

The Integral Calculus

Integration has two seemingly unrelated definitions:

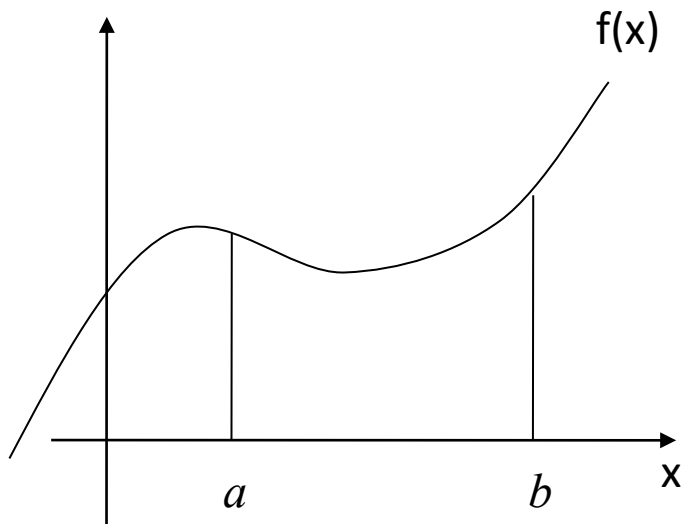
These are useful for:

1. Integration is the
reverse operation to differentiation

1. Solving Differential equations

2. Integration is *the limit when we sum a large number of small quantities.*

2. Computing *aggregate* quantities



Integrals as anti-derivatives

An *indefinite integral* $F(x)$ of a function $f(x)$ is written

$$F(x) = \int f(x)dx$$

and is the *Antiderivative* of $f(x)$, i.e. It is the function for which

$$\frac{dF}{dx} = f(x)$$

$F(x)$ is often known as the *primitive function* of $f(x)$

E.g.

Let $f(x) = 2x + 1$. A function that has $f(x)$ as its derivative is

Let $g(x) = k = \text{const.}$ A function that has $g(x)$ as its derivative is

If $F(x)$ is indefinite integral of a function $f(x)$ then $G(x)=F(x) + C$, where C is a constant is also an indefinite integral of $f(x)$

$$G'(x) = (F(x) + C)' = F'(x) + C' = f(x)$$

$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

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

$$\int \underline{k} f(x) dx = k \int f(x) dx$$

$$\int (f(x)g(x)) dx \neq \int f(x) dx \int g(x) dx$$

$$\int \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx \neq \frac{\int f(x) dx}{\int g(x) dx}$$

We find the primitive function $F(x)$ by *reverse differentiation*.

$$\frac{dF}{dx} = f(x)$$

E.g.

$$f(x) = \cos x$$

$$f(x) = \sinh kx$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\int x \, dx =$$

$$\int x^k \, dx =$$

$$\int \sin ax \, dx =$$

$$\int \cos ax \, dx =$$

$$\int e^{ax} dx =$$

$$\int \cosh ax \, dx =$$

$$\int \sinh ax \, dx =$$

More complicated integrals:

Because

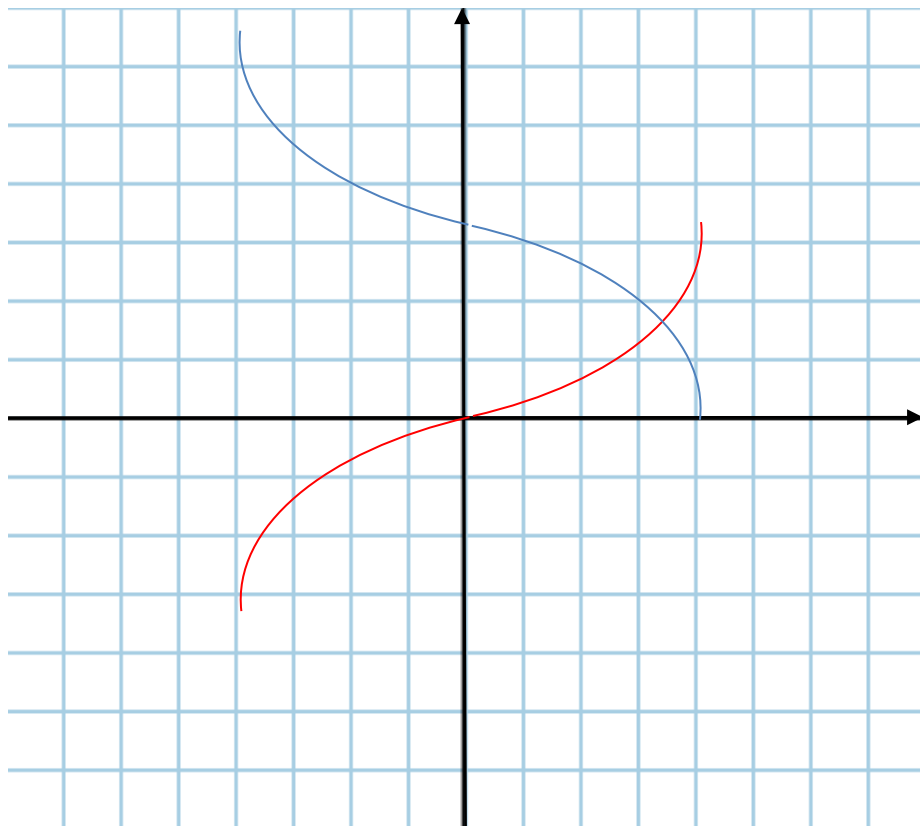
$$\frac{d}{dx} \cos^{-1} x = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

