

Reversing the Chain Rule. As we have seen from the Second Fundamental Theorem (§4.3), the easiest way to evaluate an integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is to find an antiderivative, the indefinite integral $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$, so that $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$. Building on §3.9, we will find antiderivatives by reversing our methods of differentiation: here, we reverse the Chain Rule, $F(g(x))' = F'(g(x)) g'(x)$.

For example, let us find the antiderivative:

$$\int x \cos(x^2) dx.$$

That is, for what function will the Derivative Rules produce $x \cos(x^2)$? We notice an inside function $g(x) = x^2$, and a factor x which is very close to the derivative $g'(x) = 2x$. In fact, we can get the exact derivative of the inside function if we multiply the factors by $\frac{1}{2}$ and 2:

$$x \cos(x^2) = \frac{1}{2} \cos(x^2) \cdot (2x) = \frac{1}{2} \cos(x^2) \cdot (x^2)'$$

This is just the kind of derivative function produced by the Chain Rule:

$$F(g(x))' = F'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) = F'(x^2) \cdot (x^2)' \stackrel{??}{=} \frac{1}{2} \cos(x^2) \cdot (2x).$$

We still need to find the outside function F . To remind us of the original inside function, we write $F(u)$, where the new variable u represents $u = g(x) = x^2$. We must get $F'(u) = \frac{1}{2} \cos(u)$, an easy antiderivative:

$$\int \frac{1}{2} \cos(u) du = F(u) + C = \frac{1}{2} \sin(u) + C.$$

Now we restore the original inside function to get our final answer:

$$\int \frac{1}{2} \cos(u) du = \frac{1}{2} \sin(u) + C = \frac{1}{2} \sin(x^2) + C.$$

The Chain Rule in Leibnitz notation (§2.5) reverses and checks the above computation. Writing $y = \frac{1}{2} \sin(u)$ and $u = x^2$:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{d}{du} \left(\frac{1}{2} \sin(u) \right) \cdot \frac{d}{dx} (x^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cos(u) \cdot (2x) = \frac{1}{2} \cos(x^2) \cdot (2x) = x \cos(x^2). \end{aligned}$$

Substitution Method

1. Given an antiderivative $\int h(x) dx$, try to find an inside function $g(x)$ such that $g'(x)$ is a factor of the integrand:

$$h(x) = f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x).$$

This will often involve multiplying and dividing by a constant to get the exact derivative $g'(x)$. After factoring out $g'(x)$, sometimes the remaining factor needs to be manipulated to write it as a function of $u = g(x)$.

2. Using the symbolic notation $u = g(x)$, $du = \frac{du}{dx} dx = g'(x) dx$, write:

$$\int h(x) dx = \int f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du,$$

and find the antiderivative $\int f(u) du = F(u) + C$ by whatever method.

3. Restore the original inside function:

$$\int h(x) dx = \int f(u) du = F(u) + C = F(g(x)) + C.$$

Examples

- $\int (3x+4)\sqrt{3x+4} dx$. The inside function is clearly $u = 3x+4$, $du = 3 dx$, so:

$$\begin{aligned} \int (3x+4)\sqrt{3x+4} dx &= \int \frac{1}{3}(3x+4)\sqrt{3x+4} \cdot 3 dx \\ &= \int \frac{1}{3}u\sqrt{u} du = \frac{1}{3} \int u^{3/2} du = \frac{1}{3} \frac{2}{5}u^{5/2} + C = \frac{2}{15}(3x+4)^{5/2} + C. \end{aligned}$$

- $\int x\sqrt{3x+4} dx$. Again $u = 3x+4$, so $\sqrt{3x+4}$ becomes \sqrt{u} , but we must still express the remaining factor x in terms of u . We solve $u = 3x+4$ to obtain $x = \frac{1}{3}u - \frac{4}{3}$: that is, $x = \frac{1}{3}(3x+4) - \frac{4}{3}$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int x\sqrt{3x+4} dx &= \int \frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{1}{3}(3x+4) - \frac{4}{3}\right)\sqrt{3x+4} \cdot 3 dx = \int \frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{1}{3}u - \frac{4}{3}\right)\sqrt{u} du \\ &= \int \frac{1}{9}u^{3/2} - \frac{4}{9}u^{1/2} du = \frac{1}{9} \frac{2}{5}u^{5/2} - \frac{4}{9} \frac{2}{3}u^{3/2} + C = \frac{2}{45}(3x+4)^{5/2} - \frac{8}{27}(3x+4)^{3/2} + C. \end{aligned}$$

