$\frac{L \ L \ G}{Paris - Abu \ Dhabi}$

Chapter 7 : Integral Calculus.



1- Notion of integral :

1.1. <u>Constant function:</u>

Let f be a function defined on]a; b[by f(x) = c, c > 0. We call **integral of** f on]a; b[the area of the rectangle defined by the graph of f, the x - axis, the straight lines with equation x = a and x = b. Its value is c(b - a) a.u.



When c < 0, we agree to define the integral of f on]a; b[the opposite of the area below : c(b - a), it is an algebraic area, negative in that case.

1.2. Stair Function:

For a stair function (constant function by bits), the integral of f on]a; b[is the algebraic sum of the colored rectangles, counted positively if they're above the x - axis, negatively if they're below the x - axis.

We denote it $\int_a^b f(x)dx$, or $\int_a^b f(u)du$, or $\int_a^b f(t)dt$...(notation introduced by Leibniz, in the XVII th century).



1.3. <u>Positive continuous function:</u>

<u>Definition</u>: the integral from a to b of f, denoted $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, is the area of the domain bounded by the graph of f, the x - axis, the straight lines with equation x = a and x = b, in area unit. We also talk about the **area under the curve** from x = a to x = b.



2- First properties :

2.1. Extended definition :

• In the case of a negative continuous function, if a < b, we write : $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b (-f(x)) dx$, where -f is a positive function.

• For a positive continuous function, and if $a \ge b$, then :

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = -\int_{b}^{a} f(x)dx$$

<u>2.2.</u> Chastes Law: f is a continuous function on an interval I. For all real numbers a, b, c in I, we have :

$$\int_{a}^{c} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx + \int_{b}^{c} f(x)dx$$

Crack: If f is odd
$$\int_{-a}^{a} f(x) dx = 0$$
, and if it's even, $\int_{-a}^{a} f(x) dx = 2 \int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx$.

<u>2.3. Linearity</u> : f and g both continuous functions on I, and λ a real number. Qfor all real numbers a and b in I we have :

$$\int_{a}^{b} (f(x) + \lambda g(x)) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \lambda \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx$$

2.4. Central point:



It is actually the height of the rectangle with base (b - a) which area is equal to the area under the curve of f on [a; b].

<u>Theorem</u>: For all real numbers a, b in I, we can find a real number $c \in]a; b[$

such that
$$\int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt = (b-a)f(c)$$

<u>2.5. Inequalities</u>: If for all real number x of [a; b] we have f(x) > g(x), then $\int_a^b f(x)dx > \int_a^b g(x)dx$.

<u>Csq</u>: If f est bounded on [a; b], ie $m \le f(x) \le M$, then we have :

$$m(b-a) \le \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \le M(b-a)$$

3- Antiderivative :

3.1. Definition :

f is a function defined on an interval *I*. An **antiderivative** of *f* on *I* is a differentiable function *F* such that for all real number *x* of I : F'(x) = f(x).

<u>Theorem</u>: If *F* and *G* are both antiderivative of *f*, then we can find a real number *k* such that : F(x) = G(x) + k, for all $x \in I$.

<u>Csq</u>: Given a pair of real numbers $(x_0; y_0)$, there is only one antiderivative of f such that : $F(x_0) = y_0$ (boundary condition (initial condition if t = 0), in physics most of the time)

 $\underline{E_{\times}}$: Find the antiderivative of the following functions satisfying the boundary condition :

a)
$$f(x) = x$$
, and $F(0) = 2$
b) $g(x) = 4x + 1$ and $G(1) = -3$
c) $h(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$ and $H(-1) = 0$

3.2. Antiderivative of a continuous function :

<u>Theorem</u> : f is a continuous function defined over $I, a \in I$.

Then the function defined by

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

Is the <u>unique antiderivative</u> of f that is equal to 0 for x = a.

Proof!

▶ <u>*F* is differentiable :</u> Indeed, for $x_0 \in I$ and $h \neq 0$ we have :

$$\frac{F(x_0+h) - F(x_0)}{h} = \frac{1}{h} \left(\int_a^{x_0+h} f(t)dt - \int_a^{x_0} f(t)dt \right) = \frac{1}{h} \int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} f(t)dt$$

We have seen that there is a real number *c* comprised between x_0 and $x_0 + h$ such that $hf(c) = \int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} f(t)dt$. Then : $\frac{F(x_0+h)-F(x_0)}{h} = \frac{1}{h} h f(c) = f(c)$.

But, as f is a continuous function, when h tends to 0, c tends to x_0 , then f(c) tends to $f(x_0)$.

Therefore : $\lim_{h\to 0} \frac{F(x_0+h)-F(x_0)}{h} = f(x_0)$ which is a real number. Then F is differentiable at x_0 and $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$.

