

§ Definite Integrals

Let $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous on $[a, b]$.

A partition P of $[a, b]$ is a collection of points $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{j-1}, x_j, \dots, x_n\} \subset [a, b]$ such that

$$x_0 = a < x_1 < \dots < x_{j-1} < x_j < \dots < x_n = b.$$

The norm^{||P||} of the partition P is defined to be

$$\max \{x_j - x_{j-1} : j=1, 2, \dots, n\}$$

i.e. the maximum length of the (sub-division) intervals $[x_{j-1}, x_j]$, $j=1, 2, \dots, n$.

The right-sum is defined to be

$$\begin{aligned} R(f; P) &= f(x_1)(x_1 - x_0) + f(x_2)(x_2 - x_1) + \dots + f(x_n)(x_n - x_{n-1}) \\ &= f(x_1)\Delta x_1 + f(x_2)\Delta x_2 + \dots + f(x_n)\Delta x_n \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j)\Delta x_j, \end{aligned}$$

where $\Delta x_j = x_j - x_{j-1}$.

The left-sum is

$$L(f; P) = \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_{j-1}) \Delta x_j;$$

the mid-point sum is

$$M(f; P) = \sum_{j=1}^n f\left(\frac{x_{j-1} + x_j}{2}\right) \Delta x_j$$

It is proved that there exists a number I such that each of $R(f; P)$, $L(f; P)$, $M(f; P)$ is very close to I whenever the norm $\|P\|$ of the partition P (of $[a, b]$) is small enough, i.e. for each $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|R(f; P) - \underline{I}| < \varepsilon, |L(f; P) - I| < \varepsilon, |M(f; P) - I| < \varepsilon$$

whenever $\|P\| < \delta$.

This number I is denoted by

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx, \text{ or } \int_a^b f.$$

and called the (definite) integral of f over $[a, b]$.

If $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then we can interpret $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ as the area of the region underneath ~~the graph of~~ f over $[a, b]$.
bounded by $y=0$, $y=f(x)$, $x=a$ and $x=b$

If $f(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ may be interpreted as the signed (or the negative of the) area of the region bounded by $y=0$, the graph of f , $x=a$ and $x=b$.

Basic Properties

Suppose f is continuous on the relevant intervals.

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

2) $\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx.$ (a definition) ^{really}

3) $\int_a^b k f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$, where k is a constant.

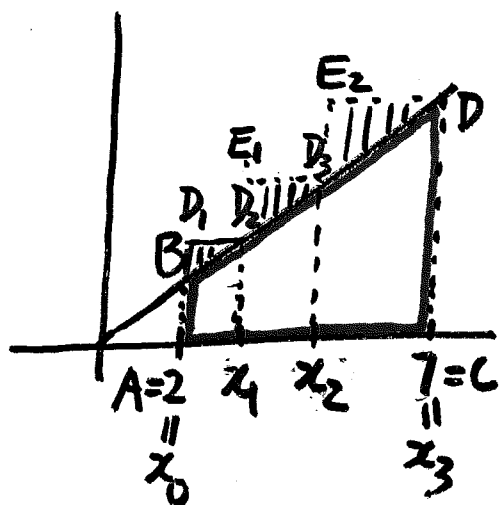
4) $\int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx.$

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

Example

Let us consider $f(x) = x$, $a = 2$, $b = 7$.

Let $P: x_0 = 2 < x_1 < x_2 < x_3 = 7$



$$\begin{aligned} |R(f; P) - \text{area of } \square ABDC| &= \frac{1}{2}(2+7)(7-2) \text{ trapezoid (trapezium)} \\ &= \text{area}(\square BD_1D_2) + \text{area}(\square D_2E_1D_3) \\ &\quad + \text{area}(\square D_3E_2D) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{BD_1}_{\text{max}} \cdot \underbrace{D_1D_2}_{\text{max}} + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{D_2E_1}_{\text{max}} \cdot \underbrace{E_1D_3}_{\text{max}} + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{D_3E_2}_{\text{max}} \cdot \underbrace{E_2D}_{\text{max}} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} D_3E_2 \cdot (D_1D_2 + E_1D_3 + E_2D) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} D_3E_2 \cdot (7-2) = \frac{5}{2} D_3E_2 \end{aligned}$$

