

# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

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# The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

# The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

## The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

Let  $f(x)$  be a continuous function defined on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ . Then there is some point  $c$ ,  $a < c < b$ , so that

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

# The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

Let's see why this is true.

Since  $f$  is a continuous function on a closed interval,  $f$  has a maximum value  $M$  and a minimum value  $m$  on  $[a, b]$ . So, we have

$$m \leq f(x) \leq M \quad \text{for all } x \in [a, b].$$

Then we have

$$m(b-a) = \int_a^b m \, dx \leq \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \leq \int_a^b M \, dx = M(b-a).$$

# The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

In the equation

$$m(b-a) = \int_a^b m \, dx \leq \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \leq \int_a^b M \, dx = M(b-a),$$

we evaluate the integral on the left by knowing what the integral means: It's the area under the line  $y = m$  from  $a$  to  $b$ . This region is a rectangle of height  $m$  and width  $b - a$ , so the area is  $m(b - a)$ .

The same is true for the integral on the right.

# The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

Now divide by  $(b - a)$ :

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

# The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

Recall the Intermediate Value Theorem:

## Intermediate Value Theorem

Let  $f$  be a continuous function on the interval  $[a, b]$ . If  $f(x_1) = y_1$  and  $f(x_2) = y_2$ , and  $y$  is any number between  $y_1$  and  $y_2$ , then there exists  $x$ ,  $x_1 \leq x \leq x_2$  so that  $f(x) = y$ .

This theorem says if  $f$  takes on one value and then a second value, then  $f$  must take on every intermediate value on that interval.



# The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

We have found that

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

Since a continuous function actually takes on its minimum and maximum values, by the Intermediate Value Theorem, there exists  $c$  in the interval  $[a, b]$  so that

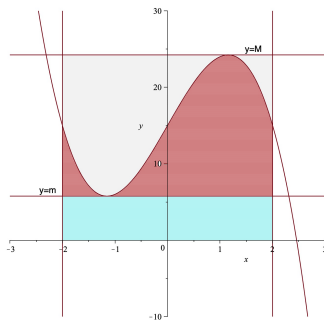
$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x).$$

This is the Mean Value Theorem for Integrals.

# The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

Here's a sketch which explains the Mean Value Theorem for Integrals.

Figure: Sketch for Mean Value Theorem for Integrals



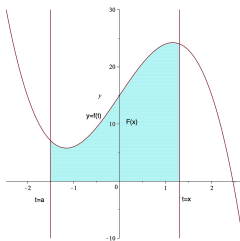
# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I

# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I

## The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$  and its derivative is  $f(x)$ .

Figure: Sketch of  $F(x)$



# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I

Proof.

By definition,

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

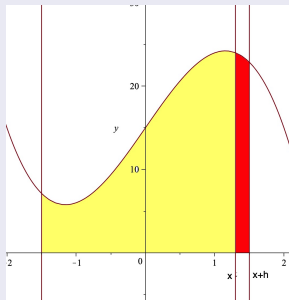
See the sketch on the next slide.



# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I

Proof.

Figure: Sketch of  $F(x+h) - F(x)$



# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I

Proof.

By the Mean Value Theorem for Integrals, there exists  $c_h$  lying between  $x$  and  $x + h$ , depending on  $h$ , so that

$$f(c_h) = \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt.$$

# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I

## Proof (cont.)

So,

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(c_h) \\ &= f(x). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $c_h$  is between  $x$  and  $x + h$ , as  $h$  goes to 0,  $c_h$  goes to  $x$ . By continuity,  $f(c_h)$  goes to  $f(x)$ .  $\square$



# The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I, tells you something very important.

It tells you that every continuous function has an antiderivative.

## Examples

# Example 1

## Example

Define

$$F(x) = \int_0^x e^{t^2} dt.$$

By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I,  $F(x)$  is differentiable everywhere and  $F'(x) = e^{x^2}$ .

## Example 2

### Example

Define

$$F(x) = \int_0^{3x} \sin(t) dt.$$

Let  $u = 3x$ . Then

$$F(u) = \int_0^u \sin(t) dt.$$

By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I,  $F(u)$  is differentiable everywhere and  $F'(u) = \sin(u)$ .

