

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

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AY 23/24 Trimester 1

CSD2201 / CSD2200

Differentiation  
Integration  
Sequences / series

# Table of contents

## 1 Course Logistics

## 2 The Area Under Graph Problem

- Motivation
- Riemann Sums
- The Definite Integral

## 3 Integration x Differentiation

- Fundamental Theorem of Calculus
- Antiderivatives and Indefinite Integrals
- Evaluating definite integrals

Welcome back!



# General Information

- Mode of teaching: online lectures, on-campus tutorials
- Instructors:
  - Dr. Ronald Koh (Course Coordinator)
  - Dr. Lin Qinjie
  - Dr. Tay Bee Yen
- Class schedule:
  - Lectures: Mondays 0900 - 1130 HRS, **ONLINE**
  - Tutorials by sections (A) - (D), timings are 1400 - 1630:
    - (A) Fridays at ??, Instructor: Dr. Ronald Koh
    - (B) Tuesdays at Edison (SR2E), Instructor: Dr. Tay Bee Yen
    - (C) Thursdays at LT4B, Instructor: Dr. Lin Qinjie
    - (D) Fridays at ??, Instructor: Dr. Lin Qinjie
  - Tutorials by CSD2200 sections (A) and (B), timings also 1400 - 1630:
    - Fridays at ??, Instructor: Dr. Ronald Koh
    - Thursdays at LT4B, Instructor: Dr. Lin Qinjie
- Consultation: By appointment (Teams is preferred over email)

# Course Assessment Tasks

only non-graphic  
calculators are allowed

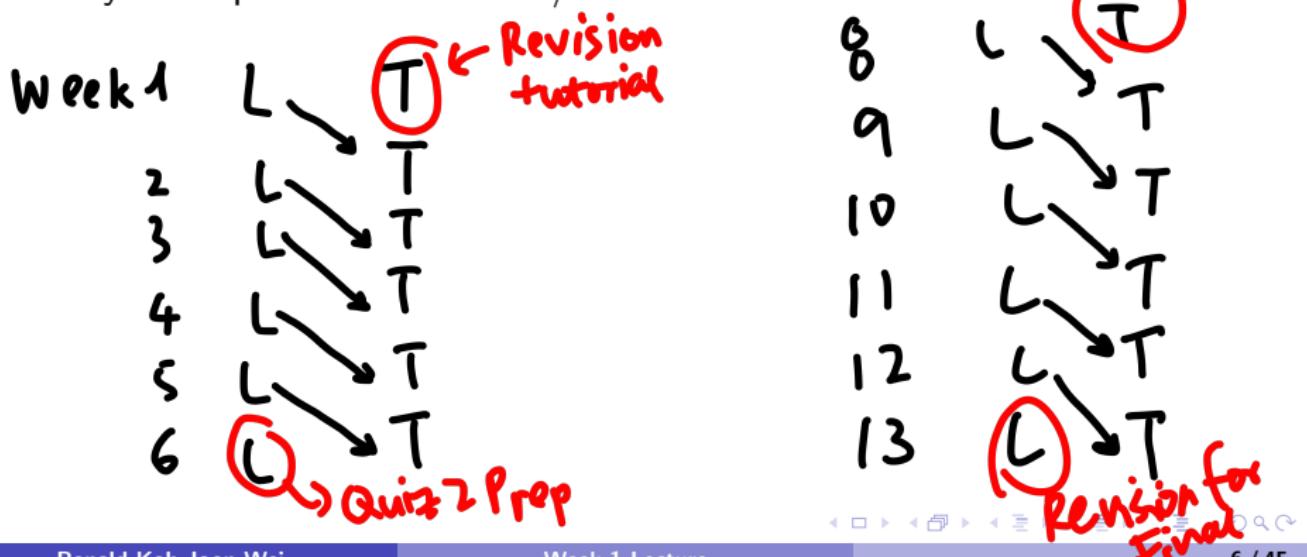
~ 50%  
open-ended  
q^n

Assessment Task	Weight	Tentative dates
Homeworks (5)	10%	Weeks 2, 3, 5, 9, 11
Quizzes (3)	60%	Weeks 4, 8, 12
Final Exam (1)	30%	Week 14

Like in CSD1251, a list of trigonometric formulae will be provided in quizzes and the final exam whenever required.

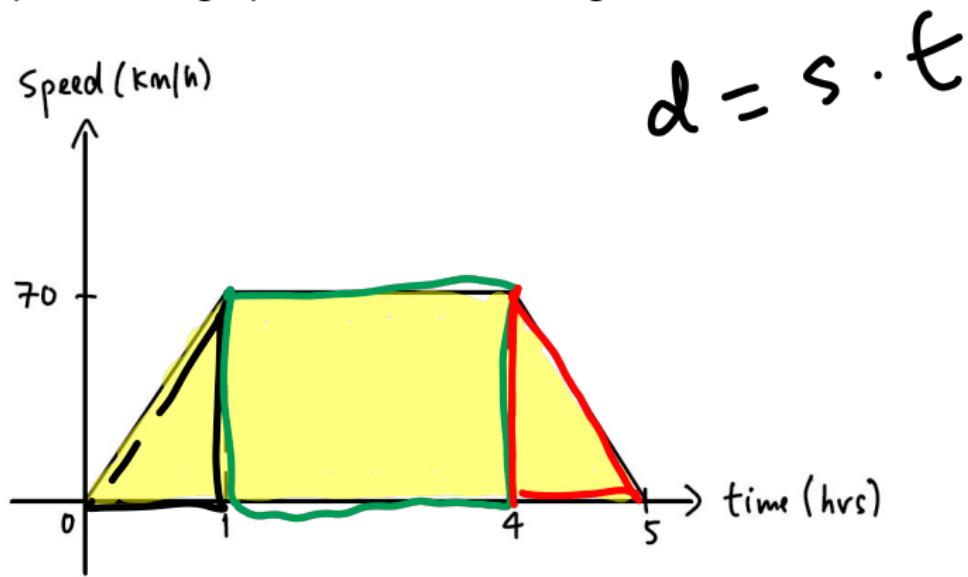
# What's changed from CSD1251/1250?