We then have

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = -\cos^{-1} x + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \arcsin^{-1} x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \arcsin x + C$$



We also know

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1} x = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

therefore

$$\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \arctan x + C$$

Often the more complicated integrals are given using *Tables of Integrals*.
e.g.

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Table of integrals

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = \operatorname{arcosh} \frac{x}{a} + C$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} = \operatorname{arsinh} \frac{x}{a} + C_1 = \log \left(x + \sqrt{a^2 + x^2} \right) + C_2$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{1 - x^2} = \operatorname{artanh} x + C_1 = \frac{1}{2} \log \left| \frac{1 + x}{1 - x} \right| + C_2$$

$$\int \cosh x \, dx = \sinh x + C$$

$$\int \sinh x \, dx = \cosh x + C$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \arcsin \frac{x}{a} + C$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{a} \arctan \frac{x}{a} + C$$

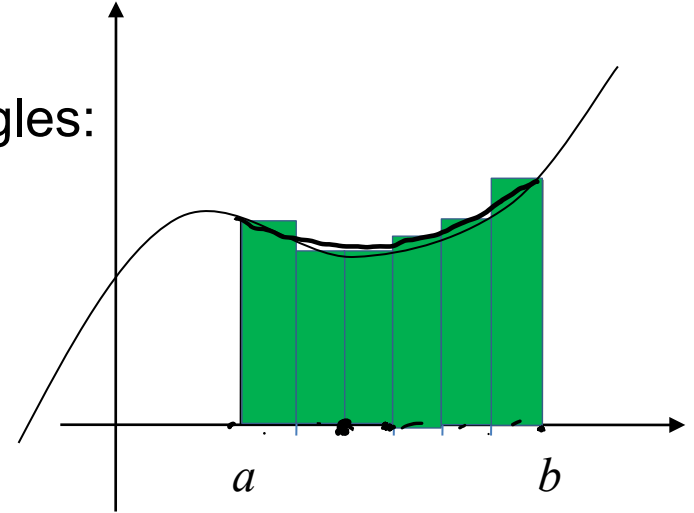
2. An *integral* is also the sum of a large number of very small quantities

1D definite integrals

We think of a one-dimensional definite integral as the sum of areas of infinite number of rectangles:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$$

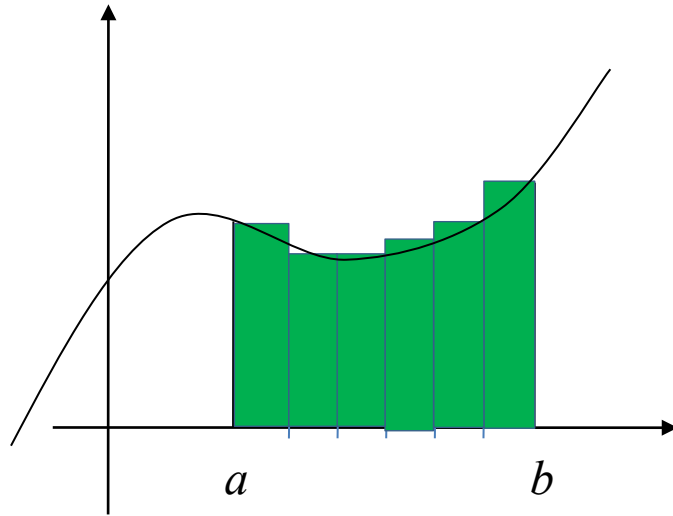
where $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ $x_i = a + i\Delta x$



