

5.2. The definite integral. (Sec. 5.2 in the textbook)

Definition 5.2. Let f be a function defined on $[a, b]$. Set $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$, $x_i = a + i\Delta x$ and let $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$ for $1 \leq i \leq n$. The *definite integral* of f from a to b is denoted and defined by

$$(5.1) \quad \int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x,$$

provided the limit exists and is independent of the choice of sample points. In this case, we say that f is *integrable* on $[a, b]$.

Remark 5.1. The symbol of \int is introduced by Leibniz and called the *integral sign*. In the notation $\int_a^b f(x)dx$, f is called the *integrand* and a, b are called the *limits of integration*, whereas a refers to the *lower limit* and b refers to the *upper limit*. The procedure of calculating an integral is called *integration*.

Remark 5.2. The summation in the right hand side of (5.1) is called the *Riemann sum*.

Remark 5.3. Among all choices of sample points, the Riemann sum with midpoints,

$$\Delta x \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(\frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2}\right),$$

is generally closer to the desired integral than those with left or right endpoints.

Remark 5.4. In fact, one may consider non-uniform partitions of $[a, b]$ in Definition 5.2. In detail, let $x_0 = a < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$ be a partition of $[a, b]$, set $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$ and select $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$. More rigorously, we say that f is integrable on $[a, b]$ if the following limit

$$(5.2) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x_i$$

exists and independent of the choice of x_0, \dots, x_n satisfying $\max\{\Delta x_i | 1 \leq i \leq n\} \rightarrow 0$ and independent of the selection of sample points. Actually, the definition in (5.2) is consistent with the definition in (5.1).

Example 5.2. Let f, g be functions defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 0 & \text{for } x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}, \quad g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \neq 1/2 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 1/2 \end{cases}.$$

Then, f is not integrable but g is integrable.

Theorem 5.1. Let $\Delta x, x_i$ be as in Definition 5.2. If f is integrable on $[a, b]$, then

$$(5.3) \quad \int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(x_i)\Delta x.$$

Theorem 5.2. If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ or has only finitely many jump discontinuities, then f is integrable on $[a, b]$.

Example 5.3. Let $f(x) = x^3 + x \sin x$. Since f is continuous on $[0, \pi]$,

$$\int_0^\pi f(x)dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i^3 + x_i \sin x_i)\Delta x, \quad x_i = \frac{i\pi}{n}, \quad \Delta x = \frac{\pi}{n}.$$

Some formulas on the evaluation of integrals

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

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c = nc, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n ca_i = c \sum_{i=1}^n a_i, \quad \sum_{i=1}^n (a_i \pm b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \pm \sum_{i=1}^n b_i.$$

Example 5.4. Let $f(x) = x^3 - 6x$ and set $R_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x$, where $\Delta x = 3/n$ and $x_i = 3i/n$. Note that

$$R_n = \frac{3}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\left(\frac{3i}{n} \right)^3 - 6 \cdot \frac{3i}{n} \right] = \frac{3}{n} \left[\frac{27}{n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n i^3 - \frac{18}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n i \right] = \frac{81}{4} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 - 27 \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right).$$

By Theorem 5.2, $\int_0^3 (x^3 - 6x)dx = -27/4$.

Example 5.5. To compute $\int_1^2 e^x dx$, we need to estimate its Riemann sum. Note that

$$R_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{1+i/n} = \frac{e}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(e^{1/n} \right)^i = \frac{e}{n} \cdot \frac{e^{1/n}[e^{n/n} - 1]}{e^{1/n} - 1} = (e^2 - e) \frac{1/n}{1 - e^{-1/n}}.$$

By L'Hôpital's rule, this implies

$$\int_1^2 e^x dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = (e^2 - e) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{x}{1 - e^{-x}} = (e^2 - e) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{e^{-x}} = e^2 - e.$$

Example 5.6. To evaluate the integrals of $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx$ and $\int_0^1 (x-1)dx$, one may interpret them as the areas of some regions and obtain the results of $\pi/4$ and $-1/2$.

Properties of definite integrals

Let f, g be integrable functions and $a, b, c, A, m, M \in \mathbb{R}$.

- (1) $\int_b^a f(x)dx = -\int_a^b f(x)dx, \quad \forall a < b;$ (2) $\int_a^a f(x)dx = 0;$
- (3) $\int_a^b A dx = A(b-a);$ (4) $\int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)]dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx \pm \int_a^b g(x)dx;$
- (5) $\int_a^b Af(x)dx = A \int_a^b f(x)dx;$ (6) $\int_a^c f(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx + \int_b^c f(x)dx;$
- (7) $f(x) \geq g(x), \quad \forall a \leq x \leq b, \quad \Rightarrow \quad \int_a^b f(x)dx \geq \int_a^b g(x)dx;$
- (8) $m \leq f(x) \leq M, \quad \forall a \leq x \leq b, \quad \Rightarrow \quad m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x)dx \leq \int_a^b M(b-a).$

The above properties follows immediately from the definition of integration and the limit laws, whereas the details are omitted.