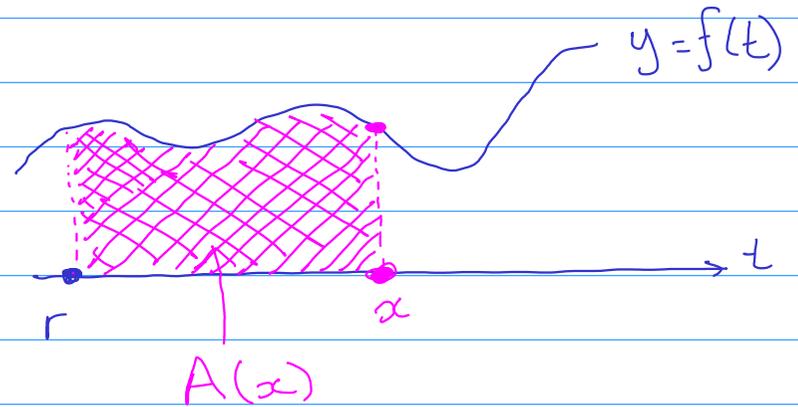


Recall from yesterday: Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

If  $A(x) = \int_r^x f(t) dt$

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

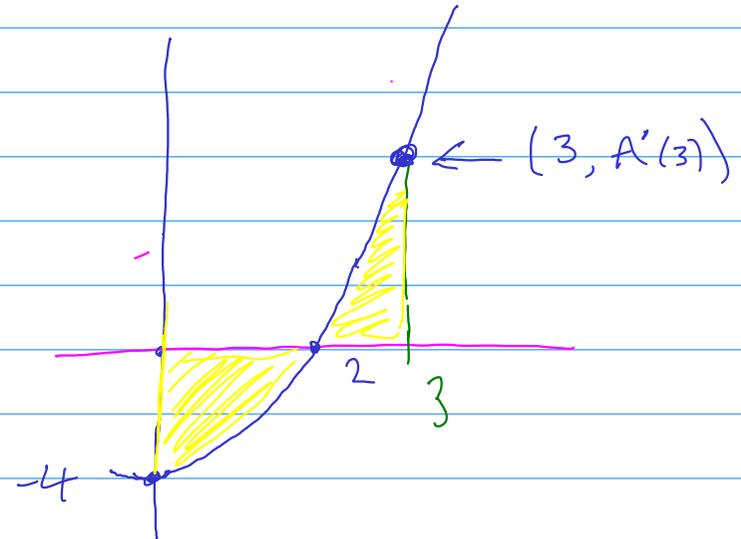
"Area accumulation function"



Example  $A(x) = \int_0^x t^2 - 4 dt$

What is  $A'(3)$ ?

FTOC:  $A'(3) = 3^2 - 4 = 5$



# Notes on the Fundamental Theorem

- 1 We won't formally prove the FToC, but to get a feeling for what it says, think about how  $A(x)$  changes when  $x$  moves a little to the right. What if  $f(x) = 0$ ? What if  $f(x)$  is large/small/positive/negative?
- 2 The FToC is **interesting** because it connects differential calculus to the problem of calculating definite integrals, or areas under curves.
- 3 The FToC is **useful** because we know a lot about differential calculus. We can calculate the derivative of just about anything that can be written in terms of elementary functions. So we have a lot of theory about differentiation that is now relevant to calculating definite integrals as well.
- 4 The FToC can be traced back to work of *Isaac Barrow* and *Isaac Newton* in the mid 17th Century.

# Calculating Definite Integrals

Finally we see how to use the FToC to calculate definite integrals.

