

Mathematics 2

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Week 1 - Integrals

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Outline

1 Indefinite integral

2 Solving Integrals

- Integration by substitution
- Integration by parts

3 Definite integral

Indefinite Integral

Suppose you are given a function $g : \mathcal{D} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and you want to compute a function F such that

$$F'(x) = g(x), \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{D}$$

The function F is called an *anti-derivative* of g .

In fact, to compute F we will need to **reverse** the process of computing a derivative

Indefinite Integral

Remark (The antiderivative is not unique)

Suppose you are given the function

$$g(x) = 2x.$$

An anti-derivative of $g(x)$ is

$$F(x) = x^2$$

Another antiderivative of $g(x)$ is

$$F(x) = x^2 + 5$$

In fact the derivative of any constant is null.

Theorem

Let $g : D \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function.

If $g(x)$ has an anti-derivative $F(x)$, then it has infinitely many anti-derivatives that are given by

$$F(x) + c$$

Proof. By hypothesis, $F'(x) = g(x)$. We want to show that the derivative of $F(x) + c$ is also $g(x)$. In fact we get that:

$$D[F(x) + c] = F'(x) + 0 = g(x).$$

This concludes the proof.

Definition (Indefinite integral)

Let $g : D \subseteq \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. The indefinite integral of g is the class of *all antiderivatives* of g .

We indicate the integral of g with the symbol

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

and the function $g(x)$ is called the *integrand*.

Elementary Indefinite Integral

(i) Let $a \neq -1$.

$$\int x^a dx = \frac{x^{a+1}}{a+1} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

Proof. We compute the derivative of $\frac{x^{a+1}}{a+1} + c$ and we would like to get x^a .

$$D \left[\frac{x^{a+1}}{a+1} + c \right] = \frac{1}{a+1} + D [x^{a+1}] + 0 = \frac{(a+1)x^a}{a+1} = x^a$$

Elementary Indefinite Integral

(ii) If $a = -1$, then $x^a = \frac{1}{x}$ which is well defined for all $x \neq 0$.

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \lg |x| + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}, x \neq 0$$

Be careful! You need the ABSOLUTE VALUE of x , since the function $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined for all $x \neq 0$, **BUT** $\lg x$ is only defined for $x > 0$.

Elementary Indefinite Integral: Examples

1

$$\int x \, dx = \frac{x^2}{2} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

2

$$\int x^2 \, dx = \frac{x^3}{3} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

3

$$\int \frac{1}{x^4} \, dx = \int x^{-4} \, dx = \frac{x^{-4+1}}{-4+1} + c = -\frac{1}{3x^3} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

4

$$\int \sqrt{x} \, dx = \int x^{\frac{1}{2}} \, dx = \frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}+1}}{\frac{1}{2}+1} + c = \frac{2x\sqrt{x}}{3} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

Elementary Indefinite Integral

$$(iii) \int e^x dx = e^x + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$(iv) \int e^{ax} dx = \frac{e^{ax}}{a} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Proof.

$$D \left[\frac{e^{ax}}{a} + c \right] = \frac{1}{a} D[e^{ax}] + 0 = \frac{ae^{ax}}{a} = e^{ax}.$$

(v) Finally, since $a^x = e^{x \lg a}$, for all $a > 0$, we get that

$$\int a^x dx = \int e^{x \lg a} dx = \frac{1}{\lg a} e^{x \lg a} + c = \frac{1}{\lg a} a^x + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Elementary Indefinite Integral: Examples

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \int e^{5x} dx = \frac{1}{5}e^{5x} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \int e^{\frac{1}{5}x} dx = 5e^{\frac{1}{5}x} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \int 7^x dx = \frac{1}{\lg 7} 7^x + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Elementary Indefinite Integral

$$(vi) \int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$(vii) \int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$(viii) \int \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} \, dx = \tan x + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Proof.

$$D[\tan(x) + c] = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} + 0$$

$$(ix) \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} \, dx = \arctan(x) + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$(x) \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx = \arcsin(x) + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Elementary Indefinite Integral: the chain rule

By the **chain rule** we have that $D[f(g(x))] = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$. By reversing this rule we can compute the following elementary integrals:

1. For all $\alpha \neq -1$

$$\int (g(x))^\alpha g'(x) \, dx = \frac{(g(x))^{\alpha+1}}{\alpha+1} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Proof. Using the chain rule:

$$\begin{aligned} D \left[\frac{(g(x))^{\alpha+1}}{\alpha+1} + c \right] &= \frac{1}{\alpha+1} D \left[(g(x))^{\alpha+1} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\alpha+1} (\alpha+1) (g(x))^\alpha g'(x) = (g(x))^\alpha g'(x). \end{aligned}$$

Elementary Indefinite Integral: the chain rule

$$2. \int e^{g(x)} g'(x) dx = e^{g(x)} + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Proof. Using the chain rule:

$$D \left[e^{g(x)} + c \right] = D \left[e^{g(x)} \right] + 0 = e^{g(x)} g'(x)$$

Elementary Indefinite Integral: the chain rule

$$3. \int \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)} dx = \ln |g(x)| + c, \quad \text{for all } c \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } g(x) \neq 0.$$

Proof.