- Tutorial sessions cover the material from the previous week's lecture (ignoring the recess week, Week 8 will be Quiz 2). This gives you more time to revise and consolidate the information learnt in class. Week 1 tutorial will focus on getting you back up to speed; recapping key concepts from CSD1251/1250.



## Exercise 1

Below is a speed-time graph of a car travelling on a road.



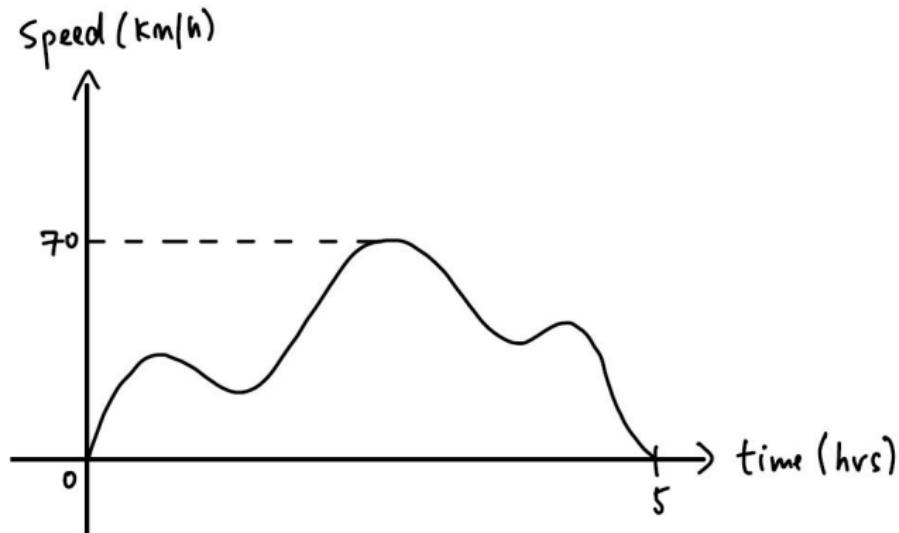
Find the **total distance** covered by the car from  $t = 0$  to  $t = 5$  hours.

## Exercise 1

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total Distance} &= \frac{1}{2}(70 \times 1) + 70 \times 3 + \frac{1}{2}(70 \times 1) \\ &= 280 \text{ km} \end{aligned}$$

## What about a generic speed function?

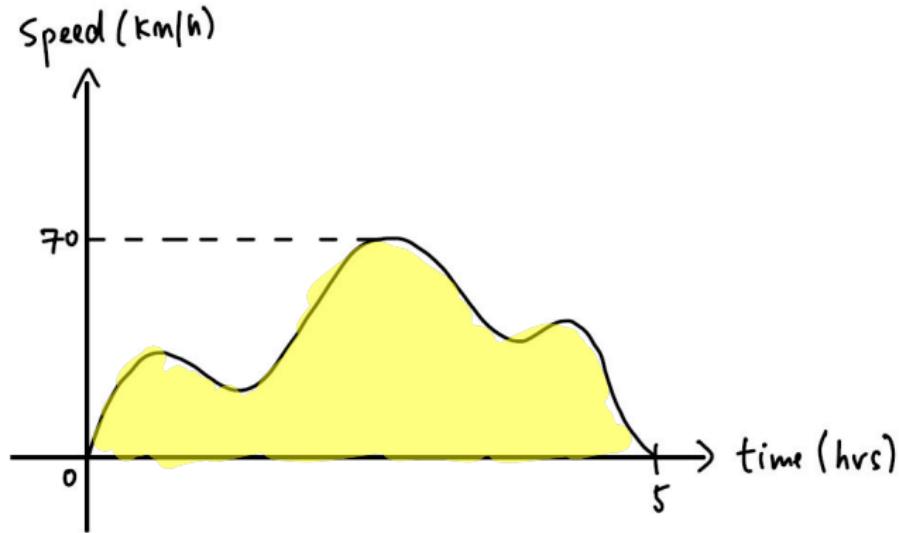
Realistically, a speed-time graph of a car travelling on a road is more like the graph below, with multiple accelerations and decelerations.



What is the total distance covered by the car?

## What about a generic speed function?

Realistically, a speed-time graph of a car travelling on a road is more like the graph below, with multiple accelerations and decelerations.

