

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

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or, what integrals have to do with derivatives.

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

(I) Suppose $F'(x) = f(x)$ on $[a, b]$, where $f(x)$ is defined and integrable on $[a, b]$. Then

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

(II) Suppose $f(x)$ ~~is~~ defined and integrable on $[a, b]$.
If we define $F(x) = \int_a^x f(x) dx$ (for $a \leq x \leq b$),
then $F'(x) = f(x)$.

This reduces the problem of computing $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ to finding an "anti-derivative" of $f(x)$, i.e. a function $F(x)$ s.t. $F'(x) = f(x)$, and then evaluating at the endpoints.

"integrand"
↓
 \int_a^b

There are two practical problems here:

(2)

1) Not every function $f(x)$ has a "closed form" anti-derivative.

eg $f(x) = e^{-x^2}$ has no antiderivative that you can express in a finite way using familiar functions and operations (i.e. no "closed form").

And what it's for in statistics is to find the areas under it.

This function matters, since it is a scaled version of $g(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$, which is the classic Gaussian distribution (aka. standard normal distribution, aka. "the bell curve"), which is critically important in statistics.

2) Even for functions that do have "closed form" anti-derivatives, finding them cannot be reduced to a mechanical procedure to the degree that one can for computing derivatives. In practice, we have a variety of techniques we can apply in many cases (but not all!) and we rely on pattern-recognition to use.

So we'll be looking to develop

(3)

(1) a library of anti-derivatives of various common functions [and various derivatives we know in reverse]

& (2) a suite of techniques for computing & manipulating anti-derivatives in various situations.

Terminology & notation:

" $\int f(x) dx$ " \equiv "the indefinite integral of $f(x)$ "

denotes a generic anti-derivative of $f(x)$.

Note that if $F'(x) = f(x)$, then

$G(x) = F(x) + C$ for any constant C

is also a function such that $G'(x) = f(x)$.

Here are some common anti-derivatives:

(4)

1) $\int 1 dx = x + C$ because $\frac{d}{dx}(x+C) = 1+0=1$.

2) $\int x dx = \frac{x^2}{2} + C$ because $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{x^2}{2} + C\right) = \frac{2x}{2} + 0 = x$

3) (Power Rule for Integration) [also on the list of integration techniques]

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C \quad (\text{for all real numbers } n \neq -1)$$

since $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C\right)$
 $= \frac{(n+1)x^n}{n+1} + 0 = x^n$

and $\int x^{-1} dx = \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln(x) + C$ since $\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(x) + C)$
 $= \frac{1}{x} + 0 = \frac{1}{x}$

4) $\int \cos(x) dx = \sin(x) + C$ since $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin(x) + C) = \cos(x) + 0 = \cos(x)$

$\int \sin(x) dx = -\cos(x) + C$ since $\frac{d}{dx}(-\cos(x) + C) = -(-\sin(x)) + 0$
 $= \sin(x)$

$$5) \int e^x dx = e^x + C \quad \text{since } \frac{d}{dx}(e^x + C) = e^x + 0 = e^x \quad (5)$$

$$6) \int \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \arctan(x) + C \quad \text{since } \frac{d}{dx}(\arctan(x) + C) \\ = \frac{1}{1+x^2} + 0 = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

... and so on. We'll add to this as we develop techniques that let us work with things like $\int \tan(x) dx = \int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)} dx$.

For our suite of techniques, we can draw on the properties of the definite integral for inspiration:

$$1^\circ \int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx \quad (\text{Sum Rule for integrals})$$

$$2^\circ \int c f(x) dx = c \int f(x) dx \quad (\text{Multiplication by constants})$$

$$3^\circ \int x^n dx = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} & \text{if } n \neq -1 \\ \ln(x) & \text{if } n = -1 \end{array} \right\} + C \quad (\text{Power Rule for integrals})$$

4^o (Substitution Rule)

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This is the counterpart of the Chain Rule for derivatives.

$$\text{Chain Rule: } \frac{d}{dx} f(g(x)) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

$$\text{Substitution Rule: } \int f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = f(g(x)) + C$$

This relies on picking apart the integrand into the components $f'(g(x))$ and $g'(x)$, which is not always obvious [when possible].

$$\cong \int \tan(x) dx = \int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)} dx$$

Substitute $u = \cos(x)$

$$\text{so } \frac{du}{dx} = -\sin(x)$$

$$\text{so } du = [-\sin(x)] dx$$

$$\text{so } (-1)du = \sin(x) dx$$

Which accessible (you can factor out) part is a derivative of something else. Here $\sin(x)$ is a accessible and is the negative of the derivative of $\cos(x)$...

$$\text{Thus } \int \tan(x) dx = \int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)} dx = \int \frac{f(g(x))}{g'(x)} \cdot \sin(x) dx$$

Indefinite
integrals
should always
return to
the original
variable.

put back in
terms of x

$$= \int \frac{1}{u} (-1) du = - \int \frac{1}{u} du$$

$$= - \int u^{-1} du = - \ln(u) + C$$

$$= - \ln(\cos(x)) + C$$

We can rewrite this in many ways, using facts about trig functions and logarithms.

eg

$$= (-1) \ln(\cos(x)) + C$$

$$= \ln([\cos(x)]^{-1}) + C$$

$$= \ln\left(\frac{1}{\cos(x)}\right) + C$$

$$= \ln(\sec(x)) + C.$$

Note that we're
using substitution
to simplify
the integrand.

[by the Power Rule]

Next time: heat up on
the Substitution Rule...