CASE 1: $g(x) > 0$. Then $\ln |g(x)| = \ln(g(x))$. By the chain rule,

$$D[\ln(g(x)) + c] = D[\ln(g(x))] + 0 = \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)}.$$

CASE 2: $g(x) < 0$. Then $\ln |g(x)| = \ln(-g(x))$. By the chain rule,

$$D[\ln(-g(x)) + c] = D[\ln(-g(x))] + 0 = \frac{-g'(x)}{-g(x)} = \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)}.$$

Elementary Indefinite Integral: Examples

- $\int \frac{\lg x}{x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \lg(x) + c$, for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$, and $x > 0$.
- $\int 3x^2 e^{x^3} dx = e^{x^3} + c$, for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\int \frac{2x+1}{x^2+x} dx = \lg|x^2+x| + c$, for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$, and $x \neq 0, -1$

Other Elementary integrals

$$4. \int g'(x) \sin(g(x)) \, dx = -\cos(g(x)) + c, \text{ for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$5. \int g'(x) \cos(g(x)) \, dx = \sin(g(x)) + c, \text{ for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$6. \int \frac{g'(x)}{\cos^2(g(x))} \, dx = \tan(g(x)) + c, \text{ for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$7. \int \frac{g'(x)}{\sqrt{1 + [g(x)]^2}} \, dx = \arctan(g(x)) + c, \text{ for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$8. \int \frac{g'(x)}{\sqrt{1 - [g(x)]^2}} \, dx = \arcsin(g(x)) + c, \text{ for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

Properties of integrals: Linearity

- $\int k f(x) \, dx = k \int f(x) \, dx$
- $\int [f(x) + g(x)] \, dx = \int f(x) \, dx + \int g(x) \, dx$
- $\int k_1 f_1(x) + k_2 f_2(x) + \cdots + k_n f_n(x) \, dx =$
 $k_1 \int f_1(x) \, dx + k_2 \int f_2(x) \, dx + \cdots + k_n \int f_n(x) \, dx$

Properties of integrals: examples

- $\int 3x^4 + 5x^2 + 2 \, dx = \frac{3}{5}x^5 + \frac{5}{3}x^3 + 2x + c, \text{ for all } c \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\int \frac{2}{x} + \frac{4}{\sqrt[3]{x}} + 6e^{2x} \, dx = 2 \lg |x| + \frac{3}{2}\sqrt[3]{x^2} + 3e^{2x} + c,$
for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x \neq 0$

Integration by substitution

We want to compute:

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

5 step procedure!

- ① **Change of variable:** Define $x = h(t)$ for a suitable **invertible** function h
- ② **Differentiate:** By differentiation we get $dx = h'(t)dt$
- ③ **Substitute:** Substitute x and dx $\int g(h(t))h'(t)dt$
- ④ **Solve the integral with variable t :** (perhaps simpler!)

$$\int g(h(t)) h'(t) \, dt = F(t) + c$$

- ⑤ **Come back to x :** $\int g(x) \, dx = F(h^{-1}(x)) + c$

Examples

Solve the following integrals:

1 $\int \frac{\lg \sqrt{x}}{x} dx$

2 $\int \frac{1}{x + \sqrt{x}} dx$

3 $\int \frac{1}{e^x + e^{-x}} dx$

Integration by parts

Recall the product rule:

$$D[f(x)g(x)] = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$$

Suppose you want to compute

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

By the product rule we get

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

This formula is called **Integration by parts rule**

Examples

Compute the following integrals:

