

Recall:  $\int u(x) v'(x) dx = u(x)v(x) - \int u'(x)v(x) dx$

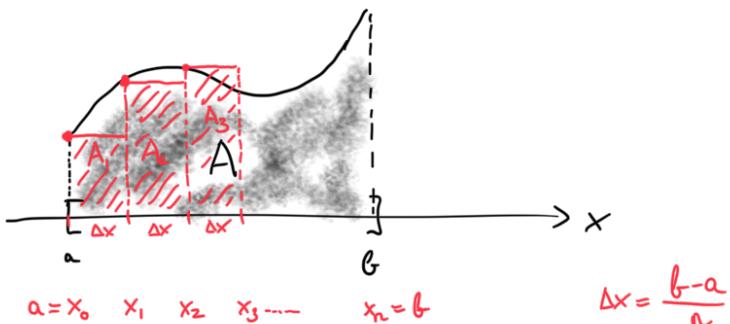
Example: ②  $\int \ln x dx = \int \ln x \cdot 1 dx = (\ln x)x - \int \frac{1}{x} x dx$

$$= x \ln x - x + C$$

③  $\int e^x \sin x dx = e^x \sin x - \int e^x \cos x dx$   $I = J - I$   
I  $\rightarrow 2I = J$   
 $= e^x \cos x - \int e^x (-\sin x) dx$   $\Rightarrow I = \frac{1}{2}J$   
 $= e^x (\sin x - \cos x) - \int e^x \sin x dx$  I  
 $\Rightarrow \int e^x \sin x dx = \frac{1}{2}e^x(\sin x - \cos x) + C$

### The definite integral

$f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$



$A \approx A_1 + A_2 + \dots + A_n$

$= \sum_{i=1}^n A_i = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_{i+}) \Delta x$

Def: Let  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be cont. except perhaps at a countable number of points,  $f$  has a jump discontinuity. Then the definite integral of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$  is

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

Remark: • This limit is known to exist

... and it is called the definite integral

- It is independent of the choice of evaluation points of  $f$  within the interval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ , and is independent of the partition so long as it gets finer as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .
- The class of "Riemann-integrable functions" is actually larger than stated.

## Analysis I

Example: ①  $\int_a^b 1 dx = b-a$

②  $\int_0^1 e^x dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{x_{i-1}} \Delta x$

$\Delta x = \frac{1}{n}$

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

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} e^{\frac{i}{n}} \frac{1}{n} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \left(e^{\frac{1}{n}}\right)^i \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \frac{\left(e^{\frac{1}{n}}\right)^n - 1}{e^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1} \quad (*) \\
 &= (e-1) \underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \frac{1}{e^{\frac{1}{n}} - 1}}_{\substack{\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{e^h - e^0} \\ h = \frac{1}{n}}} \quad h = \frac{1}{n} \\
 &\quad = \frac{1}{\exp'(0)} = \frac{1}{e^0} = 1
 \end{aligned}$$

$$= e-1$$

Why is (\*) true? This is called a geometric sum, of the form

$$S_n = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} q^i = q^0 + q^1 + q^2 + \dots + q^{n-1} \quad q \in \mathbb{R}$$

$\therefore q S_n =$

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc}
 q^0 & + & q^1 & + & q^2 & + & \dots + & q^{n-1} \\
 \times q & & & & & & & \\
 \hline
 q^1 & + & q^2 & + & q^3 & + & \dots + & q^{n-1} + q^n
 \end{array}$$

$$S_n - qS_n = 1 - q^n$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n(1-q) = 1 - q^n$$

$$\Rightarrow S_n = q^0 + q^1 + \dots + q^{n-1} = \frac{1-q^n}{1-q}$$

$q \neq 1$

Properties of the definite integral:

(i) The integral is linear:

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

$$\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx, \quad c \in \mathbb{R}$$

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

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

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

### Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (FTC)

$f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  cont.

(i)  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$  is an anti-derivative of  $f$ .

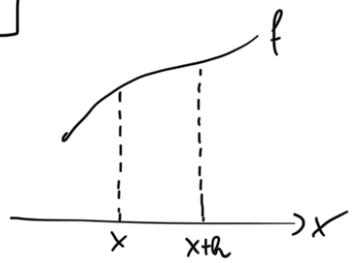
(ii) If  $F$  is an anti-derivative of  $f$ , then

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

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) = \text{Area} \Big|_a^b$$

Proof: (i)  $\frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = \frac{1}{h} \left[ \int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt + \int_{x+h}^{\infty} f(t) dt \right]$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \underbrace{\int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt}_{\text{Average of } f \text{ over the interval } [x, x+h]}$$



Average of  $f$  over the interval  $[x, x+h]$

$$\xrightarrow[h \rightarrow 0]{} f(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow F'(x) = f(x)$$

Detailed discussion using  
MVT of integration next time.

(ii) If  $F$  is an arbitrary antiderivative, we know that

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt + C$$

$$\begin{aligned} F(a) &= C \\ F(b) &= \int_a^b f(t) dt + C = \int_a^b f(t) dt + F(a) \\ \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(t) dt &= F(b) - F(a) \end{aligned}$$

Example: ①  $\int_1^2 x dx = \frac{1}{2}x^2 \Big|_1^2 = \frac{1}{2}2^2 - \frac{1}{2}1^2 = 2 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$

②  $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin x dx = -\cos x \Big|_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = -\underbrace{\cos \frac{\pi}{2}}_0 + \underbrace{\cos 0}_1 = 1$

③  $\int_{-2}^{-1} \frac{1}{x} dx$

$U = -x$   
 $x = -U$

$\Rightarrow du = -dx$   
 $dx = -du$

Note: Limits of integration must be substituted, too.

$$= \int_1^2 \frac{1}{-u} (-du)$$

$$= \int_2^1 \frac{du}{u} = \ln u \Big|_2^1 = \ln 1 - \ln 2 = -\ln 2$$

(4)  $\int_0^1 x^2 \sin(x^3 + 1) dx$

$$\begin{aligned} & U = x^3 + 1 \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = 3x^2 \Rightarrow x^2 dx = \frac{du}{3} \\ & = \int_{0^3+1}^{1^3+1} \sin(u) \frac{du}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \int_1^2 \sin u du = -\frac{1}{3} \cos u \Big|_1^2 \\ & = \frac{1}{3} (\cos 1 - \cos 2) \end{aligned}$$