

MH1810 Math 1 Part 2 Chapter 6 Integration

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The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

- gives the precise inverse relationship between the derivative and the definite integral.
- Newton and Leibniz exploited this relationship and used it to develop calculus into a systematic mathematical method
- for computing areas and integrals very easily without computing them as limits of sums.

Mean Value via Definite Integral

Definition

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then the **mean value** (also known as the average value) of f on $[a, b]$ is

$$\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

Example

We have calculated $\int_1^3 x^2 dx = \frac{26}{3}$. The mean value of x^2 on $[1, 3]$ is

$$\frac{1}{3-1} \cdot \frac{26}{3} = \frac{13}{3}.$$

Mean Value Theorem for Definite Integral

Theorem (The Mean Value Theorem for Definite Integrals)

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then there is a point $c \in [a, b]$ such that

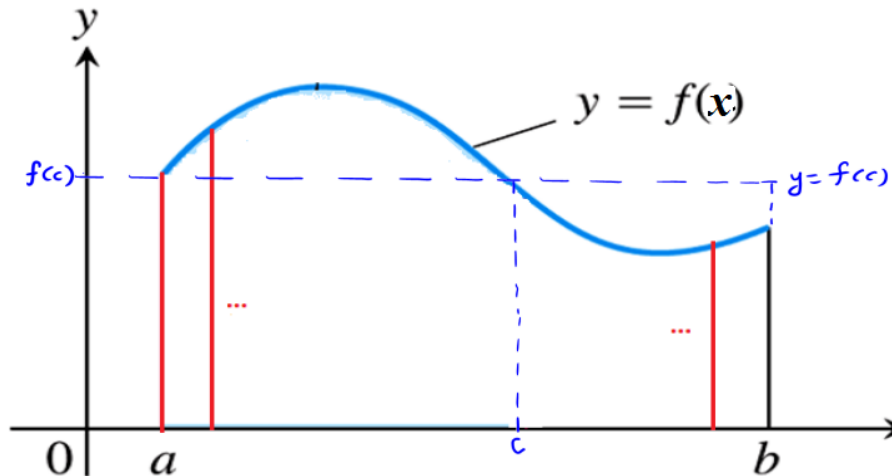
$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx,$$

i.e.,

$$(b-a)f(c) = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

Interpretation of the Mean Value for Definite Integral

Suppose $f(x) > 0$.



Interpretation of the Mean Value for Definite Integral

Suppose $f(x) > 0$. The equation

$$(b - a)f(c) = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

means that the area below the curve $y = f(x)$ and above the horizontal line $y = f(c)$ is equal to the area above $y = f(x)$ and below the horizontal line $y = f(c)$. So, in this sense, $f(c)$ is the average value of f on the interval $[a, b]$.

The First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Theorem

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then the function $F(x)$ defined by

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt, a \leq x \leq b$$

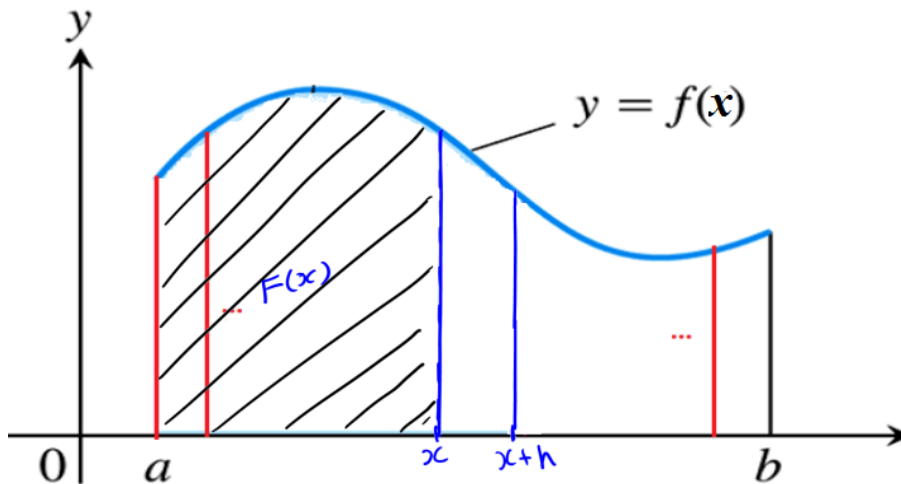
is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) and $F'(x) = f(x)$, i.e.,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_a^x f(t) dt \right) = f(x).$$

Important Note The lower limit of integration a is a constant, and the upper limit of integration is the variable x .

Intuitive Idea

For an intuitive understanding, we consider a continuous function $f(x) > 0$ on $[a, b]$.



