Lecture 17: Second Fundamental Theorem

Recall: First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (FTC 1)

If f is continuous and
$$F' = f$$
, then
$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

We can also write that as

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int f(x)dx \Big|_{x=a}^{x=b}$$

Do all continuous functions have antiderivatives? Yes. However...

What about a function like this?

$$\int e^{-x^2} dx = ??$$

Yes, this antiderivative exists. No, it's not a function we've met before: it's a new function.

The new function is defined as an integral:

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

It will have the property that $F'(x) = e^{-x^2}$.

Other new functions include antiderivatives of e^{-x^2} , $x^{1/2}e^{-x^2}$, $\frac{\sin x}{x}$, $\sin(x^2)$, $\cos(x^2)$, ...

Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (FTC 2)

If
$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt$$
 and f is continuous, then
$$F'(x) = f(x)$$

Geometric Proof of FTC 2: Use the area interpretation: F(x) equals the area under the curve between a and x.

But, by the definition of the derivative:

$$\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\Delta F}{\Delta x} = F'(x)$$

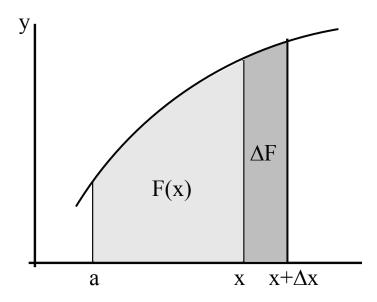


Figure 1: Geometric Proof of FTC 2.

Therefore,

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

Another way to prove FTC 2 is as follows:

$$\frac{\Delta F}{\Delta x} = \frac{1}{\Delta x} \left[\int_{a}^{x+\Delta x} f(t)dt - \int_{a}^{x} f(t)dt \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_{x}^{x+\Delta x} f(t)dt \quad \text{(which is the "average value" of } f \text{ on the interval } x \leq t \leq x + \Delta x.\text{)}$$

As the length Δx of the interval tends to 0, this average tends to f(x).

Proof of FTC 1 (using FTC 2)

Start with F'=f (we assume that f is continuous). Next, define $G(x)=\int_a^x f(t)dt$. By FTC2, G'(x)=f(x). Therefore, (F-G)'=F'-G'=f-f=0. Thus, F-G= constant. (Recall we used the Mean Value Theorem to show this).

Hence, F(x) = G(x) + c. Finally since G(a) = 0,

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(t)dt = G(b) - G(a) = [F(b) - c] - [F(a) - c] = F(b) - F(a)$$

which is FTC 1.

Remark. In the preceding proof G was a definite integral and F could be any antiderivative. Let us illustrate with the example $f(x) = \sin x$. Taking a = 0 in the proof of FTC 1,

$$G(x) = \int_0^x \cos t \, dt = \sin t \Big|_0^x = \sin x \text{ and } G(0) = 0.$$

If, for example, $F(x) = \sin x + 21$. Then $F'(x) = \cos x$ and

$$\int_{a}^{b} \sin x \, dx = F(b) - F(a) = (\sin b + 21) - (\sin a + 21) = \sin b - \sin a$$

Every function of the form F(x) = G(x) + c works in FTC 1.

Examples of "new" functions

The error function, which is often used in statistics and probability, is defined as

$$\operatorname{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$$
 and $\lim_{x \to \infty} \operatorname{erf}(x) = 1$ (See Figure 2)

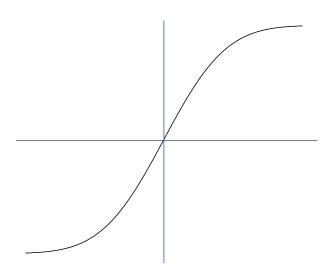


Figure 2: Graph of the error function.

Another "new" function of this type, called the logarithmic integral, is defined as

$$\operatorname{Li}(x) = \int_2^x \frac{dt}{\ln t}$$

This function gives the approximate number of prime numbers less than x. A common encryption technique involves encoding sensitive information like your bank account number so that it can be sent over an insecure communication channel. The message can only be decoded using a secret prime number. To know how safe the secret is, a cryptographer needs to know roughly how many 200-digit primes there are. You can find out by estimating the following integral:

$$\int_{10^{200}}^{10^{201}} \frac{dt}{\ln t}$$

We know that

$$\ln 10^{200} = 200 \ln(10) \approx 200(2.3) = 460$$
 and $\ln 10^{201} = 201 \ln(10) \approx 462$

We will approximate to one significant figure: $\ln t \approx 500$ for $200 \le t \le 10^{201}$.

With all of that in mind, the number of 200-digit primes is roughly ¹

$$\int_{10^{200}}^{10^{201}} \frac{dt}{\ln t} \approx \int_{10^{200}}^{10^{201}} \frac{dt}{500} = \frac{1}{500} \left(10^{201} - 10^{200} \right) \approx \frac{9 \cdot 10^{200}}{500} \approx 10^{198}$$

There are LOTS of 200-digit primes. The odds of some hacker finding the 200-digit prime required to break into your bank account number are very very slim.

Another set of "new" functions are the Fresnel functions, which arise in optics:

$$C(x) = \int_0^x \cos(t^2) dt$$
$$S(x) = \int_0^x \sin(t^2) dt$$

Bessel functions often arise in problems with circular symmetry:

$$J_0(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \cos(x \sin \theta) d\theta$$

On the homework, you are asked to find C'(x). That's easy!

$$C'(x) = \cos(x^2)$$

We will use FTC 2 to discuss the function $L(x) = \int_1^x \frac{dt}{t}$ from first principles next lecture.

$$\int_{a}^{b} c \, dx = c(b - a)$$

¹ The middle equality in this approximation is a very basic and useful fact

Think of this as finding the area of a rectangle with base (b-a) and height c. In the computation above, $a=10^{200}, b=10^{201}, c=\frac{1}{500}$