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Mh4714 Week 11

## Week 11

### 0.1 Integration (contd.)

If $f(x)<0 \quad \forall x \in[a, b]$ then it is easy to see that $\int_{a}^{b} f$ is the negative of the area between the curve, the x-axis and the lines $x=a$ and $x=b$.
If $f(x)$ is sometimes positive and sometimes negative over $[a, b]$ it is easy to see that $\int_{a}^{b} f$ is the area under the curve above the x -axis minus the area above the curve, and below the x -axis, and the lines $x=a$ and $x=b$.

Note: The notation $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \mathrm{d} x$ has evolved from the special form that upper and lower sums have when $f(x)$ is continuous and the partition uses $n$ subintervals of equal length.
If the length of each sub-interval is $\Delta x$ then we can write

$$
\begin{aligned}
& U(f, P)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i} \Delta x, \\
& L(f, P)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i}\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \Delta x .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $f$ is continuous then we will have $M_{i}=f\left(x_{i}^{*}\right)$ for some $x_{i}^{*} \in\left[x_{i-1}, x_{i}\right]$ and $m_{i}=f\left(x_{i}^{* *}\right)$ for some $x_{i}^{* *} \in\left[x_{i-1}, x_{i}\right]$. That is
$U(f, P)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i} \Delta x=\sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}^{*}\right) \Delta x, L(f, P)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i}\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}^{* *}\right) \Delta x$.
and then

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \mathrm{d} x=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}^{*}\right) \Delta x=\lim _{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f\left(x_{i}^{* *}\right) \Delta x .
$$

The symbol $\int$ is the ghost of the $\sum$ symbol and the $\mathrm{d} x$ symbol is the ghost of the $\Delta x$.
The symbol $\mathrm{d} x$ is useful because it keeps track of the variable of integration. For example

$$
\int_{1}^{2} x^{2} y \mathrm{~d} x \text { and } \int_{1}^{2} x^{2} y \mathrm{~d} y
$$

are different integrals.
0.1.0.1 Properties of Integrals. If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are both integrable over $[a, b]$ then
(i) $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)+g(x) \mathrm{d} x=\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \mathrm{d} x+\int_{a}^{b} g(x) \mathrm{d} x$.
(ii) $\int_{a}^{b} k f(x) \mathrm{d} x=k \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \mathrm{d} x$ for any $k \in \mathbb{R}$.

## Theorem 0.1 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)

Let $f$ be integrable over $[a, b]$ and $f=g^{\prime}$ for some function $g$, then

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=g(b)-g(a)
$$

## Proof

Let $P=\left\{x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ be any partition of $[a, b]$
Applying the Mean Value Theorem to the function $g$ over the interval $\left[x_{i-1}, x_{i}\right]$, we know that there is a point $c_{i} \in\left[x_{i-1}, x_{i}\right]$ with

$$
g\left(x_{i}\right)-g\left(x_{i-1}\right)=g^{\prime}\left(c_{i}\right)\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right)=f\left(c_{i}\right)\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right)
$$

Using the usual notation we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
m_{i} \leq f\left(c_{i}\right) \leq M_{i} \\
\Rightarrow m_{i}\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right) \leq f\left(c_{i}\right)\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right) \leq M_{i}\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right) \\
\Rightarrow m_{i}\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right) \leq g\left(x_{i}\right)-g\left(x_{i-1}\right) \leq M_{i}\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

$\Rightarrow L(f, P)=\sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i}\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(g\left(x_{i}\right)-g\left(x_{i-1}\right)\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}\left(x_{i}-x_{i-1}\right)=U(f, P)$
But

$$
\begin{gathered}
\sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(g\left(x_{i}\right)-g\left(x_{i-1}\right)\right)=\left(g\left(x_{1}\right)-g\left(x_{0}\right)\right)+\left(g\left(x_{2}\right)-g\left(x_{1}\right)\right)+\left(g\left(x_{3}\right)-g\left(x_{2}\right)\right) \ldots\left(g\left(x_{n}\right)-g\left(x_{n-1}\right)\right) \\
=g\left(x_{n}\right)-g\left(x_{0}\right)=g(b)-g(a) .
\end{gathered}
$$

That is

$$
L(f, P) \leq g(b)-g(a) \leq U(f, P) \text { for every partition } P
$$

That is $g(b)-g(a)$ is an upper bound for $\mathfrak{L}$ and a lower bound for $\mathfrak{U}$. That is

$$
\operatorname{lub} \mathfrak{L} \leq g(b)-g(a) \leq \operatorname{glb} \mathfrak{U}
$$

and since $f$ is integrable over $[a, b]$ we have lub $\mathfrak{L}=\operatorname{glb} \mathfrak{U}=\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$ That is $g(b)-g(a)=\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$.