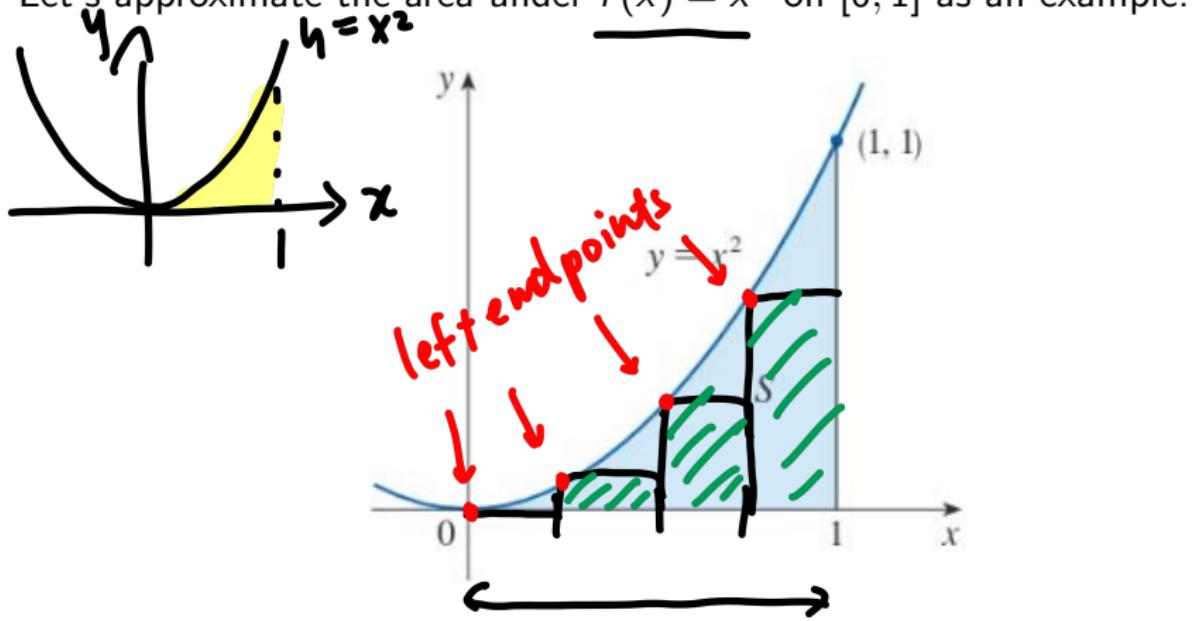


What is the total distance covered by the car? **Area under this curve.**

## Using rectangles as approximation

Finding the area under the graph of a generic function is not straightforward; we use rectangles to approximate this area.

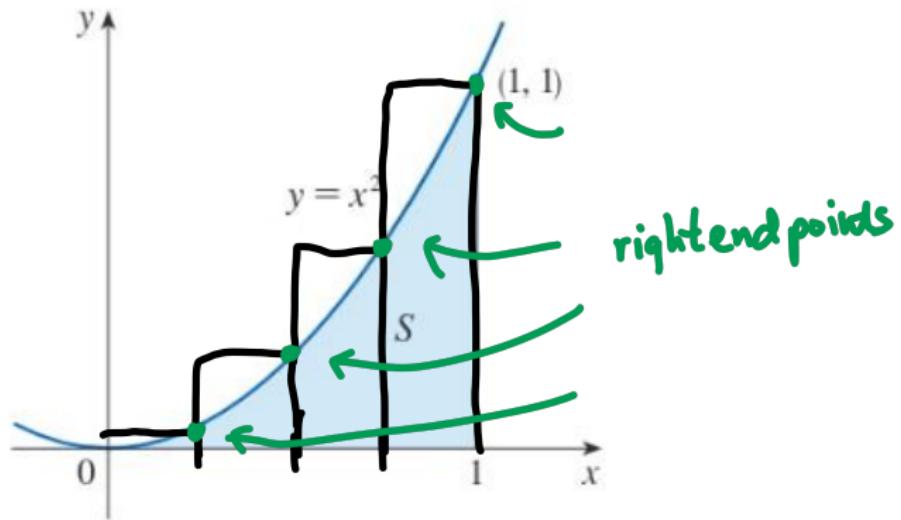
Let's approximate the area under  $f(x) = x^2$  on  $[0, 1]$  as an example.



## Using rectangles as approximation

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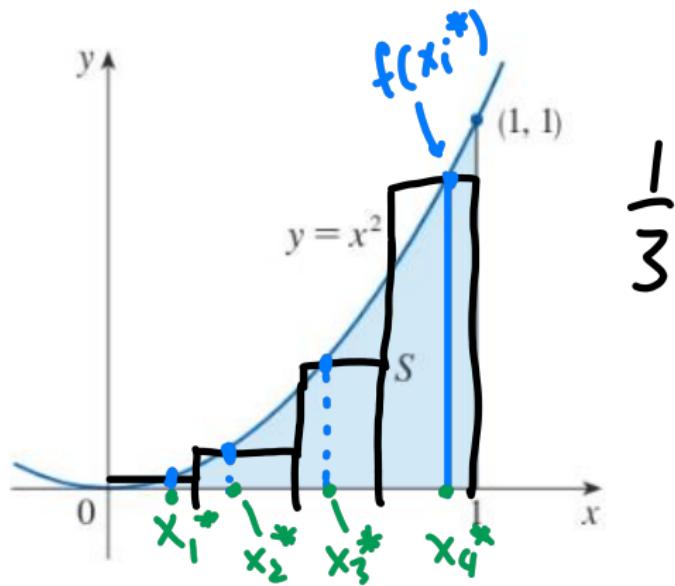


# Using rectangles as approximation

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Let's approximate the area under  $f(x) = x^2$  on  $[0, 1]$  as an example.

