Notes of $3 / 26 / 24$

## Integration by Substitution

- Every differentiation rule comes with an integration rule, just go the other way.
- Integration by substitution is the inverse of the chain rule.

$$
\int f(g(x)) g^{\prime}(x) \mathrm{d} x=f(g(x))+C
$$

because, by the chain rule,

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{~d} x} f(g(x))=f(g(x)) g^{\prime}(x)
$$

- You can carry out the integration either directly, by recognizing the pattern and the antiderivative, or, more elaborately, by using the substitution

$$
u=g(x), \quad \mathrm{d} u=\frac{\mathrm{d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x} \mathrm{~d} x=g^{\prime}(x) \mathrm{d} x .
$$

- When computing indefinite integrals we need to return to the original variable.
- When computing definite integrals we can do that too, but we don't need to. If we stick with $u$ as the variable we need to change the limits of integration.
- Some adjustments, like multiplying with suitable constants may be necessary.
- We'll do some examples now, and more next week during the review.
- $I=\int x \sin x^{2} \mathrm{~d} x=-\frac{1}{2} \cos x^{2}$ $C B D$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u= x^{2} \\
& \frac{d u}{d x}= 2 x \\
& d u= 2 x d x \\
& x d x=\frac{1}{2} d u \\
&\left.I=\frac{1}{2} \int \sin u d u=-\frac{1}{2} \cos u+\frac{d}{2}=\frac{-1}{2} \cos x^{2}+\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

(2)

What about $I=\int_{0}^{\sqrt{\pi}} x \sin x^{2} \mathrm{~d} x=$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I=\left[-\frac{1}{2} \cos x^{2}\right]_{0}^{\sqrt{\pi}}=+\frac{1}{2}[1+1]=1 \\
& I=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin u d u=-\left.\frac{1}{2} \cos u\right|_{0} ^{\pi}=\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2}=1 \\
& \\
& \int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=[F(x)]_{a}^{b}=F(b)-F(a)
\end{aligned}
$$

- Example 11, page 247
- $I=\int_{0=x}^{\pi / 4}=x \sin ^{3} 2 x \cos 2 x \mathrm{~d} x=\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{1} u^{3} d u=\frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{u^{4}}{4}\right]_{u}^{1}=\frac{1}{\gamma}$
$u=\sin 2 x$ $d u=(\cos 2 x) \cdot 2 d x$

$$
\cos 2 x d x=\frac{1}{2} d u
$$

$$
\int u^{3}=\left(\frac{u^{4}}{4}\right.
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& u=\sin 2 x \\
& x=\frac{\pi}{4} \quad u=\sin \frac{\pi}{2}=1
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
C B D
$$

- Example 12, page 248

$$
x=1 \quad 4=9
$$

$$
\int \frac{1}{u^{2}} d u=\int u^{-2} d u
$$

$$
=-u^{-1}+\xi^{\prime}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{d}{d x} x^{p}=p x^{p-1} \\
& \int x^{p} d x=\frac{x^{p+1}}{p+1}+q^{1}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
-\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{u} & =-\left.\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{x^{2}+2 x+6}\right|_{0} ^{1} \\
& =-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{9}-\frac{1}{6}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { - } I=\int_{0}^{1} \frac{x+1}{\left(x^{2}+2 x+6\right)^{2}} \mathrm{~d} x=\frac{1}{2} \int_{6}^{9} \frac{1}{u^{2}} d u=-\left.\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{u}\right|_{6} ^{9} \\
& \begin{aligned}
u & =x^{2}+2 x+6 \\
d u & =2(x+r) d x
\end{aligned} \quad \quad=-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{1}{9}-\frac{1}{6}\right) \\
& (x+) d x=\frac{1}{2} d 4=-\frac{1}{2} \frac{6-4}{54}=\frac{1}{36} \\
& x=0 \quad u=G
\end{aligned}
$$

Average Value of a Function
on an Interval

- Example: $f(x)=\sqrt{x}$ on $[0,1]$.


$$
\begin{aligned}
A & =\int_{0}^{1} x^{1 / 2} d x=a(1-0) \\
& =\left.\frac{2}{3} x^{3 / 2}\right|_{0} ^{1}=\frac{2}{3}
\end{aligned}
$$



Figure 1. $f(x)=\sqrt{x}$ on $[0,1]$.

$$
\operatorname{avg} \sqrt{x}=\frac{\int_{0}^{1} \sqrt{x} \mathrm{~d} x}{1-0}=\frac{2}{3}
$$

- Example: Average Value of $f(x)=\stackrel{0}{\sin } x$ on $[0, \pi]$

$$
\begin{gathered}
\int_{0}^{\pi} \sin x d x=-\left.\cos x\right|_{0} ^{\pi}=1 f r=2 \\
\operatorname{avg} f=\frac{2}{\pi}
\end{gathered}
$$



Figure 2. Average Value of $f(x)=\sin x$ on $[0, \pi]$.

$$
\operatorname{avg} \sin x=\frac{\int_{0}^{\pi} \sin x \mathrm{~d} x}{\pi-0}=\frac{2}{\pi}
$$

- In general the average of $f$ on $[a, b]$ is defined as

$$
\operatorname{avg} f=\frac{\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \mathrm{d} x}{b-a}
$$

- Think of it as a thin sheet of ice of the shape defined by $f$ melting and forming a rectangle.


## The Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

- Recall the


## Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives:

If $f$ is differentiable on $(a, b)$ and continuous on $[a, b]$ then there exists a $c$ in $(a, b)$ such that

$$
f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}
$$

or

$$
f^{\prime}(c)(b-a)=f(b)-f(a) .
$$



Figure 3. The Mean Value Theorem for Derivatives.

- The MVT for Integrals says that if $f$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ there must be a point $c$ in $(a, b)$ such that $f$ at that point equals the average value.
- That seems geometrically obvious.
- Stated more formally we have:
- Suppose $f$ is continuous on $[a, b]$. Then there exists a number $c$ in $(a, b)$ such that

$$
f(c)=\frac{1}{b-a} \int_{a}^{b} f(t) \mathrm{d} t .
$$

- This can be rewritten as

$$
F^{\prime}(c)(b-a)=f(c)(b-a)=\int_{a}^{b} f(t) \mathrm{d} t=F(b)-F(a)
$$

- Note that in particular,

$$
f(c)(b-a)=F(b)-F(a)
$$

is just the mean value value theorem for derivatives applied to the function $F$.

- Example: Compute $c$ for $f(x)=x^{p}$ on the interval $[0,1]$.


Figure 4. $f(x)=x^{p}, \quad p=0, \ldots, 10$.


Figure 5. $f(x)=x^{p}, \quad p=0, \ldots, 10$ and average values.

