

# MA 103 - SVC Lecture 5

## Sect. 4.8 - Antiderivatives

### **DEFINITION** Antiderivative

A function  $F$  is an **antiderivative** of  $f$  on an interval  $I$  if  $F'(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x$  in  $I$ .

Examples: ①  $f(x) = x^3$ ;  $F(x) = \frac{x^4}{4}$  since  $F'(x) = \frac{4x^3}{4} = x^3$ .

②  $f(x) = x^4 - \sin x$ ;  $F(x) = \frac{x^5}{5} + \cos x$

The most general antiderivative of  $f$  on an interval  $I$  is the function  $F(x) + C$ , where  $F'(x) = f(x) \forall x \in I$  and  $C$  is an arbitrary constant.

TABLE 4.2 Antiderivative formulas

Function	General antiderivative
1. $x^n$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C, n \neq -1, n \text{ rational}$
2. $\sin kx$	$-\frac{\cos kx}{k} + C, k \text{ a constant, } k \neq 0$
3. $\cos kx$	$\frac{\sin kx}{k} + C, k \text{ a constant, } k \neq 0$
4. $\sec^2 x$	$\tan x + C$
5. $\csc^2 x$	$-\cot x + C$
6. $\sec x \tan x$	$\sec x + C$
7. $\csc x \cot x$	$-\csc x + C$

Example Find the general antiderivative of  $f(x) = \frac{3}{\sqrt{x}} + \sin(2x)$ .

$$\text{Ans} \cdot F(x) = G(x) + H(x) + c, \quad G'(x) = \frac{3}{\sqrt{x}} = 3x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$H'(x) = \sin(2x)$$

$$G(x) = \frac{3\sqrt{x}}{\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)} = 6\sqrt{x}, \quad H(x) = -\frac{\cos(2x)}{2}$$

- Initial value problems and differential equations  
Finding antiderivative of a function is eqvt. to solving  $\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)$ . This is known as differential equation. If we are given  $y(x_0) = y_0$ , then this is known as initial condition. The diff. eqn. along with the initial condition is called the initial value problem.

**Ex. 1** A balloon ascending at the rate of 12 ft./sec is at a height 80 ft. above the ground when a package is dropped. How long does it take the package to reach the ground?

Ans.

Let  $v(t)$  denote the velocity of the package at time  $t$ . Let  $s(t)$  denote its height above the ground.

We assume that except for acceleration due to gravity, no other force acts on the package.

Hence  $\frac{dv}{dt} = -32$  (acc. due to gravity is  $9.81 \text{ m/sec}^2$   
 $\approx 32 \text{ ft./sec.}^2$ )  
 in the direction of decreasing  $s$ .

Initial value problem for  $v(t)$   
Diff. eqn.  $\frac{dv}{dt} = -32$

Initial condition  $v(0) = 12$

$$v(t) = -32t + C$$
$$v(0) = 12 \text{ implies}$$
$$12 = -32(0) + C$$
$$\Rightarrow C = 12.$$

$$\text{So } v(t) = -32t + 12.$$

Initial value problem for  $s(t)$ :

$$\frac{ds}{dt} = -32t + 12$$

$$s(0) = 80$$

$$s(t) = -16t^2 + 12t + C,$$
$$s(0) = 80 \text{ implies}$$

$$80 = -16(0)^2 + 12(0) + C_1$$
$$\Rightarrow C_1 = 80$$

$$\Rightarrow s(t) = -16t^2 + 12t + 80$$

We want to find  $t$  s.t.  $s(t) = 0$ .  
Hence we solve the quadratic

$$\begin{aligned}
 & -16t^2 + 12t + 80 = 0 \\
 \Rightarrow & 16t^2 - 12t - 80 = 0 \\
 \Rightarrow & 4t^2 - 3t - 20 = 0 \\
 \Rightarrow & t = \frac{3 + \sqrt{9 + 320}}{8} = \frac{3 + \sqrt{329}}{8} \\
 & \approx 2.64 \text{ sec.}
 \end{aligned}$$

### DEFINITION Indefinite Integral, Integrand

The set of all antiderivatives of  $f$  is the **indefinite integral** of  $f$  with respect to  $x$ , denoted by

$$\int f(x) dx.$$

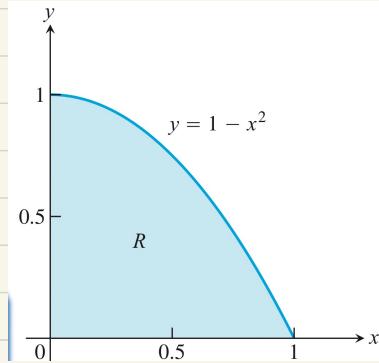
The symbol  $\int$  is an **integral sign**. The function  $f$  is the **integrand** of the integral, and  $x$  is the **variable of integration**.

