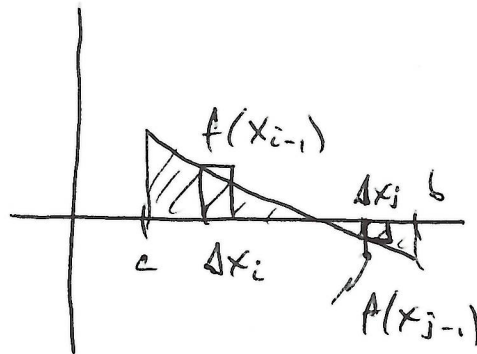


Class 32: ~~Section 6.2~~ Section 6.2 I

Q: What happens in the definition of a definite integral when the function dips below the x-axis?

Here

$$\int_c^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x_i$$



and the boxes where the function values are negative will result in "negative areas". This is fine and we treat them as such:

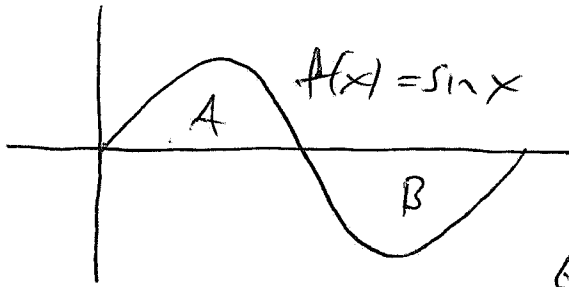
Fact 16 If $f(x)$ is integrable on $[c, b]$ and $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[c, b]$, then

$$\int_c^b f(x) dx = \left(\text{area between } f(x) \text{ and } x\text{-axis on } [c, b] \right)$$

Otherwise, for $f(x)$ integrable,

$$\int_c^b f(x) dx = \left(\text{area above } x\text{-axis} \right) - \left(\text{area below } x\text{-axis} \right)$$

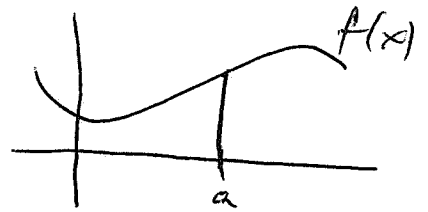
ex. It is known that the 2 lobes in the sine function, A and B are of the same area.



Hence $\int_0^{2\pi} \sin x dx = 0$.

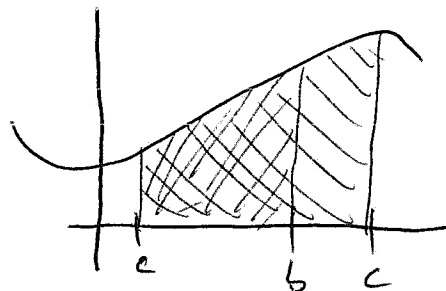
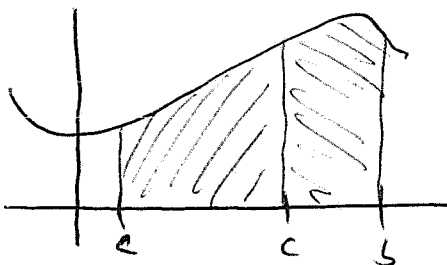
Other properties of integrals

① $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$ why?



② $\int_a^b f(x) dx = - \int_b^a f(x) dx$ (Integrating backwards results in negative values for each Δx_i).

③ $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$ for any interval containing a, b, c.



why does this work also?

$$\textcircled{d} \int_a^b k f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$\textcircled{e} \int_a^b (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

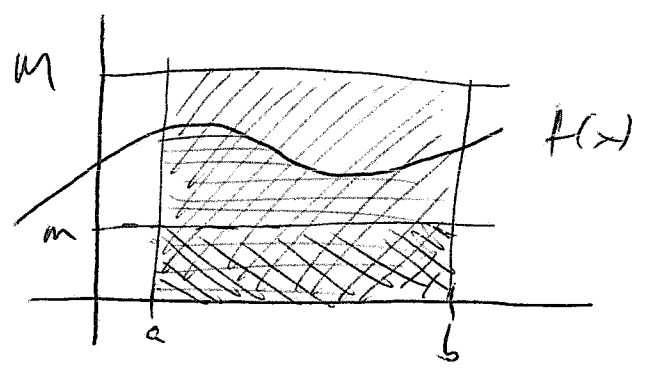
\textcircled{f} If $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[c, b]$, then $\int_c^b f(x) dx \geq 0$ also.

\textcircled{g} ~~More~~. If $f(x) \leq g(x)$ on $[c, b]$, then

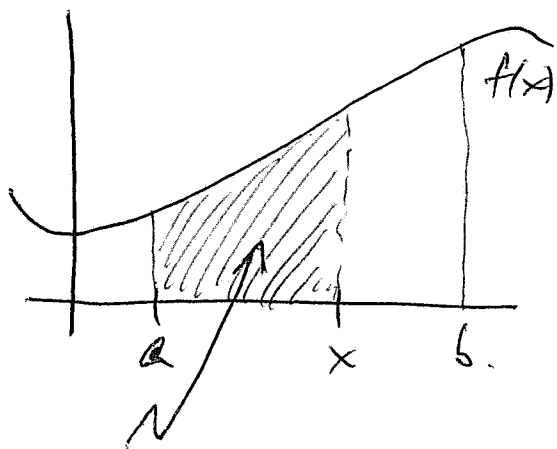
$$\int_c^b f(x) dx \leq \int_c^b g(x) dx$$
 even if c, b are negative.

