

## Homework/Tutorial 10

Marks: each question is worth 2 marks.

### What this homework is about

You will learn how to compute definite integrals, and explore their relation with indefinite integrals and area computation.

### Reminder

The **area**  $A$  under the graph of a continuous non-negative function  $f$  on an interval  $[a, b]$  is defined as follows. For all integers  $N$ ,

- 1) Divide  $[a, b]$  into  $N$  subintervals  $I_1, \dots, I_N$  of equal size  $\Delta_N = \frac{b-a}{N}$ .
- 2) On each  $I_k$ , choose some point  $x_k^*$ .
- 3) On each  $I_k$ , approximate the figure under the graph of  $f$  by the rectangle  $\Delta_N \times f(x_k^*)$ .
- 4) Compute the total area  $\sum_{k=1}^N f(x_k^*)\Delta_N$  of these small rectangles.

The area  $A$  is defined as the limiting value of these sums:  $A = \lim_{N \rightarrow +\infty} \sum_{k=1}^N f(x_k^*)\Delta_N$ .

The **definite integral**  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  of a function  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  is the limit of similar sums (called **Riemann sums**), where the subintervals  $I_k$  are no longer of the same size, but become arbitrarily small:  $\max_k |I_k| \xrightarrow{N \rightarrow +\infty} 0$ . The function is called **(Riemann) integrable** on  $[a, b]$  if this limit exists.

For a continuous non-negative  $f$ ,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  computes the area under the graph of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ .

The following formulas are useful for computing Riemann sums:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}, \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}, \quad \sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}.$$

Definite integrals are usually evaluated using indefinite integrals, thanks to

**The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.** Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Then:

**Part 1:**  $f$  is Riemann integrable on  $[a, b]$ , and  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \left[ \int f(x) dx \right]_a^b = F(b) - F(a)$ , where  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ ;

**Part 2:** the function  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$  is an antiderivative of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ .

### Properties of definite integrals:

- linearity:  $\int_a^b (c_1 f_1(x) + \dots + c_n f_n(x)) dx = c_1 \int_a^b f_1(x) dx + \dots + c_n \int_a^b f_n(x) dx$ ;
- $u$ -substitution:  $\int_a^b f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du$ ;
- integration by parts:  $\int_a^b f'(x)g(x) dx = [f(x)g(x)]_a^b - \int_a^b [f(x)g'(x)] dx$ ;
- $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$ ;  $\int_a^a f(x) dx = -\int_a^b f(x) dx$ ;
- additivity:  $\int_a^c f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx$ ;
- monotony:  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[a, b] \implies \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$ .

## Questions

- Consider the function  $F(x) = \int_1^x \frac{dt}{\sqrt{3t+1}}$ .
  - What is its natural domain?
  - Compute  $F'(x)$ .
  - Explain why  $F$  increases on its domain.
  - Compute  $F(0)$ .

*Solution.*

- The function  $f(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3t+1}}$  is defined and continuous when  $3t+1 > 0$ , that is, for  $t \in (-\frac{1}{3}, +\infty)$ . Since a continuous function is always Riemann integrable, and  $1 \in (-\frac{1}{3}, +\infty)$ , the natural domain of  $F$  is also  $(-\frac{1}{3}, +\infty)$ .
- By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,  $F(x) = \int_1^x f(t) dt$  is an antiderivative of  $f$ , so  $F'(x) = f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3x+1}}$ .
- Since  $F'(x) = f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3x+1}} > 0$  for all  $x \in (-\frac{1}{3}, +\infty)$ , the function  $F$  increases on its domain.  
A second explanation:  $F(x)$  is the area under the graph of the continuous non-negative function  $f$  on  $[1, x]$ , so it increases when the interval  $[1, x]$  extends to the right.
- We'll use the substitution  $u = 3t+1$ , with  $du = 3dt$ ,  $u(1) = 4$ ,  $u(0) = 1$ :

$$F(0) = \int_1^0 \frac{dt}{\sqrt{3t+1}} = \int_4^1 \frac{du}{3\sqrt{u}} = \frac{1}{3} [2\sqrt{u}]_4^1 = \frac{2}{3}(1-2) = -\frac{2}{3}.$$

- Compute the following definite integrals:

- $\int_1^0 x^2 \sqrt[5]{x^3-1} dx$ ;
- $\int_1^{e^2} x \ln x dx$ .

*Solution.*

- We'll use the substitution  $u(x) = x^3-1$ , with  $du = 3x^2 dx$ ,  $u(1) = 0$ ,  $u(0) = -1$ :  

$$\int_1^0 x^2 \sqrt[5]{x^3-1} dx = \int_0^{-1} \frac{du}{\sqrt[5]{u}} \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{5}{6} u^{\frac{6}{5}} \right]_0^{-1} = \frac{5}{18}(1-0) = \frac{5}{18}.$$
- We'll use integration by parts with  $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{2}$  and  $g(x) = \ln x$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^{e^2} x \ln x dx &= \left[ \frac{x^2}{2} \ln x \right]_1^{e^2} - \int_1^{e^2} \frac{x^2}{2} \frac{dx}{x} = \left( \frac{e^4}{2} \ln(e^2) - \frac{1^2}{2} \ln 1 \right) - \int_1^{e^2} \frac{x}{2} dx \\ &= \left( \frac{e^4}{2} \cdot 2 - 0 \right) - \left[ \frac{1}{4} x^2 \right]_1^{e^2} = e^4 - \frac{1}{4}(e^4 - 1) = \frac{3}{4}e^4 + \frac{1}{4}. \end{aligned}$$

- Compute

$$\int_1^{-1} f(x) dx, \quad \text{where } f(x) = \frac{\arctan(x)}{\sqrt{x^2+1} \cos(x)},$$

without finding the antiderivative of  $f$ .