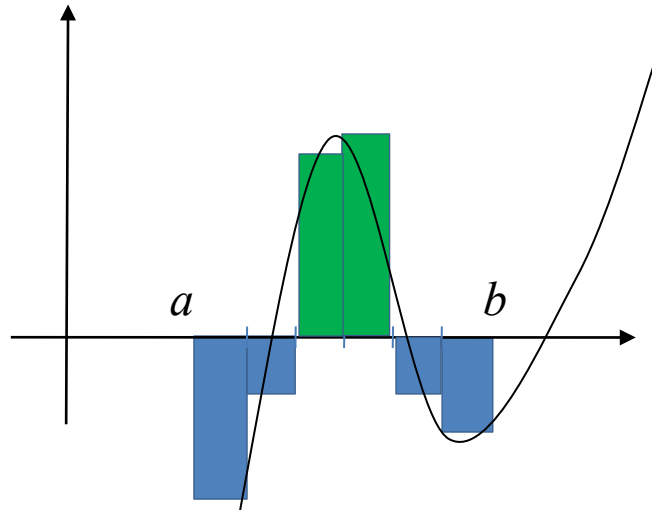
This is known as the *Riemann sum* of the integral.

As the number of rectangles increases, a better and better approximation for the area under the curve is obtained.

NB: The integral is often thought of as the *area* under a graph.



However, integrals can also be *negative* or *zero* (unlike areas).



$$\int_0^2 3x^2 dx \qquad \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$$

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n} = \frac{2-0}{n} = \frac{2}{n}$$

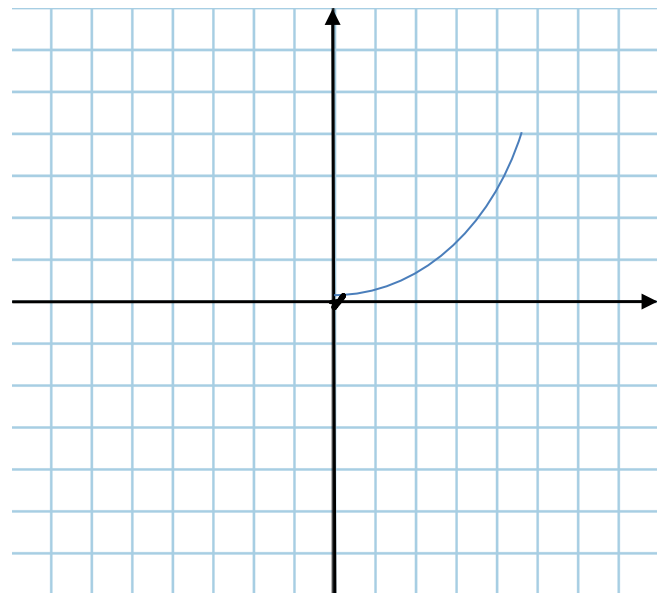
$$x_i = a + i\Delta x = 0 + i\frac{2}{n} = \frac{2i}{n}$$

$$f(x_i) = 3x_i^2 = 3\frac{4i^2}{n^2} = \frac{12i^2}{n^2}$$

$$\int_0^2 3x^2 dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{12i^2}{n^2} \frac{2}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{24}{n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 =$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4(n+1)(2n+1)}{n^2} = 8,$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$



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$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4(n+1)(2n+1)}{n^2} = 8,$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

The fundamental theorem of calculus

These two ideas of integration (anti-derivatives, Riemann sums) are *the same*.

