

### 5.3 Evaluating Definite Integrals

## Evaluating Definite Integrals

We have computed integrals from the definition as a limit of Riemann sums and we saw that this procedure is sometimes long and difficult.

Sir Isaac Newton discovered a much simpler method for evaluating integrals and a few years later Leibniz made the same discovery.

They realized that they could calculate $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$ if they happened to know an antiderivative $F$ of $f$.

## Evaluating Definite Integrals

Their discovery, called the Evaluation Theorem, is part of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

Evaluation Theorem If $f$ is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$, then

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=F(b)-F(a)
$$

where $F$ is any antiderivative of $f$, that is, $F^{\prime}=f$.

This theorem states that if we know an antiderivative $F$ of $f$, then we can evaluate $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$ simply by subtracting the values of $F$ at the endpoints of the interval $[a, b]$.

## Evaluating Definite Integrals

It is very surprising that $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$, which was defined by a complicated procedure involving all of the values of $f(x)$ for $a \leq x \leq b$, can be found by knowing the values of $F(x)$ at only two points, $a$ and $b$.

For instance, we know that an antiderivative of the function $f(x)=x^{2}$ is $F(x)=\frac{1}{3} x^{3}$, so the Evaluation Theorem tells us that

$$
\int_{0}^{1} x^{2} d x=F(1)-F(0)=\frac{1}{3} \cdot 1^{3}-\frac{1}{3} \cdot 0^{3}=\frac{1}{3}
$$

Although the Evaluation Theorem may be surprising at first glance, it becomes plausible if we interpret it in physical terms.

## Evaluating Definite Integrals

If $v(t)$ is the velocity of an object and $s(t)$ is its position at time $t$, then $v(t)=s^{\prime}(t)$, so $s$ is an antiderivative of $v$.

We have considered an object that always moves in the positive direction and made the guess that the area under the velocity curve is equal to the distance traveled. In symbols:

$$
\int_{a}^{b} v(t) d t=s(b)-s(a)
$$

That is exactly what the Evaluation Theorem says in this context.

## Evaluating Definite Integrals

When applying the Evaluation Theorem we use the notation

$$
F(x)]_{a}^{b}=F(b)-F(a)
$$

and so we can write

$$
\left.\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=F(x)\right]_{a}^{b} \quad \text { where } \quad F^{\prime}=f
$$

Other common notations are $\left.F(x)\right|_{a} ^{b}$ and $[F(x)]_{a}^{b}$.

## Example 1 - Using the Evaluation Theorem

Evaluate $\int_{1}^{3} e^{x} d x$.

## Solution:

An antiderivative of $f(x)=e^{x}$ is $F(x)=e^{x}$, so we use the Evaluation Theorem as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{1}^{3} e^{x} d x & \left.=e^{x}\right]_{1}^{3} \\
& =e^{3}-e
\end{aligned}
$$

## Indefinite Integrals

## Indefinite Integrals

We need a convenient notation for antiderivatives that makes them easy to work with.

Because of the relation given by the Evaluation Theorem between antiderivatives and integrals, the notation $\int f(x) d x$ is traditionally used for an antiderivative of $f$ and is called an indefinite integral. Thus

$$
\int f(x) d x=F(x) \quad \text { means } \quad F^{\prime}(x)=f(x)
$$

## Indefinite Integrals

You should distinguish carefully between definite and indefinite integrals. A definite integral $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x$ is a number, whereas an indefinite integral $\int f(x) d x$ is a function (or family of functions).

The connection between them is given by the Evaluation Theorem: If $f$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then

$$
\left.\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=\int f(x) d x\right]_{a}^{b}
$$

## Indefinite Integrals

If $F$ is an antiderivative of $f$ on an interval $I$, then the most general antiderivative of $f$ on $l$ is $F(x)+C$, where $C$ is an arbitrary constant. For instance, the formula

$$
\int \frac{1}{x} d x=\ln |x|+C
$$

is valid (on any interval that doesn't contain 0 ) because $(d / d x) \ln |x|=1 / x$.

So an indefinite integral $\int f(x) d x$ can represent either a particular antiderivative of $f$ or an entire family of antiderivatives (one for each value of the constant $C$ ).

## Indefinite Integrals

The effectiveness of the Evaluation Theorem depends on having a supply of antiderivatives of functions.

We therefore restate the Table of Antidifferentiation Formulas, together with a few others, in the notation of indefinite integrals.

