

## Section 5.3: The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

**FTC part 1:** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and the function  $g$  is defined by

$$g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \quad \text{for } a \leq x \leq b,$$

then  $g$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Moreover

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

This means that the new function  $g$  is an **antiderivative** of  $f$  on  $(a, b)$ !

"FTC" = "fundamental theorem of calculus"

## Theorem: The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (part 2)

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then

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

where  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ . (i.e.  $F'(x) = f(x)$ )

**Notation:** Once we find an antiderivative  $F$ , we usually write the process like

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

## Example

Evaluate  $\frac{d}{dx} \int_1^{\sqrt{x}} \cot(t) dt$

$$= \cot(\sqrt{x}) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

$$= \frac{\cot(\sqrt{x})}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

Chain rule

outside  $u$

$$f(u) = \int \cot(t) dt$$

$$\text{FTC} \Rightarrow f'(u) = \cot(u)$$

inside

$$u = \sqrt{x} \quad u' = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

## Example

Evaluate  $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{dy}{1+y^2} = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{1+y^2} dy$

$$= \tan^{-1} y \Big|_{-1}^1$$

$$= \tan^{-1} 1 - \tan^{-1}(-1) = \frac{\pi}{4} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

## Question

$$\int_2^3 \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| \Big|_2^3 = \ln|3| - \ln|2|$$
$$= \ln 3 - \ln 2$$

(a)  $-\frac{1}{6}$

(b)  $\frac{1}{6}$

(c)  $\ln 3 - \ln 2$

(d)  $\ln 1$

## Connecting the parts of the FTC

Use the FTC part 2 (treat  $x$  as though it were a constant) to evaluate

$$\begin{aligned}g(x) &= \int_0^{x^2} \sec^2(t) dt &= \tan t \Big|_0^{x^2} \\ & &= \tan(x^2) - \tan(0) \\ & &= \tan(x^2) - 0 = \tan(x^2)\end{aligned}$$

$$g(x) = \tan(x^2)$$

## Connecting the parts of the FTC

Use the results that you obtained to find  $g'(x)$  using derivative rules from earlier chapters.

$$g(x) = \tan(x^2)$$

$$\begin{aligned}g'(x) &= \sec^2(x^2) \cdot (2x) \\ &= 2x \sec^2(x^2)\end{aligned}$$

outside

$$f(u) = \tan(u) \quad f'(u) = \sec^2 u$$

inside

$$u = x^2 \quad u' = 2x$$

## Connecting the parts of the FTC

Now use the FTC part 1 to evaluate the derivative

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^{x^2} \sec^2(t) dt$$

$$= \sec^2(x^2) \cdot (2x)$$

$$= 2x \sec^2(x^2)$$

outside

$$f(u) = \int_0^u \sec^2 t dt$$

$$f'(u) = \sec^2(u)$$

inside

$$u = x^2 \quad u' = 2x$$

How does this compare to what you get using the old rules?

They're the same! (duh!)



## Section 5.4: Properties of the Definite Integral

Suppose that  $f$  and  $g$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and let  $k$  be constant.

$$\text{I. } \int_a^b kf(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$\text{II. } \int_a^b (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

$$\text{II. } \int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

## Examples

Suppose  $\int_1^4 f(x) dx = 3$  and  $\int_1^4 g(x) dx = -7$ . Evaluate

$$(i) \int_1^4 -2f(x) dx = -2 \int_1^4 f(x) dx = -2(3) = -6$$

$$(ii) \int_1^4 [f(x) + 3g(x)] dx = \int_1^4 f(x) dx + \int_1^4 3g(x) dx \\ = \int_1^4 f(x) dx + 3 \int_1^4 g(x) dx = 3 + 3(-7) = 3 - 21 \\ = -18$$

## Question

Suppose  $\int_1^4 f(x) dx = 3$  and  $\int_1^4 g(x) dx = -7$ . Evaluate

$$\int_1^4 [g(x) - 3f(x)] dx = \int_1^4 g(x) dx - 3 \int_1^4 f(x) dx$$

$$= -7 - 3(3)$$

(a) 16

(b) -16

(c) -2

(d) 2

## The Sum/Difference in General

If  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_n$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $k_1, k_2, \dots, k_n$  are constants, then

$$\int_a^b [k_1 f_1(x) + k_2 f_2(x) + \dots + k_n f_n(x)] dx =$$

$$k_1 \int_a^b f_1(x) dx + k_2 \int_a^b f_2(x) dx + \dots + k_n \int_a^b f_n(x) dx$$

