

Section 4.10: Antiderivatives

Given a function f , how do we find a function with derivative f and why would we be interested in such a function?

The Reverse of Differentiation

A function F is an **antiderivative** of the function f if

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$

for all x in the domain of f .

Knowing the rules of differentiation helps begin to find the antiderivatives of functions. For instance, consider the function $f(x) = 2x$. An antiderivative of f could be $F(x) = x^2$ since $F'(x) = 2x$. However, that is not the only function that has a derivative of $2x$. Since the derivative of any constant is zero, other functions, such as $x^2 + 5$ or $x^2 - 2$ could also have a derivative of $2x$.

General Form of an Antiderivative

Let F be an antiderivative of f over an interval I . Then,

- for each constant C , the function $F(x) + C$ is also an antiderivative of f over I ;
- if G is an antiderivative of f over I , there is a constant C for which $G(x) = F(x) + C$ over I .

In other words, the most general form of an antiderivative of f over I is $F(x) + C$.

Media: Watch this [video](#) example on antiderivatives of monomials.

Media: Watch this [video](#) example on antiderivatives of rational functions.

Media: Watch this [video](#) example on antiderivatives of trigonometric functions.

Examples: For each of the following functions, find all antiderivatives.

1) $f(x) = 3x^2$

Since $\frac{d}{dx}(x^3) = 3x^2$

then $F(x) = x^3$ is an antiderivative of $3x^2$

Every antiderivative of $3x^2$ is of the form $\boxed{x^3 + C}$

2) $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

Since $\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$ for $x > 0$

and $\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(-x)) = \frac{1}{x}$ for $x < 0$

therefore, $\frac{d}{dx}(\ln|x|) = \frac{1}{x}$

so every antiderivative is of the form $\boxed{\ln|x| + C}$

$$3) f(x) = \cos x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$$

So every antiderivative is of the form $\boxed{\sin x + C}$

$$4) f(x) = e^x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$$

So every antiderivative is of the form $\boxed{e^x + C}$

Indefinite Integrals

We now look at the formal notation used to represent antiderivatives and examine some of their properties. Recall that when given a function f , we use the notation $f'(x)$ or $\frac{df}{dx}$ to denote the derivative of f .

Given a function f , the **indefinite integral** of f , denoted

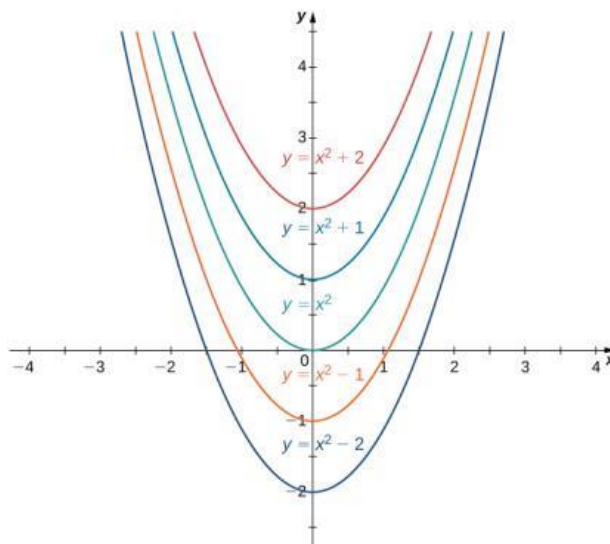
$$\int f(x) dx,$$

is the most general antiderivative of f . If F is an antiderivative of f , then

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C.$$

The expression $f(x)$ is called the **integrand** and the variable x is the **variable of integration**. The act of finding the antiderivatives of a function f is usually referred to as **integrating** f .

For a function f and an antiderivative F , the functions $F(x) + C$, where C is any real number, are often referred to as the **family of antiderivatives** of f . For example, the collection of all functions of the form $x^2 + C$, where C is any real number, is known as the family of antiderivatives of $2x$. The figure below shows a graph of this family.



The following table lists the indefinite integrals for several common functions.

Differentiation Formula	Indefinite Integral
$\frac{d}{dx}(k) = 0$	$\int k \, dx = \int kx^0 \, dx = kx + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(x^n) = nx^{n-1}$	$\int x^n \, dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$ for $n \neq -1$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$	$\int \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \ln x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$	$\int e^x \, dx = e^x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$	$\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$	$\int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x$	$\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\csc x) = -\csc x \cot x$	$\int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = \sec x \tan x$	$\int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\cot x) = -\csc^2 x$	$\int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx = \sin^{-1} x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$	$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} \, dx = \tan^{-1} x + C$
$\frac{d}{dx}(\sec^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$	$\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}} \, dx = \sec^{-1} x + C$

We can evaluate indefinite integrals for more complicated functions by using different properties of indefinite integrals.

