

# 1 The fundamental theorems of calculus.

- The fundamental theorems of calculus.
- Evaluating definite integrals.
- The indefinite integral-a new name for anti-derivative.
- Differentiating integrals.

Today we provide the connection between the two main ideas of the course. The integral and the derivative.

**Theorem 1** Suppose  $f$  is a continuous function on  $[a, b]$ .

(FTC I) If  $F$  is an anti-derivative of  $f$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(t) dt = F(b) - F(a).$$

(FTC II) If  $g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ , then  $g' = f$ .

*Example.* Compute

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt.$$

Compute

$$\int_0^3 x^3 dx.$$

*Proof.* An idea of the proofs.

FTC I: We let  $F$  be an anti-derivative of  $f$  and let  $P = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b\}$ . We will express the change of  $F$ ,  $F(b) - F(a)$ , as a Riemann sum on the partition. Letting the size of the largest interval in the partition tend to zero, we obtain the integral is equal to the change in  $F$ .

We begin by writing

$$F(b) - F(a) = F(x_n) - F(x_{n-1}) + F(x_{n-1}) - \dots + F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1}) + \dots + F(x_1) - F(x_0).$$

We recall that  $F$  is an anti-derivative of  $f$  and apply the mean value theorem on each interval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$  and find a value  $c_i$  so that  $F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1}) = f(c_i)(x_i - x_{i-1})$ . Thus, we have

$$F(b) - F(a) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i)(x_i - x_{i-1}).$$

Since the right-hand side is a Riemann sum for the integral, we may let the width of the largest subinterval tend to zero and obtain

$$F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(s) ds.$$

FTC II:

Write

$$\frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h} = \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt.$$

We will show

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = f(x).$$

The reader should write out a similar argument for the limit from the below.

If  $f$  is continuous, then  $f$  has maximum and minimum values  $M_h$  and  $m_h$  on the interval  $[x, x+h]$ . Using the order property of the integral,

$$m_h \leq \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \leq M_h.$$

As  $h$  tends to 0, we have  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} M_h = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} m_h = f(x)$  since  $f$  is continuous. It follows that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = f(x).$$

■

## 1.1 Indefinite integrals.

We use the symbol

$$\int f(x) dx$$

to denote the indefinite integral or anti-derivative of  $f$ .

The indefinite integral is a function. The definite integral is a number. According FTC I, we can find the (numerical) value of a definite integral by evaluating the indefinite integral at the endpoints of the integral. Since this procedure happens so often, we have a special notation for this evaluation.

$$F(x)|_{x=a}^b = F(b) - F(a).$$

*Example.* Find

$$xa|_{x=a}^b \quad \text{and} \quad xa|_{a=x}^y$$

*Solution.*

$$ba - a^2 \quad xy - x^2$$

■

According to FTC II, anti-derivatives exist provided  $f$  is continuous.

The box on page 351 should be memorized. (In fact, you should already have memorized this information when we studied derivatives in Chapter 3 and when we studied anti-derivatives in Chapter 4.)

*Example.* Verify

$$\int x \cos(x^2) dx = \frac{1}{2} \sin(x^2).$$

*Solution.* According to the definition of anti-derivative, we need to see if

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{2} \sin(x^2) = x \cos(x^2).$$

This holds, by the chain rule. ■

## 1.2 Computing integrals.

The main use of FTC I is to simplify the evaluation of integrals.

We give a few examples.