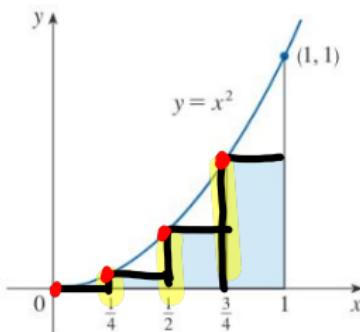
Generically



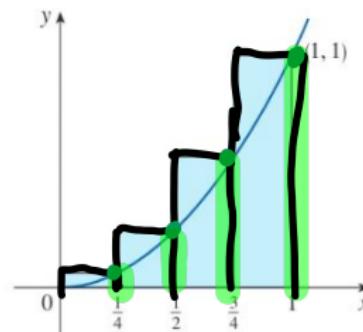
We will also use  $n = 4$  rectangles to approximate the area under this graph. Divide  $[0, 1]$  into  $n = 4$  subintervals with equal length, each has length  $\frac{1}{4}$ . Each rectangle has a base length of  $\frac{1}{4}$ .

Since we already have the base length of each rectangle, we need the height. There are many ways to do this, but commonly, we use *left* and *right* endpoints:

$b$   
 $n = 4$   
 right  
 endpoints



$L_4$



$R_4$

## Exercise 2

$$y = x^2 \quad f(x_i^*)$$

left, right

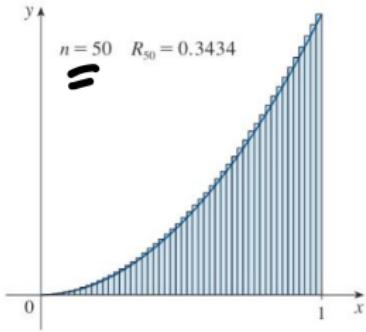
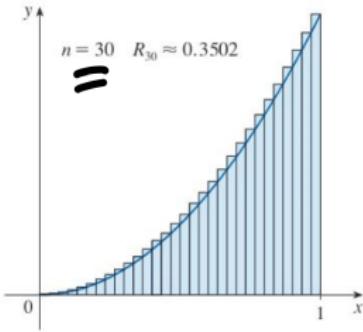
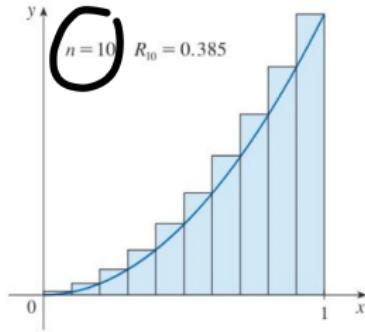
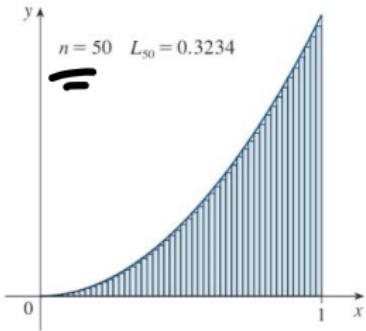
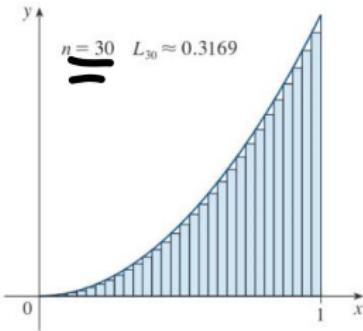
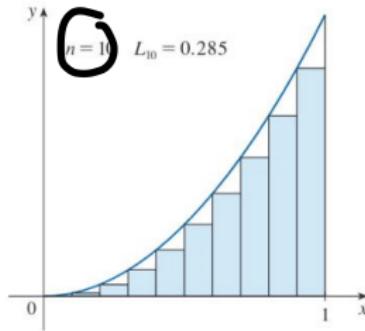
Compute  $L_4$  and  $R_4$ , the total area of the 4 rectangles using left ( $L$ ) and right ( $R$ ) endpoints respectively.

$$\begin{aligned}
 L_4 &= 0 + \frac{1}{4} \times \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \times \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \times \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 \\
 (\text{left}) &\quad - \underline{\frac{1}{4}} \quad \underline{\frac{1}{4}} \quad \underline{\frac{1}{4}} \\
 &= \dots = \frac{7}{32} = 0.21875
 \end{aligned}$$

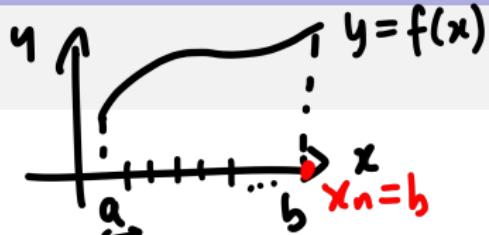
$$\begin{aligned}
 R_4 &= \frac{1}{4} \times \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \times \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \times \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 + \underline{\frac{1}{4} \times 1^2} \\
 (\text{right}) &\quad \underline{\frac{1}{4}} \quad \underline{\frac{1}{4}} \quad \underline{\frac{1}{4}} \\
 &= \frac{15}{32} = 0.46875
 \end{aligned}$$

What happens when we use more rectangles?  $n \uparrow$

Notice we get closer and closer to the area under the graph!  $n \rightarrow \infty$



## Generic Riemann Sums



What happens in a general context, i.e.  $y = f(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ ? We follow these steps:

- Divide  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals of equal width  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ . Let

$$a = x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n = b \text{ where}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} a \\ \downarrow \\ a + \frac{b-a}{n} \\ \downarrow \\ a + 2 \cdot \frac{b-a}{n} \end{array}$$

$$x_i = x_0 + i\Delta x.$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_n &= x_0 + n \cdot \frac{b-a}{n} \\ &= a + (b-a) \\ &= b \end{aligned}$$

The  $n$  subintervals are

$$[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n].$$

# Generic Riemann Sums

- ② Within each of these subintervals, choose a **sample point**  $x_i^*$  (previously, our sample points were either left or right endpoints).