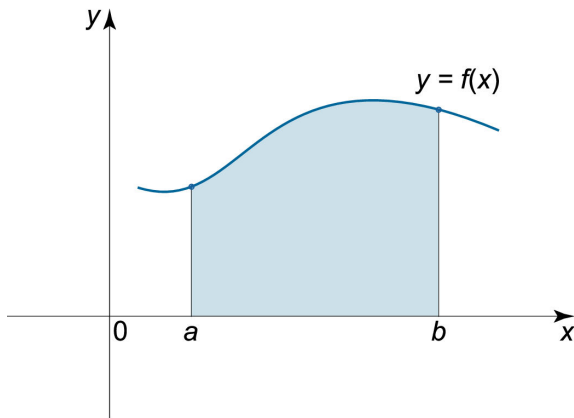
① $\int x \sin x \, dx$

② $\int x e^{2x} \, dx$

③ $\int \lg x \, dx$

Area under a curve

Suppose you want to compute the area bounded by the graph of the positive and continuous function $f(x)$ and the x -axis for $a \leq x \leq b$:



Area under a curve

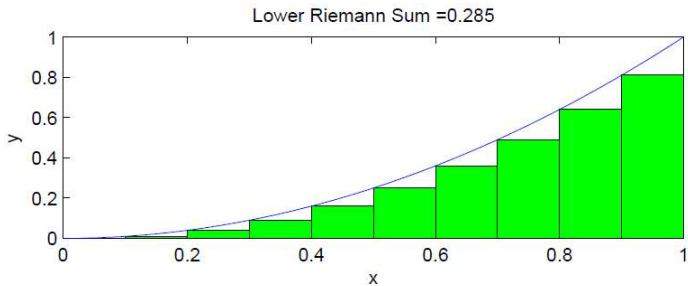
- Divide the interval $[a, b]$ into n sub-intervals, by choosing points

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n = b$$

Call the partition P

- Let $\Delta^{(i)} = x_i - x_{i-1}$ be the length of each sub-interval.
- Let m_i be the minimum value of the function f in the interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ That is, there is $c_i \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$ such that $m_i = f(c_i)$
- Draw, for each interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ a rectangle with dimensions $\Delta^{(i)}, m_i$
- By summing up the area of each single rectangle we approximate **from below** the area under the curve
- That is

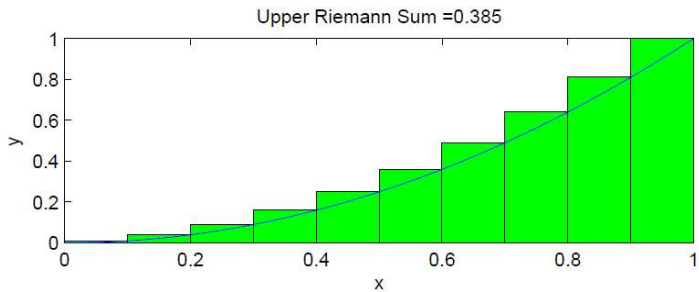
$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} m_i \Delta^{(i)} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(c_i) \Delta^{(i)} < A$$

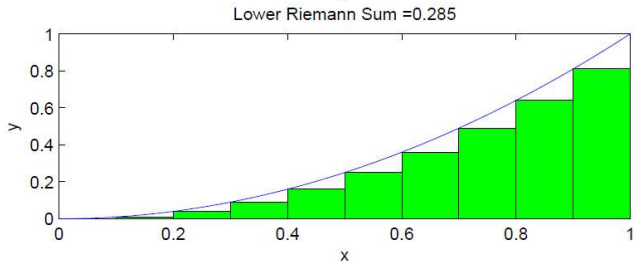
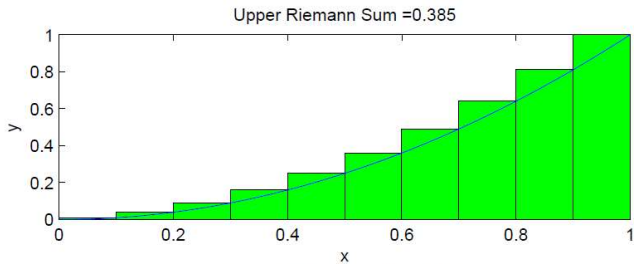


Area under a curve

- Now choose the maximum value M_i assumed by the function f in the interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ That is, there is $d_i \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$ such that $M_i = f(d_i)$
- Draw, for every interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ a rectangle with dimensions Δ^i and M_i
- By summing up the area of each single rectangle approximate **from above** the area under the curve
- That is

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} M_i \Delta^{(i)} = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(d_i) \Delta^{(i)} > A$$

