derivative of the indefinite integral recovers the original function
- Working with indefinite integrals:
  - → The answer should be a function + a constant of integration C
  - This expression represents all the possible antiderivatives of f(x)

### the fundamental theorem of calculus, part 2

Part 2 is based on definite integrals

If F(x) is an antiderivative of a continuous function f(x), i.e., F'(x) = f(x), then:

$$f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

- This part uses definite integrals as the primary object and computes them via indefinite integrals
- Working with definite integrals:
  - Find the antiderivative F(x) of f(x)
  - ullet We don't have to worry about the constant C here since it cancels out on the RHS
  - The results can be pout in square brackets:  $\int_a^b f(x)dx = [F(x)]_a^b = F(b) F(a)$
  - · Your answer is a number

#### example

Consider the function  $f(x)=x^3$  , find the integral over the interval [-1,1]

1. Write the integral 
$$\int_{-1}^{1} x^3 dx$$

2. Find the antiderivative 
$$\int x^3 dx = \frac{x^4}{4} + C$$

3. Apply fundamental theorem of calculus

$$\int_{-1}^{1} x^3 dx = \left[ \frac{x^4}{4} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} \implies \int_{-1}^{1} x^3 dx = \frac{(1)^4}{4} - \frac{(-1)^4}{4} \implies \int_{-1}^{1} x^3 dx = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4}$$

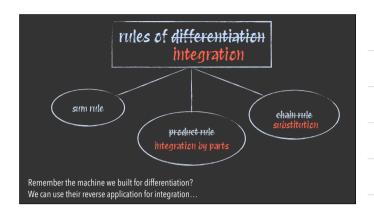
Why Is the integral zero?

The function  $x^3$  is odd, meaning f(-x)=-f(x). For any odd function integrated over a symmetric interval [-a,a] the integral is always zero because the positive and negative contributions cancel out

area under the curve and the value of the definite integral are not always the same

#### some antiderivatives

function $f(x)$	antiderivative $\int f(x) dx$
f(x) = a	$\int f(x)  \mathrm{d}x = ax + C$
$f(x) = ax^n$	$\int f(x)  \mathrm{d}x = \frac{ax^{(n+1)}}{n+1} + C$
$f(x) = ax^{-1}$	$\int f(x)  \mathrm{d}x = a \ln x  + C$
$f(x) = ae^{kx}$	$\int f(x)  \mathrm{d}x = \frac{1}{k} a e^{kx} + C$
$f(x) = a \cos(kx)$	$\int f(x)  \mathrm{d}x = \frac{1}{k} a \sin(kx) + C$
$f(x) = a \sin(kx)$	$\int f(x) dx = -\frac{1}{k}a\cos(kx) + C$



#### the sum rule

As with differentiation, we also have a sum rule for integration, that is

$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x)dx + \int g(x)dx$$

"the antiderivative of a sum is the sum of the antiderivatives"

we also have that 
$$\int K f(x) dx = K \int f(x) dx$$
 where  $K$  is a constant

example 
$$\int (3x^4 + 2x + 5)dx = \int 3x^4 + \int 2x dx + \int 5dx$$

$$= 3 \int x^4 + 2 \int x dx + 5 \int dx$$

$$= 3 \int_0^3 x^5 + 2 \int_0^3 x^3 + 5 \int_0^3 x^5 + 2 \int_0^3$$

$$\frac{3}{4}x^5 + \frac{2}{3}x^3 + 5x + C$$
 (because integral is indefinite

#### the sum rule

Find the indefinite integral  $\int (x^2 - 1)(x^4 + 2)dx$ 

Find the indefinite integral  $\int \frac{x^4 + 1}{x^2} dx$ 

#### substitution

Substitution is a method to simplify integration by changing variables. For an integral of the form:

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

you substitute u = g(x), so du = g'(x)dx. This transforms the integral into:

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

In a sense, substitution undoes the chain rule:

- The chain rule multiplies by g'(x) during differentiation
- Substitution compensates for g'(x) during integration by replacing dx with du = g'(x)dx

#### substitution step by step

- 1. Choose a suitable u = u(x). Your choice should not be a constant function
- 2. Work out u'(x) and write down an expression for dx = du/u'(x). If you are considering a definite integral, work out u(a) and u(b) where a and b are the limits of the integral
- 3. Next
- replace every instance of u(x) with the letter u
- replace dx with d(u)/u'(x) and cancel
- ullet (for definite integrals only) replace a with the value u(a) and b with u(b)

- 4. If you can, work out the integral (don't forget +C if you are working with indefinite integrals)
- 5. This step only for indefinite integrals: Your antiderivative should be in terms of u. Replace every instance of u with the original function u(x).

#### substitution

example Consider the indefinite integral with integrand  $(2x+3)^{100}$  . We make the substitution

$$u = 2x + 3 \implies \frac{du}{dx} = 2$$
 i.e.  $dx = \frac{1}{2}du$ 

and we calculate the integral as

$$\int (2x+3)^{100} dx = \int u^{100} \cdot \frac{1}{2} du$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int u^{100} du$$

$$= \frac{1}{200} (2x+3)^{101} + C$$

You can double check via differentiation:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \frac{1}{202} (2x+3)^{101} + C \right] = \frac{101}{202} (2x+3)^{100} \cdot 2 = (2x+3)^{100}$$



exercise 4
Evaluate 
$$\int_{0}^{4} \frac{1}{(x/2-4)^3} dx$$

## integration by parts

Suppose we have two function u(x) and v(x). Then the product rule states

$$\frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u'v + uv'$$

Rearranging gives

$$uv' = \frac{d}{d(x)}(uv) - u'v$$

Integrating both sides gives

$$uv' = \frac{d}{d(x)}(uv) - u'v$$

$$\int uv'dx = \int \frac{d}{d(x)}(uv) - \int u'vdx$$

$$= uv - \int u'vdx$$

# integration by parts

We write the rule for integration by parts as

$$\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$
boundary integral

- Given an integral whose integrand is the product of two functions, we choose one to be u and the other to be v', from which we can calculate u' and v
- Plugging into the above equation (hopefully) leads to an easier integration

integration by parts example
Suppose we have the integrand  $xe^x$  and set u=x,  $v'=1 \implies u'=1$ ,  $v=e^x$ We now can calculate the integral as follows:

$$\int xe^{x}dx = \int uv'dx$$

$$= uv - \int u'vdx$$

$$= xe^{x} - \int e^{x}dx$$

$$= xe^{x} - e^{x} + C = e^{x}(x - 1) + C$$

Use product rule for differentiation to check the result:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[e^{x}(x-1)] = \frac{d}{dx}[e^{x}] \cdot (x-1) + e^{x} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}[x-1]$$
$$= \frac{d}{dx}[e^{x}(x-1)] = e^{x}x - e^{x} + e^{x} = e^{x}$$

# integration by parts

Evaluate 
$$\int_0^1 x e^x dx$$

Evaluate 
$$\int_{0}^{\pi/4} 4x^2 \cos(2x) dx$$