## Example

Evaluate  $\int_1^2 \frac{x^3 + 2x^2 + 4}{x} dx$

we have to do the  
distribution first

$$= \int_1^2 \left( \frac{x^3}{x} + \frac{2x^2}{x} + \frac{4}{x} \right) dx$$

$$= \int_1^2 \left( x^2 + 2x + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{x} \right) dx$$

$$= \int_1^2 x^2 dx + \int_1^2 2x dx + \int_1^2 4 \cdot \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \int_1^2 x^2 dx + \int_1^2 2x dx + 4 \int_1^2 \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \left. \frac{x^3}{3} \right|_1^2 + \left. x^2 \right|_1^2 + 4 \left. \ln|x| \right|_1^2$$

$$= \frac{2^3}{3} - \frac{1^3}{3} + (2^2 - 1^2) + (4 \ln|2| - 4 \ln|1|)$$

$$= \frac{8}{3} - \frac{1}{3} + (4 - 1) + 4 \ln 2$$

$$= \frac{7}{3} + 3 + 4 \ln 2 = \frac{16}{3} + 4 \ln 2$$

## Properties of Definite Integrals Continued...

If  $f$  is integrable on any interval containing the numbers  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$ , then

$$(IV) \quad \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

## Example

Suppose  $f$  is integrable on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . Suppose further that we know that

$$\int_3^9 f(x) dx = 4 \quad \text{and} \quad \int_5^9 f(x) dx = -3.$$

Evaluate 
$$\int_3^5 f(x) dx = \int_3^9 f(x) dx + \int_9^5 f(x) dx$$
$$= 4 + 3 = 7$$

\* Recall 
$$\int_9^5 f(x) dx = - \int_5^9 f(x) dx = -(-3)$$



## Question

Suppose  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 1$ ,  $\int_1^2 f(x) dx = 2$ , and  $\int_2^3 f(x) dx = 3$ . Then

$$\int_0^3 f(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) dx + \int_1^2 f(x) dx + \int_2^3 f(x) dx$$

(a) 0

(b) 6

(c) 4

(d) can't be determined without more information

## Properties: Bounds on Integrals

(V) If  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  for  $a \leq x \leq b$ , then 
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

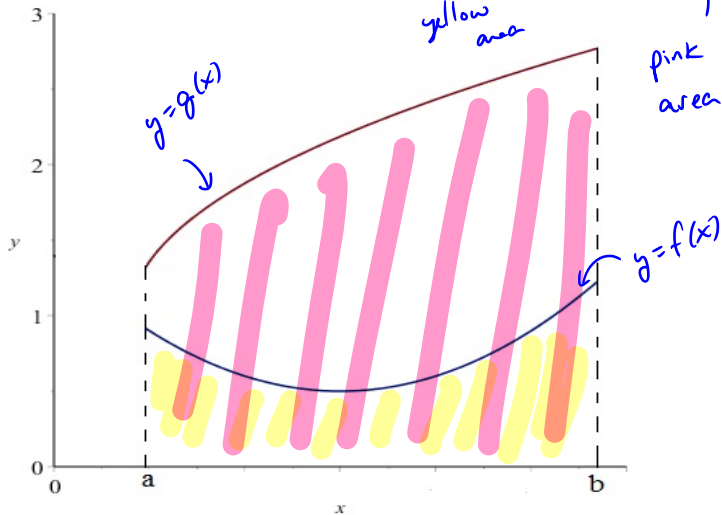
(VI) And, as an immediate consequence of (V), if  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  for  $a \leq x \leq b$ , then

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

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , we can take  $m$  to be the absolute minimum value and  $M$  the absolute maximum value of  $f$  as guaranteed by the Extreme Value Theorem.