This is expressed by the following formal statements:

1. If $f(x)$ is continuous on an interval $[a,b]$ and $a < x < b$ then

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

2. If $f(x)$ is continuous on an interval $[a,b]$ and $F'(x) = f(x)$, then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t)dt = f(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(x)dx = \frac{d}{dx} (F(x) - F(a)) = \frac{dF(\underline{x})}{dx} - \frac{dF(a)}{dx} = \frac{dF(x)}{dx} = f(x)$$

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

Proof:

Divide $[a,b]$ into n equal sections. Then

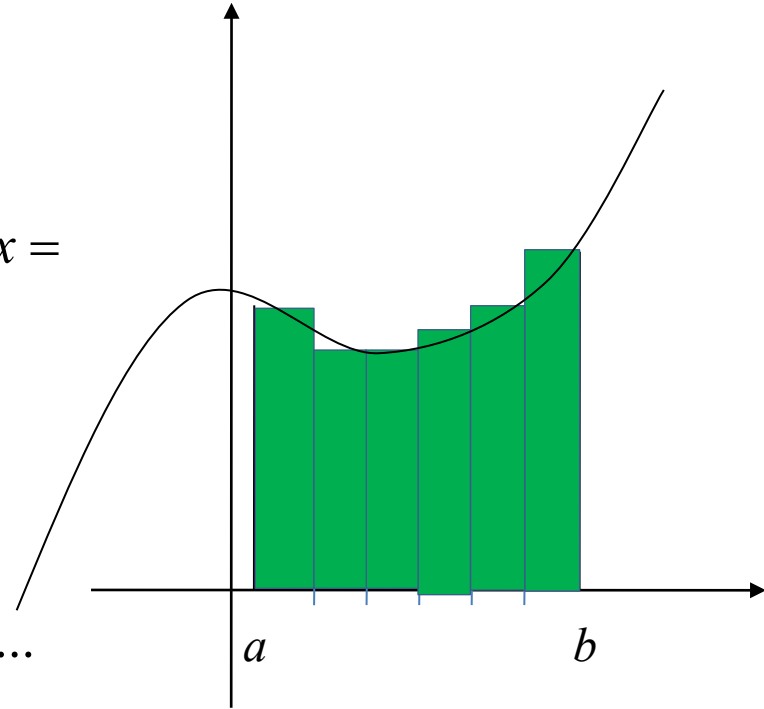
$$\int_a^b \frac{dF}{dx} dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{dF(x_i)}{dx} \Delta x = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{dF(x_i)}{dx} \Delta x =$$

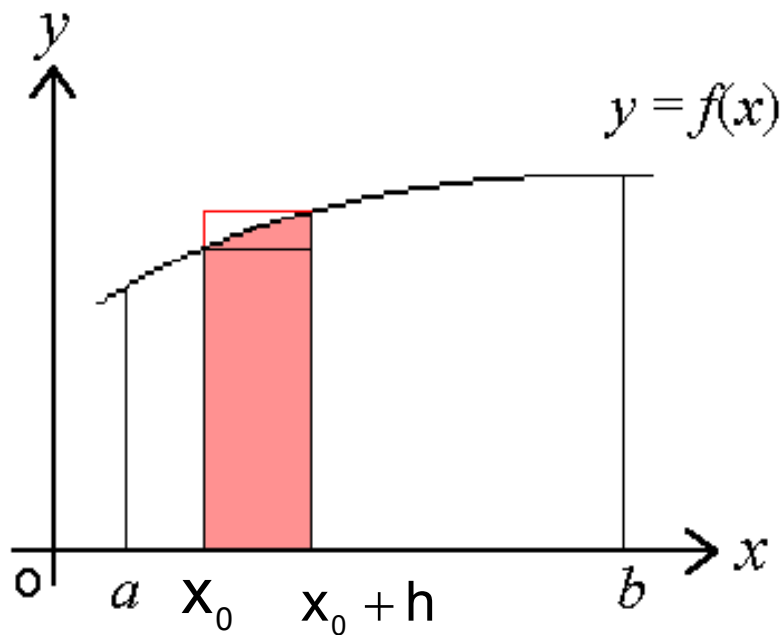
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{dF(x_i)}{dx} \Delta x = \sum_{i=1}^n \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta F(x_i)}{\Delta x} \Delta x =$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \Delta F(x_i) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta F(x_i) =$$