*Example.* a) Compute

$$\int_0^\pi \sin(x) dx.$$

b) Compute

$$\int_1^4 \frac{2x^2 + 1}{\sqrt{x}} dx.$$

*Solution.* a) Since  $\frac{d}{dx}(-\cos(x)) = \sin(x)$ , we have  $-\cos(x)$  is an anti-derivative of  $\sin(x)$ . Using the second part of the fundamental theorem of calculus gives,

$$\int_0^\pi \sin(x) dx = -\cos(x)|_{x=0}^\pi = 2.$$

b) We first find an anti-derivative. As the indefinite integral is linear, we write

$$\int \frac{2x^2 + 1}{\sqrt{x}} dx = \int 2x^{3/2} + x^{-1/2} dx = 2 \int x^{3/2} dx + \int x^{-1/2} dx = \frac{4}{5} x^{5/2} + 2x^{1/2} + C.$$

With this anti-derivative, we may then use FTC I to find

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^4 \frac{2x^2 + 1}{\sqrt{x}} dx &= \left. \frac{4}{5} x^{5/2} + 2x^{1/2} \right|_{x=1}^4 \\ &= \frac{4}{5} 4^{5/2} + 2 \cdot 4^{1/2} - \left( \frac{4}{5} + 2 \right) \\ &= 128/5 + 20/5 - (4/5 + 10/5) \\ &= 134/5. \end{aligned}$$
■

*Example.* Find

$$\int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} 2x \cos(x^2) dx.$$

*Solution.* We recognize that  $\sin(x^2)$  is an anti-derivative of  $2x \cos(x^2)$ ,

$$\int 2x \cos(x^2) dx = \sin(x^2) + C.$$

Thus,

$$\int_0^{\sqrt{\pi}} 2x \cos(x^2) dx = \sin(x^2) \Big|_{x=0}^{\sqrt{\pi}} = 0 - 0.$$

■

Here, is a more involved example that illustrates the progress we have made.

*Example.* Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \sin(k/n).$$

*Solution.* We recognize that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \sin(k/n)$$

is a Riemann sum for an integral. The points  $x_k$ ,  $k = 0, \dots, n$  divide the interval  $[0, 1]$  into  $n$  equal sub-intervals of length  $1/n$ . Thus, we may write the limit as an integral

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \sin(k/n) = \int_0^1 \sin(x) dx.$$

To evaluate the resulting integral, we use FTC I. An anti-derivative of  $\sin(x)$  is  $-\cos(x)$ , thus

$$\int_0^1 \sin(x) dx = -\cos(x) \Big|_{x=0}^1 = 1 - \cos(1).$$

■

### 1.3 Differentiating integrals.

FTC II shows that any continuous function has an anti-derivative and can be used to find the derivatives of integrals.

*Example.* Find

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^x \sin(t^2) dt \quad \frac{d}{dx} \int_{x^2}^x \sin(t^2) dt \quad \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$$

Is the function  $L(x) = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$  increasing or decreasing? Is the graph of  $L$  concave up or concave down?

## 1.4 The net change theorem

Since  $F$  is always an anti-derivative of  $F'$ , one consequence of part II of the fundamental theorem of calculus is that if  $F'$  is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\int_a^b F'(t) dt = F(b) - F(a).$$

This helps us to understand some common physical interpretations of the integral.

For example, if  $p(t)$  denotes the position of an object. More precisely, if an object is moving along a line and  $p$  gives the number of meters the object lies to the right of a reference point, then  $p' = v$  is the velocity of the object. The definite integral

$$p(b) - p(a) = \int_a^b v(t) dt \tag{2}$$

denotes the net change in position of the object during the interval  $[a, b]$ . Note that if  $v$  is measured in meters/second, then units on  $v(t)dt$  would be meters/second  $\times$  seconds so the equation (2) is a sophisticated version of the familiar fact that distance = rate  $\times$  time.

To give a less familiar example, suppose we have a rope whose thickness varies along its length. Fix one end of the rope to measure from and let  $m(x)$  denote the mass in kilograms of the rope from 0 to  $x$  meters along the rope. If we take the derivative,  $\frac{dm}{dx} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{m(x+h) - m(x)}{h}$ , then this represents an average mass of the rope near  $x$  whose units are kilograms/meter. If we integrate this linear density and observe that  $m(0) = 0$ , then we recover the mass

$$m(x) = \int_0^x \frac{dm}{dx} dx.$$

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