The max. of $\{BD_1, D_1D_2, D_2E_1, D_3E_2\}$
 $= D_3E_2$

Note that if $\|P\|$ is small enough (so a lot of division points, and each Δx_j is small), then the corresponding D_3E_2 (which is the maximum of $|f(x_j) - f(x_{j-1})|$) is very small.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \int_2^7 x dx &= \frac{1}{2}(2+7)(7-2) = \frac{1}{2}(7^2 - 2^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} x^2 \Big|_{x=2}^{x=7} = \frac{45}{2} \end{aligned}$$

EXAMPLE. Consider the function $f(x) = x^p$ on $[a, b]$, where $p \neq -1$ and $0 < a < b$. Take the partition $P_n = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b\}$, where $x_j = a(\frac{b}{a})^{j/n}$ for $0 \leq j \leq n$. To keep the notation under control, let $R = (b/a)^{1/n}$. For example, $x_j = aR^j$ and $\Delta_j = x_j - x_{j-1} = aR^{j-1}(R-1)$.

So for $p > 0$, we have $R(f, P_n) = R^p L(f, P_n)$ and

$$\begin{aligned} L(f, P_n) &= \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_{j-1}) (x_j - x_{j-1}) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n a^p R^{p(j-1)} a R^{j-1} (R-1) \\ &= a^{p+1} (R-1) \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} R^{(p+1)j}. \end{aligned}$$

Summing the geometric series and rearranging, we have

$$\begin{aligned} L(f, P_n) &= a^{p+1} (R-1) \frac{R^{n(p+1)} - 1}{R^{p+1} - 1} \\ &= a^{p+1} (R-1) \frac{(\frac{b}{a})^{p+1} - 1}{R^{p+1} - 1} \\ &= (b^{p+1} - a^{p+1}) \frac{R-1}{R^{p+1} - 1}. \end{aligned}$$

We will take a limit as $n \rightarrow +\infty$. To show the role of n clearly, we set $r = \frac{b}{a}$ and $h = 1/n$, so that $R = r^{1/n} = r^h$. The key is to recognize the limit as the computation of two derivatives.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L(f, P_n) &= (b^{p+1} - a^{p+1}) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r^{1/n} - 1}{r^{(p+1)/n} - 1} \\ &= (b^{p+1} - a^{p+1}) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{r^h - 1}{h} \frac{h}{r^{(p+1)h} - 1} \\ &= (b^{p+1} - a^{p+1}) \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(r^x)|_{x=0}}{\frac{d}{dx}(r^{(p+1)x})|_{x=0}} \\ &= (b^{p+1} - a^{p+1}) \frac{\log r}{(p+1) \log r} = \frac{b^{p+1} - a^{p+1}}{p+1}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $R(f, P_n) = (\frac{a}{b})^{p/n} L(f, P_n)$ has the same limit, we conclude that

$$\frac{b^{p+1} - a^{p+1}}{p+1} \leq L(f) \leq U(f) \leq \frac{b^{p+1} - a^{p+1}}{p+1}.$$

So this function is Riemann integrable with $\int_a^b x^p dx = \frac{b^{p+1} - a^{p+1}}{p+1}$.

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NOT required (taken from Davidson & Pongig, Real Analysis w. Real Applications)

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

If $F(x)$ is an anti-derivative of $f(x)$, i.e.

$$F'(x) = f(x) \quad \text{on } [a, b],$$

and if $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then

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

Example $f(x) = x$, $a = 2$, $b = 7$.

Let $F(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$. Then $F'(x) = x = f(x)$ on $[2, 7]$.

And we have $\int_2^7 x dx = \frac{1}{2}(7^2 - 2^2) = F(7) - F(2)$.

In fact, for any $a < b$ in $\mathbb{R}$,

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

Heuristic argument for the theorem

$$f(c_j) \Delta x_j$$

(where c_j is a point in $[x_{j-1}, x_j]$)

$$= F'(c_j) \Delta x_j$$

(by assumption, $F'(x) = f(x)$)

$$\approx F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1}) \quad (\text{by Mean Value Thm})$$

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$$\therefore \sum_{j=1}^n f(c_j) \Delta x_j \approx \sum_{j=1}^n [F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1})] = F(x_n) - F(x_0) = F(b) - F(a).$$