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} (F(a + \Delta x) - F(a) + F(a + 2\Delta x) - F(a + \Delta x) + \dots$$

$$+ F(b) - F(a + (n-1)\Delta x) = F(b) - F(a)$$





- If we define the area function for $f(x)$ between a and x to be $A(x)$, then we have

$$h \times f(x_0) \leq A(x_0 + h) - A(x_0) \leq h \times f(x_0 + h) \quad ,$$

- Assuming the function is continuous and sufficiently smooth then dividing through by the distance h , and letting this value tend towards zero, we find

$$f(x_0) \leq \frac{A(x_0 + h) - A(x_0)}{h} \leq f(x_0 + h)$$

- Hence $A'(x_0) = f(x_0)$. In other words, the area function is the antiderivative of $f(x)$, so

$$A(x) = \int f(x) dx$$

General properties of definite Integrals

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

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

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

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

$$\int_a^b \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx \neq \frac{\int_a^b f(x) dx}{\int_a^b g(x) dx}$$

General properties of definite Integrals

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

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

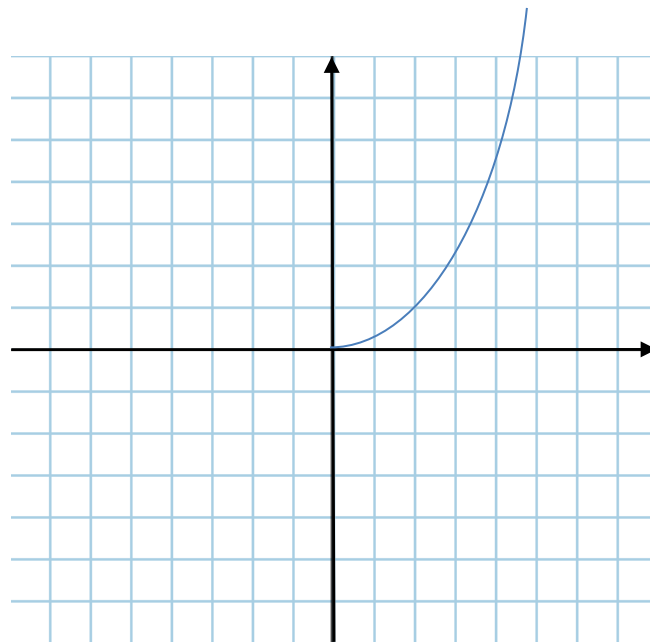
$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = -\int_b^a f(x)dx$$