- $\int \frac{\sec^2(\sqrt{x})}{\sqrt{x}} dx$. We take $u = \sqrt{x} = x^{1/2}$, $du = \frac{1}{2}x^{-1/2} dx = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} dx$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{\sec^2(\sqrt{x})}{\sqrt{x}} dx &= \int 2 \sec^2(\sqrt{x}) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} dx \\ &= \int \sec^2(u) du = \tan(u) + C = \tan(\sqrt{x}) + C. \end{aligned}$$

Here we use the trig integrals from §3.9.

- $\int \frac{\sin(x)}{(1 + \cos(x))^2} dx$. We cannot take the inside function $u = \sin(x)$, because its derivative $\cos(x)$ is not a factor of the integrand. We could take $u = \cos(x)$, but the best choice is $u = 1 + \cos(x)$, $du = -\sin(x) dx$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{\sin(x)}{(1 + \cos(x))^2} dx &= - \int \frac{1}{(1 + \cos(x))^2} \cdot (-\sin(x)) dx \\ &= - \int \frac{1}{u^2} du = \frac{1}{u} + C = \frac{1}{1 + \cos(x)} + C. \end{aligned}$$

- $\int \frac{1 - \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{1 + \sqrt{x}}} dx$. Take $u = 1 + \sqrt{x}$, $du = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$, so $\sqrt{x} = u - 1$, $1 - \sqrt{x} = 2 - u$.

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{1 - \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{1 + \sqrt{x}}} dx &= \int \frac{1 - \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{1 + \sqrt{x}}} (2\sqrt{x}) \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} dx \\ &= \int \frac{2 - u}{\sqrt{u}} 2(u - 1) du = -2 \int \frac{u^2 - 3u + 2}{\sqrt{u}} du \\ &= -2 \int u^{3/2} - 3u^{1/2} + 2u^{-1/2} du = -2\left(\frac{2}{5}u^{5/2} - 2u^{3/2} + 4u^{1/2}\right) + C \\ &= -\frac{4}{5}(1 + \sqrt{x})^{5/2} + 4(1 + \sqrt{x})^{3/2} - 8(1 + \sqrt{x})^{1/2} + C. \end{aligned}$$

Whew! Here we did not have the derivative factor $\frac{du}{dx} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ already present: we had to multiply and divide by it to get du , then express the remaining factors in terms of u . By luck, the resulting $\int f(u) du$ was do-able.

- $\int \sec^2(x) \tan(x) dx$. Here we could take $u = \tan(x)$, $du = \sec^2(x) dx$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sec^2(x) \tan(x) dx &= \int \tan(x) \cdot \sec^2(x) dx \\ &= \int u du = \frac{1}{2}u^2 + C = \frac{1}{2} \tan^2(x) + C. \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, use the inside function $z = \sec(x)$, $dz = \tan(x) \sec(x) dx$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sec^2(x) \tan(x) dx &= \int \sec(x) \cdot \tan(x) \sec(x) dx \\ &= \int z dz = \frac{1}{2}z^2 + C = \frac{1}{2} \sec^2(x) + C. \end{aligned}$$

Thus $\frac{1}{2} \tan^2(x)$ and $\frac{1}{2} \sec^2(x)$ are two different antiderivatives, but what about the Antiderivative Uniqueness Theorem (§3.9)? In fact, the identity $\tan^2(x) + 1 = \sec^2(x)$ implies:

$$\frac{1}{2} \tan^2(x) + \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \sec^2(x).$$

These give the *same* antiderivative family: $\frac{1}{2} \tan^2(x) + C = \frac{1}{2} \sec^2(x) + C'$!

