Pat O'Sullivan

# 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  $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$  has evolved from the special form that upper and lower sums have when f(x) is continuous and the partition uses n sub-intervals of equal length.

If the length of each sub-interval is  $\Delta x$  then we can write

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i (x_i - x_{i-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i \Delta x,$$
  
$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i (x_i - x_{i-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i \Delta x.$$

Since f is continuous then we will have  $M_i = f(x_i^*)$  for some  $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$ and  $m_i = f(x_i^{**})$  for some  $x_i^{**} \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$ . That is

$$U(f,P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i \Delta x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*) \Delta x, L(f,P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i (x_i - x_{i-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^{**}) \Delta x.$$

and then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \mathrm{d}x = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^*) \Delta x = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i^{**}) \Delta x.$$

The symbol  $\int$  is the ghost of the  $\sum$  symbol and the dx symbol is the ghost of the  $\Delta x$ .

The symbol dx 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) 
$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) + g(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx.$$
  
(ii) 
$$\int_{a}^{b} k f(x) dx = k \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \text{ for any } k \in \mathbb{R}.$$

#### Theorem 0.1 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)

Let f be integrable over [a, b] and f = g' for some function g, then

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

#### Proof

Let  $P = \{x_0, \ldots, x_n\}$  be any partition of [a, b]

Applying the Mean Value Theorem to the function g over the interval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ , we know that there is a point  $c_i \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$  with

$$g(x_i) - g(x_{i-1}) = g'(c_i)(x_i - x_{i-1}) = f(c_i)(x_i - x_{i-1})$$

Using the usual notation we have

$$m_{i} \leq f(c_{i}) \leq M_{i}$$
  

$$\Rightarrow m_{i}(x_{i} - x_{i-1}) \leq f(c_{i})(x_{i} - x_{i-1}) \leq M_{i}(x_{i} - x_{i-1})$$
  

$$\Rightarrow m_{i}(x_{i} - x_{i-1}) \leq g(x_{i}) - g(x_{i-1}) \leq M_{i}(x_{i} - x_{i-1})$$

$$\Rightarrow L(f,P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i(x_i - x_{i-1}) \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} (g(x_i) - g(x_{i-1})) \le \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i(x_i - x_{i-1}) = U(f,P)$$

But

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} (g(x_i) - g(x_{i-1})) = (g(x_1) - g(x_0)) + (g(x_2) - g(x_1)) + (g(x_3) - g(x_2)) \dots (g(x_n) - g(x_{n-1}))$$
$$= g(x_n) - g(x_0) = g(b) - g(a).$$

That is

$$L(f, P) \le g(b) - g(a) \le U(f, P)$$
 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

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

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

г		п
L		1
L		

#### 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  $\int f(x) dx$  without the upper and lower limits represents an *anti-derivative* of f(x)... That is,

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) \Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}F(x) = f(x)$$

Since  $\frac{d}{dx}k = 0$  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

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

Therefore we can see that

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

Example 0.5

$$\int 2x\cos(x^2)d = \int \frac{d}{dx}\sin(x^2)d = \sin(x^2).$$

The *substitution rule* is now obvious because

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

Notationally we see that

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

in the left hand integral has been replaced by

in the right hand integral (as if dx has been cancelled!) Thus we get the *substitution rule* 

$$\int F(u) \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} u(x) \mathrm{d}x \to \int F(u) \mathrm{d}u.$$

# Example 0.6

(i)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\frac{du}{dx}}{2x} \cos\left(\frac{u}{x^2}\right) dx = \int \cos(u) du = \sin(u) + c = \sin(x^2) + c$$
  
Therefore

$$\int_{a}^{b} 2x \cos(x^{2}) dx = \sin(b^{2}) - \sin(a^{2}).$$

(ii)

$$\int (b+x)^n dx = \int \int \frac{du}{1} \int (b+x)^n dx = \int u^n du = \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} = \frac{(b+x)^{n+1}}{n+1} + c$$
  
if  $n \neq -1$ .  
Therefore  
$$\int_a^b (b+x)^n dx = \left[\frac{(b+x)^{n+1}}{n+1}\right]_a^b = \frac{2b^{n+1}}{n+1} - \frac{(b+a)^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

if  $n \neq -1$ .