\textcircled{h} If $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ on $[c, b]$, then

$$m(b-c) \leq \int_c^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-c)$$



Lets create a new function: Let $f(x)$ be



continuous on $[a, b]$, and
for any $x \in [a, b]$, let

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

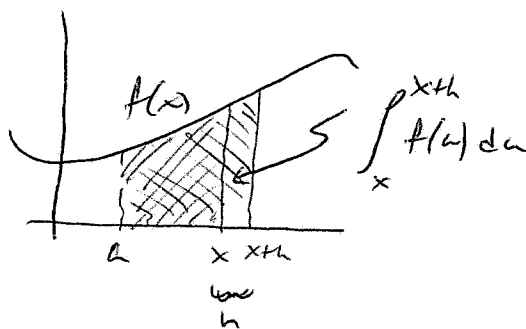
value of $F(x)$ is area of this region.

its easy to see that this function is ~~also~~ continuous
(move x slightly, and the area changes slightly).

Is $F(x)$ differentiable? To see, calculate $F'(x)$.

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

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt}{h}$$



Now when h is very small,

$$\int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \approx f(x) \cdot h$$

$$\text{Hence } \cancel{f(x)} F'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\int_x^{x+h} f(u) du}{h} \right) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)h}{h} = f(x).$$

$$\text{Hence } \frac{d}{dx} [F(x)] = f(x).$$

Fundamental Thm of Calc (I)

If $f(x)$ is cont on $[a, b]$, then ~~the~~

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(u) du, \quad x \in [a, b],$$

is continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on (a, b) , and

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

Notes ① Crazy but true, so that

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_a^x f(u) du \right) = f(x)$$

One can easily "see". Also, this means that Integrals and derivatives are inverses of each other.

ex. $\frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_0^x (4t^2 - \tan \sqrt{t^2+1} + e^t) dt \right) = 4x^2 - \tan \sqrt{x^2+1} + e^x$

② This means that ~~the~~ an antiderivative of $f(x)$ can be written like $F(x)$:

Antiderivatives of $f(x)$ look like $\int_a^x f(t) dt$

The general antiderivative of $f(x)$ is then

$$C + \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

Def. For a continuous function $f(x)$, a general antiderivative is written

$$\int f(x) dx$$

(without limits).

ex. For $f(x) = \cos x$,

$$\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C.$$

ex. $\int 2x \, dx = x^2 + C$

ex. $\int e^{kx} \, dx = \frac{1}{k} e^{kx} + C.$

ex. $\int x^n \, dx = \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + C$ for $n \in \mathbb{R}, n \neq -1.$

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

ex. $\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + C.$

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (II).

Go back to $F(x) = \int_a^x f(u) \, du$. Here $F(x)$ plays the role of an antiderivative of $f(x)$.

16 $Q(x) = \int_a^x f(u) du$ were another antiderivative of $f(x)$, then

$$Q(x) = F(x) + C.$$

But then $Q(a) = \int_a^a f(u) du = 0 = F(a) + C.$

And since $F(b) = \int_a^b f(u) du$, this implies $C =$

$$-\int_a^a f(u) du = \int_a^b f(u) du = -F(a).$$

Thus $Q(x) = F(x) - F(a)$, or

$$\int_a^x f(u) du = F(x) - F(a)$$

Setting $x=b$, we get $\int_a^b f(u) du = F(b) - F(a)$

FTC (I)

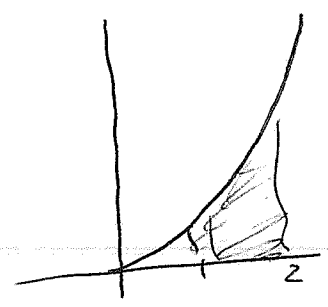
For $f(x)$ continuous on $[a, b]$,

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

where $F(x)$ is any antiderivative of $f(x)$.

Notes: ① Now, once an antiderivative is known for $f(x)$,
the definite integral of $f(x)$ can be computed

ex. $\int_1^2 x^2 dx = ?$



Here $f(x) = x^2$, $F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3$.

Hence $\int_1^2 x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 \Big|_1^2 = \frac{1}{3}(2)^3 - \frac{1}{3}(1) = \frac{8}{3} - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{7}{3}$

Compare this to see checker

ex. $\int_0^{2\pi} \sin x dx = ?$

For $f(x) = \sin x$, $F(x) = -\cos x$.

$= -\cos x \Big|_0^{2\pi} = -\cos(2\pi) + \cos(0) = -(1) + 1 = 0$