More Examples

$$\underline{1.} \quad \int_0^3 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3} x^3 \Big|_{x=3} - \frac{1}{3} x^3 \Big|_{x=0} = 9.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{2.} \quad & \int_1^3 \left(2x + 3e^x - \frac{4}{x} \right) dx \\ &= 2 \int_1^3 x dx + 3 \int_1^3 e^x dx - 4 \int_1^3 \frac{1}{x} dx \\ &= 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} x^2 \Big|_1^3 + 3 \cdot e^x \Big|_1^3 - 4 \ln x \Big|_1^3 \\ &= 8 + 3e(e^2 - 1) - 4 \ln 3. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{3.} \quad & \int_{-4}^1 \sqrt{5-t} dt \\ &= \int_{-4}^1 \sqrt{5-t} dt \Big|_{t=-4}^1 = \int_{t=-4}^{t=1} u^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{dt}{du} du \Big|_{t=-4}^{t=1} \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{with } u=5-t \\ \frac{du}{dt} = -1 \end{array} \right) \\ &= - \int_{t=-4}^{t=1} u^{\frac{1}{2}} du = -\frac{2}{3} (u^{3/2} + C) \Big|_{t=-4}^{t=1} = -\frac{2}{3} (5-t)^{3/2} \Big|_{-4}^1 \\ &= -\frac{2}{3} (4^{3/2} - 9^{3/2}) = -\frac{2}{3} (8 - 27) = \frac{38}{3}. \end{aligned}$$

alternatively

$$= - \int_9^4 u^{\frac{1}{2}} du = -\frac{2}{3} (4^{3/2} - 9^{3/2}) = \frac{38}{3}.$$

$\nwarrow$ $u=4$ when $t=1$
 $\nwarrow$ $u=9$ when $t=-4$.

Average

Given 10 numbers $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_{10}$,

their average $= \frac{1}{10} (a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_{10})$.

Given a continuous function f on $[a, b]$,
how should its average over $[a, b]$ be
defined?

Consider a partition

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$$

with $\Delta x = x_1 - x_0 = x_2 - x_1 = \dots = x_n - x_{n-1}$.

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) = \frac{1}{n(\Delta x)} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k) \Delta x$$

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

$$\leadsto \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

So, we may consider/define

$$\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad \text{as the average of } f \text{ over } [a, b].$$

2nd mean value theorem for integrals.

Thm Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$,
 g is continuous on $[a, b]$, and
of one sign on $[a, b]$ (+ throughout
or - throughout),

Then there exists $\xi \in [a, b]$ such that

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

(first) Mean value theorem for integrals

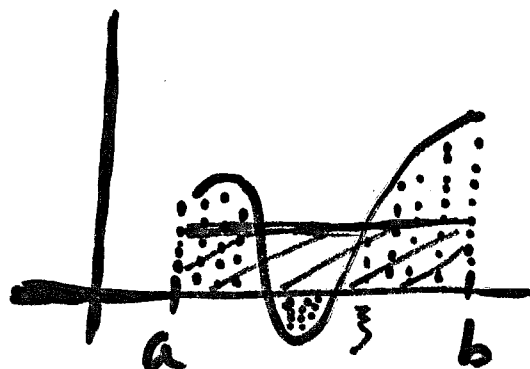
Corollary Suppose that f is continuous on $[a, b]$.

Then there exists $\xi \in [a, b]$ such that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = f(\xi) (b-a),$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx = f(\xi)$$

($a < b$ understood).



e.g.,

$$\frac{1}{2-1} \int_1^2 x^2 dx \quad \left(= \frac{1}{3} (2^3 - 1^3) = \frac{7}{3} \right)$$

$$= \left(\sqrt{\frac{7}{3}} \right)^2,$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_0^2 x^3 dx \quad \left(= \frac{1}{8} \cdot 2^4 = 2 \right)$$

$$= \left(2^{\frac{1}{3}} \right)^3.$$

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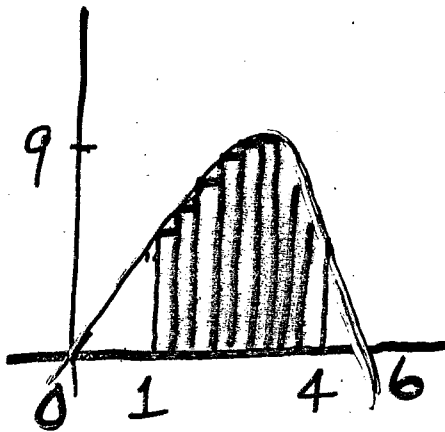
Applications

Area between curves

Examples

$$f(x) = 6x - x^2$$

1. Find the area bounded by $f(x) = 6x - x^2$ and $y = 0$, for $x \in [1, 4]$.



The required area

$$= \int_1^4 f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_1^4 (6x - x^2) dx$$

$$= 6 \left(\frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_1^4 \right) - \left(\frac{1}{3} x^3 \Big|_1^4 \right)$$

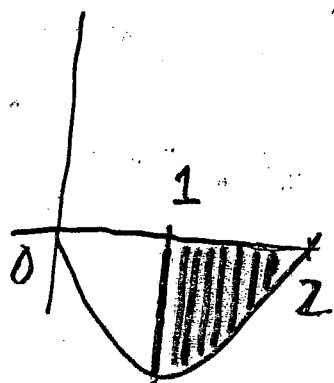
$$= \dots = 24.$$

2. Find the area bounded by

$$f(x) = x^2 - 2x$$

over (A) $[1, 2]$, (B) $[-1, 1]$.