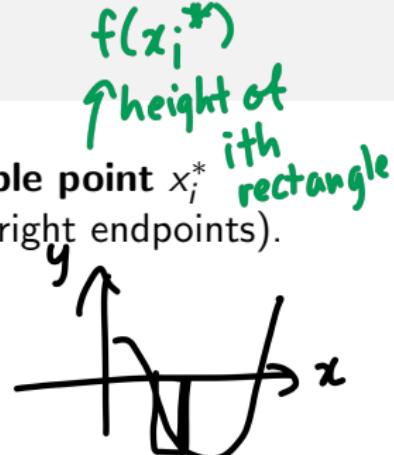
For  $i = \{1, \dots, n\}$ ,

- Left endpoints  $x_i^* = x_{i-1}$
- Right endpoints  $x_i^* = x_i$

- ③ Construct the **Riemann sum**:

$$S_n = f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n^*)\Delta x = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x.$$

*possibly negative*



$n$  here represents the number of rectangles used.

- ④ When  $n$  gets larger and larger, we get the **definite integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$** :

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

*can be negative*      *background*

## Definition

The **definite integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$**  is the following expression

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

- The symbol  is an elongated S, because the definite integral is the limit of *sums*.
  - The function  $f(x)$  here is called the **integrand**.
  - $a$  and  $b$  are the **lower** and **upper limits** of integration.
  - $dx$  refers to the **variable of integration**, in this case,  $x$ .
- function 'within' integral / function that we are integrating*

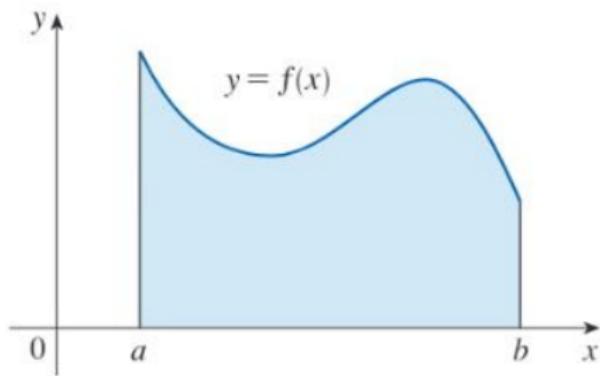
## Meaning of the definite integral

*above x-axis*

- (1) When  $f(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, b]$ , i.e. the graph of  $f$  is above the  $x$ -axis for  $x \in [a, b]$ , then

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

measures the area under the graph of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$ .



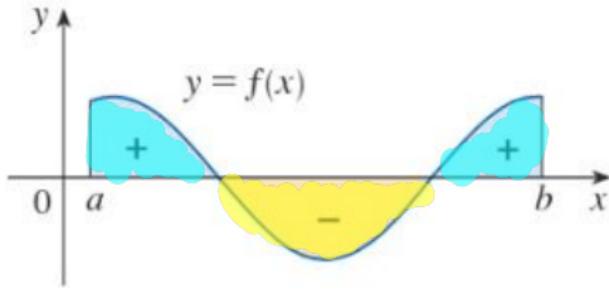
## Meaning of the definite integral

(2) If  $f$  takes on both negative and positive values on  $[a, b]$ , then

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

measures the **net area**  $A_1 - A_2$  where

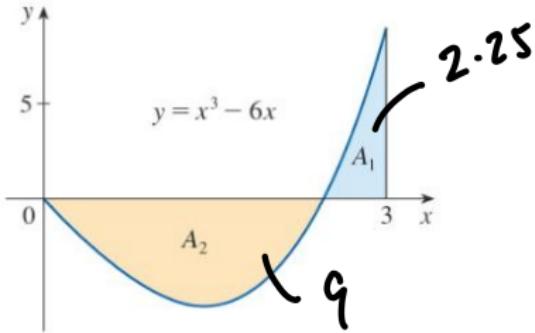
- $A_1$  is the **total area** of the region **above** the  $x$ -axis and **below the graph** of  $f$ , and
- $A_2$  is the **total area** of the region **below** the  $x$ -axis and **above the graph** of  $f$ .