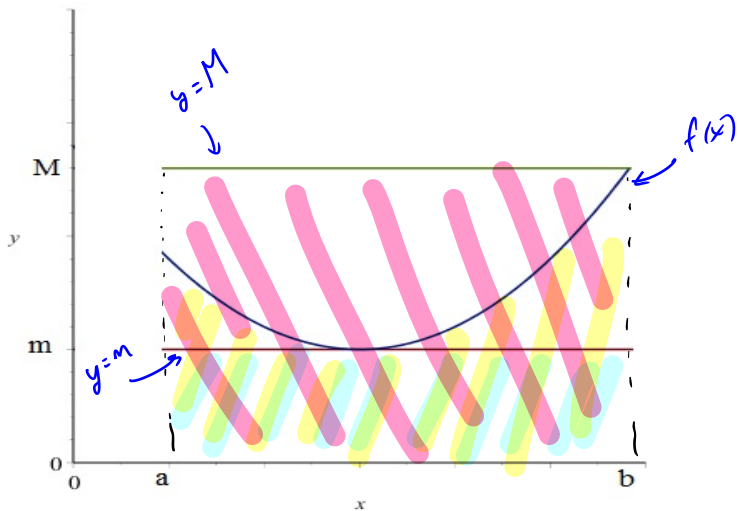
# Bounds on Integrals

$$f(x) \leq g(x) \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b g(x) dx$$



# Bounds on Integrals

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



## Averages: The average value of a function

The average (arithmetic mean) of a collection of numbers  $a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n$  is

$$(a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n) \frac{1}{n} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \frac{1}{n}$$

Can we define the average of infinitely many numbers?

How about the average value of some function  $f$ —i.e. the average of all of the numbers  $f(x)$  for  $a \leq x \leq b$ ?

## Average value of a function

Start w/  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ . Form an equally spaced partition

$$x_0 = a < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b$$

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} = \frac{\Delta x}{b-a}$$

Let  $\{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n\}$  be any set of sample points.

The  $y$ 's are  $f(c_1), f(c_2), \dots, f(c_n)$

The average of these is

$$\frac{f(c_1) + f(c_2) + \dots + f(c_n)}{n} = \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \frac{1}{n}$$

This gives a Riemann sum if we use

$$\frac{1}{n} = \frac{\Delta x}{b-a} = \frac{1}{b-a} \Delta x$$

Avg for this partition is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \left( f(c_i) \cdot \frac{1}{b-a} \Delta x \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{b-a} \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x$$

We take the limit as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  (over all possible partitions)

This gives an integral

$$\text{Average of } f = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$



# Average Value of a Function and the Mean Value Theorem

**Defintion:** Let  $f$  be continuous on the closed interval  $[a, b]$ . Then the average value of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  is

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

**Theorem:** (The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals) If  $f$  is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$ , then there exists a number  $u$  in  $[a, b]$  such that

$$f(u) = f_{avg}, \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \int_a^b f(x) dx = f(u)(b-a).$$

## Question

Find the average value of  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  on the interval  $[0, 4]$ . That is, compute

$$f_{avg} = \frac{1}{4 - 0} \int_0^4 x^{1/2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left[ \frac{x^{3/2}}{3/2} \right]_0^4$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} \Big|_0^4$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{2}{3} \cdot 4^{3/2} - \frac{2}{3} \cdot 0^{3/2} \right) = \frac{4}{3}$$

(a)  $\frac{16}{3}$

(b)  $\frac{4}{3}$

(c)  $\frac{1}{2}$

(d) 2

## Question

Find the value of  $f$  guaranteed by the MVT for integrals for  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  on the interval  $[0, 4]$ . That is, find  $u$  such that