Properties of Indefinite Integrals

Let F and G be antiderivatives of f and g , respectively, and let k be any real number.

Sums and Differences

$$\int (f(x) \pm g(x)) \, dx = F(x) \pm G(x) + C$$

Constant Multiplies

$$\int kf(x) \, dx = kF(x) + C$$

Examples: Evaluate each of the following indefinite integrals.

1) $\int (5x^3 - 7x^2 + 3x + 4) dx$

$$= \int 5x^3 dx - \int 7x^2 dx + \int 3x dx + \int 4 dx$$

$$= 5 \int x^3 dx - 7 \int x^2 dx + 3 \int x dx + 4 \int dx$$

$$= 5\left(\frac{x^4}{4}\right) - 7\left(\frac{x^3}{3}\right) + 3\left(\frac{x^2}{2}\right) + 4(x) = \boxed{\frac{5}{4}x^4 - \frac{7}{3}x^3 + \frac{3}{2}x^2 + 4x + C}$$

2) $\int \frac{x^2 + 4\sqrt[3]{x}}{x} dx$ $\frac{x^2 + 4\sqrt[3]{x}}{x} = \frac{x^2}{x} + \frac{4\sqrt[3]{x}}{x} = x + \frac{4}{x^{2/3}}$

$$\int x + \frac{4}{x^{2/3}} dx = \int x dx + \int \frac{4}{x^{2/3}} dx$$
$$= \int x dx + 4 \int x^{-2/3} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 4\left(-\frac{2}{3}+1\right)x^{-2/3+1} = \boxed{\frac{1}{2}x^2 + 12x^{1/3} + C}$$

3) $\int \frac{4}{1+x^2} dx$

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

$$= 4 (\tan^{-1} x)$$

$$= \boxed{4 \tan^{-1} x + C}$$

4) $\int \tan x \cos x dx$

$$\tan x \cos x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \cdot \cos x = \sin x$$

$$= \int \sin x$$

$$= \boxed{-\cos x + C}$$

Initial Value Problems

One common use for antiderivatives that arises often in many applications is solving differential equations. A **differential equation** is an equation that relates an unknown function and one or more of its derivatives.

Sometimes we are interested in determining whether a particular solution curve passes through a certain point (x_0, y_0) – that is, $y(x_0) = y_0$ (the initial condition). The problem of finding a function y that satisfies a differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)$$

With the additional condition

$$y(x_0) = y_0$$

Is an example of an **initial-value problem**.

Media: Watch this [video](#) example on solving initial value problems.

Examples

- 1) Solve the initial-value problem $\frac{dy}{dx} = \sin x$, $y(0) = 5$.

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + C \\ \text{since } y(0) &= 5, \text{ then } -\cos(0) + C = 5 \\ -1 + C &= 5 \\ C &= 6 \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{aligned} y &= \int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + C \\ \text{since } y(0) &= 5, \text{ then } -\cos(0) + C = 5 \\ -1 + C &= 5 \\ C &= 6 \end{aligned}} \right\} \text{so } \boxed{y = -\cos x + 6}$$

- 2) A car is traveling at the rate of $88 \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{sec}}$ (60 mph) when the brakes are applied. The car begins decelerating at a constant rate of $15 \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{sec}^2}$.

- a. How many seconds elapse before the car stops?

$$\begin{aligned} v(0) &= 88 \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{sec}} \\ a(t) &= -15 \frac{\text{ft}}{\text{sec}^2} \\ v'(t) &= -15 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} \text{so } v(t) &= \int -15 \, dt = -15t + C \\ -15(0) + C &= 88 \\ C &= 88 \\ v(t) &= -15t + 88 \end{aligned} \quad \begin{aligned} -15t + 88 &= 0 \\ -15t &= -88 \\ t &\approx 5.87 \text{ sec} \end{aligned}$$

- b. How far does the car travel during that time?

$$\begin{aligned} v(t) &= s'(t) = -15t + 88 \text{ and } s(0) = 0 \\ s(t) &= \int -15t + 88 \, dt = -\frac{15}{2} t^2 + 88t \\ s(5.87) &\approx \boxed{258.133 \text{ ft}} \end{aligned}$$