## Example 2

The graph of a function  $y = x^3 - 6x$  on the interval  $[0, 3]$  can be found below. Given that  $A_1 = 2.25$  and  $A_2 = 9$ , evaluate

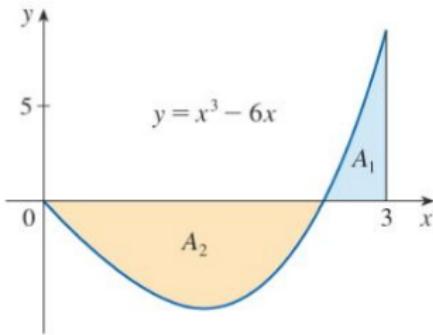
$$\int_0^3 x^3 - 6x \, dx = A_1 - A_2 \\ = 2.25 - 9 = -6.75$$



## Example 2

The graph of a function  $y = x^3 - 6x$  on the interval  $[0, 3]$  can be found below. Given that  $A_1 = 2.25$  and  $A_2 = 9$ , evaluate

$$\int_0^3 x^3 - 6x \, dx.$$



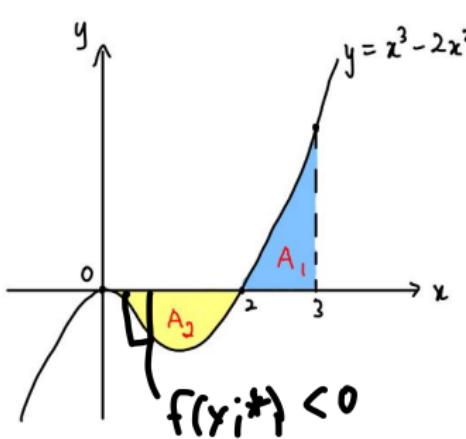
**Answer:**  $\int_0^3 x^3 - 6x \, dx = A_1 - A_2 = 2.25 - 9 = -6.75.$

## Exercise 3

The graph of a function  $y = x^3 - 2x^2$  on the interval  $[0, 3]$  can be found below. Given that  $A_1 = \frac{43}{12}$  and  $A_2 = \frac{4}{3}$ , evaluate

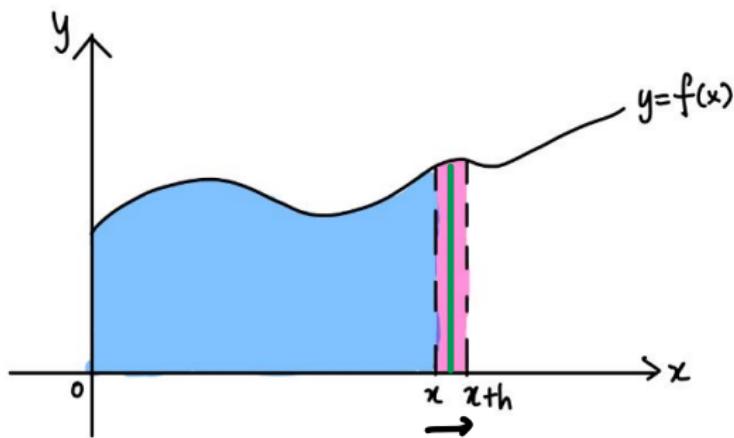
$$\int_0^3 x^3 - 2x^2 \, dx.$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= A_1 - A_2 = \frac{43}{12} - \frac{4}{3} \\
 &= \frac{43}{12} - \frac{16}{12} \\
 &= \frac{27}{12}
 \end{aligned}$$



## Thought experiment

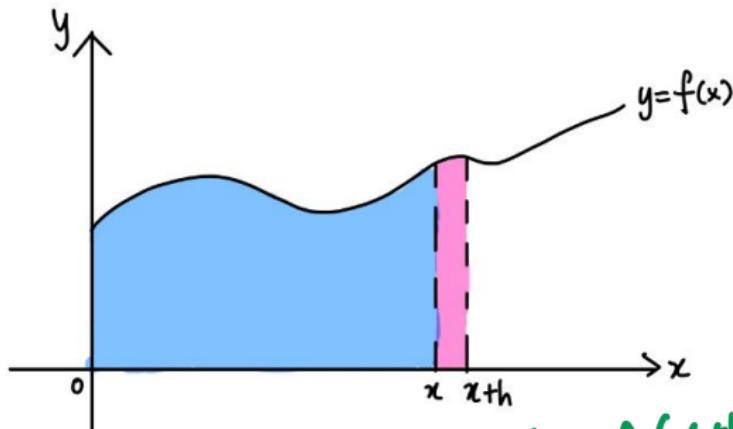
Let  $A(x)$  be the area under the graph of  $y = f(x)$  from 0 to  $x$ , shaded in blue. Then for a small  $h > 0$ ,  $A(x + h)$  is the area from 0 to  $x + h$ .



Thus,  $A(x + h) - A(x)$  is the area shaded in pink. When  $h$  is very small, this area is approximately  $f(x) \cdot h$ . This implies that

$$\rightarrow A(x + h) - A(x) \approx f(x) \cdot h. \quad \text{height} \quad h \rightarrow 0 \text{ equality}$$

# Thought experiment



We rearrange this to get

$$\frac{A(x+h) - A(x)}{h} \approx f(x) = A'(x)$$

$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A(x+h) - A(x)}{h}$

Letting  $h \rightarrow 0$ , we get equality (details omitted)

*original*  $f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A(x+h) - A(x)}{h} = A'(x)$  *integral*

## Conclusions drawn from the thought experiment

$$\begin{aligned} S &= 0; \\ \text{for } x = 1 \text{ to } x \\ S &= S + x \end{aligned}$$

end

$$\begin{aligned} S &= 0; \\ x &= \text{pre defined value} \\ \text{for } t = 1 \text{ to } x \\ S &= S + t \end{aligned}$$

The area under the graph of  $y = f(x)$  from 0 to  $x$  is

*does not make sense*

$$\int_0^x f(x) dx$$

*end*

$$A(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt.$$

The previous slide tells us that differentiating both sides of this equation gives us

$$A'(x) = f(x)$$

i.e. after first integrating  $f$ , followed by differentiating, we get back  $f$ .

