

Integration of Exponential Functions :

$$\text{Recall: } \int e^{kx} dx = \frac{1}{k} e^{kx} + C$$

$$\text{In general: } \int a^x dx = ? \quad \text{for } a > 0$$

$$\text{Recall: } a^x = e^{\ln a^x} = e^{(\ln a)x}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \int a^x dx &= \int e^{(\ln a)x} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\ln a} e^{(\ln a)x} + C \\ &= \frac{a^x}{\ln a} + C \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{OR: Recall that } \frac{d}{dx} a^x = a^x \ln a$$

$$\text{so } \frac{d}{dx} \frac{a^x}{\ln a} = a^x, \text{ and } \int a^x dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln a} + C$$

Integration of Logarithmic Functions :

$$\int \ln x dx = ? \quad \text{for } x > 0$$

$$\text{Ex: } \frac{d}{dx} x \ln x - x$$

$$\text{Ans: } \ln x !$$

$$\text{Therefore, } \int \ln x dx = x \ln x - x + C$$

Problem: How do we know $\frac{d}{dx} x \ln x - x = \ln x$ in advance?

(Make a guess of antiderivative of $\ln x$ directly)

Any direct way to find an antiderivative of $\ln x$? (Yes, later!)

e.g. (Constant issue)

$$\int (x+1)^2 dx \quad \text{let } u = x+1$$

$$= \int u^2 du \quad du = dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} u^3 + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} (x+1)^3 + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} x^3 + x^2 + x + \frac{1}{3} + C$$

$$\int (x+1)^2 dx$$

$$= \int x^2 + 2x + 1 dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} x^3 + x^2 + x + C$$

seems to
be different!

Ans: This C is NOT that C !

Integration by Parts

Recall: Let $u(x)$ and $v(x)$ be differentiable functions.

Product rule: $\frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$

$$u \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}(uv) - v \frac{du}{dx}$$

Integrate both sides with respect to x :

$$\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = \int \frac{d}{dx}(uv) dx - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

$$\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

OR: $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$

Integration by Parts: $\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$

e.g. $\int x^2 \ln x dx = \int (\ln x) x^2 dx$

$$= \int (\ln x) \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{x^3}{3} \right) dx \quad (\text{Now, } u = \ln x, v = \frac{x^3}{3})$$

$$= \int \ln x d \frac{x^3}{3}$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} \ln x - \int \frac{x^3}{3} d(\ln x)$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} \ln x - \int \frac{x^3}{3} \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} \ln x - \int \frac{x^2}{3} dx$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} \ln x - \frac{x^3}{9} + C$$

(Verify the answer by differentiation!)

e.g. $\int x e^x dx$

Note: $\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$

$e^x dx = de^x$

$\int x e^x dx$

Now, $u = x$, $v = e^x$

$= \int x de^x$

$= x e^x - \int e^x dx$

$= x e^x - e^x + C$

$= e^x(x-1) + C$

e.g. $\int x^2 e^x dx$

$= \int x^2 de^x$

$= x^2 e^x - \int e^x dx^2$

$= x^2 e^x - \int 2x e^x dx$

Ex: : $\int 2x e^x dx$ Apply Integration by parts again!

Ans: $e^x(x^2 - 2x + 2) + C$

Challenge: $\int x^n e^x dx = ?$

Ans: $e^x [x^n - n x^{n-1} + n(n-1)x^{n-2} - n(n-1)(n-2)x^{n-3} + \dots + (-1)^n n!] + C$

Question: How to make a guess of $u(x)$ and $v(x)$?

Integration by Parts: $\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$

e.g. $\int x^2 \ln x dx = \int (\ln x) x^2 dx$

$= \int (\ln x) \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{x^3}{3} \right) dx$

Realize the integrand as a product of parts and make a guess of $u(x)$ and $v(x)$ such that one part can be realized as a function $u(x)$, another part is $v'(x)$