Example Find the general antiderivative of  
 $\int \cot^2 x dx$ .

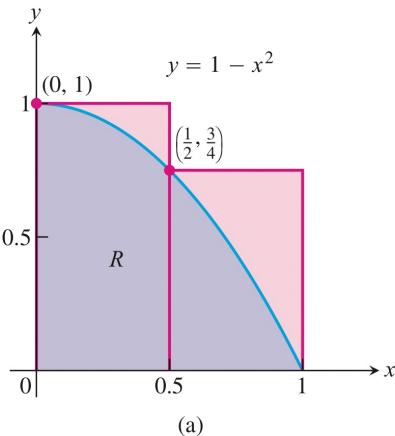
Use  $\cot^2 x = \operatorname{cosec}^2 x - 1$ . Hence  
 $\int \cot^2 x dx = \int (\operatorname{cosec}^2 x - 1) dx = -\cot x - x + C$ ,

# Towards the concept of a definite integral

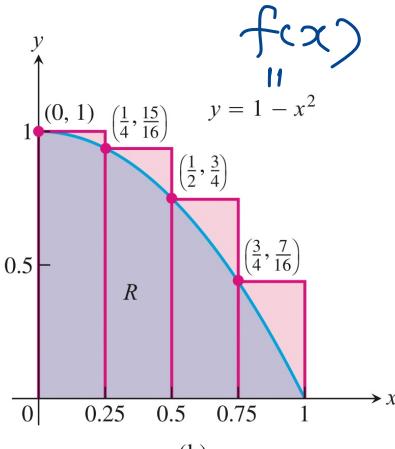
## Sect. 5.1 Estimating with finite sums



Let  $A$  denote the sum of areas of rectangles in all of the pictures below,



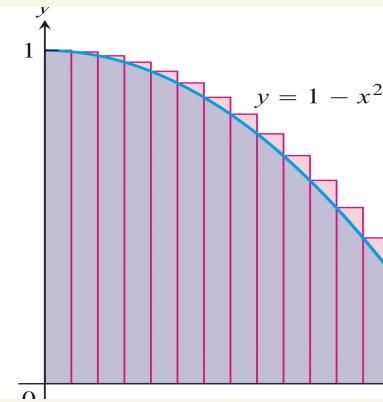
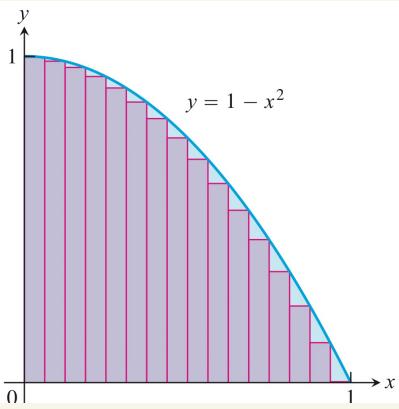
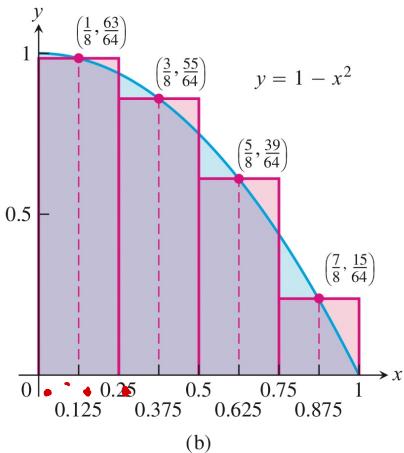
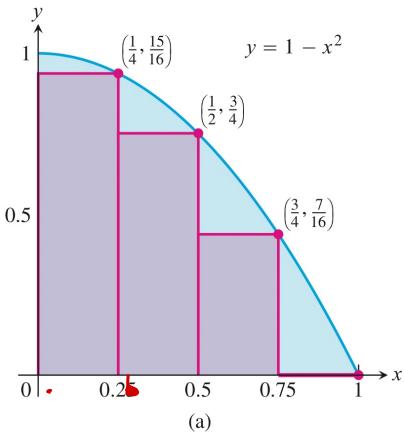
(a)