This means that differentiation and integration are **inverse** processes.

# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$F(x)$   
 ↓  
 diff      integrate  
 $f(x)$

## Definition

A function  $F$  is an **antiderivative** of another function  $f$  if  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

## Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus 1 and 2)

FTC

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

- ① the function  $g$  defined by

FTC 1

$$\underline{\underline{g(x)}} = \int_a^x f(t) dt \quad a \leq x \leq b$$

is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , and  $\boxed{g'(x) = f(x)}$ .

- ②

FTC 2

$$\underline{\underline{\int_a^b f(x) dx}} = \underline{\underline{F(b) - F(a)}}$$

output is number  
 where  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$ .      definite integral

## FTC 2 and indefinite integrals

output  $\int f(x) dx$  is function F  
antiderivative

FTC 2 tells us that we can evaluate any definite integral of  $f$  just by finding *one* antiderivative of  $f$ . We introduce the concept of antiderivatives using **indefinite integrals**.

We have an important fact about antiderivatives:

### Lemma

If  $F$  and  $G$  are antiderivatives of a function  $f$ , then  $F$  and  $G$  differ by a constant, i.e.

$$F(x) - G(x) = C$$

for a fixed constant  $C$ .

$$\underline{f(x)=x} \quad ; \quad F(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} + 100$$

## FTC 2 and indefinite integrals

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for a fixed constant  $C$ .

$f(x) = x$  ← what differentiates into this?  
 $\frac{x^2}{2} - 2$

# Indefinite integrals

An **indefinite integral** is a definite integral without the limits  $a$  and  $b$ :

$$\int f(x) dx.$$

↓ all

This indefinite integral is usually used to denote ~~the~~ antiderivative(s) for  $f$ , i.e.

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) \quad \text{means} \quad F'(x) = f(x).$$

Example

*all possible antiderivatives of  $x^4$*

①

$$\rightarrow \int x^4 dx = \frac{x^5}{5} + C \quad \begin{matrix} \text{because} \\ \uparrow \end{matrix} \quad \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{x^5}{5} + C \right) = x^4.$$

②

*arbitrary constant*

$$\rightarrow \int \cos x dx = \sin x + C \quad \text{because} \quad \frac{d}{dx} (\sin x + C) = \cos x.$$

# Table of antiderivatives/indefinite integrals (1)

Let  $c$  and  $k$  be constants.

- $\int C f(x) dx = C \int f(x) dx$

- $\int k dx = kx + C$

- $\int e^x dx = e^x + C$

integral operator is  
↓  
linear

- $\int [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx =$   
 $\int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$

- $\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$  ( $n \neq -1$ )

- $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln |x| + C$

# Table of antiderivatives/indefinite integrals (2)

- diff
- $\int \sin x dx = -\cos x + C$
  - $\int \sec^2 x dx = \tan x + C$
  - $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \sin^{-1} x + C$
  - $\int \cos x dx = \sin x + C$
  - $\int \sec x \tan x dx = \sec x + C$
  - $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \tan^{-1} x + C$

**Note:** These antiderivatives are only valid on an interval where the integrand is continuous!

Tutorial 1  
implicit differentiation

## Example 3 (Indefinite integrals)

Evaluate the following integrals.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \int 3x^2 + 4x + 2 \, dx$$

$$= \int 3x^2 \, dx + \int 4x \, dx + \int 2 \, dx$$

diff

$$= 3 \int x^2 \, dx + 4 \int x \, dx + 2 \int 1 \, dx$$

$$= 3 \cdot \frac{x^3}{3} + 4 \cdot \frac{x^2}{2} + 2 \cdot x + C$$

$$= x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + C$$

## Example 4 (Indefinite integrals)

Evaluate the following integrals.

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \int 6x^{-1} + 4 \sin x - \frac{7}{1+x^2} dx$$

$$= 6 \underbrace{\int x^{-1} dx}_{\text{red line}} + 4 \underbrace{\int \sin x dx}_{\text{red line}} - 7 \underbrace{\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx}_{\text{red line}}$$

$$= 6 \ln|x| + 4(-\cos x) - 7 \tan^{-1} x + C$$

$$= 6 \ln|x| - 4 \cos x - 7 \tan^{-1} x + C$$

≡

## Exercise 4

Evaluate the following integrals.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \int 2x^4 + 3x^2 + 5x \, dx = 2 \int x^4 \, dx + 3 \int x^2 \, dx + 5 \int x \, dx$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \int \frac{3 \tan x}{\sec x} - \frac{2}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx = 2 \cdot \frac{x^5}{5} + 3 \cdot \frac{x^3}{3} + 5 \cdot \frac{x^2}{2} + C$$

$$= \frac{2x^5}{5} + x^3 + \frac{5x^2}{2} + C$$

reduce

$$\frac{\tan x}{\sec x} = \frac{\frac{\sin x}{\cos x}}{\frac{1}{\cos x}} = \sin x$$