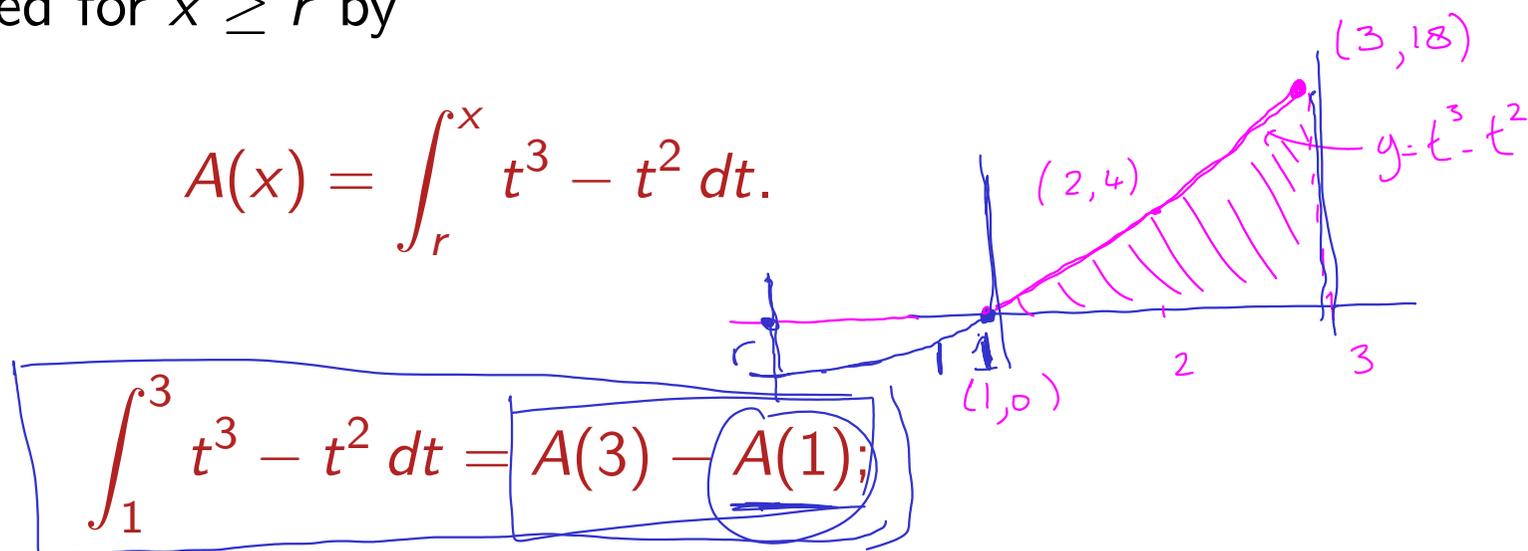
## Example 12

Calculate  $\int_1^3 t^3 - t^2 dt$ .

**Solution:** Imagine that  $r$  is some point to the left of 1, and that the function  $A$  is defined for  $x \geq r$  by

$$A(x) = \int_r^x t^3 - t^2 dt.$$

Then



This is the area under the graph that is to the left of 3 but to the right of 1.

# Example of a definite integral calculation (continued)

So: if we had a formula for  $A(x)$ , we could use it to evaluate this function at  $x = 3$  and at  $x = 1$ .

What we know about the function  $A(x)$ , from the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, is that its derivative is given by  $A'(x) = x^3 - x^2$ . What function  $A$  has derivative  $x^3 - x^2$ ?

The derivative of  $x^4$  is  $4x^3$ , so the derivative of  $\frac{1}{4}x^4$  is  $x^3$ .

The derivative of  $x^3$  is  $3x^2$ , so the derivative of  $-\frac{1}{3}x^3$  is  $-x^2$ .

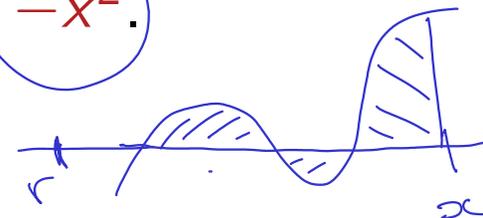
The derivative of  $\frac{1}{4}x^4 - \frac{1}{3}x^3$  is  $x^3 - x^2$ .