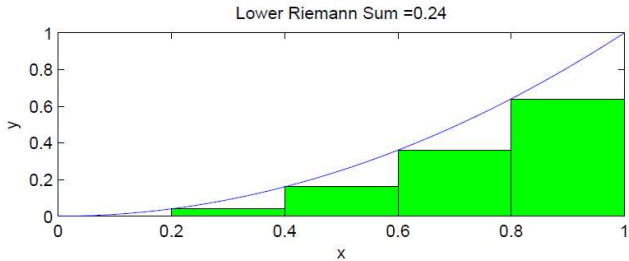
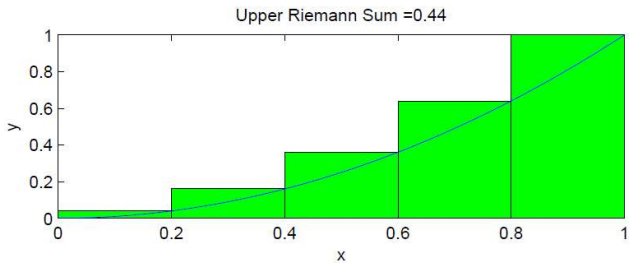


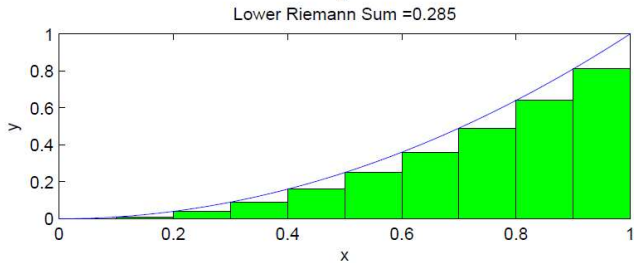
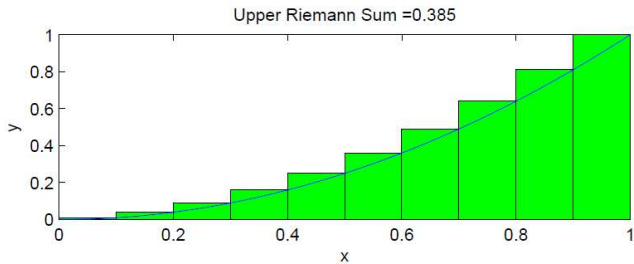


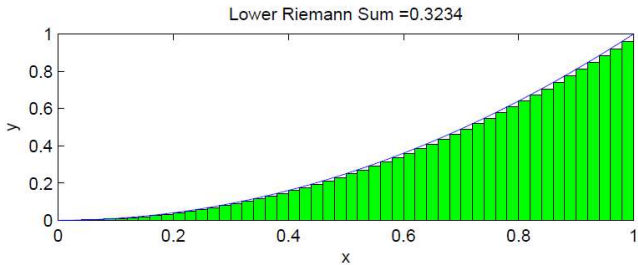
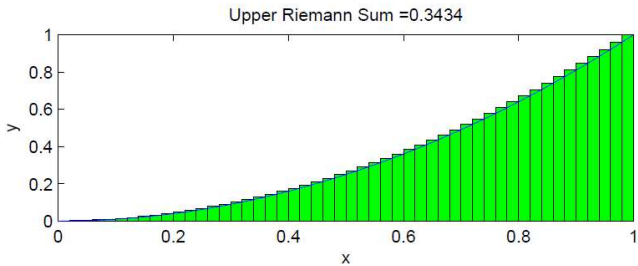
Area under a curve

- By making the partition of the interval $[a, b]$ finer and finer, the upper and lower approximations get better
- In the limit (that is when taking $\Delta^{(i)} \rightarrow 0$) the upper and the lower approximations coincide and they also coincide with the Area under the curve from a to b
- That is

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(c_i) \Delta^{(i)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(d_i) \Delta^{(i)} = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$







Riemann Integral

- Let $P = [a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n = b]$ be a partition of the interval $[a, b]$
- Define the *Upper Riemann sum* of f *with respect to the partition P* as

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} M_i \Delta^{(i)}$$

- Define the *Lower Riemann sum* of f *with respect to the partition P* as

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} m_i \Delta^{(i)}$$

Riemann Integral

Let Π the set of all possible partitions of the interval $[a, b]$ and define the **Upper Riemann sum** as

$$U(f) = \inf_{P \in \Pi} U(f, P)$$

and the **Lower Riemann sum** as

$$L(f) = \sup_{P \in \Pi} L(f, P)$$

Definition

A function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be *Riemann integrable* if the Upper Riemann sum $U(f)$ and Lower Riemann sum $L(f)$ are equal.

The Riemann integral, denoted by

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

is the value $U(f)$ (or $L(f)$).