## Exercise 4

$$= \int 3 \sin x - \frac{2}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$$

$$= 3 \int \sin x dx - 2 \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$$

$$= 3(-\cos x) - 2 \sin^{-1} x + C$$

$$= -3 \cos x - 2 \sin^{-1} x + C$$

# How to evaluate definite integrals

The most basic rule for evaluation of definite integral of a function  $f$  is the FTC2; we find an antiderivative  $F$  (see table of integrals on slide 29 and 30, just set  $C = 0$  because the  $C$  cancels each other below):

$$\overline{\int_a^b f(x) dx} = F(b) - F(a).$$

# Rules governing definite integrals (1)

The rules governing definite integrals include

①  $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$

②  $\int_a^a f(x) dx = \int_b^a f(x) dx$

③  $\int_a^b c dx = c(b - a)$ , where  $c$  is any constant

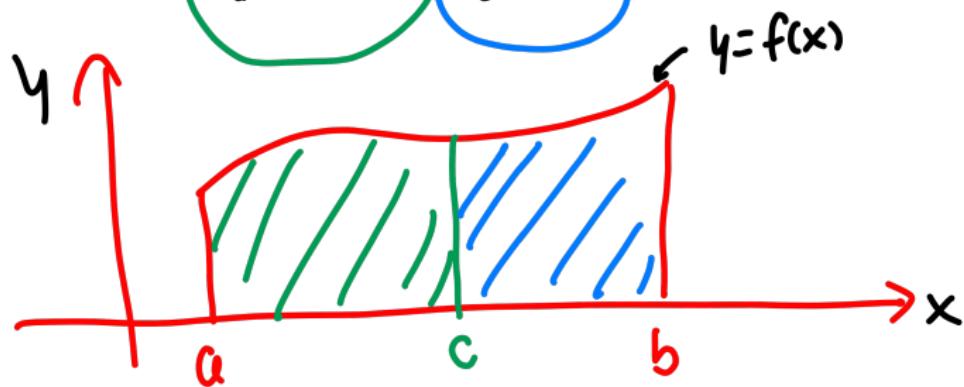
$\Delta x = 0$

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

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

## Rules governing definite integrals (2)

- ④  $\int_a^b cf(x) dx = c \int_a^b f(x) dx$ , where  $c$  is any constant
- ⑤  $\int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$
- ⑥  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$  for any  $c$
- Same as indefinite*



## Example 5 (Definite integrals)

Evaluate the following integrals.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Given } F(x) &= x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + C \\ \text{Evaluate } \int_1^3 3x^2 + 4x + 2 \, dx &\quad \rightarrow F(x) \\ &= \left[ x^3 + 2x^2 + 2x + C \right]_1^3 \quad \leftarrow F(3) - F(1) \\ &= [3^3 + 2 \cdot 3^2 + 2 \cdot 3 + C] - [1^3 + 2 \cdot 1^2 + 2 \cdot 1 + C] \\ &= (27 + 18 + 6) - (1 + 2 + 2) = 46 \end{aligned}$$

## Example 6 (Definite integrals)

Evaluate the following integrals.

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \int_0^1 x^2 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$$

$$= \left[ \frac{x^3}{3} + \sin^{-1} x \right]_0^1$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} + \underline{\sin^{-1} 1} - (0 + \sin^{-1} \underline{0})$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} + \frac{\pi}{2} - (0 + 0) = \frac{1}{3} + \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq y \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$y = \sin^{-1} x$$

$$\sin(y) = (\textcircled{x}) = 1$$

## Exercise 5

Evaluate the following integrals.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \int_{-1}^1 4x^3 + 2x \, dx = [x^4 + x^2]_{-1}^1 = (1+1) - (-1)^4 + (-1)^2 \\ = 2 - 2 = 0$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \int_0^2 2x^3 - 6x + \frac{3}{1+x^2} \, dx$$

$$= \left[ \frac{x^4}{2} - 3x^2 + 3\tan^{-1}x \right]_0^2 \quad \tan 0 = 0$$

$$= \left( \frac{2^4}{2} - 3 \cdot 2^2 + 3\tan^{-1}2 \right) - \left( 0 - 0 + 3\tan^{-1}0 \right)$$

*no common angle,  
just leave this as it is*

$$= 3\tan^{-1}2 - 4.$$

# Common mistake

The output of an indefinite integral vs the output of a definite integral:

- $\int f(x) dx$  outputs a **(family of) functions**.
- $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  outputs a **number**.

## Summary

- We can use rectangles of equal base length  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$  and **sample points** (most commonly left/right endpoints  $x_i^*$ ) to approximate the **net area** under the graph. This approximation is known as a **Riemann Sum**:

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x.$$

- Letting  $n$  (the number of rectangles)  $\rightarrow \infty$ , we get the net area under the graph:

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

# Summary

- If  $f(x) \geq 0$ , the definite integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$  measures the area under the graph and above the  $x$ -axis.
- If  $f$  takes both positive and negative values on  $[a, b]$ , the definite integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$  measures the net area  $A_1 - A_2$  where
  - $A_1$  is the total area of the region **above** the  $x$ -axis and **below the graph** of  $f$ , and
  - $A_2$  is the total area of the region **below** the  $x$ -axis and **above the graph** of  $f$ .

# Summary

- By FTC1, integration and differentiation are inverse processes; to evaluate integrals of a function  $f$ , one must know an **antiderivative** of  $f$ .
- We can find antiderivatives of standard functions using the table of indefinite integrals.
- By FTC2, we can evaluate definite integrals of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$  using an antiderivative  $F$  of  $f$ :

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