 $\succ \quad \underline{F \text{ is null at } a :} F(a) = \int_a^a f(t) dt = 0.$

F is unique : Let's imagine that G is another antiderivative of f null at a. Then we have G(x) = F(x) + k for a rel number k and for all x in I. But G(a) = 0 = F(a) + k = k. Then k = 0 and F = G. QED. <u>Csq</u>: The function $x \mapsto \ln x$ is the antiderivative of $\frac{1}{x}$ that is null at 1 on $]0; +\infty[$:

$$\ln x = \int_{1}^{x} \frac{1}{t} dt$$

4- Evaluating antiderivative :

4.1. Usual functions:

Function <i>f</i>	Antiderivative F	Intervall $I = \cdots$
a (constante)	ax + C	R
$x^n \ (n \in \mathbb{Z} - \{-1\})$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{2} + C$	$\mathbb{R} \qquad if \ n > 0$
	n+1] $-\infty$; 0[or]0; $+\infty$ [<i>if</i> $n < -1$
$\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$	$2\sqrt{x} + C$]0;+∞[
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x + C$]0;+∞[
e ^x	$e^x + C$	R
cos x	$\sin x + C$	R
sin x	$-\cos x + C$	R
$1 + \tan^2 x = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x}$	$\tan x + C$	$\left]-\frac{\pi}{2}+k\pi \; ; \; \frac{\pi}{2}+k\pi \right[, k \in \mathbb{Z}$

4.2. More formulas:

The operations on differentiable functions as well as the definition of an antiderivative lead to the following results :

• If F and G are antiderivatives of f and g, then F + G is an antiderivative of f + g.

If F is an antiderivative of f and λ is a real number, then λF is an antiderivative of λf.

Function <i>f</i>	Antiderivative F	Remarks
$u'u^n \ (n \in \mathbb{Z} - \{-1\})$	$\frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1}$	If $n < -1$, only for u never null on I .
$\frac{u'}{\sqrt{u}}$	$2\sqrt{u}$	<i>u</i> > 0
<u>u'</u>	$\ln u$	<i>u</i> > 0
u	$\ln(-u)$	<i>u</i> < 0
u'e ^u	e ^u	
$x \mapsto u(ax+b), a \neq 0$	$x \mapsto \frac{1}{a}U(ax+b),$	U antiderivative of u .

Example : An antiderivative of
$$f(x) = x \cos(x^2)$$
 is $F(x) = \frac{1}{2}\sin(x^2)$.

5- Integral calculus :

5.1. Link between integral and antiderivative :

<u>Fundamental theorem of calculus</u>: f is a continuous function on an interval I, F an antiderivative of f on I, a and b two real numbers belonging to I. Then we have :

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a), \text{ often denoted } [F(x)]_{a}^{b}$$

<u>Ex</u>: An antiderivative of $f(x) = \cos x$ is $f(x) = \sin x$, then : $\int_0^{\pi} \cos t \, dt = [\sin t]_0^{\pi} = \sin \pi - \sin 0 = 0.$ $\underbrace{\mathsf{E}_{\varkappa}}_{\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin x \cos^{2} x \, dx, \int_{0}^{3} \frac{1}{1+2x} dx, \int_{-3}^{5} \frac{2}{1+2x} dx, \int_{0}^{2} (2x+3)^{3} \, dx, \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin x \cos^{2} x \, dx, \int_{0}^{3} \frac{1}{1+2x} dx, \int_{-3}^{5} \frac{2}{1+2x} \, dx,$

5.2. Integration by parts:

<u>Theorem</u>: u and v two derivative functions on an interval I, with continuous derivatives, a and b two real numbers in I. Then :

$$\int_{a}^{b} u(t)v'(t)dt = [u(t)v(t)]_{a}^{b} - \int_{a}^{b} u'(t)v(t)dt$$

<u>Proof</u>: uv is a differentiable function and (uv)' = u'v + uv'. So u'v = (uv)' - uv'. As u'v, uv', and (uv)' are continuous we have : $\int_{a}^{b} u(t)v'(t)dt = \int_{a}^{b} (uv)'(t) - u'(t)v(t) dt$

Using the linearity of the integral :

$$\int_a^b u(t)v'(t)dt = \int_a^b (uv)'(t)dt - \int_a^b u'(t)v(t)dt$$

And uv is an antiderivative of (uv)' so :

$$\int_{a}^{b} u(t)v'(t)dt = [u(t)v(t)]_{a}^{b} - \int_{a}^{b} u'(t)v(t)dt$$

Example :

 $\int_0^1 t \, e^t \, dt \text{ has the form } \int_a^b u(t)v'(t)dt \text{ with } u(t) = t \text{ and } v'(t) = e^t, \text{ the functions } u, v, u', v' \text{ being continuous and } u'(t) = 1, v(t) = e^t.$ Then $\int_0^1 t \, e^t \, dt = [te^t]_0^1 - \int_0^1 e^t dt = e - 0 - [e^t]_0^1 = e - (e - 1) = 1.$

<u> $E_{\mathcal{V}}$ </u>: Evaluate the following integrals using integration by parts :

(a)
$$\int_{1}^{e} x \ln x \, dx$$
 (d) $\int_{1}^{e} \frac{\ln x}{x^{2}} dx$
(b) $\int_{1}^{e^{3}} \ln x \, dx$ (e) $\int_{1}^{\frac{\pi}{4}} e^{x} \cos x \, dx$. (2IBP)
(c) $\int_{0}^{1} x \sqrt{x+1} \, dx$