Integration of Logarithmic Functions :

$$\int \ln x \, dx = ? \quad \text{for } x > 0$$

Using Integration by part :

$$\begin{aligned} \int \ln x \, dx & \quad u = \ln x \quad v = x \\ &= x \ln x - \int x \, d \ln x \\ &= x \ln x - \int x \cdot \frac{1}{x} \, dx \\ &= x \ln x - \int dx \\ &= x \ln x - x + C \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Ex: } \int \log_a x \, dx = ?$$

$$\text{Hints: } \log_a x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln a}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \log_a x \, dx &= \frac{1}{\ln a} \int \ln x \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\ln a} (x \ln x - x + C) \\ &= x \frac{\ln x}{\ln a} - \frac{x}{\ln a} + \frac{C}{\ln a} \\ &= x \log_a x - \frac{x}{\ln a} + C' \quad C' = \frac{C}{\ln a} \text{ just a constant!} \end{aligned}$$

Sequences of Real Numbers

e.g. $a_1 = 2, a_2 = \pi, a_3 = 1, \dots$

OR write as $\{2, \pi, 1, \dots\}$ (No pattern)

e.g. Sequences having patterns.

$a_1 = 1, a_2 = 2, a_3 = 4, \dots$

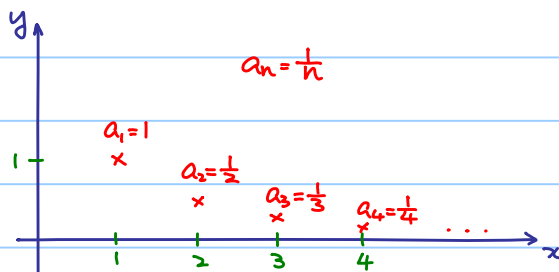
in general, $a_n = 2^{n-1}$

$a_1 = 1, a_2 = \frac{1}{2}, a_3 = \frac{1}{3}, \dots$

in general, $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$

$a_1 = -1, a_2 = 1, a_3 = -1, \dots$

in general, $a_n = (-1)^n$



Any observation?

When n is getting larger and larger, a_n is getting closer and closer to 0.

Limits of Sequences

Informal definition:

Let a_n be a sequence of real numbers.

If n is getting larger and larger, a_n is getting closer and closer to $L \in \mathbb{R}$, then we say L is the limit of the sequence a_n and we denote it by

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L.$$

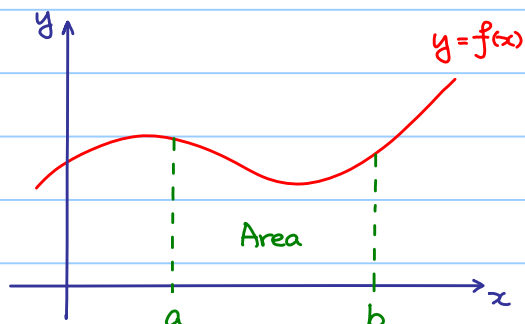
e.g. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0.$

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (-1)^n$ does NOT exist.

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 2^{n-1}$ does NOT exist.

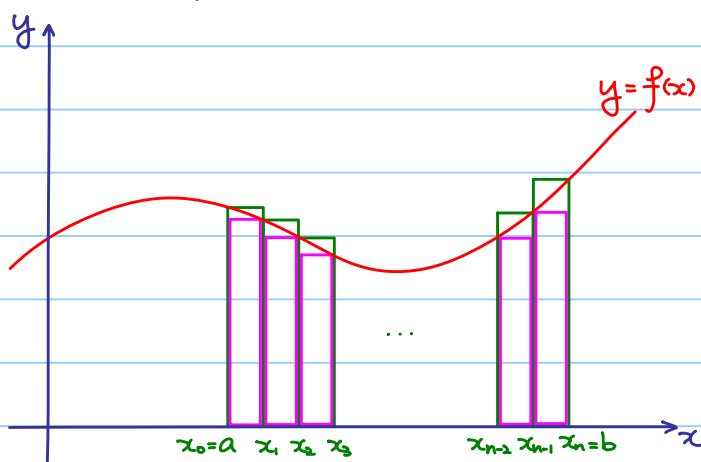
Definite Integration

Goal: Find the area of the region under the curve $y=f(x)$ over an interval $[a,b]$.



