

Apr 4

Properties of definite Integrals

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

pf

follows from the sum rule for limits

$$\int_a^b (f+g) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n (f+g)(c_k) \Delta x_k$$

width of the k -th subinterval

↑
point in the k -th subinterval of $[a,b]$ (divided into n equal sub intervals)

sum rule for limits ↓

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k + \sum_{k=1}^n g(c_k) \Delta x_k \right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n g(c_k) \Delta x_k$$

↓ definition

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

- $\int_a^b (k f(x)) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$ k is a constant

using the rule $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (k h(n)) = k \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h(n)$.

Definition 1.3. Let $f(x)$ be continuous on $[a, b]$. Consider the partition: $x_k = \frac{b-a}{n}k + a$, $k = 0, 1, \dots, n$. For any $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$, $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k$ is a fixed number, called **definite (Riemann) integral of $f(x)$ on $[a, b]$** , denoted by $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, i.e.,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Hard Theorem: Let f be a piecewise continuous function, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is well-defined. I.e. The limit in the preceding definition exists, and is independent of the choices of c_k .

Remark. The “Lebesgue integral” is well-defined for more general functions.

Example 1.3. Evaluate $\int_2^3 x dx$ using the left Riemann sum with n equally spaced subintervals.

Fundamental thm of Calculus:

An antiderivative of x is $F(x) = \frac{x^2}{2}$

$$\int_2^3 x dx = \left. \frac{x^2}{2} \right|_2^3 = \frac{3^2}{2} - \frac{2^2}{2} = \frac{5}{2} \quad \square$$

Example 1.4. Evaluate $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$ using the right Riemann sum with n equally spaced sub-intervals.

Solution. Let $f(x) = x^2$. Consider the partition of $[0, 1]$: $x_k = \frac{k}{n}, k = 0, \dots, n$.

Right Riemann sum: on $[x_{k-1}, x_k], c_k = x_k = \frac{k}{n}$.

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k = \sum_{k=1}^n \left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^2 \frac{1}{n} = \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{6n^2}$$

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

So, $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{(n+1)(2n+1)}{6n^2} = \frac{1}{3}$.

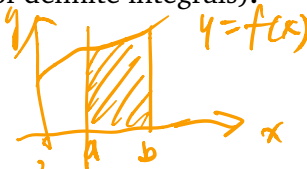
Fundamental thm of Calculus:
 Anti-derivative of x^2
 $= \frac{x^3}{3}$
 $\int_0^1 x^2 dx = \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1^3}{3} - \frac{0}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$ \square

Remark. It's so complicated to use definition to compute $\int_a^b f(x) dx$. Later, we will discuss another easier method: **fundamental theorem of calculus**.

Using the interpretation of definite integrals as signed areas and its definition as limits of Riemann sums, we have:

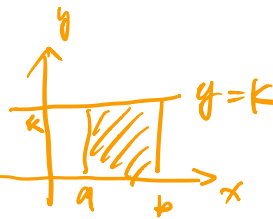
Theorem 1.1 (Properties of definite integrals).

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



2. $\int_a^b k dx = k(b-a)$

\rightarrow width of the rectangle
 \uparrow height of rectangle



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

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

4. if $a < b$,

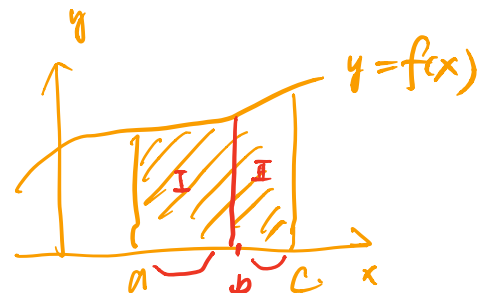
$\int_b^a f(x) dx \triangleq - \int_a^b f(x) dx$ (\triangleq , defined to be)

convention

area of region I

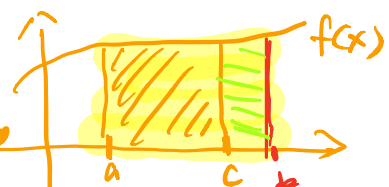
\rightarrow 5. $\int_a^c f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx$

area of region II



\uparrow area of the shaded region

$=$ area of yellow region - area of green region



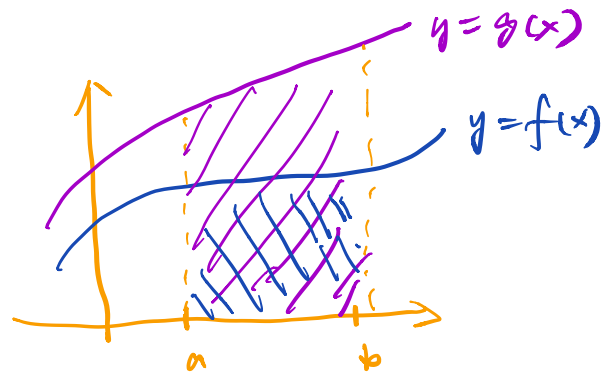
$$= \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx$$

6. if $f(x) \leq g(x)$ on $[a, b]$, then

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

↑
area
of
the blue
region.

↑
area of
purple
region



2 The fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Notation:

$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(t) dt$: definite integral of function f on $[a, b]$, which is a number.

$\int_a^x f(t) dt$: definite integral of function f on $[a, x]$, it can be regarded as a function of x .

Theorem 2.1 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus).

Assume $f(x)$ is continuous.