**Note:**  $\frac{1}{4}x^4 - \frac{1}{3}x^3$  is **not the only** expression whose derivative is  $x^3 - x^2$ .

For example  $\frac{1}{4}x^4 - \frac{1}{3}x^3$  is another one, or anything of the form

$\frac{1}{4}x^4 - \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$ , for any constant  $C$ . We only need one though.

$$\int_1^3 t^3 - t^2 dt = A(3) - A(1)$$



# Calculation of a definite integral

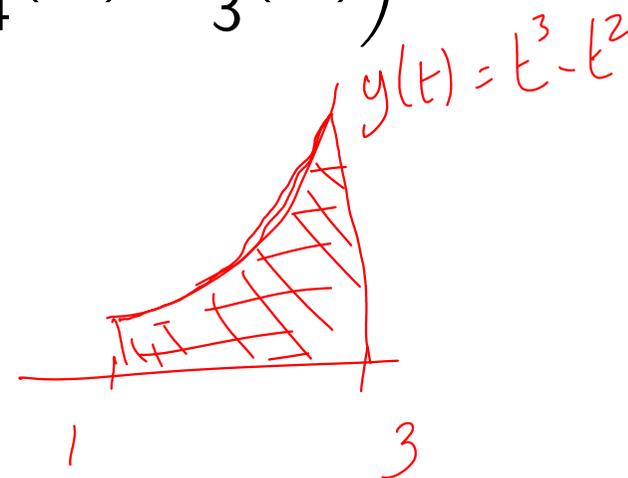
So: take  $A(x) = \frac{1}{4}x^4 - \frac{1}{3}x^3$ . Then

$$\int_1^3 t^3 - t^2 dt = A(3) - A(1)$$

$$= \left( \frac{1}{4}(3^4) - \frac{1}{3}(3^3) \right) - \left( \frac{1}{4}(1^4) - \frac{1}{3}(1^3) \right)$$

$$= \frac{81 - 1}{4} - \frac{27 - 1}{3}$$

$$= \frac{34}{3}$$



# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2

This technique is described in general terms in the following version of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus :

## Theorem 13

*(Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2)*

*Let  $f$  be a function. To calculate the definite integral*

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

*first find a function  $F$  whose derivative is  $f$ , i.e. for which  $F'(x) = f(x)$ . (This might be hard). Then*

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

# Learning outcomes for Section 1.3

After studying this section, you should be able to

- Describe what is meant by an “area accumulation function”.
- State the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.
- Use the FToC to solve problems similar to Example 12 in these slides.
- Describe the general strategy for calculating a definite integral.
- Evaluate simple examples of definite integrals, like the one in Example 13 in these slides.

# Section 1.4 Techniques of Integration

To calculate

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

- 1 Find a function  $F$  for which  $F'(x) = f(x)$ , i.e. find a function  $F$  whose derivative is  $f$ .
- 2 Evaluate  $F$  at the limits of integration  $a$  and  $b$ ; i.e. calculate  $F(a)$  and  $F(b)$ . This means replacing  $x$  separately with  $a$  and  $b$  in the formula that defines  $F(x)$ .
- 3 Calculate the number  $F(b) - F(a)$ . This is the definite integral

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

Of the three steps above, the **first one** is the hard one.

# Notation

Recall the following notation : if  $F$  is a function that satisfies  $F'(x) = f(x)$ , then

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

$$x^2 \Big|_2^3 = 3^2 - 2^2 = 5$$

## Definition 14

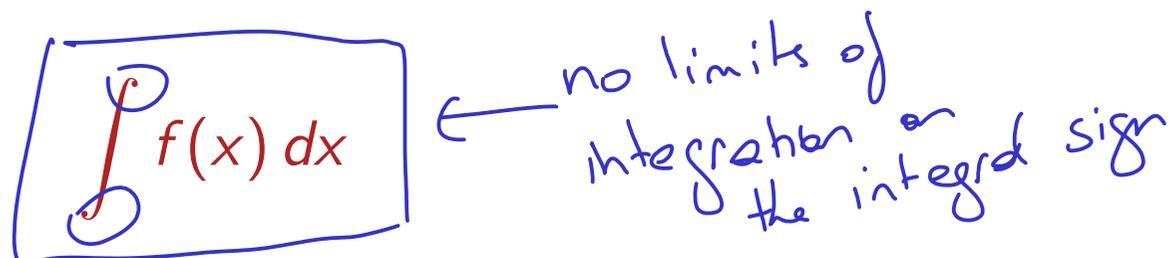
Let  $f$  be a function. Another function  $F$  is called an antiderivative of  $f$  if the derivative of  $F$  is  $f$ , i.e. if  $F'(x) = f(x)$ , for all (relevant) values of the variable  $x$ .