Intuitive Idea

The definite integral $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is the area under $f(t)$ on the interval $[a, x]$. Note that $F(x)$ is a continuous function for $x \in [a, b]$.

$$\frac{\Delta F}{\Delta x} = \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = \underbrace{\frac{\int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt}{h}}_{MVT} = \frac{h \cdot f(x^*)}{h},$$

for some $x^* \in (x, x+h)$.

As $h \rightarrow 0$, we have $x^* \rightarrow x$, thus $\frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} \rightarrow f(x)$ (why?). Thus, we have

$$F'(x) = f(x).$$

Example

Example

Consider $g(x) = \int_1^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$, $1 \leq x \leq b$.

By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, the function

$$g(x) = \int_1^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$$

is continuous on $[1, b]$ and is differentiable on $(1, b)$.

Its derivative is given by

$$g'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_1^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \right) = \frac{\sin x}{x}.$$

Examples

$$(a) \quad \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_2^x (\sin t) \ln(t^2 + 1) dt \right) = \sin x \ln(x^2 + 1)$$

$$(b) \quad \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_{\pi}^x (e^{y^2+1}) \tan^3 y dy \right) = e^{x^2+1}$$

$$(c) \quad \frac{d}{dt} \left(\int_{179}^t \sqrt[3]{u^4 - 3u + 1} du \right)$$

Example

Example

Simplify $\frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_x^\pi e^{(t-3)^2} dt \right)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_x^\pi e^{(t-3)^2} dt \right) &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(- \int_\pi^x e^{(t-3)^2} dt \right) \\ &= - \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_\pi^x e^{(t-3)^2} dt \right) \\ &= -e^{(x-3)^2} \end{aligned}$$

Example

Example

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_1^{\sin x} \ln(t^2 + 1) dt$$

NOTE The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus cannot be applied directly to the function.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^{\sin x} \ln(t^2 + 1) dt &= \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^u \ln(t^2 + 1) dt, \text{ where } u = \sin x. \\ &= \frac{d}{du} \left(\int_1^u \ln(t^2 + 1) dt \right) \frac{du}{dx}, \text{ (Chain Rule)} \\ &= (\ln(u^2 + 1)) \cos x \\ &= (\cos x) \ln(\sin^2 x + 1) \end{aligned}$$

Theorem

Theorem

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^{u(x)} f(t) dt = u'(x) \cdot f(u(x)).$$

Proof.

The function $\int_a^{u(x)} f(t) dt$, where the upper limit of integration is a function $u(x)$ of the variable x instead of x . It is the composite function $u(x)$ followed by $\int_a^x f(t) dt$.

Therefore, we apply the Chain Rule.



Proof

Proof.

Let $y = u(x)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^{u(x)} f(t) dt &= \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^y f(t) dt \\&= \frac{d}{dy} \left(\int_a^y f(t) dt \right) \frac{dy}{dx} \text{ (Chain Rule)} \\&= f(y) \cdot u'(x) = u'(x) \cdot f(u(x)).\end{aligned}$$



Example

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^{x^3} e^{-t^2} dt = e^{-(x^3)^2} \cdot (3x^2) = 3x^2 e^{-x^6}$$

Example

Example

Find the first derivative of $F(x) = \int_{x^2}^{x^3} e^{-t^2} dt$.

Solution

We introduce a number at which the integrand e^{-t^2} is defined. We have used the number 0 here.

$$F(x) = \int_{x^2}^{x^3} e^{-t^2} dt = \int_0^{x^3} e^{-t^2} dt - \int_0^{x^2} e^{-t^2} dt.$$

Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_0^{x^3} e^{-t^2} dt \right) - \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_0^{x^2} e^{-t^2} dt \right) \\ &= 3x^2 e^{-x^6} - 2x e^{-x^4} \end{aligned}$$

Remarks

(a) It may seem odd to have function defined via definite integral $\int_a^x f(t) dt$. However, such functions are not uncommon in mathematics, physics, chemistry and statistics.

(b) The Fresnel function $S(x) = \int_0^x \sin(\pi t^2/2) dt$ appears in Fresnel's theory of the diffraction of light waves, and has also been applied to the design of highways.

Another example is the sine integral function

$$S(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \text{ in electrical engineering.}$$

Remarks

(c) A formal way to define the natural logarithmic function is

$\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$ for $x > 0$. From this definition, the function

$\ln x$ is one-to-one, since its derivative is $1/x > 0$ for $x > 0$.

Thus it has an inverse which is denoted by e^x .

From these functions, we have the formal definition of general exponential function a^x with base a defined as $a^x = e^{x \ln a}$, its inverse function is then denoted by $\log_a x$.

The Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Theorem

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = G(b) - G(a),$$

*where G is **any** antiderivative of f , i.e., $G' = f$.*

The Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus -Proof

(Follows from the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.)

Let $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$.

For $x \in (a, b)$, $F'(x) = f(x)$, by the First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

By assumption, $G'(x) = f(x)$. Hence,

$$G(x) = F(x) + C, \quad \text{for } x \in [a, b]$$

for some constant C , and we get

$$\begin{aligned} G(b) - G(a) &= (F(b) + C) - (F(a) + C) = F(b) - F(a) \\ &= \int_a^b f(t) dt - \int_a^a f(t) dt = \int_a^b f(t) dt. \end{aligned}$$

The Evaluation Symbol

To facilitate evaluation of definite integrals using the Fundamental Theorem, we define

$$G(x) \Big|_a^b = G(b) - G(a),$$

which enables us to state that if f and G are continuous on $[a, b]$ and $G'(x) = f(x)$ on (a, b) , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = G(x) \Big|_a^b.$$

The Evaluation Symbol

Using the notation $\int f(x)dx$ for the indefinite integral, we may write

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \left(\int f(x)dx \right) \Big|_a^b$$

Example

Example

Note that $G(x) = \frac{x^3}{3} + \sin x + 179$ is an antiderivative of $f(x) = x^2 + \cos x$. Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{\pi/2} (x^2 + \cos x) \, dx &= G(\pi/2) - G(0) \\&= \left(\frac{(\pi/2)^3}{3} + \sin(\pi/2) + 179 \right) - \left(\frac{0^3}{3} + \sin 0 + 179 \right) \\&= \frac{\pi^3}{24} + 1.\end{aligned}$$

Example

Example

Evaluate $\int_1^2 x^{-2} dx$.

Solution

The general antiderivative of x^{-2} is

$$\int x^{-2} dx = -x^{-1} + C.$$

By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (part 2), we have

$$\int_1^2 x^{-2} dx = \left(-x^{-1} + C \right) \Big|_1^2 = -(2)^{-1} - (-(1)^{-1}) = 1/2.$$

Example

Example

Evaluate the integral $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx$ where

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } -\pi \leq x \leq 0, \\ \sin x & \text{if } 0 < x \leq \pi. \end{cases}$$

Solution

Note that f is continuous on $[-\pi, \pi]$.

(Exercise: Verify f is continuous at $x = 0$.)

Solution

Solution

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } -\pi \leq x \leq 0, \\ \sin x & \text{if } 0 < x \leq \pi. \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \, dx &= \int_{-\pi}^0 f(x) \, dx + \int_0^{\pi} f(x) \, dx \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^0 x \, dx + \int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx \\ &= \left(\frac{x^2}{2} \right) \Big|_{-\pi}^0 + (-\cos x) \Big|_0^{\pi} = \frac{-\pi^2}{2} + 2 \end{aligned}$$

Spot the Mistake

Example

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{x} \Big|_{-1}^1 = -\frac{1}{1} - \left(-\frac{1}{-1}\right) = -1 - 1 = -2.$$

By any meaningful definition of the integral above, the integral should be a positive number since $1/x^2$ is always positive.

We can only use the Fundamental Theorem when the integrand f is continuous on the interval of integration.

The function $1/x^2$ is **not** continuous on $[-1, 1]$ so the integral above isn't actually defined (yet).

Applications

Example

Evaluate $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi}{n} \left(\sin \frac{\pi}{n} + \sin \frac{2\pi}{n} + \dots + \sin \frac{n\pi}{n} \right)$.

Solution

We shall express the limit as a definite integral

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

Solution

Solution

The Riemann sum of g on $[0, 1]$ with x_k^* is $\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{n} g(x_k^*)$.

Rewrite the sum:

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\pi}{n} \left(\sin \frac{\pi}{n} + \sin \frac{2\pi}{n} + \dots + \sin \frac{n\pi}{n} \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\pi}{n} \sin \frac{k\pi}{n} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \underbrace{\pi \sin \left(\left(\frac{k}{n} \right) \pi \right)}_{g(x_k^*)} \end{aligned}$$

Solution

Solution

Comparing

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{n} g(x_k^*) \text{ and } \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \underbrace{\pi \sin \left(\left(\frac{k}{n} \right) \pi \right)}_{g(x_k^*)},$$

we take $x_k^* = \frac{k}{n}$ and $g(x) = \pi \sin(\pi x)$ over $[0, 1]$. Thus, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{\pi}{n} \sin \frac{k\pi}{n} = \int_0^1 \pi \sin(\pi x) dx = \pi \left(\frac{-1}{\pi} \cos \pi x \right) \Big|_0^1 = 2.$$