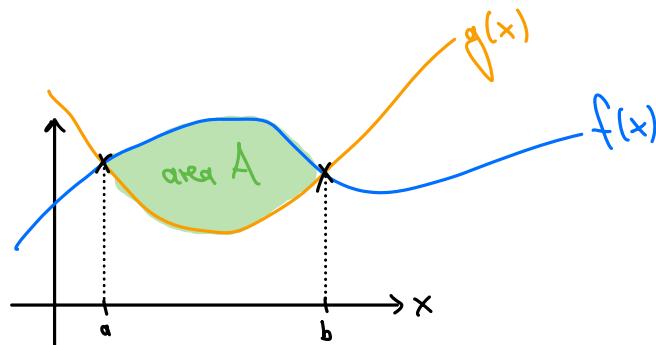


4. Integration in One Variable

Topic for Week 7B: Applications of Integration

Area between curves:Compute area A between f and g :

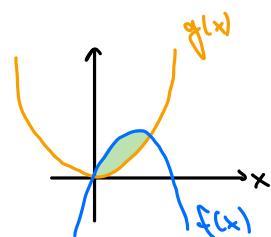
How? → Find points of intersection.

→ Use integration to compute $\int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx$.

Example:

$$g(x) = x^2$$

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



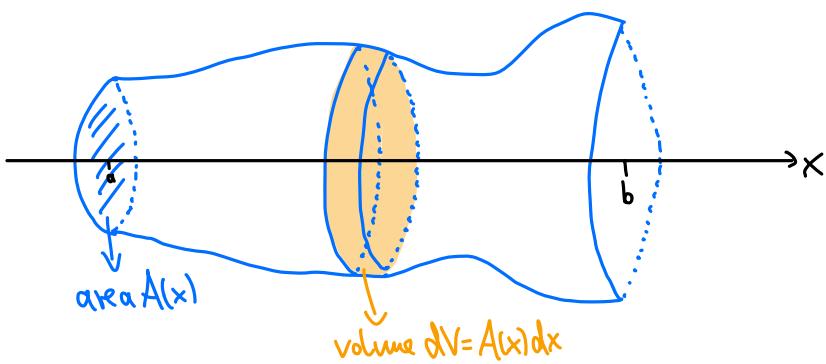
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Points of intersection: } f(x) = g(x) &\Rightarrow x^2 = 6x - 2x^2 \Rightarrow 3x^2 - 6x = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow x(x-2) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Points of intersection are at $x=0 =: a$ and $x=2 =: b$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \text{area } A &= \int_0^2 (f(x) - g(x)) dx = \int_0^2 (6x - 2x^2 - x^2) dx = \int_0^2 (-3x^2 + 6x) dx \\ &= -x^3 + 3x^2 \Big|_0^2 = -8 + 12 - 0 = 4 \end{aligned}$$

Volume computation:

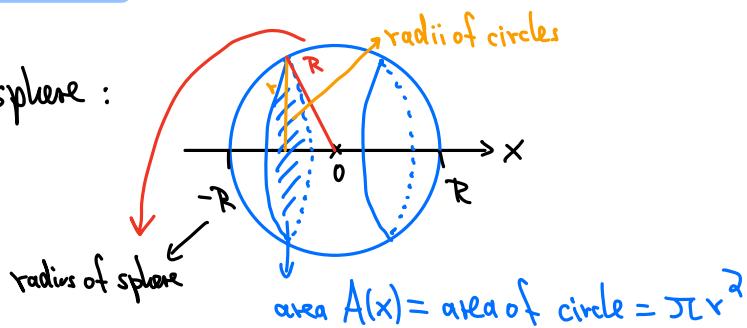
Compute volume V if areas $A(x)$ of cross sections are known:



Here, volume $V = \int_a^b A(x) dx$

$\underbrace{A(x)dx}_{=dV}$

Example: volume V of a sphere :



$$\text{Note: } x^2 + r^2 = R^2 \Rightarrow A(x) = \pi r^2 = \pi(R^2 - x^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow V = \int_{-R}^R A(x) dx = \int_{-R}^R \pi(R^2 - x^2) dx = \pi \left[R^2 x - \frac{1}{3} x^3 \right]_{-R}^R$$

$$= \pi \left[R^3 - \frac{R^3}{3} - \left(-R^3 + \frac{1}{3} R^3 \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3$$

Taylor Series

We reconsider the approximation of $f(x)$ near x_0 by a power series $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^N c_k(x_0)(x-x_0)^k$.

By the FTC, we know: $\int_{x_0}^x f'(t) dt = f(x) - f(x_0) \Rightarrow f(x) = f(x_0) + \int_{x_0}^x f'(t) dt$

Integration by parts: $\int_{x_0}^x \underbrace{1 \cdot f'(t)}_{\frac{d}{dt}(t-x)} dt = (t-x) f'(t) \Big|_{x_0}^x - \int_{x_0}^x (t-x) f''(t) dt$

$$= (x-x_0) f'(x_0) + \int_{x_0}^x (x-t) f''(t) dt$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = f(x_0) + (x-x_0) f'(x_0) + \int_{x_0}^x (x-t) f''(t) dt$$

Another integration by parts yields:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + (x-x_0) f'(x_0) + \frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2} f''(x_0) + \int_{x_0}^x \frac{(x-t)^2}{2} f'''(t) dt$$

In general, we recover the Taylor series we already know, but with a different (and often more useful) expression for the remainder term.

Theorem (Taylor expansion):

Let f be $(N+1)$ times continuously differentiable on $[x_0, x]$. Then

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^N \frac{(x-x_0)^k}{k!} f^{(k)}(x_0) + \int_{x_0}^x \frac{(x-t)^N}{N!} f^{(N+1)}(t) dt.$$

Power Series

Let $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k x^k$ have radius of convergence ρ .

Then: $f'(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k a_k x^{k-1}$

$$\int f(x) dx = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{a_k}{k+1} x^{k+1} + C$$

Note: • The radius of convergence is the same for $\sum a_k x^k$, $\sum k a_k x^{k-1}$, and $\sum \frac{a_k}{k+1} x^{k+1}$.

This can be seen, e.g., from the ratio test.

• If $f(x)$ converges at $x = \pm \rho$, then $f'(x)$ does not necessarily converge there.

(The extra k can make convergence harder.)

Ex.: $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2} x^k$ has $\rho = 1$, and the series converges at $x = 1$. But the derivative $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k} x^{k-1}$ does not converge at $x = 1$.

• If $f(x)$ converges at $x = \pm \rho$, then so does $\int f(x) dx$.

(The extra $\frac{1}{k+1}$ can make convergence better.)

Ex.: Same as above.