$$f(u) = f_{avg} = \frac{1}{4} \int_0^4 x^{1/2} dx = \frac{4}{3}$$

(a)  $\sqrt{\frac{4}{3}}$

(b)  $\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$

(c)  $\frac{16}{9}$

(d)  $\frac{16}{3}$

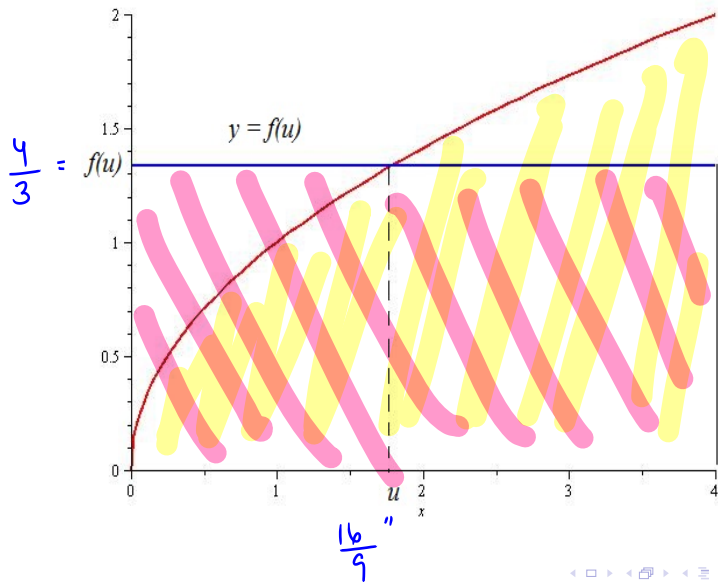
$$f(u) = \frac{4}{3}$$

$$\sqrt{u} = \frac{4}{3} \quad \text{square}$$

$$u = \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)^2 = \frac{16}{9}$$

# MVT for Integrals Example

$$\int_0^4 \sqrt{x} dx = f(u)(4-0)$$



## Evaluate Each Integral

(a)  $\int_2^1 (t+1)^2 dt$       use  $(t+1)^2 = t^2 + 2t + 1$

$$= \int_2^1 (t^2 + 2t + 1) dt = \left. \frac{t^3}{3} + t^2 + t \right|_2^1$$

$$= \frac{1^3}{3} + 1^2 + 1 - \left( \frac{2^3}{3} + 2^2 + 2 \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} + 1 + 1 - \frac{8}{3} - 4 - 2$$

$$= -\frac{7}{3} - 4 = -\frac{19}{3}$$

## Question

$$(b) \int_1^3 x(3x+2) dx = \int_1^3 (3x^2 + 2x) dx$$

(a) 86

(b) 34

(c) 47

(d) 28

$$(c) \int_0^{\pi/4} \tan^2 \theta \, d\theta$$

we need the Trig ID

$$\tan^2 \theta + 1 = \sec^2 \theta$$

$$\Rightarrow \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta - 1$$

$$\left( = \int_0^{\pi/4} (\sec^2 \theta - 1) \, d\theta \right.$$

$$= \tan \theta - \theta \Big|_0^{\pi/4}$$

$$= \tan \frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\pi}{4} - (\tan 0 - 0) = 1 - \frac{\pi}{4}$$

## Question

$$(d) \int_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} \frac{dx}{\sin^2 x} = \int_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x \Big|_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2}$$
$$= -\cot \frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-\cot \frac{\pi}{4}\right)$$
$$= 0 - (-1) = 1$$

(a) 1

(b) -1

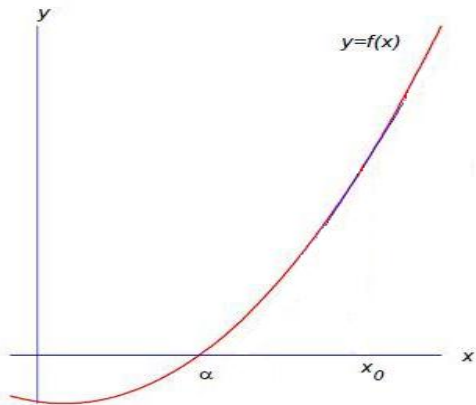
(c)  $\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}}$

(d) It is undefined since  $\cos(\pi/2) = 0$ .



