

# Vv156 Lecture 16

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## The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus Part-I Evaluation

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

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

where  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$ .

- This part can also be understood or interpreted as

The total change is equal to the integral of the rate of change.

- This interpretation is widely used in science and engineering, for example,

Total change in displacement is equal to the definite integral of velocity.

- It is standard to denote the difference  $F(b) - F(a)$  as  $F(x)\Big|_a^b$  or  $\left[F(x)\right]_a^b$

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a) = F(x)\Big|_a^b = \left[F(x)\right]_a^b$$

## Proof

- Let  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}$  be any points in  $[a, b]$  such that

$$a < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n-1} < b$$

- These values divide  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  subintervals

$$[a, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, b]$$

whose lengths, as usual, we denote by  $\Delta x_1, \Delta x_2, \dots, \Delta x_n$ .

- Since  $F'(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , so  $F$  satisfies the hypotheses of MVT on each those subintervals. Hence,

$$F(x_1) - F(a) = F'(x_1^*)(x_1 - a) = f(x_1^*)\Delta x_1$$

$$F(x_2) - F(x_1) = F'(x_2^*)(x_2 - x_1) = f(x_2^*)\Delta x_2$$

$$F(x_3) - F(x_2) = F'(x_3^*)(x_3 - x_2) = f(x_3^*)\Delta x_3$$

$$\vdots$$

$$F(b) - F(x_{n-1}) = F'(x_n^*)(b - x_{n-1}) = f(x_n^*)\Delta x_n$$

## Proof

- By adding all those equations together, we have

$$F(b) - F(a) = \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k$$

- Let us now increase  $n$  in such a way that

$$\max \Delta x_k \rightarrow 0$$

- Since  $f$  is assumed to be continuous, thus integrable, the right-hand side of the above equation approaches the definite integral. The left-hand side remains the same since it is independent of  $n$ .

$$F(b) - F(a) = \lim_{\max \Delta x_k \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(x_k^*) \Delta x_k = \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad \square$$

## Exercise

(a) Evaluate  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin x}{5} dx$ .

- When applying FTC there is no need to include a constant of integration, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b f(x) dx &= \left[ F(x) + c \right]_a^b \\ &= [F(b) + c] - [F(a) + c] \\ &= F(b) - F(a)\end{aligned}$$

## Exercise

(b) Evaluate  $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$

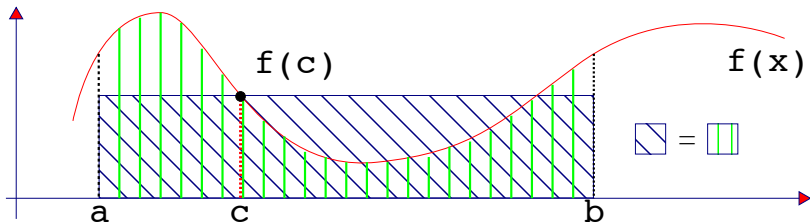
## The Mean-value theorem for integrals

If  $f$  is continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , then there is at least one point  $c$  in  $[a, b]$  such that

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

The value of  $f(c)$  is called the **average value** of  $f$  on the interval.

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



## Proof

- The function  $f$  is continuous on a closed interval, so EVT guarantees that

$f$  on  $[a, b]$  attains a maximum value  $M$  and a minimum value  $m$

- Thus, for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , we have the inequality:  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ , which implies,

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a) \implies m \leq \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M$$

- The last inequality shows that

$$\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx, \quad \text{is a value between } m \text{ and } M.$$

- Since  $f(x)$  is continuous, IVT says that there must a value of  $c$  such that

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

- The first person to fly at a speed greater than sound was Chuck Yeager.



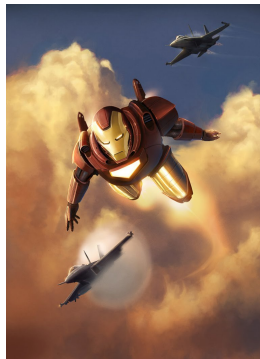
- On October 14, 1947, flying in an experimental X-1 rocket plane at an altitude of 12.8 kilometres, Yeager was clocked at 299.5m/sec.
- If Yeager had been flying at an altitude under 10.4 km, his speed of 299.5 m/s would not have “broken the sound barrier.”



