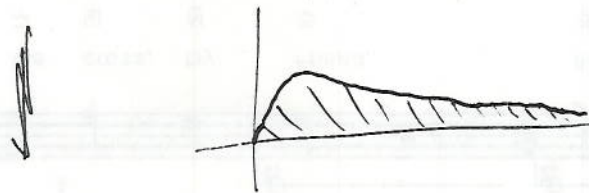


$$\left( \text{so } \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 1 \right)$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} x e^{-x/2} dx$$



Fact: if  $c > 0$ , then for any  $p$ ,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^p e^{-cx} = 0$$

p.g. even  $x^{1000000} e^{-x/7000} \rightarrow 0$   
 $x \rightarrow \infty$

(general rule of thumb;

" $e^x$  beats  $x^p$  beats  $\ln x$ "  
 in terms of behaviour at  $\infty$ )

$$\int e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} dx = -2e^{-\frac{1}{2}x} + c$$

$$\int e^{-x/2} dx$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} x e^{-x/2} dx &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^N x e^{-x/2} dx \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( \left[ -2x e^{-x/2} \right]_0^N - \int_0^N -2e^{-x/2} dx \right) \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( -2N e^{-N/2} - \left[ 4e^{-x/2} \right]_0^N \right) \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left( -2N e^{-N/2} - (4e^{-N/2} - 4) \right) \\ &= -2 \left( \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N e^{-N/2} \right) - 4 \left( \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} e^{-N/2} \right) + 4 \\ &= 0 - 0 + 4 \\ &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

## Numerical Integration (§6.3)

For many interesting functions, there is no antiderivative with a nice formula

e.g.  $e^{-x^2}$ ,  $\sqrt{x^3-1}$ ,  $\frac{e^x}{x}$ , ...

We can nonetheless estimate definite integrals of these

functions  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$

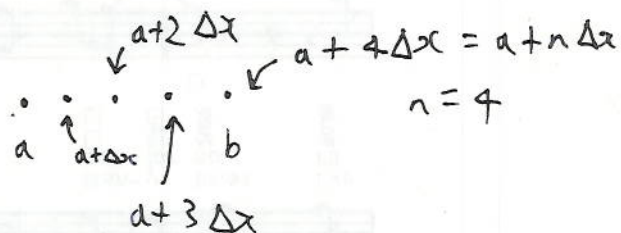
Method 1: Riemann sums

we defined  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Delta x \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)$

where  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$

and  $x_i$  is in the  $i^{\text{th}}$  subinterval of size  $\Delta x$

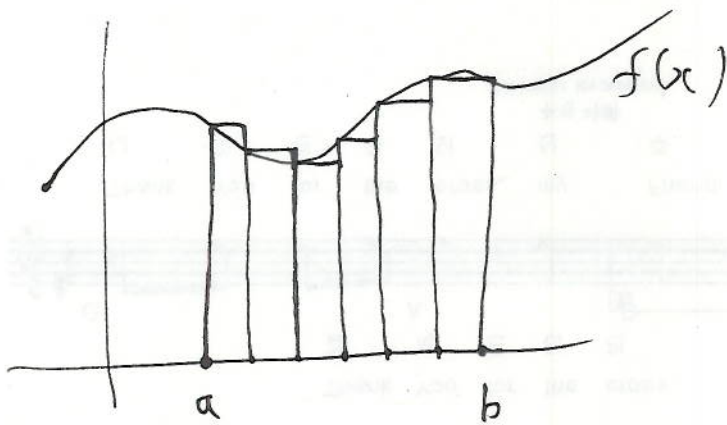
i.e.  $a + (i-1)\Delta x \leq x_i \leq a + i\Delta x$



So if we set  $n$  to be large,

and set  $x_i := a + (i-1)\Delta x$

then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx \Delta x \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)$



Method 2 ; Trapezoidal rule : Idea :

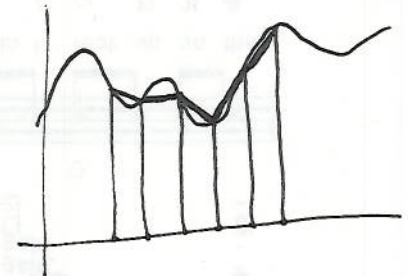
Again, set  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$

and  $x_i = a + (i-1)\Delta x$  ( $i=1, \dots, n+1$ )

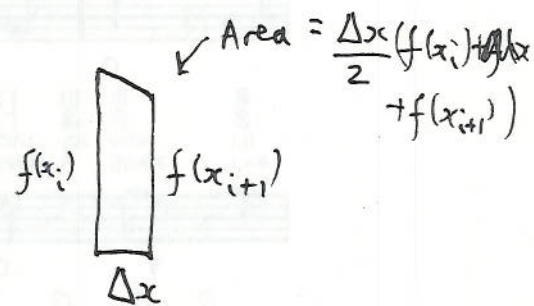


Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \approx [\text{sum of areas of trapezoids}]$$



$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{\Delta x}{2} (f(x_1) + f(x_2)) \\ &\quad + \frac{\Delta x}{2} (f(x_2) + f(x_3)) \\ &\quad + \dots \\ &\quad + \frac{\Delta x}{2} (f(x_n) + f(x_{n+1})) \end{aligned}$$



$$= \frac{\Delta x}{2} (f(x_1) + 2f(x_2) + 2f(x_3) + \dots + 2f(x_n) + f(x_{n+1}))$$

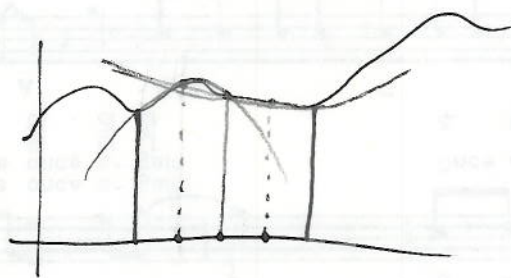
Method 3 ; Simpson's Rule :

If  $n$  is even,  $x_i = a + (i-1)\Delta x$ ,  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$   
 $(i=1, \dots, n+1)$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{\Delta x}{3} (f(x_1) + 4f(x_2) + 2f(x_3) + 4f(x_4) + 2f(x_5) + \dots + 4f(x_n) + f(x_{n+1}))$$

Generally better than the trapezoidal rule, but less obvious why it works

why it works (roughly);



the unique quadratic  $Q(x)$  s.t.  $Q(x_i) = f(x_i)$   
 $i=1, 2, 3$

has integral  $\int_{x_1}^{x_3} Q(x) dx = \frac{\Delta x}{3} (f(x_1) + 4f(x_2) + f(x_3))$

Example:  $\int_1^2 \frac{1}{x} dx = [\ln x]_1^2 = \ln 2 - \ln 1 = \ln 2$

Use Simpson's rule with  $n=10$

$$\int_1^2 \frac{1}{x} dx \approx \frac{0.1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1} + 4 \frac{1}{1.1} + 2 \frac{1}{1.2} + \dots + 4 \frac{1}{1.9} + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$= 0.6931502$$

$$\ln 2 = 0.6931472$$