Riemann Sum

Area as the limit of a sum



Subdivide $[a,b]$ into n equal subintervals, $x_i - x_{i-1} = \Delta x$, $i=1,2,3,\dots,n$

$$\text{Upper sum} = \max_{x_0 \leq \xi_1 \leq x_1} f(\xi_1) \Delta x + \max_{x_1 \leq \xi_2 \leq x_2} f(\xi_2) \Delta x + \dots + \max_{x_{n-1} \leq \xi_n \leq x_n} f(\xi_n) \Delta x$$

$$U_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \max_{x_{i-1} \leq \xi_i \leq x_i} f(\xi_i) \Delta x$$

$$\text{Lower sum} = \min_{x_0 \leq \xi_1 \leq x_1} f(\xi_1) \Delta x + \min_{x_1 \leq \xi_2 \leq x_2} f(\xi_2) \Delta x + \dots + \min_{x_{n-1} \leq \xi_n \leq x_n} f(\xi_n) \Delta x$$

$$L_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \min_{x_{i-1} \leq \xi_i \leq x_i} f(\xi_i) \Delta x$$

Note: $L_n \leq \text{Area} \leq U_n$

Rough idea: $n \rightarrow \infty$, more rectangles, better approximation!

If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n = A$, we define the area to A . — (*)

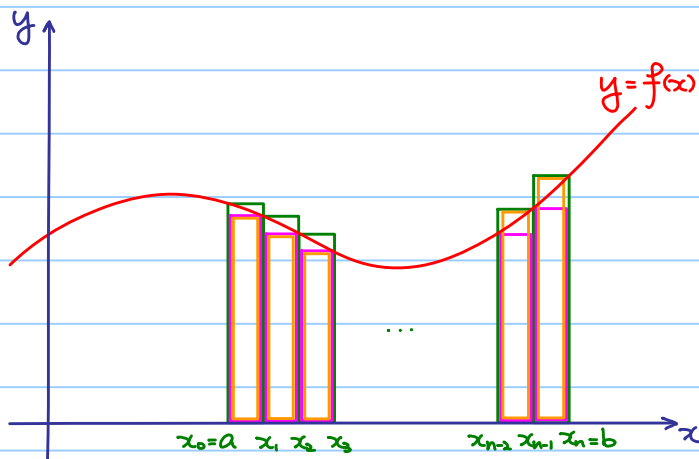
Remark:

1) If the area is defined, we denote it by $\int_a^b f(x) dx$.

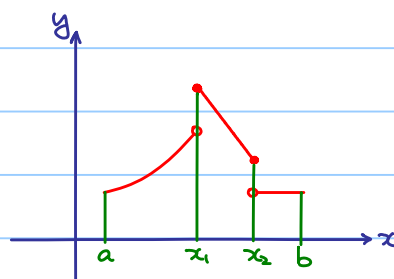
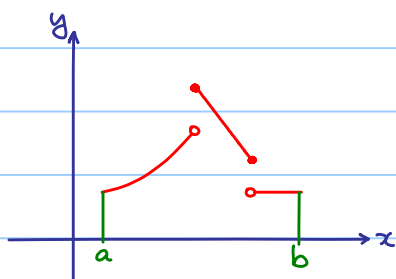
2) If $f(x)$ is a continuous function, $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is well-defined for any $a \leq b$.

3) Let $a_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x = \sum_{i=1}^n f(a + (b-a) \frac{i}{n}) \cdot \frac{b-a}{n}$, then $L_n \leq a_n \leq U_n$.

Now, we know $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n = A$, so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A$

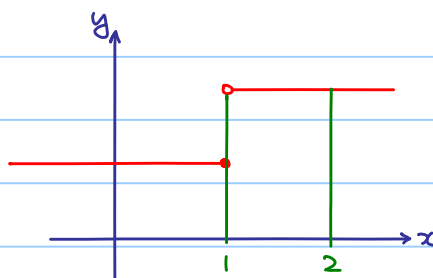


4) If f is a piecewise continuous on $[a, b]$, i.e. discontinuous only at finitely many points, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is defined as the following:



$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^{x_1} f(x) dx + \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx + \int_{x_2}^b f(x) dx$$

e.g. Let $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \leq 1 \\ 2 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$



$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 f(x) dx &= \int_0^1 f(x) dx + \int_1^2 f(x) dx \\ &= 1 \times 1 + 2 \times 1 \\ &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

Note: width of a point = 0

Rules for Definite Integrals :

Let $f(x)$, $g(x)$ be continuous (or piecewise continuous) functions.

Suppose $a \leq b$.