By the Chain Rule,  $F(x)$  is differentiable everywhere and

$$\frac{dF}{dx} = \frac{dF}{du} \frac{du}{dx} = \sin(u) \cdot 3 = 3 \sin(3x).$$

## Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2

## Theorem

*If  $f$  is continuous over  $[a, b]$  and  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ , then*

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

This means if the integrand  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and you want to evaluate  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ , all you have to do is to find any antiderivative  $F$  of  $f$ , evaluate  $F(b)$ , evaluate  $F(a)$ , and subtract.

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2

Proof.

Let  $f$  be continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$  and let  $F$  be any antiderivative of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ .

By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part I,

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

is also an antiderivative of  $f$ .

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2

## Proof (cont.)

One corollary of the Mean Value Theorem tells us that any two antiderivatives of a continuous function must differ by a constant. So,  $G(x) = F(x) + C$  for some constant  $C$ .

If we evaluate  $G(a)$ , we get  $G(a) = \int_a^a f(t) dt = 0$ , so  $0 = G(a) = F(a) + C$ . This tells use that  $C = -F(a)$ .

Then  $G(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt = F(x) - F(a)$ . In particular,

$$G(b) = \int_a^b f(t) dt = F(b) - F(a).$$

This concludes the proof.  $\square$



## Examples

## Example 3

Example

Evaluate

$$\int_0^{\pi} (1 + \cos x) \, dx$$

## Example 3

### Solution

*First, we find an antiderivative of  $1 + \cos x$ .*

$$\int (1 + \cos x) dx = x + \sin x + C.$$

*By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2,*

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

## Example 4

### Example

Evaluate the integral

$$\int_{-\sqrt{3}}^{\sqrt{3}} (x + 1)(x^2 + 4) dx$$

## Example 4

### Solution

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-\sqrt{3}}^{\sqrt{3}} (x+1)(x^2+4) dx &= \int_{-\sqrt{3}}^{\sqrt{3}} (x^3 + x^2 + 4x + 4) dx \\&= \left( \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 2x^2 + 4x \right) \Big|_{-\sqrt{3}}^{\sqrt{3}} \\&= \left( \frac{1}{4}(\sqrt{3})^4 + \frac{1}{3}(\sqrt{3})^3 + 2(\sqrt{3})^2 + 4(\sqrt{3}) \right) \\&\quad - \left( \frac{1}{4}(-\sqrt{3})^4 + \frac{1}{3}(-\sqrt{3})^3 + 2(-\sqrt{3})^2 + 4(-\sqrt{3}) \right) \\&= 10\sqrt{3}.\end{aligned}$$

## Example 5

Example

Evaluate

$$\int_0^{\pi/6} (\sec x + \tan x)^2 dx$$

## Example 5

### Solution

*First, we do a little precalculus.*

$$\begin{aligned}(\sec x + \tan x)^2 &= \sec^2 x + 2 \sec x \tan x + \tan^2 x \\&= \sec^2 x + 2 \sec x \tan x + (\sec^2 x - 1) \\&= 2 \sec^2 x + 2 \sec x \tan x - 1.\end{aligned}$$

## Example 5

### Solution

*By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2,*

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{\pi/6} (\sec x + \tan x)^2 dx &= \int_0^{\pi/6} 2 \sec^2 x + 2 \sec x \tan x - 1 dx \\&= (2 \tan x + 2 \sec x - x) \Big|_0^{\pi/6} \\&= \left( 2 \tan \left( \frac{\pi}{6} \right) + 2 \sec \left( \frac{\pi}{6} \right) - \left( \frac{\pi}{6} \right) \right) \\&\quad - (2 \tan 0 + 2 \sec 0 - 0) \\&= 2 \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} + 2 \cdot \frac{2\sqrt{3}}{3} - \frac{\pi}{6} - 2 \\&= 2\sqrt{3} - \frac{\pi}{6} - 2.\end{aligned}$$



## Example 6

We have a dash of déjà vu:

### Example

Evaluate the integral

$$\int_a^b mx \, dx$$

## Example 6

### Solution

*We use the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, Part 2:*

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b mx \, dx &= \left. \frac{1}{2}mx^2 \right|_a^b \\ &= \frac{1}{2}mb^2 - \frac{1}{2}ma^2.\end{aligned}$$