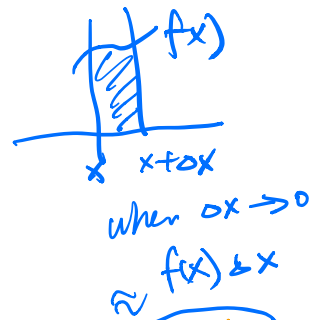
1. $\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x)$ (i.e. $\int_a^x f(t) dt$ is an anti-derivative of $f(x)$)

Handwritten notes: "function in x" with an arrow pointing to the upper limit of the integral.

2. Let $F(x)$ be any anti-derivative of $f(x)$, $F'(x) = f(x)$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(x) \Big|_a^b := F(b) - F(a).$$

Handwritten notes: wavy lines under the limits of integration.



Heuristic explanation:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_a^{x+\Delta x} f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_x^{x+\Delta x} f(t) dt}{\Delta x}$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) \Delta x}{\Delta x} = f(x)$$

Handwritten notes: The second integral in the numerator is circled in blue.

Example 2.1. Computing the integrals in Examples 1.3 and 1.4 using the fundamental theorem of calculus.

Example 2.2. Derive Theorem 1.1 from the corresponding theorem for indefinite integrals and the fundamental theorem of calculus.

Remark.

$$1. \quad \begin{array}{ccc} \text{Differentiation} & \xleftrightarrow{\text{Fundamental thm of calculus}} & \text{Integration} \\ F'(x) = f(x) & & \int_a^b f(x) dx = \underline{F(b) - F(a)} \end{array}$$

2. Anti-derivative $F(x)$ is not unique. Which one should we choose?

Another anti-derivative: $\tilde{F}(x) = F(x) + C$, then

$$\tilde{F}(b) - \tilde{F}(a) = (F(b) + C) - (F(a) + C) = F(b) - F(a).$$

so, it does not matter, we can choose **any** anti-derivative.

Example 2.3.

$$\int_1^9 \sqrt{x} dx = \int_1^9 x^{1/2} dx \Big|_1^9 = \frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} \Big|_1^9 = \frac{2}{3} (27 - 1) = \frac{52}{3}.$$

Example 2.4. Evaluate $\int_1^2 \ln x dx$.

We first find one antiderivative of $\ln x$,

$$\int \ln x dx = x \ln x - \int 1 dx \quad (\text{integration by parts})$$

$$\int \underbrace{\ln x}_{u'} \cdot \underbrace{1}_{u} dx = \underbrace{x \ln x}_{v \cdot u} - \underbrace{x}_{v} \cdot \underbrace{1}_{u'} + C.$$

$$\int u v' dx = uv - \int v u' dx.$$

$$v' = 1 \quad v = x$$

$$u' = \frac{1}{x} \quad u = \ln x$$

So, $\int_1^2 \ln x dx = (x \ln x - x) \Big|_1^2 = 2 \ln 2 - 1.$

$$(2 \ln 2 - 2) - (1 \cdot \ln 1 - 1)$$

Example 2.5. Let

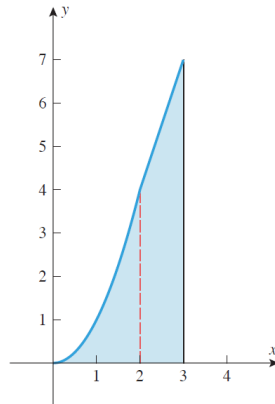
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2, & x < 2 \\ 3x - 2, & x \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

Find $\int_0^3 f(x) dx$.

$$= \int_0^2 f(x) dx + \int_2^3 f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_0^2 x^2 dx + \int_2^3 (3x - 2) dx$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_0^2 + \left(\frac{3x^2}{2} - 2x \right) \Big|_2^3$$



$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^3 f(x) dx &= \int_0^2 f(x) dx + \int_2^3 f(x) dx = \int_0^2 x^2 dx + \int_2^3 (3x - 2) dx \quad (\text{integrate separately}) \\ &= \left. \frac{x^3}{3} \right|_0^2 + \left[\frac{3x^2}{2} - 2x \right]_2^3 = \left(\frac{8}{3} - 0 \right) + \left(\frac{15}{2} - 2 \right) = \frac{49}{6}. \end{aligned}$$

□.

Exercise 2.1.

$e^{x^2} \Big|_0^1 = 1. \int_0^1 2xe^{x^2} dx = e - 1.$

2. $\int_{-1}^2 |x| dx = \frac{5}{2}.$

$\int_{-1}^0 (-x) dx + \int_0^2 x dx$

$u = x^2.$

$du = 2x dx$

$\int 2x e^{x^2} dx = \int e^u du = e^u + C = e^{x^2} + C$

$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{when } x \geq 0 \\ -x & \text{when } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$

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Example 2.6. Compute $\frac{d}{dx}$ for (1) $\int_1^x e^{t^2} dt$, (2) $\int_{x^2}^{x^3} e^{t^2} dt$, (3) $\int_{g(x)}^{h(x)} f(t) dt$.

Solution. It's impossible to get explicit formula for $F(t) = \int e^{t^2} dt$.

1. By fundamental theorem of calculus (1), we have

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_1^x e^{t^2} dt = e^{x^2}.$$

2. Let $F'(t) = e^{t^2}$, then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{x^2}^{x^3} e^{t^2} dt = \frac{d}{dx} (F(x^3) - F(x^2)) = F'(x^3) \cdot 3x^2 - F'(x^2) \cdot 2x = e^{x^6} \cdot 3x^2 - e^{x^4} \cdot 2x.$$