## Example 0.2

Since $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d} x} \frac{1}{3} x^{3}=x^{2}$ it follows from the above theorem that

$$
\int_{a}^{b} x^{2} \mathrm{~d} x=\frac{1}{3} b^{3}-\frac{1}{3} a^{3} .
$$

### 0.1.0.2 Indefinite integral.

Because of the above theorem, the symbol $\int f(x) \mathrm{d} x$ without the upper and lower limits represents an anti-derivative of $f(x)$..
That is,

$$
\int f(x) \mathrm{d} x=F(x) \Rightarrow \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x} F(x)=f(x) .
$$

Since $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d} x} k=0$ for any $k \in \mathbb{R}$ there can be infinitely many anti-derivatives for a given function.

## Example 0.3

$$
\int x^{3} \mathrm{~d} x=\frac{1}{4} x^{4}+c \quad \text { for any } c \in R
$$

It is also true that

$$
\int\left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x} f(x)\right) \mathrm{d} x=f(x)+c, \quad \text { for any } c \in \mathbb{R} .
$$

### 0.1.1 Techniques of Integration

### 0.1.1.1 Integration by Substitution.

The substitution rule is based on the chain rule for differentiation.

Recall that, according to the chain rule (assuming that all functions are suitably differentiable), we have

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x} f(u(x))=\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} u} f(u) \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x} u(x)
$$

## Example 0.4

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x} \sin \left(x^{2}\right)=2 x \cos \left(x^{2}\right)
$$

Therefore we can see that

$$
\int\left(\frac{d}{d u} f(u) \frac{d}{d x} u(x)\right) \mathrm{d} x=\int \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x}(f(u(x))) \mathrm{d} x=f(u(x)) .
$$

## Example 0.5

$$
\int 2 x \cos \left(x^{2}\right) \mathrm{d}=\int \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x} \sin \left(x^{2}\right) \mathrm{d}=\sin \left(x^{2}\right)
$$

The substitution rule is now obvious because

$$
\int\left(\frac{d}{d u} f(u) \frac{d}{d x} u(x)\right) \mathrm{d} x=f(u(x))=\int \frac{d}{d u} f(u) \mathrm{d} u .
$$

Notationally we see that

$$
\frac{d}{d x} u(x) \mathrm{d} x
$$

in the left hand integral has been replaced by
in the right hand integral (as if $\mathrm{d} x$ has been cancelled!)
Thus we get the substitution rule

$$
\int F(u) \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x} u(x) \mathrm{d} x \rightarrow \int F(u) \mathrm{d} u
$$

## Example 0.6

(i)

$$
\int \begin{array}{lc}
\frac{d u}{d x} & \stackrel{u}{\downarrow} \\
2 x & \cos \left(x^{2}\right) \mathrm{d} x=\int \cos (u) \mathrm{d} u=\sin (u)+c=\sin \left(x^{2}\right)+c
\end{array}
$$

Therefore

$$
\int_{a}^{b} 2 x \cos \left(x^{2}\right) \mathrm{d} x=\sin \left(b^{2}\right)-\sin \left(a^{2}\right) .
$$

(ii)

$$
\int(b+x)^{n} \mathrm{~d} x=\int \stackrel{\frac{d u}{d x}}{\stackrel{\downarrow}{1}} \stackrel{\stackrel{u}{\downarrow}}{\stackrel{\downarrow}{1}}(b+x)^{n} \mathrm{~d} x=\int u^{n} \mathrm{~d} u=\frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1}=\frac{(b+x)^{n+1}}{n+1}+c
$$

if $n \neq-1$.
Therefore

$$
\int_{a}^{b}(b+x)^{n} \mathrm{~d} x=\left[\frac{(b+x)^{n+1}}{n+1}\right]_{a}^{b}=\frac{2 b^{n+1}}{n+1}-\frac{(b+a)^{n+1}}{n+1}
$$

if $n \neq-1$.
(iii)
$\int(b-x)^{n} \mathrm{~d} x=-\int \stackrel{\left.\frac{d u}{d x} \stackrel{u}{\downarrow} \stackrel{\downarrow}{\downarrow}-1(b-x)^{n} \mathrm{~d} x=-\int u^{n} \mathrm{~d} u=-\frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1}=-\frac{(b-x)^{n+1}}{n+1}+c . c \right\rvert\,}{ }$
if $n \neq-1$.
Therefore

$$
\int_{a}^{b}(b-x)^{n} \mathrm{~d} x=\left[-\frac{(b-x)^{n+1}}{n+1}\right]_{a}^{b}=\frac{(b-a)^{n+1}}{n+1}
$$

if $n \neq-1$.