$$\int_a^b dx = b - a$$

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

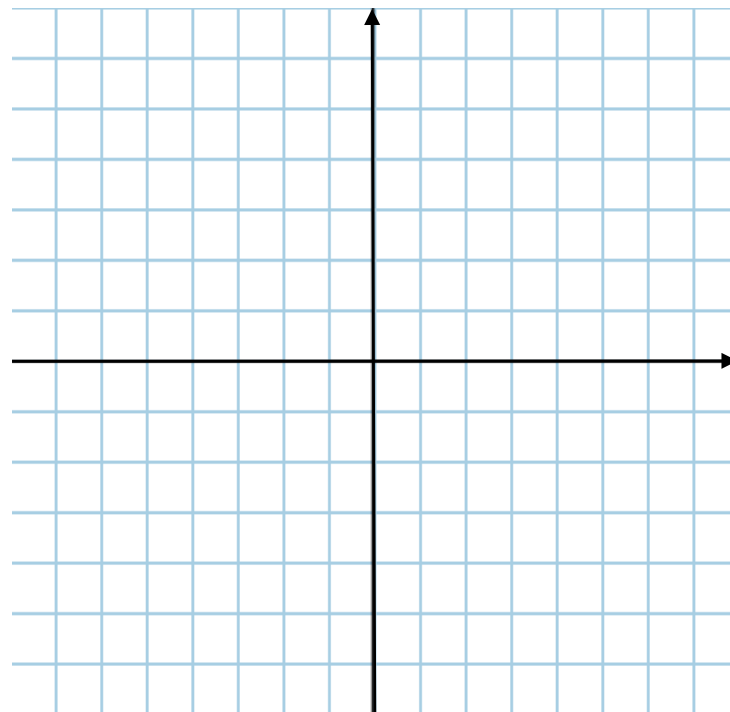
Example: Evaluate

$$\int_0^2 3x^2 dx$$



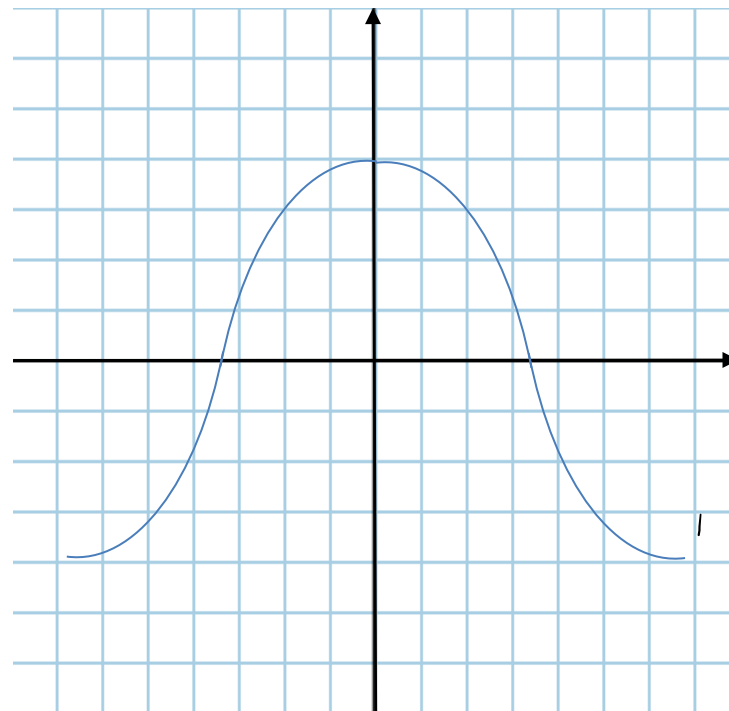
Example: Evaluate

$$\int_0^4 f(x) \, dx =$$



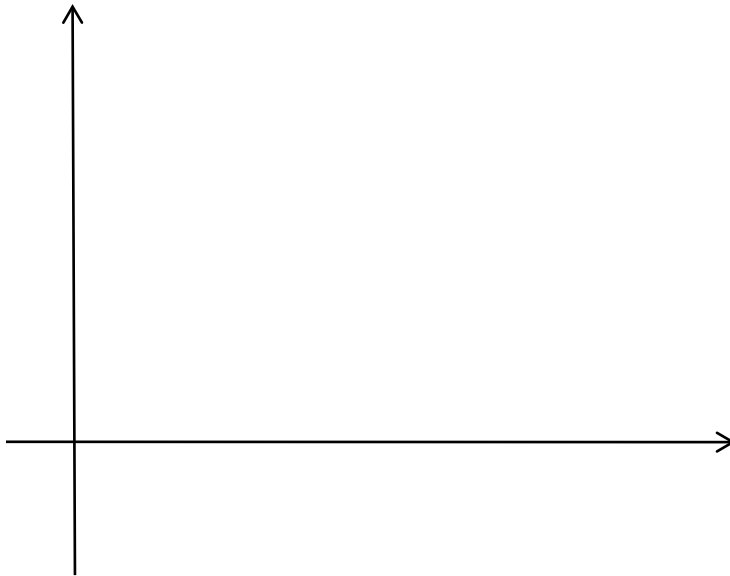
Example: Evaluate

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \cos x \, dx \cong$$



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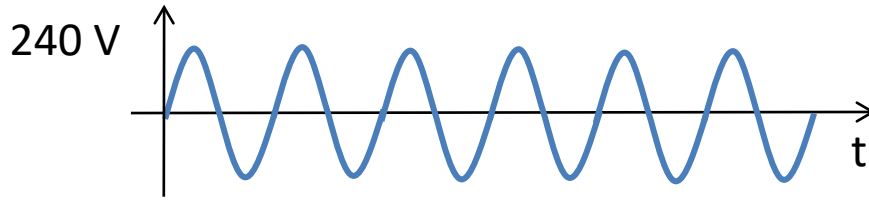
Example: Compute the average value of the function $f(x) = 3 + \sin 2x$ over the interval $0 < x < \pi/2$



Formula for average of $f(x)$ over an interval $[a, b]$:

$$\overline{f(x)} = \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Example: Compute the root-mean-square (RMS) of the following function:



$$\overline{f^2} = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f^2(t) dt$$

$$V(t) = V_0 \sin \omega t,$$

$$T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$$

Formula for RMS of $f(x)$
over an interval $[a,b]$:

$$RMS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b (f(x))^2 dx}$$

Example: Evaluate

$$\int_0^4 2^x dx$$