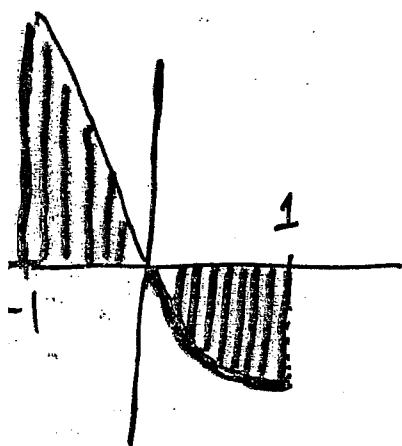
[A]



The required area

$$\begin{aligned} &= - \int_1^2 f(x) dx \quad (\text{as } f(x) \leq 0 \\ &\quad \text{for } x \in [1, 2]) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

[B]



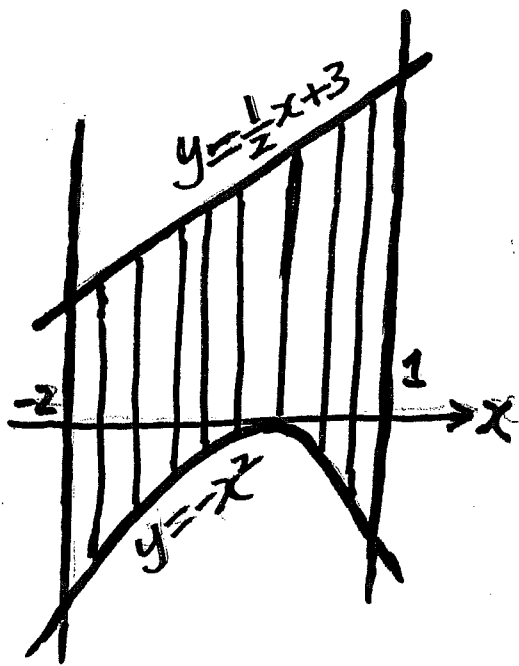
The required area

$$\begin{aligned} &= \cancel{\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx} \\ &= \int_{-1}^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^1 [-f(x)] dx \end{aligned}$$

3. Find the area between / bounded by the graphs of

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x + 3, \quad g(x) = -x^2, \quad x = -2$$

and $x = 1$.



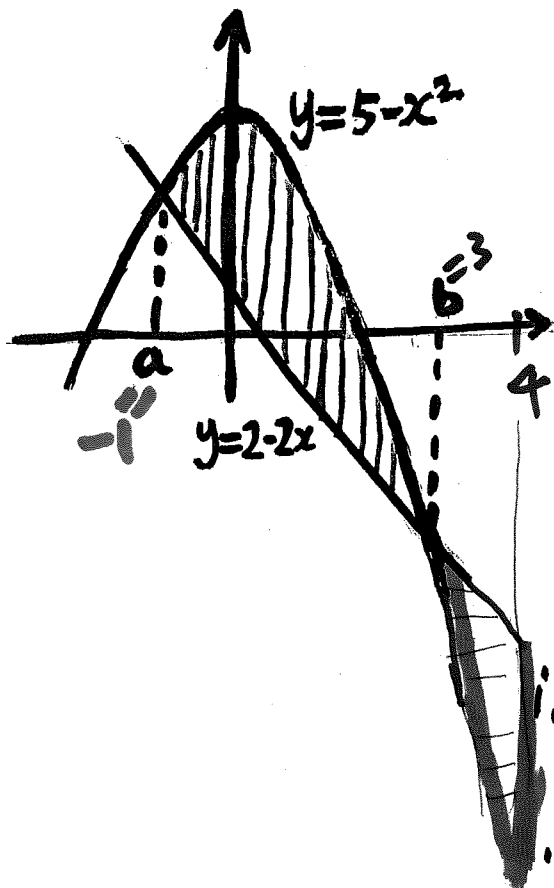
The required area

$$= \int_{-2}^1 [f(x) - g(x)] dx$$

$$= \int_{-2}^1 \left(x^2 + \frac{x}{2} + 3 \right) dx \quad \left(\text{as } g(x) \leq f(x) \text{ on } [-2, 1] \right)$$

