

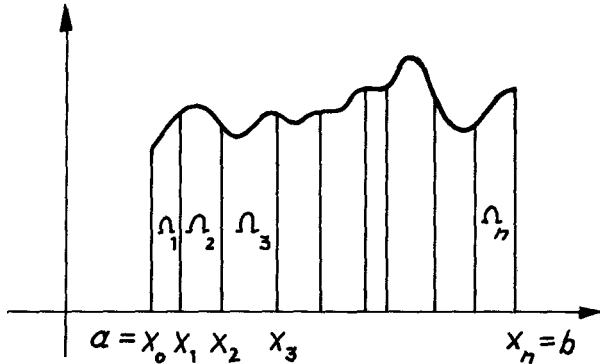
5.2 Definite Integrals

We saw last Thursday that we can describe the area under a curve by the limit of a sum. The book describes this sum slightly differently:

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

Where

$$x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i] \text{ and } \Delta x = x_i - x_{i-1}$$



We call this the definite integral of f from a to b and write it

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

If the limit exists we say that f is integrable on $[a, b]$

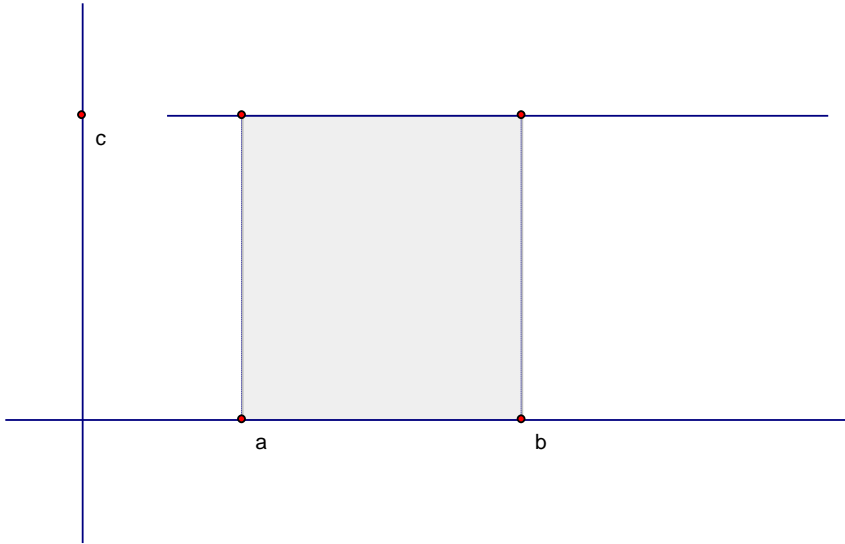
We will find that this definite integral can be used to find the area under a curve as well as volumes of solids and the lengths of curves.

Again, please note that a definite integral is a number.

The variable x is just a dummy variable that disappears when you evaluate the integral.

Some simple examples of calculating the area under a curve

$$f(x) = c$$

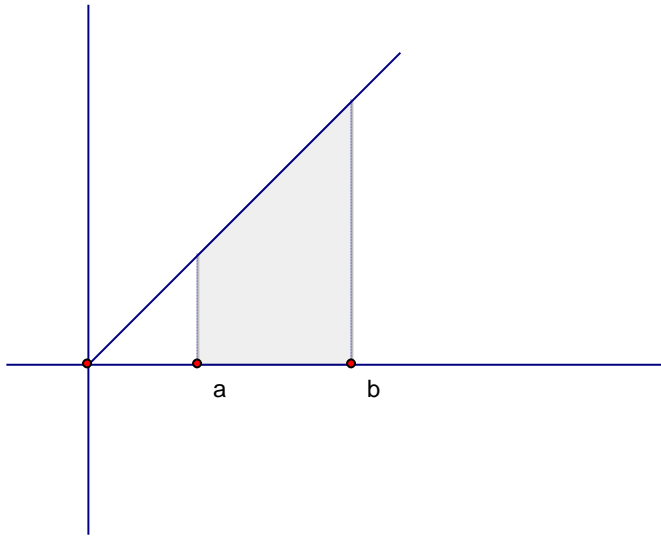


Note that the area under the curve is $A = (b - a)c = bc - ac$

We can write this using the notation $xc|_a^b$ or $[xc]_a^b$ which indicates that you evaluate the xc at the upper limit and subtract the xc evaluated at the lower limit.