(b)

$$A = \frac{1}{2}(1) + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{3}{4} = \frac{7}{8} \\ = 0.8$$

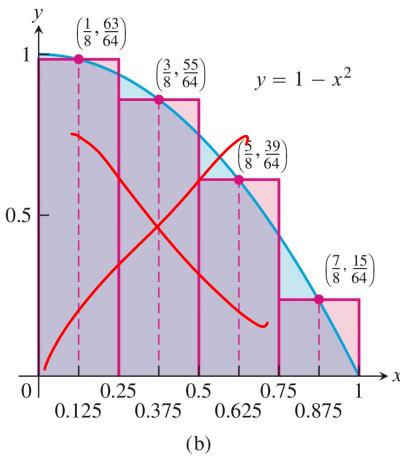
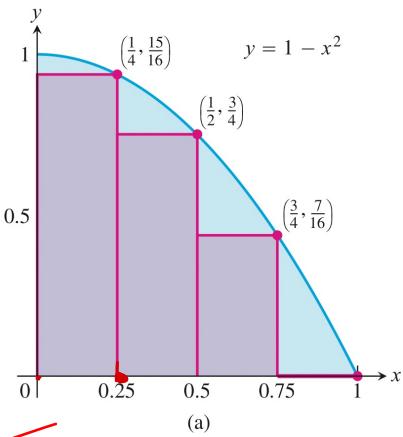
$$A = \frac{1}{4}f(0) + \frac{1}{4}f(\frac{1}{4}) + \frac{1}{4}f(\frac{1}{2}) + \frac{1}{4}f(\frac{3}{4}) \\ = 0.78125$$



**Ex. 2** Find the limiting value of lower sum approximations to the area of the region  $R$  below the graph of  $y = 1 - x^2$  and above the interval  $[0, 1]$  on the  $x$ -axis using equal width rectangles whose widths approach zero and whose number approaches infinity.

Ans.

$$y = 1 - x^2$$



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

Take the interval  $[0, 1]$  and divide it into  $n$  equal sub-intervals by means of the partition  $\{0, \frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \frac{3}{n}, \dots, \frac{n-1}{n}, 1\}$  of  $[0, 1]$ . The width of each sub-interval is  $\Delta x = \frac{1-0}{n} = \frac{1}{n}$ .

Hence the Riemann sum is

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k.$$

Here for the interval  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , i.e.,  $[\frac{k-1}{n}, \frac{k}{n}]$ , we have  $c_k = \frac{k}{n}$  (so as to get the lower sum approx.; this

follows from the fact that  $f$  is decreasing  
 $\text{on } [0, 1].$ )

Hence the Riemann sum is

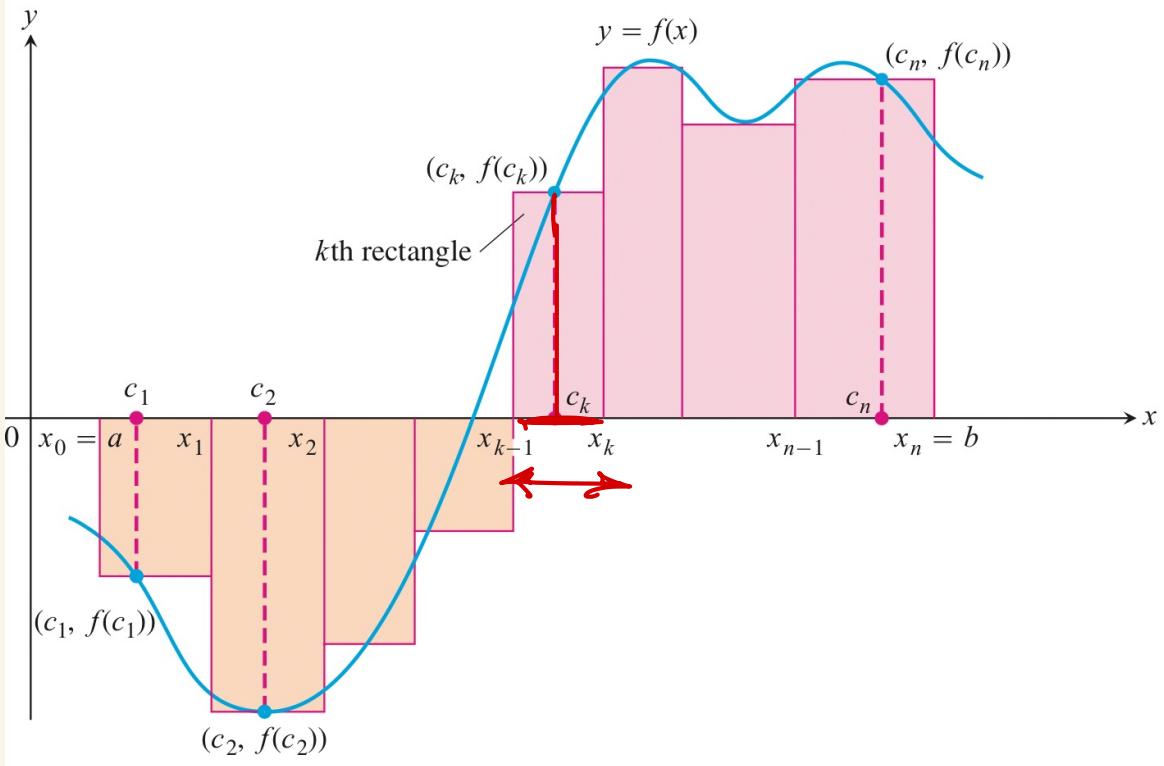
$$\begin{aligned}
 & \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \frac{1}{n} = \sum_{k=1}^n \left\{ 1 - \left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^2 \right\} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \\
 & = \sum_{k=1}^n \left( \frac{1}{n} - \frac{k^2}{n^3} \right) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{n} - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k^2}{n^3} \\
 & = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n 1 - \frac{1}{n^3} \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\
 & = \frac{1}{n} \cdot n - \frac{1}{n^3} \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \\
 & = 1 - \frac{1}{6} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \left( 2 + \frac{1}{n} \right)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{As } n \rightarrow \infty, \quad 1 - \frac{1}{6} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \left( 2 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \rightarrow 1 - \frac{1}{6}(1)(2)$$