$$= \dots = \frac{33}{4}.$$

4. Find the area between the graphs of
enclosed by
 $f(x) = 5 - x^2$ and $g(x) = 2 - 2x$.



By the graph, the required area is given by

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

where a, b are solutions of

$$g(x) = f(x),$$

$$\text{i.e. } x^2 - 2x - 3 = 0$$

$$\therefore a = -1, b = 3$$

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

$$= \int_{-1}^3 (-x^2 + 2x + 3) dx$$

$$= \dots = \frac{32}{3}.$$

5. Find the area bounded by the graphs of $f(x) = 5 - x^2$, $g(x) = 2 - 2x$, and $x = 4$.

(cf. that of the previous example)
By the graph, the required area is

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{-1}^3 [f(x) - g(x)] dx + \int_3^4 \underline{[g(x) - f(x)]} dx \quad (\text{why?}) \\ &= \frac{32}{3} + \int_3^4 (x^2 - 2x - 3) dx \\ &= \frac{32}{3} + \frac{7}{3} = 13. \end{aligned}$$

Thm Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$.

Then the function $I: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$I(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt, \quad x \in [a, b]$$

is differentiable on $[a, b]$, and

$$I'(x) = f(x), \quad x \in [a, b]$$

i.e. $\boxed{\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x), \quad x \in [a, b]}$

Proof Let $x \in [a, b)$, $h \in (0, b-x)$. Then

$$I(x+h) - I(x) = \int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

$$= \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = h f(\xi) \text{ for some } \xi \in [x, x+h].$$

(Explanation is given for the last equality in class)

Hence $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{I(x+h) - I(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} f(\xi) = f(x),$

i.e. $I'_+(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b)$.

Similarly, $I'_-(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in (a, b]$.

$\therefore I'(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$.

Thm Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$. Then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_x^b f(t) dt = -f(x), \quad x \in [a, b].$$

Examples

1. $\int_a^x \sin t \, dt = -\cos t \Big|_{t=a}^x = \cos a - \cos x$

and $\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x \sin t \, dt = \frac{d}{dx} (\cos a - \cos x) = \sin x.$

Similarly, $\int_x^b \sin t \, dt = -\cos b + \cos x,$

and $\frac{d}{dx} \int_x^b \sin t \, dt = -\sin x.$

2. $\frac{d}{dx} \int_x^2 e^{-t^2} dt = -e^{-x^2},$

even though it is impossible to express $\int e^{-t^2} dt$

in terms of (elementary) functions we have met so far (by means arithmetic ^{operations} & rational powers)

Arc-lengths, Volumes, and Surface Areas

A non-self-intersecting arc in the plane is, by definition, a function $F: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ such that for all $x_1 \neq x_2$ in $[a, b]$, $F(x_1) \neq F(x_2)$ [except ^{perhaps} when $\{x_1, x_2\} = \{a, b\}$].

There is good mathematical sense to define an arc as a function F , NOT the ~~graph~~ ^{range} $\{F(x): x \in [a, b]\}$.
NOT the graph $\{(x, F(x)): x \in [a, b]\}$.

Example 1 The upper semi-circle of radius r is given by:

$$f(x) = \sqrt{r^2 - x^2}, \quad x \in [-r, r].$$

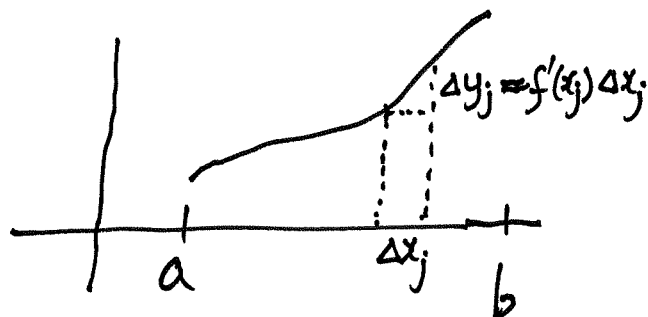
By this we mean the function $F: [-r, r] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2: x \mapsto (x, f(x))$.