So for example  $x^2$  is an antiderivative of  $2x$ . Note that  $x^2 + 1$ ,  $x^2 + 5$  and  $x^2 - 20e$  are also antiderivatives of  $2x$ . So we talk about **an** antiderivative of a function or expression rather than **the** antiderivative.

# The Indefinite Integral

## Definition 15

Let  $f$  be a function. The **indefinite integral** of  $f$ , written



A handwritten diagram showing the indefinite integral symbol  $\int f(x) dx$  enclosed in a blue rectangular box. The integral sign, the function  $f(x)$ , and the differential  $dx$  are each circled in blue. A blue arrow points from the text "no limits of integration or the integrand sign" to the box.

is the “general antiderivative” of  $f$ . If  $F(x)$  is a particular antiderivative of  $f$ , then we would write

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C, \quad \int 2x dx = \boxed{x^2 + C}$$
$$\int_0^1 2x dx = x^2 \Big|_0^1 = 1$$

to indicate that the different antiderivatives of  $f$  look like  $F(x) + C$ , where  $C$  may be any constant. (In this context  $C$  is often referred to as a **constant of integration**).

# Examples

## Example 16

Determine  $\int \cos 2x \, dx$ .

**Solution:** The question is: what do we need to differentiate to get  $\cos 2x$ ? Well, what do we need to differentiate to get something involving  $\cos$ ? The derivative of  $\sin x$  is  $\cos x$ . A reasonable guess would say that the derivative of  $\sin 2x$  might be “something like”  $\cos 2x$ .

By the chain rule, the derivative of  $\sin 2x$  is in fact  $2 \cos 2x$ .

So  $\sin 2x$  is pretty close but it gives us twice what we want - we should compensate for this by taking  $\frac{1}{2} \sin 2x$ , its derivative is

$$\frac{1}{2}(2 \cos 2x) = \cos 2x.$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \cos 2x (2) = \cos 2x$$

Conclusion:  $\int \cos 2x \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x + C$

## Example 17

Determine  $\int x^n dx$

**Important Note:** We know that in order to calculate the derivative of an expression like  $x^n$ , we reduce the index by 1 to  $n - 1$ , and we multiply by the constant  $n$ . So

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^n = nx^{n-1}$$

in general. To find an **antiderivative** of  $x^n$  we have to reverse this process. This means that the index **increases** by 1 to  $n + 1$  and we multiply by the constant  $\frac{1}{n + 1}$ . So

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{1}{n + 1} x^{n+1} + C.$$

This makes sense as long as the number  $n$  is not equal to  $-1$  (in which case the fraction  $\frac{1}{n+1}$  wouldn't be defined).

# The Integral of $\frac{1}{x}$

Suppose that  $x > 0$  and  $y = \ln x$ . Recall this means (by definition) that  $e^y = x$ . Differentiating both sides of this equation (with respect to  $x$ ) gives

$$e^y \frac{dy}{dx} = 1 \implies \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{e^y} = \frac{1}{x}.$$

Thus the derivative of  $\ln x$  is  $\frac{1}{x}$ , and

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln x + C, \text{ for } x > 0.$$

If  $x < 0$ , then

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

This latter formula applies for all  $x \neq 0$ .

# A definite integral

## Example 18

Determine  $\int_0^{\pi} \sin x + \cos x \, dx$ .

**Solution:** We need to write down *any* antiderivative of  $\sin x + \cos x$  and evaluate it at the limits of integration :

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi} \sin x + \cos x \, dx &= -\cos x + \sin x \Big|_0^{\pi} \\ &= (-\cos \pi + \sin \pi) - (-\cos 0 + \sin 0) \\ &= -(-1) + 0 - (-1 + 0) = 2. \end{aligned}$$

**Note:** To determine  $\cos \pi$ , start at the point  $(1, 0)$  and travel counter-clockwise around the unit circle through an angle of  $\pi$  radians (180 degrees), arriving at the point  $(-1, 0)$ . The x-coordinate of the point you are at now is  $\cos \pi$ , and the y-coordinate is  $\sin \pi$ .