1) If k is a constant, $\int_a^b k f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$

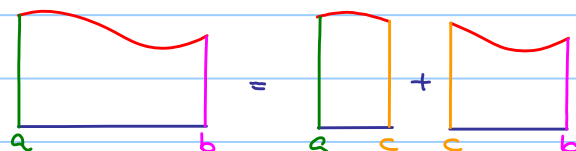
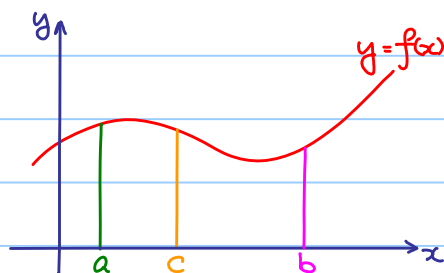
2) $\int_a^b f(x) \pm g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$

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

4) $\int_b^a f(x) dx$ is defined to be $-\int_a^b f(x) dx$ (reverse direction)

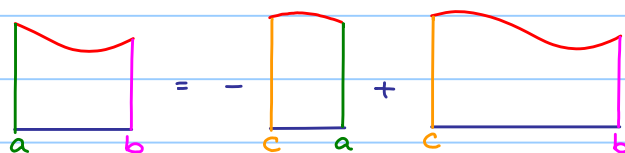
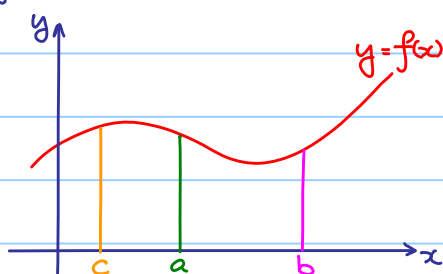
5) $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$ for any c (subdivision)

If $a \leq c \leq b$,



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

If $c < a \leq b$,



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

" $-\int_c^a f(x) dx$

Ex: Think why (5) is true if $a \leq b < c$!

These properties are followed the definition (*) .

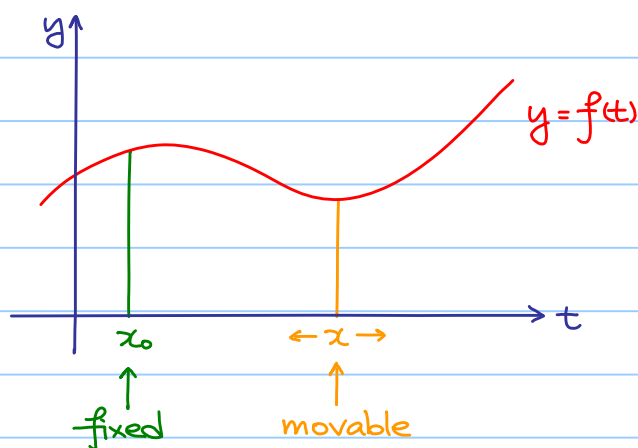
Computation of area :

NOT rely on the above limit, but **Fundamental Theorem of Calculus !**

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus :

Preparation :

Let $f(t)$ be a continuous function.



1) $\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt$ is well defined for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$

2) What is a function? Roughly speaking, input x , output y .

Now, construct a new function $F(x)$ defined by

$$F(x) = \text{Area under the curve } y=f(t) \text{ over } [x_0, x] \\ = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt$$

3) How about choosing another fixed point ?

Let $\tilde{F}(x) = \int_{x_1}^x f(t) dt$, what is the difference between $F(x)$ and $\tilde{F}(x)$?

In fact,

$$F(x) - \tilde{F}(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_1}^x f(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt + \int_x^{x_1} f(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{x_0}^{x_1} f(t) dt \quad \text{which is a constant.}$$

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus :

Let $f(t)$ be a continuous function, x_0 be a fixed point.

Suppose $F(x)$ is a function defined by

$$F(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt,$$

then $F(x)$ is a differentiable function and $F'(x) = f(x)$.

(i.e. $F(x)$ is an antiderivative of $f(x)$.)

1) Direct consequence :
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{x_0}^b f(x) dx - \int_{x_0}^a f(x) dx$$
$$= F(b) - F(a)$$

i.e. if we know how to compute antiderivative of $f(x)$,
then we know how to find $\int_a^b f(t) dt$.

2) Wait! Antiderivative of $f(x)$ is NOT unique, but unique up to a constant.

Which one should we pick?