Thus, for each function $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, we can consider the function $F: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2: x \mapsto (x, f(x))$. Then F is a non-self-intersecting arc in the above sense. By abuse of language, we refer f as an arc [instead of the $F: x \mapsto (x, f(x))$]. Often, we assume f has continuous derivative f' on $[a, b]$.

The length of such an arc is given by:

$$\int_a^b \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} \, dx.$$

The reason for such a definition can be illustrated by the following diagram:



Example 2 For the arc given in Example 1 above, the arc-length is computed as follows:

$$\int_{-r}^r \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{d}{dx} \sqrt{r^2 - x^2} \right)^2} dx$$

$$= \int_{-r}^r \sqrt{1 + \left[\frac{1}{2} (r^2 - x^2)^{-1/2} (-2x) \right]^2} dx$$

$$= \int_{-r}^r \sqrt{1 + x^2 (r^2 - x^2)^{-1}} dx$$

$$= \int r d\theta \Big|_{x=-r}^{x=r}$$

$$= r \arccos \frac{x}{r} \Big|_{x=-r}^{x=r}$$

$$= r [\arccos(1) - \arccos(-1)]$$

$$= r [0 - (-\pi)] = \pi r.$$

by substitution
 $x = r \cos \theta, \theta \in [-\pi, 0].$

then

$$\sqrt{1 + x^2 (r^2 - x^2)^{-1}} = \frac{1}{-\sin \theta}$$

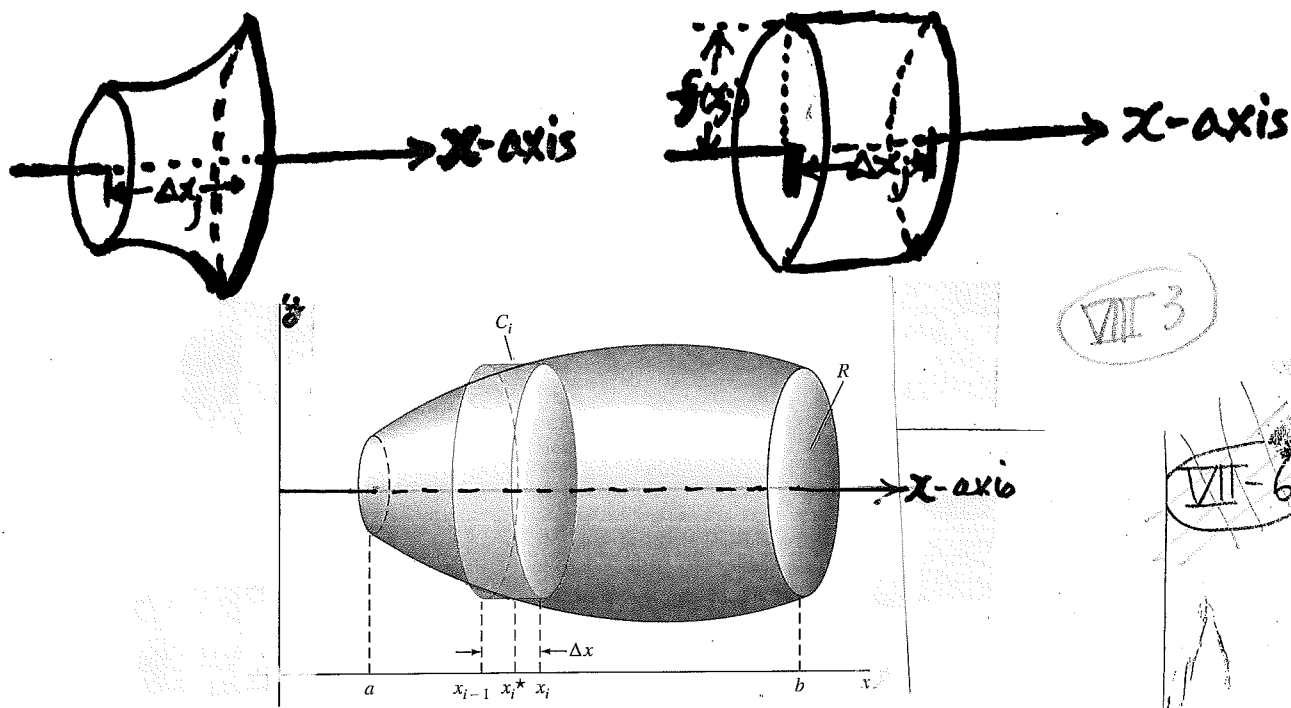
$$\frac{dx}{d\theta} = -r \sin \theta$$

Therefore, the length of a circle with radius r
 $= 2\pi r.$

Suppose $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, and suppose we revolve, about the x -axis, the region bounded by the graph of f , the lines $x=a$, $x=b$ and $y=0$. Then the region sweeps out a solid, called a solid of revolution. The volume of this solid is given by:

$$\int_a^b \pi (f(x))^2 dx.$$

The reason for this definition can be illustrated by the following diagram:



Example 3 The volume of the solid obtained by revolving, ^{about the x-axis,} the region bounded by the arc given in Example 1 above, and the lines $x=-r$, $x=r$ and $y=0$, is computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{-r}^r \pi (f(x))^2 dx \\ &= \pi \int_{-r}^r (r^2 - x^2) dx \\ &= \pi \left[r^2(2r) - \frac{1}{3}(r^3 - (-r)^3) \right] \\ &= \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 \end{aligned}$$

Example 4 The volume of the solid obtained by revolving, about the y-axis, the region described in Example 3 above, is computed as follows:

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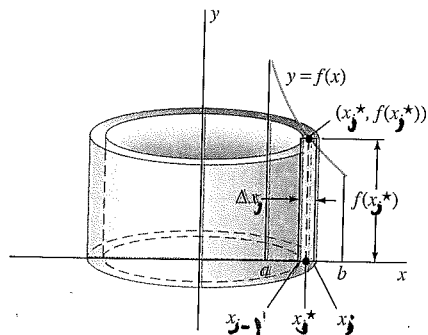
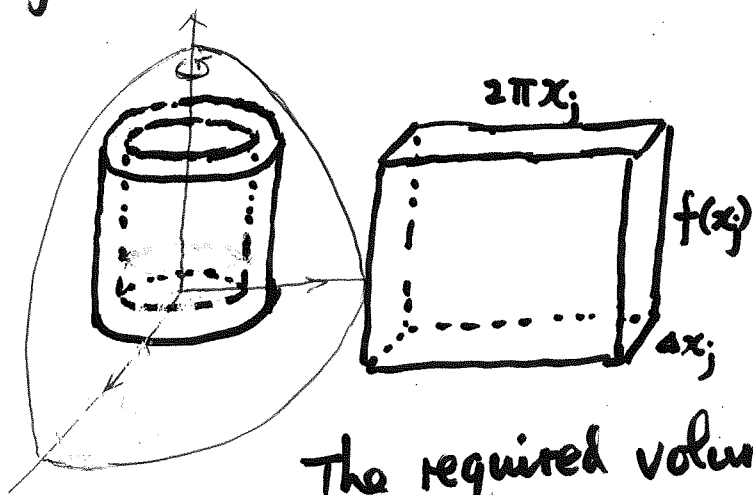
$$\int_0^r \pi [f^{-1}(y)]^2 dy$$

$$= \int_0^r \pi (r^2 - y^2) dy$$

$$= \pi \left[r^3 - \frac{1}{3}(r^3) \right] = \frac{2}{3} \pi r^3.$$

The shell method

Example 5 Find the same volume of Example 4 by the shell method.



$$\text{The required volume} = \int_0^r 2\pi x f(x) dx$$

$$= -\pi \int u^{\frac{1}{2}} du \Big|_{u=r^2}^0$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \pi r^3.$$

(where $u = r^2 - x^2$)

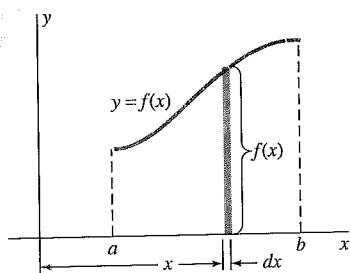
Example 6 Find the volume V of the solid generated by revolving the region under $y = 3x^2 - x^3$, from $x=2$ to $x=3$, around the y -axis.

We draw the picture (which looks like the plots below).