Any formula can be verified by differentiating the function on the right side and obtaining the integrand. For instance,

$$
\int \sec ^{2} x d x=\tan x+C \text { because } \frac{d}{d x}(\tan x+C)=\sec ^{2} x
$$

## Indefinite Integrals

## 1 Table of Indefinite Integrals

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\int[f(x)+g(x)] d x=\int f(x) d x+\int g(x) d x & \int c f(x) d x=c \int f(x) d x \\
\int x^{n} d x=\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}+C \quad(n \neq-1) & \int \frac{1}{x} d x=\ln |x|+C \\
\int e^{x} d x=e^{x}+C & \int a^{x} d x=\frac{a^{x}}{\ln a}+C \\
\int \sin x d x=-\cos x+C & \int \csc ^{2} x d x=-\cot x+C \\
\int \sec ^{2} x d x=\tan x+C & \int \csc x \cot x d x=-\csc x+C \\
\int \sec ^{x} \tan x d x=\sec x+C & \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^{2}}} d x=\sin ^{-1} x+C
\end{array}
$$

## Example 3

Find the general indefinite integral

$$
\int\left(10 x^{4}-2 \sec ^{2} x\right) d x
$$

## Solution:

Using our convention and Table 1 and properties of integrals, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int\left(10 x^{4}-2 \sec ^{2} x\right) d x & =10 \int x^{4} d x-2 \int \sec ^{2} x d x \\
& =10 \frac{x^{5}}{5}-2 \tan x+C \\
& =2 x^{5}-2 \tan x+C
\end{aligned}
$$

You should check this answer by differentiating it.

## Applications

## Applications

The Evaluation Theorem says that if $f$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=F(b)-F(a)
$$

where $F$ is any antiderivative of $f$. This means that $F^{\prime}=f$, so the equation can be rewritten as

$$
\int_{a}^{b} F^{\prime}(x) d x=F(b)-F(a)
$$

## Applications

We know that $F^{\prime}(x)$ represents the rate of change of $y=F(x)$ with respect to $x$ and $F(b)-F(a)$ is the change in $y$ when $x$ changes from a to $b$. [Note that $y$ could, for instance, increase, then decrease, then increase again. Although $y$ might change in both directions, $F(b)-F(a)$ represents the net change in $y$.]

So we can reformulate the Evaluation Theorem in words as follows.

Net Change Theorem The integral of a rate of change is the net change:

$$
\int_{a}^{b} F^{\prime}(x) d x=F(b)-F(a)
$$

## Applications

This principle can be applied to all of the rates of change in the natural and social sciences. Here are a few instances of this idea:

- If an object moves along a straight line with position function $s(t)$, then its velocity is $v(t)=s^{\prime}(t)$, so

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{t_{1}}^{t_{2}} v(t) d t=s\left(t_{2}\right)-s\left(t_{1}\right) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

is the net change of position, or displacement, of the particle during the time period from $t_{1}$ to $t_{2}$.

## Applications

We have guessed that this was true for the case where the object moves in the positive direction, but now we have proved that it is always true.

- If we want to calculate the distance the object travels during the time interval, we have to consider the intervals when $v(t) \geq 0$ (the particle moves to the right) and also the intervals when $v(t) \leq 0$ (the particle moves to the left).

In both cases the distance is computed by integrating $|v(t)|$, the speed. Therefore

3

$$
\int_{t_{1}}^{t_{2}}|v(t)| d t=\text { total distance traveled }
$$

## Applications

Figure 4 shows how both displacement and distance traveled can be interpreted in terms of areas under a velocity curve.


Figure 4
displacement $=\int_{t_{1}}^{t_{2}} v(t) d t=A_{1}-A_{2}+A_{3}$
distance $=\int_{t_{1}}^{t_{2}}|v(t)| d t=A_{1}+A_{2}+A_{3}$

## Example 7 - Displacement Versus Distance

A particle moves along a line so that its velocity at time $t$ is $v(t)=t^{2}-t-6$ (measured in meters per second).
(a) Find the displacement of the particle during the time period $1 \leq t \leq 4$.
(b) Find the distance traveled during this time period.

## Solution:

(a) By Equation 2, the displacement is

$$
\begin{aligned}
s(4)-s(1) & =\int_{1}^{4} v(t) d t \\
& =\int_{1}^{4}\left(t^{2}-t-6\right) d t
\end{aligned}
$$

## Example 7 - Solution

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\left[\frac{t^{3}}{3}-\frac{t^{2}}{2}-6 t\right]_{1}^{4} \\
& =-\frac{9}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

This means that the particle's position at time $t=4$ is 4.5 m to the left of its position at the start of the time period.
(b) Note that $v(t)=t^{2}-t-6=(t-3)(t+2)$ and so $v(t) \leq 0$ on the interval $[1,3]$ and $v(t) \geq 0$ on [3, 4].

## Example 7 - Solution

Thus, from Equation 3, the distance traveled is

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{1}^{4}|v(t)| d t & =\int_{1}^{3}[-v(t)] d t+\int_{3}^{4} v(t) d t \\
& =\int_{1}^{3}\left(-t^{2}+t+6\right) d t+\int_{3}^{4}\left(t^{2}-t-6\right) d t \\
& =\left[-\frac{t^{3}}{3}+\frac{t^{2}}{2}+6 t\right]_{1}^{3}+\left[\frac{t^{3}}{3}-\frac{t^{2}}{2}-6 t\right]_{3}^{4} \\
& =\frac{61}{6} \\
& \approx 10.17 \mathrm{~m}
\end{aligned}
$$