If $\tilde{F}(x) = \int_{x_1}^x f(t) dt$, then $\tilde{F}(x)$ is another antiderivative of $f(x)$.

In fact, it is NOT surprising, we know $F(x) - \tilde{F}(x)$ is a constant.

$$\text{Also, } \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{x_1}^b f(x) dx - \int_{x_1}^a f(x) dx$$
$$= \tilde{F}(b) - \tilde{F}(a)$$

Therefore, we can pick anyone!

e.g. (Verification of Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)

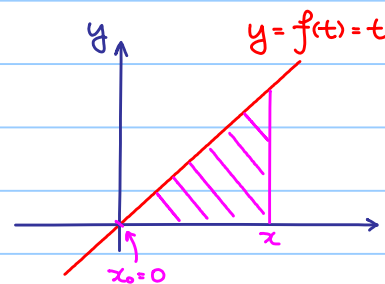
$$f(t) = t, \quad x_0 = 0$$

$$f(x) = x$$

$$F(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt$$

= Area of the shaded triangle

$$= \frac{1}{2}x^2$$



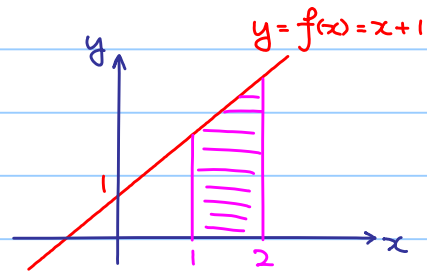
Note: We have $F'(x) = f(x)$.

e.g. $f(x) = x+1$

Antiderivative of $f(x) = \int x+1 dx = \frac{x^2}{2} + x + C$

Choose $C=0$, let $F(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} + x$

Area of the shaded region $= \int_1^2 f(x) dx = F(2) - F(1)$
 $= 4 - \frac{3}{2}$
 $= \frac{5}{2}$

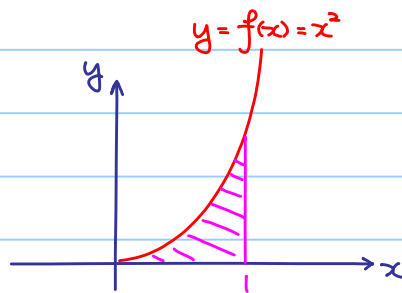


What we write :

$$\int_1^2 f(x) dx = \left[\frac{x^2}{2} + x \right]_1^2$$
$$= \underbrace{\left(\frac{2^2}{2} + 2 \right)}_{F(2)} - \underbrace{\left(\frac{1^2}{2} + 1 \right)}_{F(1)} = 4 - \frac{3}{2} = \frac{5}{2}$$

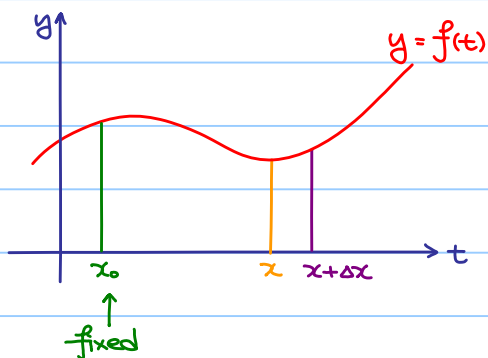
e.g. $f(x) = x^2$


Area of the shaded region $= \int_0^1 f(x) dx$
 $= \left[\frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1$
 $= \left(\frac{1^3}{3} \right) - \left(\frac{0^3}{3} \right)$
 $= \frac{1}{3}$



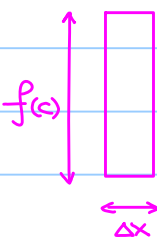
Sketch of the proof Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Claim: If $F(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt$, $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+\Delta x) - F(x)}{\Delta x} = f(x)$, i.e. $F'(x) = f(x)$



$F(x+\Delta x) - F(x)$
 = Area of 

By continuity of f , there exists $c \in (x, x+\Delta x)$ such that

= 

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

$$= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c) \Delta x}{\Delta x}$$

$$= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} f(c)$$

$$= \lim_{c \rightarrow x} f(c) \quad (\text{As } \Delta x \text{ tends to } 0, c \text{ tends to } x)$$

$$= f(x) \quad (\text{By continuity of } f)$$