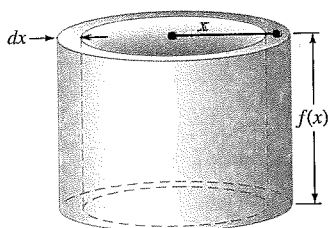
The required volume $= \int_0^3 2\pi x y \, dx$

$$= \int_0^3 2\pi (3x^3 - x^4) \, dx = \dots$$

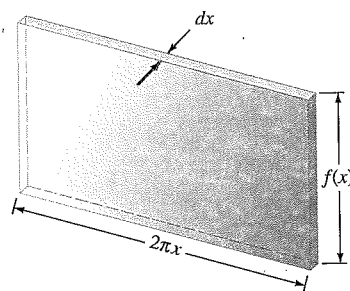
$$= 24.3\pi.$$



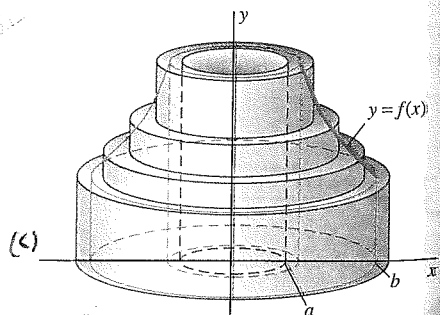
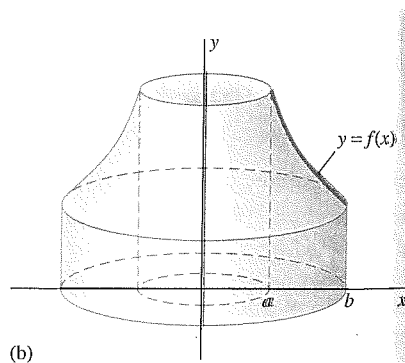
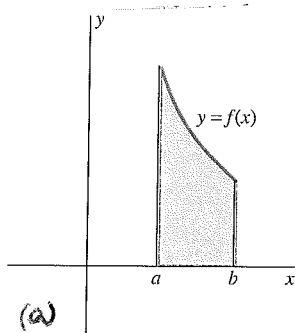
Heuristic device for setting up the equation



Cylindrical shell of very small thickness.



very thin cylindrical shell, flattened out.



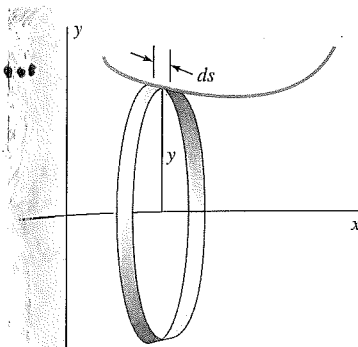
Example 6 Find the volume V of the solid generated by revolving around the region under $y=3x^2-x^3$, from $x=0$ to $x=3$, around the y -axis.

Draw the picture.

The required volume = $\int_0^3 2\pi x y dx$

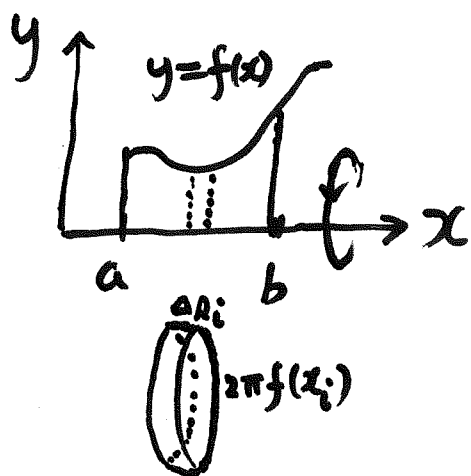
$$= \int_0^3 2\pi (3x^3 - x^4) dx = \dots$$

$$= 24.3 \pi$$



The tiny arc ds generates a ribbon with circumference $2\pi y$ when it is revolved around the x -axis.

Areas of Surfaces of revolution



$$\sum_j 2\pi f(x_j) \Delta x_j \rightarrow \int_a^b 2\pi f(x) \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$$

$$\Delta x_j = \sqrt{1 + [f'(x_j)]^2} \Delta x_j$$

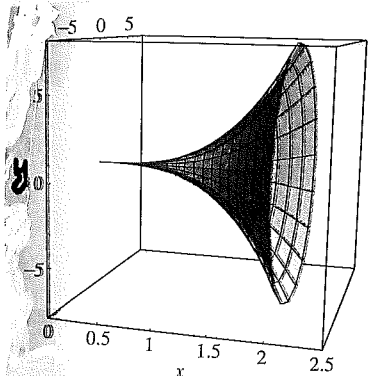
Example 7 Find the area of the surface generated by revolving the curve $y=x^3$, $x \in [0, 2]$ around the x -axis.

The required area = $\int_0^2 2\pi x^3 \sqrt{1 + [(x^3)']^2} dx$

$$= \int_0^2 2\pi x^3 \sqrt{1 + 9x^4} dx$$

$$= \dots$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{27} [(145)^{3/2} - 1] \approx 203.$$



VIII 6