### 0.1.1.2 Integration by Parts.

The product rule for differentiation suggests another technique for evaluating indefinite integrals:

Firstly note the fact that $\int \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d} x} f(x) \mathrm{d} x=f(x)+$ constant by definition of indefinite integration.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x}(u v)=u \frac{\mathrm{~d} v}{\mathrm{~d} x}+v \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \Rightarrow \int \frac{\mathrm{~d}}{\mathrm{~d} x}(u v) \mathrm{d} x=\int u \frac{\mathrm{~d} v}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d}+\int v \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x \Rightarrow u v=\int \frac{\mathrm{d} v}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x+\int v \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x \\
\Rightarrow=u v-\int v \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x .
\end{gathered}
$$

We thus transform the integral $\int u \frac{\mathrm{~d} v}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x$ into $\int v \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x$ and it sometimes happens that $\int v \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x$ is easier to evaluate than $\int u \frac{\mathrm{~d} v}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x$.

## Example 0.7

- Evaluate $\int x \cos (x) \mathrm{d} x$.

We note that we can easily find an indefinite integral for $\cos (x)$ and we can reduce $x$ to 1 by differentiation.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =x \sin (x)-(-\cos (x))+\text { constant }=x \sin (x)+\cos (x)+\text { constant }
\end{aligned}
$$

- Evaluate $\int x^{2} \cos (x) \mathrm{d} x$.

Here we will apply integration by parts twice:

We now apply integration by parts again to evaluate $\int 2 x \sin (x) \mathrm{d} x$.

$$
=-x \cos (x)+\int \cos (x) \mathrm{d} x=-x \cos (x)+\sin (x)+\text { constant }
$$

Therefore we have:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\int x^{2} \cos (x) \mathrm{d} x=x^{2} \sin (x)-2(-x \cos (x)+\sin (x))+\text { constant } \\
\left.=x^{2} \sin (x)+2 x \cos (x)-2 \sin (x)\right)+ \text { constant }
\end{gathered}
$$

### 0.1.2 Taylor's Theorem

We can prove a very important theorem using integration by parts.

## Theorem 0.8

Let $f$ be infinitely differentiable over $\mathbb{R}$.
Prove that for any real numbers $a$ and $b$

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(b)=f(a)+f^{(1)}(a)(b-a)+\frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(b-a)^{2}+\frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b-a)^{3} & +\cdots+\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^{n} \\
& +\int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x)}{n!}(b-x)^{n} \mathrm{~d} x
\end{aligned}
$$

for all integers $n \geq 0$.

## Proof

We will use induction to prove this.
To prove the case $n=0$, note that

$$
\int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(1)}(x)}{0!}(b-x)^{0} \mathrm{~d} x=\int_{a}^{b} f^{(1)}(x) \mathrm{d} x=f(b)-f(a)
$$

That is,

$$
f(b)=f(a)+\int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(1)}(x)}{0!}(b-x)^{0} \mathrm{~d} x
$$

which is the case for $n=0$.

Now we will show that the $n=k$ case implies the $n=k+1$ case:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(b)=f(a)+f^{(1)}(a)(b-a)+\frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(b-a)^{2}+\frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b-a)^{3} & +\cdots+\frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(b-a)^{k} \\
& +\int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(k+1)}(x)}{k!}(b-x)^{k} \mathrm{~d} x
\end{aligned}
$$

Using integration by parts we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(k+1)}(x)}{k!}(b-x)^{k} \mathrm{~d} x & \\
& =\left[\frac{f^{(k+1)}(x)}{k!}\left(-\frac{(b-x)^{k+1}}{k+1}\right)\right]_{a}^{b}-\int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(k+2)}(x)}{k!}\left(-\frac{(b-x)^{k+1}}{k+1}\right) \mathrm{d} x \\
& =\frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{(k+1)!}(b-a)^{k+1}+\int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(k+2)}(x)}{(k+1)!}(b-x)^{k+1} \mathrm{~d} x
\end{aligned}
$$

And so we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(b)=f(a)+f^{(1)}(a)(b-a) & +\frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(b-a)^{2}+\frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b-a)^{3}+\cdots+\frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^{k} \\
& +\frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{(k+1)!}(b-a)^{k+1}+\int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(k+2)}(x)}{(k+1)!}(b-x)^{k+1} \mathrm{~d} x
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore it follows from the Principle of Induction that

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(b)=f(a)+f^{(1)}(a)(b-a)+\frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(b-a)^{2}+\frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b-a)^{3} & +\cdots+\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^{n} \\
& +\int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x)}{n!}(b-x)^{n} \mathrm{~d} x
\end{aligned}
$$

for all $n \geq 0$.