Check:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^1 f(x) dx &= \int_0^1 1 - x^2 dx \\
 &= \left[ x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \left( 1 - \frac{1}{3} \right) - (0 - 0) = \frac{2}{3}.
 \end{aligned}$$

## Sect. 5.2 – Riemann sums



Let  $f$  be an arbitrary function defined on the interval  $[a, b]$ .

We subdivide  $[a, b]$  into subintervals, not necessarily of the same width, by choosing  $n-1$  points  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$  between  $a$  &  $b$  which satisfy

$$x_0 = a < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_{n-1} < b = x_n$$

These numbers  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n$  form a partition  $\{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  of  $[a, b]$ .

In each sub-interval, we select some point, say  $c_k$ , in the sub-interval  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ . On each such subinterval, we build a rectangle that stretches from the x-axis to touch the curve at  $(c_k, f(c_k))$ .

Then form the product  $f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x_k$ , where  $\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1}$ . area of the rectangle built on  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$

We sum all such products, say,

$$S_p = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k$$

$$= f(c_1) \Delta x_1 + f(c_2) \Delta x_2 + \dots + f(c_j) \Delta x_j \\ + \dots + f(c_n) \Delta x_n.$$

This sum  $S_p$  is called a Riemann sum for  $f$  on the interval  $[a, b]$ .

Equal widths:  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ .

Varying widths: When a partition has sub-intervals of varying widths, then we can control all widths by controlling the width of the longest subinterval.

The norm of a partition  $P$ , denoted by  $\|P\|$ , to be the largest of all subinterval widths. If  $\|P\| \rightarrow 0$ , then of course, the widths of each of the subintervals approach zero.

### Sect. 5.3 - The definite integral (Definition)

Equal widths :  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ ,  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Arbitrary widths :  $\|P\| \rightarrow 0$

#### **DEFINITION The Definite Integral as a Limit of Riemann Sums**

Let  $f(x)$  be a function defined on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ . We say that a number  $I$  is the **definite integral of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$**  and that  $I$  is the limit of the Riemann sums  $\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k$  if the following condition is satisfied:

Given any number  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding number  $\delta > 0$  such that for every partition  $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  of  $[a, b]$  with  $\|P\| < \delta$  and any choice of  $c_k$  in  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , we have

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k - I \right| < \epsilon.$$

$$\text{If } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k$$

exists, then this is called the **definite integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$** , and is denoted by  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ .

*upper limit  
of integration*

*lower limit*

*of integration*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$$

$$\epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0 \ni |x - c| < \delta, \text{ we have } |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

## Sect. 5.3 - Definite integrals (Examples)

### **DEFINITION** The Definite Integral as a Limit of Riemann Sums

Let  $f(x)$  be a function defined on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ . We say that a number  $I$  is the **definite integral of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$**  and that  $I$  is the limit of the Riemann sums  $\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k$  if the following condition is satisfied:

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$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k - I \right| < \epsilon.$$

When this defn. is satisfied, we say the Riemann sums of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$  converge to the number  $I$  denoted by  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ , and we say  $f$  is integrable over  $[a, b]$ .

We have a number of choices for partition  $P$  whose norm  $\|P\|$  goes to zero, and a number of choices for  $c_k$  for each partition. We say the definite integral exists when we get the same limit  $I$ , irrespective of the choices of the partitions  $P$  & points  $c_k$ . When the limit exists, we write it as

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k = I = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

The limit is always taken as the norm of the partitions approach zero and the number of subintervals goes to infinity.

### **THEOREM 1** The Existence of Definite Integrals

A continuous function is integrable. That is, if a function  $f$  is continuous on an interval  $[a, b]$ , then its definite integral over  $[a, b]$  exists.

## Remarks w.r.t. the above theorem

①  $f$  is cont. on  $[a, b]$ , so it attains its maximum value and minimum value on each of  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$  where  $1 \leq k \leq n$ .

So if we choose  $c_k$  so that  $f(c_k)$  is the max. value of  $f$  on  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , we get an upper sum. Similarly, if we choose  $c_k$  so that  $f(c_k)$  is the min. value of  $f$  on  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , we get a lower sum.

- \* A discontinuous function on an interval  $[a, b]$  may or may not be integrable.
- \* Discontinuous functions that are increasing on  $[a, b]$ , or which are piecewise continuous (finitely many discontinuities) are integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

## Example of a non-integrable function on $[0, 1]$

Show that the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \text{ is rational} \\ 0, & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$$

has no Riemann integral over  $[0, 1]$ .

If we pick a partition  $P$  of  $[0, 1]$  & let  $c_k$  be that point in  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$  which gives the max. value of  $f$  on  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ .

So let us choose a rational number in  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$  to be our  $c_k$  so that  $f(c_k) = 1$ .

Hence the Riemann sum

$$U = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k = \sum_{k=1}^n (1) \Delta x_k = \sum_{k=1}^n (x_k - x_{k-1})$$

$$= (\cancel{x_n - x_{n-1}}) + (\cancel{x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}}) + \dots + (\cancel{x_2 - x}) + (\cancel{x_1 - x_0})$$

$$= b - a = 1 - 0 = 1.$$

So the limit of Riemann sums with these choices is 1.

Now choose  $c_k$  to be that number in  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$  which gives you minimum value of  $f$  on  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ , i.e., choose  $c_k$  to be an irrational number in  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ . Then the Riemann sum is

$$L = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k = \sum_{k=1}^n (0) \Delta x_k = 0.$$

Hence limit of Riemann sums with these choices is 0. The limit thus depends on choices of  $c_k$ , hence not integrable on  $[0, 1]$ .

## Properties of definite integrals

**TABLE 5.3** Rules satisfied by definite integrals  
 Suppose  $f$  and  $g$  are two integrable functions.

1. Order of Integration:  $\int_b^a f(x) dx = - \int_a^b f(x) dx$  A Definition
2. Zero Width Interval:  $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$  Also a Definition
3. Constant Multiple:  $\int_a^b kf(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$  Any Number  $k$   
 $\int_a^b -f(x) dx = - \int_a^b f(x) dx$   $k = -1$
4. Sum and Difference:  $\int_a^b (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$
5. Additivity:  $\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx$
6. Max-Min Inequality: If  $f$  has maximum value  $\max f$  and minimum value  $\min f$  on  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\min f \cdot (b - a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \max f \cdot (b - a).$$

7. Domination:  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[a, b] \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$   
 $f(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, b] \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$  (Special Case)

**Ex.1** Show that the value of  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1+\cos x} dx$  is less than  $\frac{3}{2}$ .

$$\text{Ans} \quad \sqrt{1+\cos x} = \sqrt{2\cos^2(\frac{x}{2})} = \sqrt{2}\cos(\frac{x}{2})$$

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1+\cos x} dx = \sqrt{2} \int_0^1 \cos(\frac{x}{2}) dx = \sqrt{2} \left[ \sin(\frac{x}{2}) \right]_0^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= 2\sqrt{2} \sin(\frac{1}{2}) < 2\sqrt{2}.$$