- The speed of sound in meters per second can roughly be modelled by

$$v(x) = \begin{cases} -4x + 341, & 0 \leq x < 11.5 \\ 295, & 11.5 \leq x < 22 \\ 0.75x + 278.5, & 22 \leq x < 32 \\ 1.5x + 254.5, & 32 \leq x < 50 \\ -1.5x + 404.5, & 50 \leq x < 80 \end{cases}$$

where  $x$  is the altitude in km.



### Exercise

*What is the average speed of sound for the interval of altitude 0-80km?*

- There is a close relationship between the definite and indefinite integrals, but they differ in some important ways,

An indefinite integral is a set of functions

while

a definite integral is a real number

- They also differ in the role played by the **variable of integration**.

$$\int x^2 dx = \frac{x^3}{3} + C;$$

$$\int t^2 dt = \frac{t^3}{3} + C;$$

$$\int_1^3 x^2 dx = \left[ \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_1^3 = \frac{26}{3};$$

$$\int_1^3 t^2 dt = \left[ \frac{t^3}{3} \right]_1^3 = \frac{26}{3};$$

- Because the variable of integration in a definite integral plays no role in the end result, it is often referred to as a **dummy variable**.

## The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus Part-II Differentiation

If  $f(x)$  is continuous on an interval, then  $f$  has an antiderivative on that interval. In particular, if  $a$  is any point in the interval, then the function  $F$  defined by

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

is an antiderivative of  $f$ ; that is,

$$F'(x) = f(x), \quad \text{for each } x \text{ in the interval.}$$

In an alternative notation

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

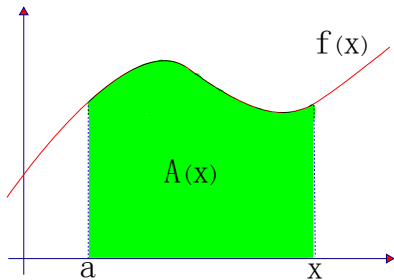
- This part of FTC essentially is saying that the effect of an indefinite integration can be reversed by a differentiation.
- It guarantees the existence of antiderivatives for continuous functions.

- A special case of this theorem:

Suppose  $f$  is continuous and nonnegative on  $[a, b]$ , and let  $A(x)$  be the area under the graph of  $y = f(x)$  and  $x$ -axis over the interval  $[a, x]$ , then

$$A(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \implies A'(x) = f(x)$$

- Notice that this is true for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ , and  $A'$  actually doesn't depend on  $a$ .
- Graphically,



## Proof

- We need to show that  $F'(x) = f(x)$ , where  $F(x)$  is the function

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

- If  $x$  is not an endpoint, then it follows from the definition

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \left[ \int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt \right] \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \left[ \int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt + \int_x^a f(t) dt \right] \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \end{aligned}$$

## Proof

- Applying MVT for integrals,

$$\frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = \frac{1}{h} [f(c) \cdot h] = f(c), \quad \text{where } c \in [x, x+h].$$

- Because  $c$  is trapped between  $x$  and  $x+h$ , it follows that

$$c \rightarrow x \quad \text{as} \quad h \rightarrow 0$$

- Thus the continuity of  $f$  implies

$$f(c) \rightarrow f(x) \quad \text{as} \quad h \rightarrow 0$$

- Therefore

$$F'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(c) = f(x)$$

- If  $x$  is an endpoint of the interval, then the two-sided limits in the proof must be replaced by the appropriate one-sided limits. □

## Exercise

(a) Is the following function increasing or decreasing?

$$f(x) = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt, \quad \text{where } x > 1.$$

(b) Find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \sin \frac{k}{n}$$

(c) Find

$$\int_{-1}^1 3x^2 \sqrt{x^3 + 1} dx$$