Note that we could also have written this as $[F(x)]_a^b$ where $F'(x) = f(x)$

We try this again for a slightly more complex function $f(x) = x$



Here the area can be seen as the difference in area of the two triangles at points:
 $\{(0,0), (a,0), (a,f(a))\}$ and
 $\{(0,0), (b,0), (b,f(b))\}$

$$A = \frac{b^2}{2} - \frac{a^2}{2} = \left[\frac{x^2}{2} \right]_a^b$$

Note that we could also have written this as $\left[F(x) \right]_a^b$ where $F'(x) = f(x)$

On Thursday we introduced

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

We now would like to investigate how we might calculate this function in a more direct and exact manner than before.

The preceding examples suggest the possibility that in general

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \left[F(x) \right]_a^b = F(b) - F(a)$$

Where $F'(x) = f(x)$

$F(x)$ being the Anti-Derivative of $f(x)$

We will see that this is the case.

To show this, we proceed by defining a function as follows:

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

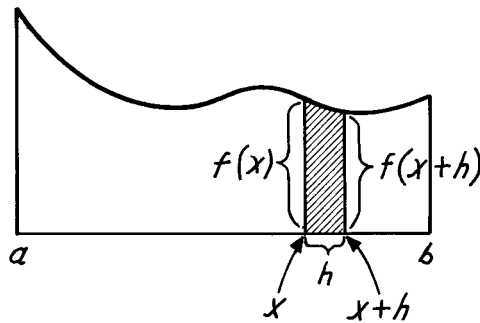
Notice that this is a function of x and not a definite integral.

It is a function which simply indicates the area under the curve $f(x)$ from the point a the unknown point x .

Now consider this limit, which should look familiar:

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$$

What does that look like graphically?



$$F(x+h) = \text{area from } a \text{ to } x+h$$

$$F(x) = \text{area from } a \text{ to } x$$

$$F(x+h) - F(x) = \text{area from } x \text{ to } x+h$$

$$\frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = \frac{\text{area from } x \text{ to } x+h}{h} \approx f(x) \text{ for small } h.$$

In this diagram you can see that as $h \rightarrow 0$ the shaded area comes closer and closer to

being a rectangle with area $\frac{f(x+h) + f(x)}{2} h$

As such

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) + f(x)}{2} = f(x)$$

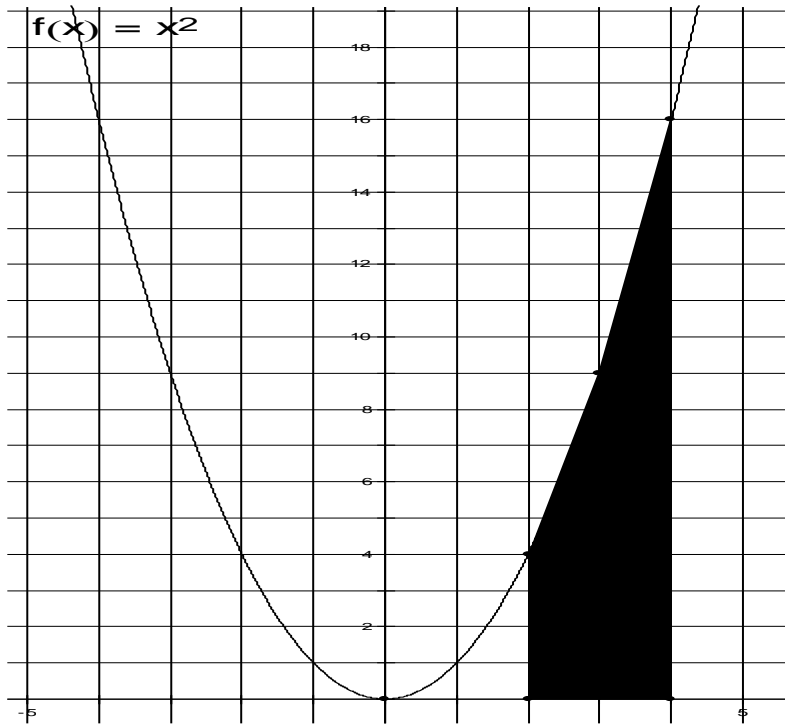
By the definition of the derivative, that means that

