

# 21112 (Calculus 2) Lecture 3 - Indefinite Integrals and their application to Definite Integrals: A Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

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Today, we combine the results of the first two lectures to find an easy way to compute definite integrals - after today, (except on your midterm and final :) ), you will not need to use the limit definition of the integral again. Instead, we will first compute the indefinite integral of  $f(x)$ ,  $\int f(x)dx$ , and use that to compute the definite integral of  $f(x)$ ,  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ .

To begin, we notice that once again, integration, this time in the definite sense is linear:

**Theorem 1.** *Take  $c_1, c_2$  real and  $f(x), g(x)$  real valued functions. Then*

$$\int_a^b (c_1 f(x) + c_2 g(x)) dx = c_1 \int_a^b f(x) dx + c_2 \int_a^b g(x) dx \quad (1)$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b (c_1 f(x) + c_2 g(x)) dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_1^n (c_1 f(x_i) + c_2 g(x_i)) \Delta x \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_1^n c_1 f(x_i) \Delta x + \sum_1^n c_2 g(x_i) \Delta x \right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_1^n c_1 f(x_i) \Delta x \right) + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_1^n c_2 g(x_i) \Delta x \right) \\ &= c_1 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_1^n f(x_i) \Delta x \right) + c_2 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_1^n g(x_i) \Delta x \right) \\ &= c_1 \int_a^b f(x) dx + c_2 \int_a^b g(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

□

Up until now, we have assumed that  $f(x) \geq 0$  in order to ascribe an intuitive meaning to the integral  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ , that of area under the graph of  $f(x)$ . However, everything we have done holds true even if  $f(x)$  dips below the  $x$ -axis. In fact, we can give another intuitive meaning: Say that  $f(x) \geq 0$  for  $x \in [a, c]$  and that  $f(x) \leq 0$  for  $x \in [c, b]$ . Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \text{Area}(a, c) - \text{Area}(c, b) \quad (2)$$

where we define the  $\text{Area}(a, b)$  to be the area under  $f(x)$  and above the  $x$ -axis, and  $\text{Area}(c, b)$  to be the area under the  $x$ -axis and above  $f(x)$ . So, for example,

$$\int_0^2 (1 - x) dx = 0 \quad (3)$$

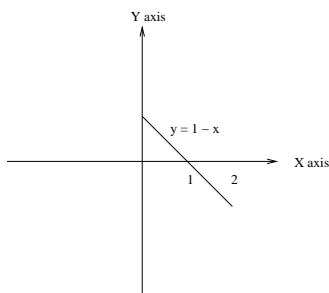


Figure 1:  $f(x) = 1 - x$ . Notice the two right triangles whose areas cancel each other out

We can see this as from 0 to 1, we have an area of  $\frac{1}{2}$  above the  $x$ -axis, and from 1 to 2, we have an area of  $\frac{1}{2}$  below the  $x$ -axis. (See Figure 1.) So, these cancel each other out to give an integral of value 0. Notice that this happens even though  $f(x) \neq 0$  identically!

We are now ready for one of the **Fundamental Theorems of Calculus** :

**Theorem 2.** *If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $F(x) := \int f(x)dx$  is a definite integral of  $f(x)$ , then we have that*

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a) \quad (4)$$

*Proof.* We can give an intuitive proof via the Mean value theorem:

By the definition of  $F(x)$ , we know that  $F'(x) = f(x)$ . So, by the Mean Value Theorem, if we let  $b = a + \Delta x$ , then there exists an  $x_1 \in [a, a + \Delta x]$  such that

$$\frac{F(b) - F(a)}{b - a} = \frac{F(a + \Delta x) - F(a)}{\Delta x} = f(x_1) \quad (5)$$

A similar argument shows that

$$\frac{F(a + 2\Delta x) - F(a + \Delta x)}{\Delta x} = f(x_2) \quad (6)$$

and in fact

$$\frac{F(a + i\Delta x) - F(a + (i - 1)\Delta x)}{\Delta x} = f(x_i) \quad (7)$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned} F(a_1) - F(a) &= f(x_1)\Delta x \\ F(a_2) - F(a_1) &= f(x_2)\Delta x \\ &\cdot \\ &\cdot \\ &\cdot \\ F(a_i) - F(a_{i-1}) &= f(x_i)\Delta x \\ &\cdot \\ &\cdot \\ &\cdot \\ F(b) - F(a_{n-1}) &= f(x_n)\Delta x \end{aligned}$$

Adding up the left and right sides individually, we get

$$F(b) - F(a) = f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \dots + f(x_n)\Delta x \quad (8)$$

If we take the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  on both sides of this previous equation, we get that

$$F(b) - F(a) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_1^n f(x_i)\Delta x = \int_a^b f(x) \quad (9)$$

and we are done.

□

Let's do some examples!

**Example 1**

Evaluate  $\int_{-2}^1 (x^2 - 2e^{-x} + x^{-4}) dx$

ANSWER:

Define

$$\begin{aligned}
F(x) &:= \int (x^2 - 2e^{-x} + x^{-4})dx \\
&= \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 2e^{-x} - \frac{1}{5}x^{-5} + C
\end{aligned}$$

So we have by our Fundamental Theorem that

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{-2}^1 (x^2 - 2e^{-x} + x^{-4})dx &= F(1) - F(-2) \\
&= \left( \frac{1}{3}(1)^3 + 2e^{-1} - \frac{1}{5}(1)^{-5} + C \right) - \left( \frac{1}{3}(-2)^3 + 2e^2 - \frac{1}{5}(-2)^{-5} + C \right) \\
&= \left( \frac{1}{3}(1)^3 + 2e^{-1} - \frac{1}{5}(1)^{-5} \right) - \left( \frac{1}{3}(-2)^3 + 2e^2 - \frac{1}{5}(-2)^{-5} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

It should be apparent that the Fundamental Theorem is the way to go when it comes to tackling problems like this. Also, note that the constants  $C$  drop out, so we need not worry about inserting the constant  $C$  when we will be using the indefinite integral to compute the definite integral. However, it must be included when computing *only* the indefinite integral.

### Example 2

Denote the temperature of a star, in Kelvin, that is about to explode as  $T(t)$ , where  $t$  stands for time in hours. Furthermore, assume that the rate of temperature increase,  $T'(t)$  is given by  $T'(t) = 0.9 - e^{-t}$ . Assume that the balloon will burst when the temperature *increase* hits 100 Kelvin. Remember, it's not the absolute temperature, but rather the temperature change that we are concerned about. So, will the star burst after 100 hours?

ANSWER:

By definition,

$$\begin{aligned} T(100) - T(0) &= \int_0^{100} T'(t) dt \\ &= \int_0^{100} (0.9 - e^{-t}) dt \\ &= (0.9(100) + e^{-100}) - (0.9(0) + e^0) \\ &= 899 \end{aligned}$$

and so *no*, the star will not burst after 100 hours.

### **Homework**

pp.341 – 343 number 7, 25, , 30, 38, 41, 43