## Section 3.4: Newton's Method

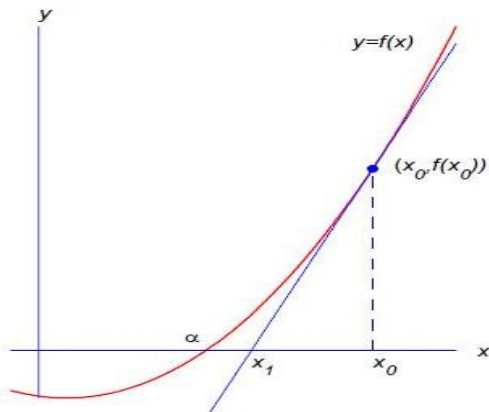
We wish to find a number  $\alpha$  that is a zero of the function  $f(x)$



**Figure:** We begin by making a guess  $x_0$  with the hope that  $\alpha \approx x_0$ .

# Newton's Method

Next, we obtain a better approximation  $x_1$  to the true root  $\alpha$ .



**Figure:** We choose  $x_1$  to be the zero of  $L(x)$ , the tangent line approximation to  $f$  at  $x_0$ .

## Formula for $x_1$ :

We assume that  $f(x)$  is differentiable on an interval containing  $\alpha$ .

Start w/ guess  $x_0$ . Need the tangent line.

point  $(x_0, f(x_0))$ , slope  $m = f'(x_0)$

calling  
 $y, L(x)$

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow L(x) - f(x_0) &= f'(x_0)(x - x_0) \\ y - y_0 &= m(x - x_0) \end{aligned}$$

The tangent line is

$$L(x) = f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + f(x_0)$$

This crosses the  $x$ -axis @  $(x_1, 0)$ . This means

$$L(x_1) = 0.$$

$$0 = f'(x_0)(x_1 - x_0) + f(x_0) \quad \text{solve for } x_1$$

$$-f'(x_0)(x_1 - x_0) = f(x_0) \quad \text{assume } f'(x_0) \neq 0$$

$$x_1 - x_0 = \frac{f(x_0)}{-f'(x_0)} = -\frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$$

$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}$$

# Iterative Scheme for Newton's Method

We start with a *guess*  $x_0$ . Then set

$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f(x_0)}{f'(x_0)}.$$

Similarly, we can find a tangent to the graph of  $f$  at  $(x_1, f(x_1))$  and update again

$$x_2 = x_1 - \frac{f(x_1)}{f'(x_1)}.$$

## Newton's Iteration Formula

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}, \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

The sequence begins with a starting *guess*  $x_0$  expected to be near the desired root.

## Exit Strategy for Newton's Method

Newton's method may or may not converge on the solution  $\alpha$ . Since we hope that  $x_n$  is getting closer and closer to  $\alpha$ , we generally stop when either

$$|x_{n+1} - x_n| < \text{Error Tol.}$$

or when

$$n \geq N$$

where "Error Tol." is some error tolerance and  $N$  is some predetermined maximum number of iterations.

If the latter condition is used to stop the process, the method is probably not working.

## Example

Consider finding the real solution  $\alpha$  of the equation

$$x^3 = x^2 + x + 1.$$

(a) Define an appropriate function  $f(x)$  that has  $\alpha$  as a root.

$$\text{Let } f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - x - 1$$

$$\text{If } f(\alpha) = 0 \text{ then } 0 = \alpha^3 - \alpha^2 - \alpha - 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha^3 = \alpha^2 + \alpha + 1$$

Example:  $x^3 = x^2 + x + 1$

(b) Determine the Newton Iteration formula for this problem.

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \quad n=1,2,3,\dots$$

$$f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - x - 1, \quad f'(x) = 3x^2 - 2x - 1$$

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{x_n^3 - x_n^2 - x_n - 1}{3x_n^2 - 2x_n - 1}$$



Example:  $x^3 = x^2 + x + 1$

(c) Take  $x_0 = 2$  and compute  $x_1$ .