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

That is $F(x)$ is the anti-derivative of $f(x)$

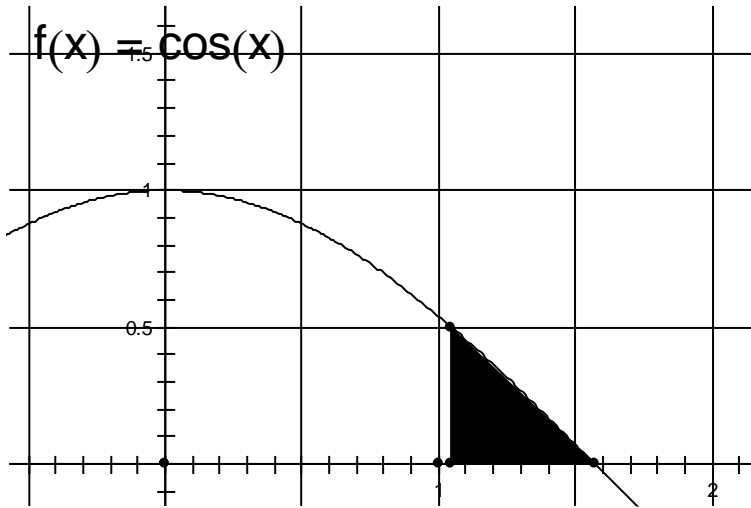
Let's let that settle in a bit with a few examples:

What is the area beneath the function $y = x^2$ between 2 and 4?



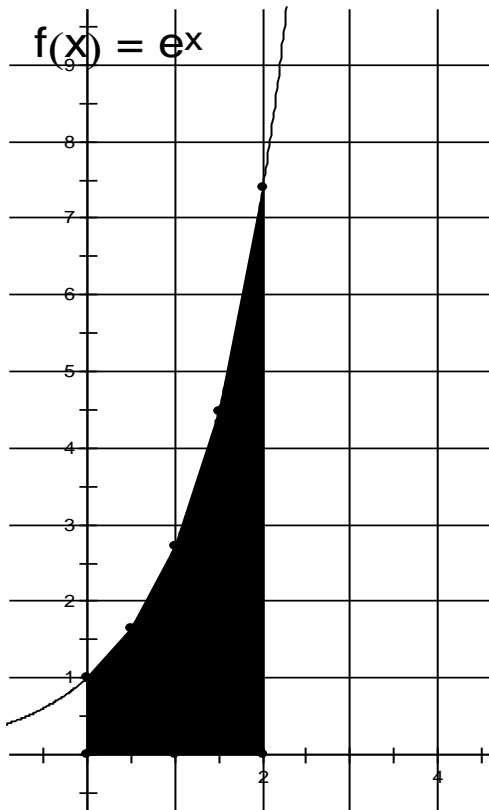
$$\int_2^4 x^2 dx = \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_2^4 = \frac{64}{3} - \frac{8}{3} = \frac{56}{3}$$

What is the area beneath the function $y = \cos(x)$ between $\frac{\pi}{3}$ and $\frac{\pi}{2}$?



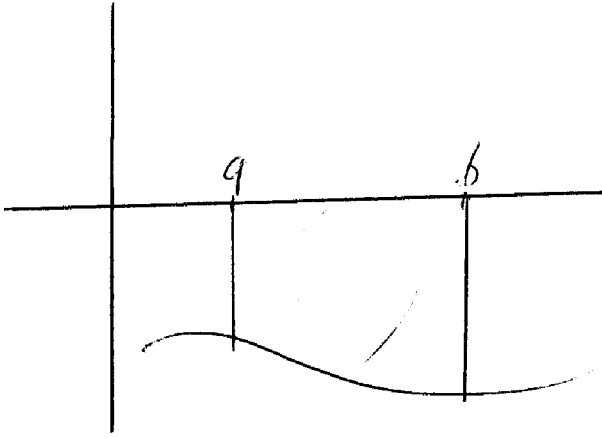
$$\int_{\pi/3}^{\pi/2} \cos(x) dx = [\sin(x)]_{\pi/3}^{\pi/2} = \sin(\pi/2) - \sin(\pi/3) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = \frac{\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{3}}{2}$$

What is the area beneath the function $y = e^x$ between 0 and 2?



$$\int_0^2 e^x dx = [e^x]_0^2 = e^2 - e^0 = e^2 - 1$$

Also note that if $f(x) < 0$, the area is negative:
What happens now if our function is below zero?