Substitution for definite integrals. We have, for $u = g(x)$:

$$\int_a^b f(g(x)) g'(x) dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du.$$

EXAMPLE: $\int_2^3 x(1+x^2)^5 dx$. Taking $u = 1+x^2$, $du = 2x dx$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_3^4 x(1+x^2)^5 dx &= \int_3^4 \frac{1}{2}(1+x^2)^5 \cdot 2x dx = \int_{1+3^2}^{1+4^2} \frac{1}{2}u^5 du \\ &= \frac{1}{12} u^6 \Big|_{u=10}^{u=17} = \frac{1}{12}10^6 - \frac{1}{12}17^6. \end{aligned}$$

Integral Symmetry Theorem: If $f(x)$ is an odd function, meaning $f(-x) = -f(x)$, then $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0$.

Proof. By the Integral Splitting Rule (§4.2), we have:

$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = \int_{-a}^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^a f(x) dx.$$

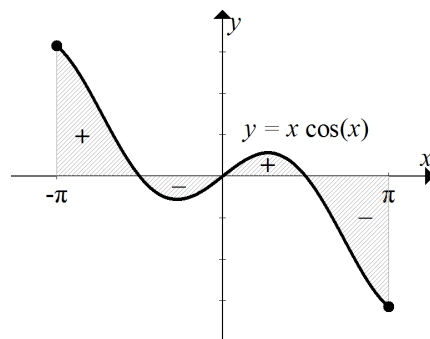
Substituting $u = -x$, $du = (-1) dx$ in the first term, including in the limits of integration, and using $f(-x) = -f(x)$, we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-a}^0 f(x) dx &= \int_{-a}^0 -f(x) \cdot (-1) dx = \int_{-a}^0 f(-x) \cdot (-1) dx \\ &= \int_{-(-a)}^{-0} f(u) du = \int_a^0 f(u) du = -\int_0^a f(u) du = -\int_0^a f(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

The last equality holds because the variable of integration is merely suggestive, and can be changed arbitrarily. Therefore $\int_{-a}^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^a f(x) dx = -\int_0^a f(x) dx + \int_0^a f(x) dx = 0$, as desired.

EXAMPLE: Evaluate the definite integral $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} x \cos(x) dx$. Here substitution will not work, and it is difficult to find an antiderivative. But since $(-x) \cos(-x) = -(x \cos(x))$, the Theorem tells us the integral must be *zero*.

Geometrically, the integral is the signed area between the graph and the x -axis:



Since the function $f(x) = x \cos(x)$ is odd, the graph has rotational symmetry around the origin, and each negative area below the x -axis cancels a positive area above the x -axis.

Application: Heart Flow Rate. In a standard medical test to measure the rate of blood pumped by the heart, r liters/min, doctors inject a colored dye into a vein flowing toward the heart, then measure the concentration of dye in arterial blood as it is pumped out from the heart, $c(t)$ mg/liter after t minutes.

PROBLEM: Given the dye concentration function $c(t)$, determine the flow rate r .

Let the variable ℓ denote the volume of blood which has flowed through the artery since the start time. Assuming the (unknown) flow rate r is constant, we have $\ell = rt$. Let us define $C(\ell)$ to be the dye concentration after ℓ liters have flowed, so that $C(\ell) = C(rt) = c(t)$.

Now, the integral $\int_0^\infty C(\ell) d\ell$, summing up concentration (mg/liter) times increments of volume (liters), measures the total amount D of dye (mg):

$$D = \int_0^\infty C(\ell) d\ell.$$

Performing the substitution $\ell = rt$, $d\ell = r dt$, we have:

$$D = \int_0^\infty C(rt) r dt = r \int_0^\infty c(t) dt.$$

Then we may compute r as:

$$r = \frac{D}{\int_0^\infty c(t) dt}.$$

Since the total dye D is known (the amount injected), $c(t)$ is measured by the test, and $\int_0^\infty c(t) dt$ can be computed by Riemann sums,* we obtain flow rate r .

* Since $c(t) = 0$ after all the dye has passed, $\int_0^\infty c(t) dt$ can be cut off to a finite integral.