(Hint. Compare  $\int_1^0 f(x) dx$  and  $\int_0^{-1} f(x) dx$ .)

*Solution.* The functions  $\sqrt{x^2 + 1}$  and  $\cos(x)$  are even, and  $\arctan(x)$  is odd, therefore  $f$  is odd. Keeping this in mind, let us make the following substitution in  $\int_0^{-1} f(x) dx$ :

$$u(x) = -x, \quad du = -dx, \quad u(0) = 0, \quad u(-1) = 1.$$

We get

$$\int_0^{-1} f(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(-u) (-du) = \int_0^1 (-f(u)) (-du) = \int_0^1 f(u) du.$$

So,

$$\int_1^{-1} f(x) dx = \int_1^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^{-1} f(x) dx = \int_1^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^1 f(u) du = \int_1^1 f(x) dx = 0.$$

*Remark.* Using the same argument, one can show that for any odd function  $f$  Riemann integrable on  $[-a, a]$ , we have  $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0$ .

4. Consider the functions  $f(x) = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x)$  and  $g(x) = x$  on  $[0, 1]$ .

(a) Show that on  $[0, 1]$ , the graph of  $f$  lies above the graph of  $g$ .

(Hint. Consider the difference  $h(x) = f(x) - g(x)$ . To see that  $h(x) \geq 0$  on  $[0, 1]$ , find the minimum of  $h$  on  $[0, 1]$ .)

(b) Compute the area between the two graphs on  $[0, 1]$ .

*Solution.* Consider the difference of the two functions,  $h(x) = f(x) - g(x) = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x) - x$ . To determine its minimal value, we need to compute its derivative:

$$h'(x) = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x)' - x' = \cos(\frac{\pi}{2}x) \frac{\pi}{2} - 1.$$

When  $x$  changes between 0 and 1,  $\cos(\frac{\pi}{2}x)$  decreases from  $\cos(0) = 1$  to  $\cos(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 0$ , so  $h'(x)$  decreases from  $\frac{\pi}{2} - 1$  (which is positive) to  $-1$ . This means that  $h(x)$  increases up to a certain point (namely,  $x = \frac{2}{\pi} \arccos(\frac{2}{\pi})$ ) and then decreases. Therefore, it takes its minimal value at one of its endpoints, 0 or 1. A direct computation yields

$$h(0) = \sin(0) - 0 = 0, \quad h(1) = \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}) - 1 = 0.$$

Hence this minimal value is 0, and  $h(x) \geq 0$  on  $[0, 1]$ . In other words,  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[0, 1]$ , so the graph of  $f$  lies above the graph of  $g$ .

As a result, the area  $A$  between the two graphs is the difference between the area under the graph of  $f$  and area under the graph of  $g$ :

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \int_0^1 f(x) dx - \int_0^1 g(x) dx = \int_0^1 \sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x) dx - \int_0^1 x dx = \left[ -\frac{2}{\pi} \cos(\frac{\pi}{2}x) \right]_0^1 - \left[ \frac{x^2}{2} \right]_0^1 \\ &= -\frac{2}{\pi} (\cos(\frac{\pi}{2}) - \cos(0)) - (\frac{1}{2} - 0) = \frac{2}{\pi} - \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

5. Compute  $\int_0^1 x^3 dx$  using two methods:

(a) explicit Riemann sums, where you divide the interval  $[0, 1]$  into  $N$  equal parts and in each part choose as the point  $x_k^*$  the left endpoint;

(b) the relation with the indefinite integral.

Compare the answers obtained.

*Solution.*

(a) According to the algorithm recalled in the Reminder, take a natural number  $N$  and divide the interval  $[0, 1]$  into  $N$  parts  $[0, \frac{1}{N}]$ ,  $[\frac{1}{N}, \frac{2}{N}]$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $[\frac{N-1}{N}, 1]$  of equal size  $\frac{1}{N}$ . On each

subinterval  $[\frac{k-1}{N}, \frac{k}{N}]$ , choose its left endpoint  $\frac{k-1}{N}$ . Then the corresponding Riemann sum for the function  $x^3$  on  $[0, 1]$  becomes

$$0^3 \cdot \frac{1}{N} + \left(\frac{1}{N}\right)^3 \cdot \frac{1}{N} + \cdots + \left(\frac{N-1}{N}\right)^3 \cdot \frac{1}{N} = \frac{1}{N^4} \sum_{k=1}^{N-1} k^3 = \frac{1}{N^4} \frac{(N-1)^2 N^2}{4} = \frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right)^2.$$

Here we applied the formula  $\sum_{k=1}^n k^3 = \frac{n^2(n+1)^2}{4}$  for  $n = N-1$ . When  $N$  gets arbitrary

large,  $\frac{1}{N}$  approaches 0, so the numbers  $\frac{1}{4} \left(1 - \frac{1}{N}\right)^2$  approach  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Thus  $\int_0^1 x^3 dx = \frac{1}{4}$ .

$$(b) \int_0^1 x^3 dx = \left[ \frac{x^4}{4} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{4} (1^4 - 0^4) = \frac{1}{4}.$$

The two methods for computing definite integrals yield the same result, but the second one demands much less efforts!