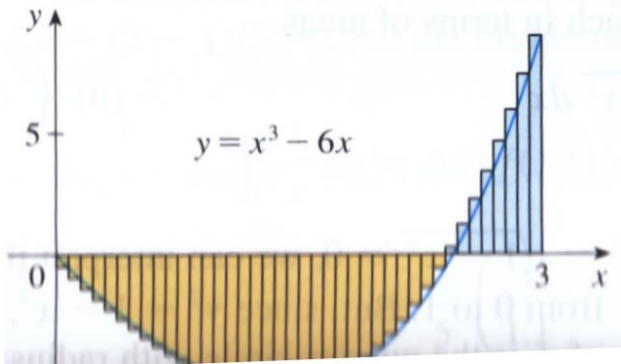


If we go back to our Riemann Sum definition

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i$$

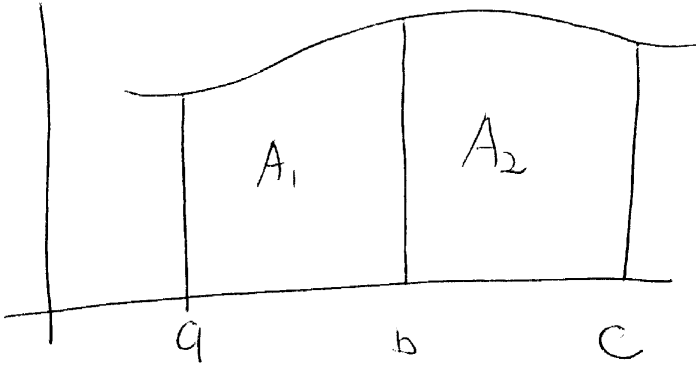
We can see that the result of this sum is now negative. It no longer represents the area, but it is the negative of the area between the function and $y=0$.

It is also possible that our function is both below and above the x axis.



Here the definite integral might be positive or negative depending on the limits.

Properties of an Integral



If we have $A_1 = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ and $A_2 = \int_b^c f(x) dx$

then it follows that since $A = A_1 + A_2$

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

Now re-arranging the limits, we can have

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

But that means that:

$$A_1 = A_1 + A_2 + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

or

$$A_2 = -\int_c^b f(x) dx$$

So, if you reverse the order of integration, you reverse the sign of the integral.

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

We can now show that

$$\int_a^a f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^a f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$$

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$$

Looking back at the sums we can see that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n [f(x_i^*) + g(x_i^*)] \Delta x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n g(x_i^*) \Delta x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i + \sum_{i=1}^n g(x_i^*) \Delta x_i$$

Showing that

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

Substituting $-g(x)$ for $g(x)$ we get

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

Constants in integrals

$$\sum_{i=1}^n cf(x_i^*) \Delta x_i = c \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i$$

so, we have

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

Integrals of Absolute Values

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

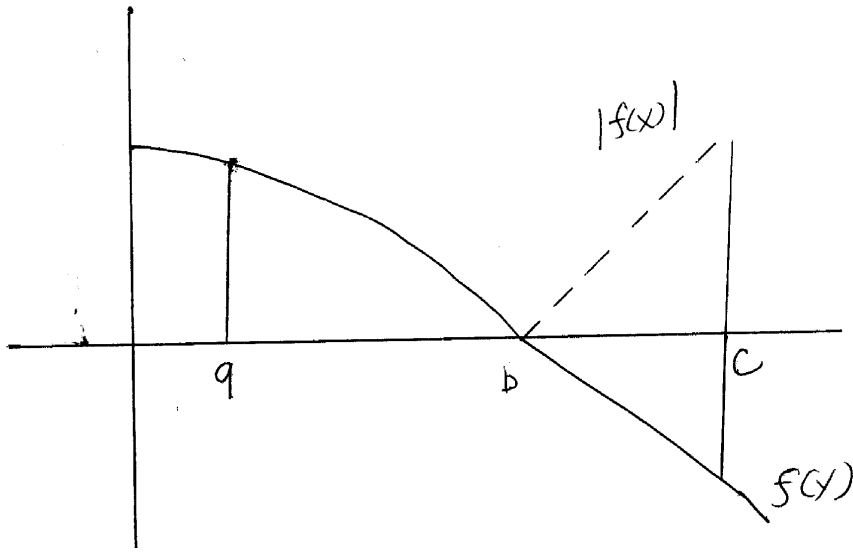
We can divide $[a, c]$ into sub-intervals where $f(x) \geq 0$ or $f(x) \leq 0$.