$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{x_0^3 - x_0^2 - x_0 - 1}{3x_0^2 - 2x_0 - 1}$$

$$= 2 - \frac{2^3 - 2^2 - 2 - 1}{3(2^2) - 2(2) - 1}$$

$$= 2 - \frac{1}{7} = \frac{14}{7} - \frac{1}{7} = \frac{13}{7}$$

Example:  $x^3 = x^2 + x + 1$  TI-89

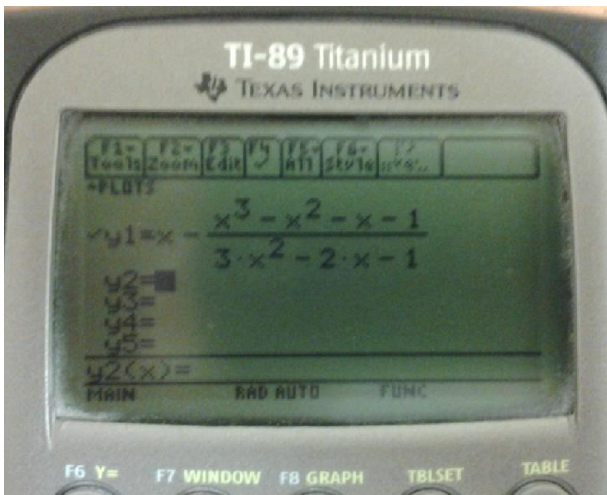


Figure: From the home window 2 [sto ] x [enter], y1(x) [sto ] x [enter], repeat.

## Example: $x^3 = x^2 + x + 1$ TI-84

To access variables  $Y_i$ , hit [vars], select [Y-VARS], select [Function..], select desired variable.

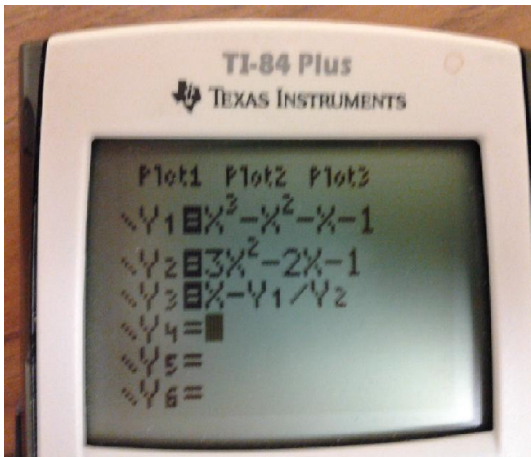
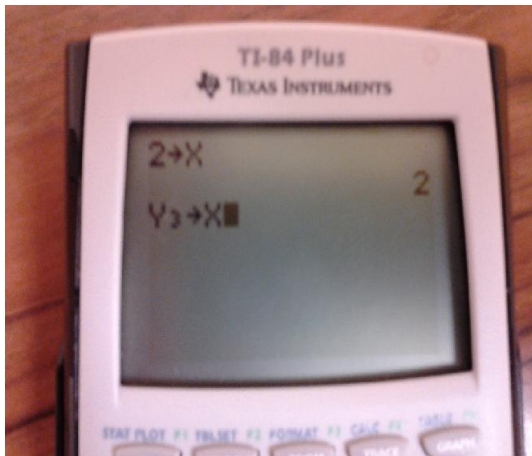


Figure: Set up  $Y_1 = x^3 - x^2 - x - 1$ ,  $Y_2 = 3x^2 - 2x - 1$  and  $Y_3 = x - Y_1/Y_2$ .

Example:  $x^3 = x^2 + x + 1$  TI-84



**Figure:** From the home screen 2 [sto ] X [enter], then Y3 [sto] X [enter]. Keep hitting [enter].

# Example: $x^3 = x^2 + x + 1$

Produced with Matlab with a tolerance of  $\epsilon = 10^{-8}$ .

$n$	$x_n$	$ x_{n+1} - x_n $	$f(x_n)$
0	2.0000000000	0.1428571428	1.0000000000
1	1.8571428571	0.0175983436	0.0991253644
2	1.8395445134	0.0002577038	0.0014103289
3	1.8392868100	0.0000000548	0.0000003000
4	1.8392867552	0.0000000000	0.0000000000
5	1.8392867552		0.0000000000

Newton's method finds the root to within  $10^{-8}$  in 5 full iterations. Another method called *bisection*, based on the Intermediate Value Theorem, requires 27 iterations when the initial assumption is that the root is between 1 and 2.

## Computing Reciprocals without Division

Early computers (and even some supercomputers used today) did not compute with the operation  $\div$ . We consider a method for producing a reciprocal

$$\frac{1}{b} \quad \text{for a known nonzero number } b$$

that relies only on the operations  $+$ ,  $-$ , and  $\times$ .