(iii)

$$\int (b-x)^n dx = -\int \int (b-x)^n dx = -\int u^n du = -\frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} = -\frac{(b-x)^{n+1}}{n+1} + c$$
  
if  $n \neq -1$ .  
Therefore  
$$\int_a^b (b-x)^n dx = \left[-\frac{(b-x)^{n+1}}{n+1}\right]_a^b = \frac{(b-a)^{n+1}}{n+1}$$

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  $\int \frac{d}{dx} f(x) dx = f(x) + \text{ constant}$  by definition of indefinite integration.

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(uv) = u\frac{\mathrm{d}v}{\mathrm{d}x} + v\frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}x} \Rightarrow \int \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(uv)\mathrm{d}x = \int u\frac{\mathrm{d}v}{\mathrm{d}x}\mathrm{d}x + \int v\frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}x}\mathrm{d}x \Rightarrow uv = \int \frac{\mathrm{d}v}{\mathrm{d}x}\mathrm{d}x + \int v\frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}x}\mathrm{d}x \\ \Rightarrow = uv - \int v\frac{\mathrm{d}u}{\mathrm{d}x}\mathrm{d}x.$$

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  $\int x \cos(x) dx$ .

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

$$\int \underset{u}{x\cos(x)dx} = \underset{u}{x\sin(x)}{x\sin(x)} - \int \underset{u}{1} \underset{v}{\sin(x)dx} = x\sin(x) - \int \underset{u}{\sin(x)dx}{\sin(x)dx}$$

- $= x \sin(x) (-\cos(x)) + \text{ constant } = x \sin(x) + \cos(x) + \text{ constant}$
- Evaluate  $\int x^2 \cos(x) dx$ .

Here we will apply integration by parts twice:

$$\int x^2 \cos(x) dx = x^2 \sin(x) - \int 2x \sin(x) dx$$

We now apply integration by parts again to evaluate  $\int 2x \sin(x) dx$ .

$$\int \underset{\stackrel{\scriptstyle \parallel}{x} \le u}{x \sin(x)} dx = \underset{\stackrel{\scriptstyle \parallel}{x}}{x} (-\cos(x)) - \int \underset{\stackrel{\scriptstyle \parallel}{x} \le u}{1} (-\cos(x)) dx$$

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

Therefore we have:

$$\int x^2 \cos(x) dx = x^2 \sin(x) - 2(-x \cos(x) + \sin(x)) + \text{ constant}$$
$$= x^2 \sin(x) + 2x \cos(x) - 2\sin(x)) + \text{ constant}$$

#### 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

$$f(b) = f(a) + f^{(1)}(a)(b-a) + \frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(b-a)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b-a)^3 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^n + \int_a^b \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x)}{n!}(b-x)^n dx$$

for all integers  $n \ge 0$ .

#### 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,

$$f(b) = f(a) + \int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{(1)}(x)}{0!} (b-x)^{0} dx.$$

which is the case for n = 0.

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

$$f(b) = f(a) + f^{(1)}(a)(b-a) + \frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(b-a)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b-a)^3 + \dots + \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(b-a)^k + \int_a^b \frac{f^{(k+1)}(x)}{k!}(b-x)^k dx$$

Using integration by parts we get

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

And so we have

$$f(b) = f(a) + f^{(1)}(a)(b-a) + \frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(b-a)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b-a)^3 + \dots + \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^k + \frac{f^{(k+1)}(a)}{(k+1)!}(b-a)^{k+1} + \int_a^b \frac{f^{(k+2)}(x)}{(k+1)!}(b-x)^{k+1} dx$$

Therefore it follows from the Principle of Induction that

$$f(b) = f(a) + f^{(1)}(a)(b-a) + \frac{f^{(2)}(a)}{2!}(b-a)^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(a)}{3!}(b-a)^3 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^n + \int_a^b \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x)}{n!}(b-x)^n dx$$
for all  $n \ge 0$ .