If $f(x) \geq 0$ on a sub-interval $[a', b']$ then $\int_{a'}^{b'} |f(x)| dx = \int_{a'}^{b'} f(x) dx$

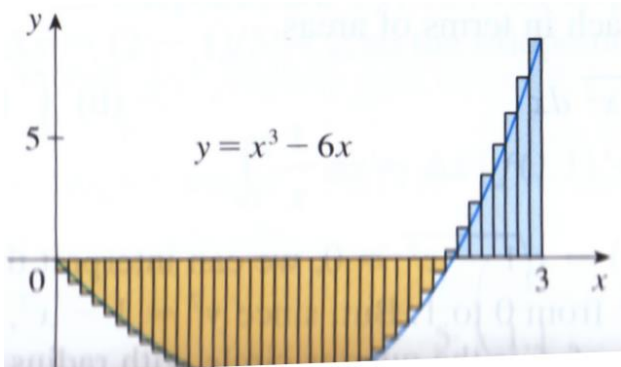
If $f(x) \leq 0$ on a sub-interval $[a', b']$ then $\int_{a'}^{b'} |f(x)| dx = -\int_{a'}^{b'} f(x) dx$

So, we can find the integral $\int_a^b |f(x)| dx$ by summing the sub-intervals.

Example:



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



$$x^3 - 6x = 0$$

$$x(x^2 - 6) = 0$$

$$x = \sqrt{6}$$

$$\int_0^3 |x^3 - 6x| dx = - \int_0^{\sqrt{6}} x^3 - 6 dx + \int_{\sqrt{6}}^3 x^3 - 6 dx$$

$$- \int_0^{\sqrt{6}} x^3 - 6 dx = - \left[\frac{x^4}{4} - 3x^2 \right]_0^{\sqrt{6}} = - \left[\left(\frac{36}{4} - 18 \right) - 0 \right] = 9$$

$$\int_{\sqrt{6}}^3 x^3 - 6 dx = \left[\frac{x^4}{4} - 3x^2 \right]_{\sqrt{6}}^3 = \left(\frac{81}{4} - 27 \right) - \left(\frac{36}{4} - 18 \right) = 2.25$$

$$\int_0^3 |x^3 - 6x| dx = 9 + 2.25 = 11.25$$

Some Comparison Properties

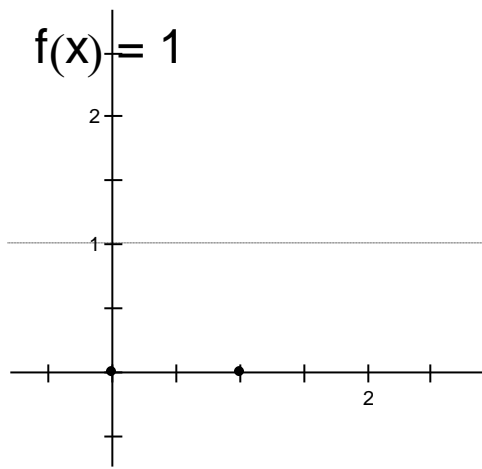
if $f(x) \geq 0$ for $a \leq x \leq b$ then $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$

if $f(x) \geq g(x)$ for $a \leq x \leq b$ then $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$

if $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ for $a \leq x \leq b$ then $m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$

Note that not all functions are integrable.

For example:



$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ } x \text{ is rational} \\ 1 & x \in \mathbb{Q}^c \text{ } x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$$

Condition for Integrability:

If $f(x)$ is a continuous on $[a, b]$ or has at most a finite number of jump discontinuities

then $f(x)$ is integrable on $[a, b]$,

that is $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ exists!

Some Examples:

$$\int_1^2 \ln x \, dx$$

$$\int_1^3 x^2 - 2x + 1 \, dx$$

$$\int_1^3 |x^2 - 2x + 1| \, dx$$

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx$$

$$2 \int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} \, dx$$