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Let  $f(x) = b - \frac{1}{x}$ . Then  $f$  is continuously differentiable for  $x > 0$  and

$$f\left(\frac{1}{b}\right) = 0 \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{b}$$

is the unique zero of  $f$ .

## Example: Computing Reciprocal

Find the Newton's method iteration formula for solving  $f(x) = 0$  where  $f(x) = b - \frac{1}{x}$  and  $b > 0$  is some constant.

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

$$f(x) = b - \frac{1}{x} = b - x^{-1}, \quad f'(x) = -(-x^{-2}) = x^{-2} = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{b - \frac{1}{x_n}}{\frac{1}{x_n^2}}$$

$$X_{n+1} = X_n - \left(b - \frac{1}{X_n}\right) \cdot \frac{X_n^2}{1}$$

$$= X_n - \left(bX_n^2 - \frac{1}{X_n} X_n^2\right)$$

$$= X_n - (bX_n^2 - X_n)$$

$$= X_n - bX_n^2 + X_n$$

$$X_{n+1} = 2X_n - bX_n^2$$



## Example: Computing Reciprocal

It can be shown that the method will only find the reciprocal  $\frac{1}{b}$  if the initial guess  $x_0$  is close enough. In particular, it will only work if

$$0 < x_0 < \frac{2}{b}.$$

## Example: Computing Reciprocal

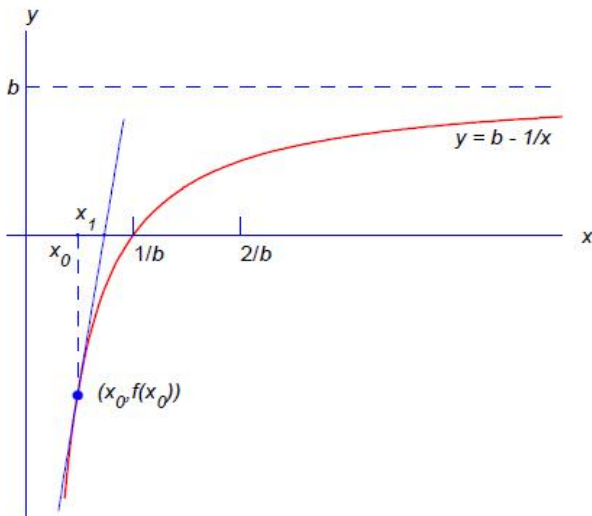


Figure: Illustration of using Newton's method to compute the reciprocal  $1/b$ .

## Computing $\frac{1}{e}$

Start with an initial guess of  $x_0 = 0.5$  and compute  $x_1$ .

Here  $b = e$

$$x_{n+1} = 2x_n - ex_n^2$$

$$x_1 = 2x_0 - ex_0^2$$

$$x_1 = 2(0.5) - e(0.5)^2 = 1 - 0.25e$$

## Example: Computing Reciprocal

Computing the reciprocal of the number  $e$ .

$n$	$x_n$	$ x_{n+1} - x_n $	$f(x_n)$
0	0.5000	0.1796	0.7183
1	0.3204	0.0413	-0.4025
2	0.3618	0.0060	-0.0460
3	0.3678	0.0001	-0.0008
4	0.3679	0.0000	-0.0000
5	0.3679	0.0000	-0.0000
6	0.3679		0.0000

Six iterations are required with an initial guess of  $x_0 = 0.5$  and a tolerance of  $\epsilon = 10^{-8}$ .

## Example: Computing Reciprocal

Computing the reciprocal of the number  $e$ .

$n$	$x_n$	$ x_{n+1} - x_n $	$f(x_n)$
0	0.7500	0.7790	1.3849
1	-0.0290	0.0313	37.1612
2	-0.0604	0.0703	19.2860
3	-0.1306	0.1770	10.3741
4	-0.3076	0.5648	5.9691
5	-0.8725	2.9416	3.8645
6	-3.8141	43.3572	2.9805

The same six iterations with an initial guess of  $x_0 = 0.75$  produces garbage results.