2<sup>nd</sup> proof:  $-1 \leq \cos x \leq 1$

$$\Rightarrow 0 \leq 1 + \cos x \leq 2 \Rightarrow 0 \leq \sqrt{1+\cos x} \leq \sqrt{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 \sqrt{1+\cos x} dx \leq \int_0^1 \sqrt{2} dx = \sqrt{2}(1-0) = \sqrt{2}.$$

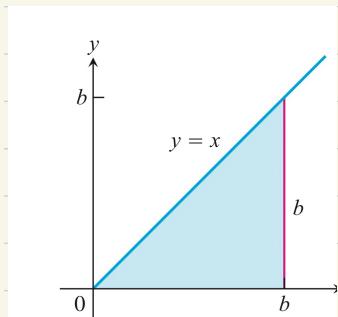
### DEFINITION Area Under a Curve as a Definite Integral

If  $y = f(x)$  is nonnegative and integrable over a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , then the area under the curve  $y = f(x)$  over  $[a, b]$  is the integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$ ,

$$A = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

Example Area under the line  $y=x$

Compute  $\int_0^b x dx$  and find the area A under  $y=x$  over the interval  $[0, b]$ ,  $b > 0$ .



(a) Note that the shaded area is that of a  $\Delta$  with base  $b$  & ht. also  $b$ . Hence its area must be  $\frac{1}{2} \times \text{base} \times \text{height}$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot b \cdot b = \frac{b^2}{2}.$$

(b) We get the above same value by calculating

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k,$$

$f(x)=x$  is cont., hence integrable. Hence the choices of  $P$  (except that  $\|P\| \rightarrow 0$ ) and  $c_k$ 's do not matter. We choose a partition  $P$  that subdivides  $[0, b]$  in  $n$  subintervals of equal width  $\Delta x = \frac{b-0}{n} = \frac{b}{n}$ .

We choose  $c_k$  to be right end point in each sub-interval. The partition  $P$  is  $\{0, \frac{b}{n}, \frac{2b}{n}, \dots, \frac{nb}{n}\}$ . &  $c_k = \frac{kb}{n}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x &= \sum_{k=1}^n f\left(\frac{kb}{n}\right) \cdot \frac{b}{n} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{kb}{n} \cdot \frac{b}{n} = \frac{b^2}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{b^2}{n^2} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \\ &= \frac{b^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right). \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{As } n \rightarrow \infty \text{ & } \|P\| \rightarrow 0, \text{ we get } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{b^2}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence } \int_0^b x dx = \frac{b^2}{2}.$$

$$* \text{More generally, } \int_a^b x dx = \int_a^0 x dx + \int_0^b x dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}.$$

## Average value of a continuous function

$$\frac{f(c_1) + f(c_2) + f(c_3) + \dots + f(c_n)}{n}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k)$$

Divide  $[a, b]$  into sub-intervals of equal widths so that  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ , or in other words,

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

$$\text{Hence } \frac{f(c_1) + \dots + f(c_n)}{n} = \frac{\Delta x}{b-a} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k)$$

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

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

### DEFINITION The Average or Mean Value of a Function

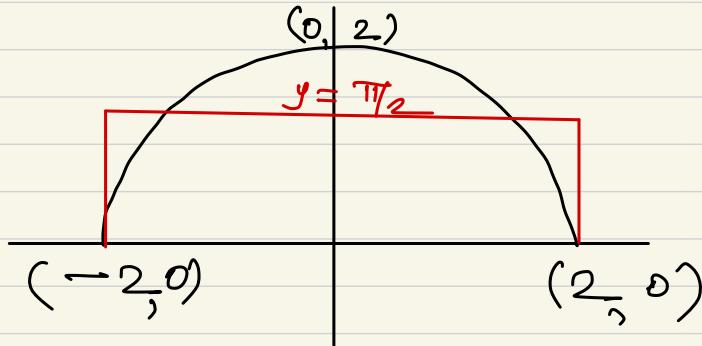
If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then its **average value on  $[a, b]$** , also called its **mean value**, is

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

**Ex. 4** Find the average value of  $f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$  on  $[-2, 2]$ .

Ans.

$$f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}, \text{ on } [-2, 2]$$



Average value of  $f$  is given by

$$= \frac{1}{2 - (-2)} \int_{-2}^2 \sqrt{4 - x^2} dx$$

$$= \underbrace{\text{area of the semi-circle}}_{= \frac{1}{2} \pi (2)^2} = 2\pi$$

$$= \frac{1}{4}(2\pi) = \pi/2.$$