4 Integration











4.1

Antiderivatives and Indefinite Integration

Objectives

- Write the general solution of a differential equation and use indefinite integral notation for antiderivatives.
- Use basic integration rules to find antiderivatives.
- Find a particular solution of a differential equation.

To find a function F whose derivative is $f(x) = 3x^2$, you might use your knowledge of derivatives to conclude that

$$F(x) = x^3 \text{ because } \frac{d}{dx}[x^3] = 3x^2.$$

The function *F* is an *antiderivative* of *f*.

Definition of Antiderivative

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

Note that *F* is called *an* antiderivative of *f* rather than *the* antiderivative of *f*.

To see why, observe that

$$F_1(x) = x^3$$
, $F_2(x) = x^3 - 5$, and $F_3(x) = x^3 + 97$

are all antiderivatives of $f(x) = 3x^2$.

In fact, for any constant C, the function $F(x) = x^3 + C$ is an antiderivative of f.

THEOREM 4.1 Representation of Antiderivatives

If F is an antiderivative of f on an interval I, then G is an antiderivative of f on the interval I if and only if G is of the form G(x) = F(x) + C for all x in I where C is a constant.

Using Theorem 4.1, you can represent the entire family of antiderivatives of a function by adding a constant to a *known* antiderivative.

For example, knowing that

$$D_{x}[x^2] = 2x$$

you can represent the family of *all* antiderivatives of f(x) = 2x by

$$G(x) = x^2 + C$$
 Family of all antiderivatives of $f(x) = 2x$

where *C* is a constant. The constant *C* is called the **constant of integration**.

The family of functions represented by G is the **general** antiderivative of f, and $G(x) = x^2 + C$ is the **general** solution of the *differential equation*

$$G(x) = 2x$$
. Differential equation

A **differential equation** in *x* and *y* is an equation that involves *x*, *y*, and derivatives of *y*. For instance,

$$y$$
? = 3 x and y ? = $x^2 + 1$

are examples of differential equations.

Example 1 – Solving a Differential Equation

Find the general solution of the differential equation y? = 2.

Solution:

To begin, you need to find a function whose derivative is 2. One such function is

2x is an antiderivative of 2.

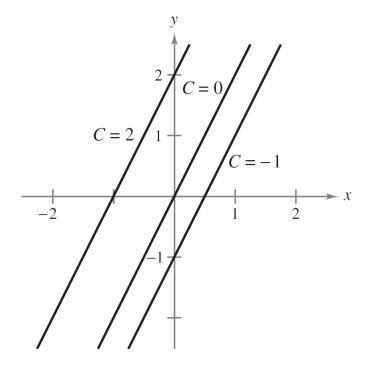
$$y = 2x$$
.

Now, you can use Theorem 4.1 to conclude that the general solution of the differential equation is

General solution

$$y = 2x + C$$
.

The graphs of several functions of the form y = 2x + C are shown in Figure 4.1.



Functions of the form y = 2x + C

Figure 4.1

When solving a differential equation of the form

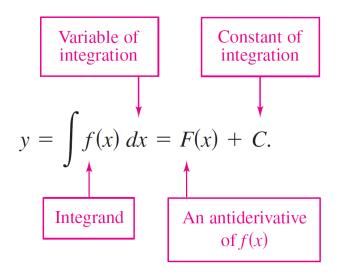
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x)$$

it is convenient to write it in the equivalent differential form

$$dy = f(x) dx$$
.

The operation of finding all solutions of this equation is called **antidifferentiation** (or **indefinite integration**) and is denoted by an integral sign \int .

The general solution is denoted by



The expression $\int f(x) dx$ is read as the *antiderivative of f* with respect to x. So, the differential dx serves to identify x as the variable of integration. The term **indefinite integral** is a synonym for antiderivative.

The inverse nature of integration and differentiation can be verified by substituting $F(\mathbf{r})(x)$ for f(x) in the indefinite integration definition to obtain

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

Integration is the "inverse" of differentiation.

Moreover, if $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$, then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[\int f(x) \ dx \right] = f(x).$$

Differentiation is the "inverse" of integration.

These two equations allow you to obtain integration formulas directly from differentiation formulas, as shown in the following summary.

Basic Integration Rules

Differentiation Formula

$$\frac{d}{dx}[C] = 0$$
$$\frac{d}{dx}[kx] = k$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[kf(x)] = kf'(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x) \pm g(x)] = f'(x) \pm g'(x)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[x^n] = nx^{n-1}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\sin x] = \cos x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\cos x] = -\sin x$$

Integration Formula

$$\int 0 \, dx = C$$

$$\int k \, dx = kx + C$$

$$\int kf(x) \ dx = k \int f(x) \ dx$$

$$\int [f(x) \pm g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$$

$$\int x^n \, dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C, \quad n \neq -1$$

$$\int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C$$

$$\int \sin x \, dx = -\cos x + C$$

Basic Integration Rules

Differentiation Formula

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\tan x] = \sec^2 x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\sec x] = \sec x \tan x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\cot x] = -\csc^2 x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\csc x] = -\csc x \cot x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[e^x] = e^x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[a^x] = (\ln a)a^x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\ln x] = \frac{1}{x}, x > 0$$

Integration Formula

$$\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + C$$

$$\int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + C$$

$$\int \csc^2 x \, dx = -\cot x + C$$

$$\int \csc x \cot x \, dx = -\csc x + C$$

$$\int e^x \, dx = e^x + C$$

$$\int a^x \, dx = \left(\frac{1}{\ln a}\right) a^x + C$$

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

Example 2 – Describing Antiderivatives

$$\int 3x \, dx = 3 \int x \, dx$$
Constant Multiple Rule
$$= 3 \int x^1 \, dx$$
Rewrite x as x^1 .
$$= 3 \left(\frac{x^2}{2}\right) + C$$
Power Rule $(n = 1)$

$$= \frac{3}{2} x^2 + C$$
Simplify.

The antiderivatives of 3x are of the form $\frac{3}{2}x^2 + C$, where C is any constant.

Simplify.

When indefinite integrals are evaluated, a strict application of the basic integration rules tends to produce complicated constants of integration.

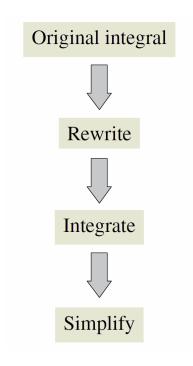
For instance, in Example 2, the solution could have been written as

$$\int 3x \, dx = 3 \int x \, dx = 3 \left(\frac{x^2}{2} + C \right) = \frac{3}{2} x^2 + 3C.$$

Because C represents *any* constant, it is both cumbersome and unnecessary to write 3C as the constant of integration.

So, $\frac{3}{2}x^2 + 3C$ is written in the simpler form $\frac{3}{2}x^2 + C$.

In Example 2, note that the general pattern of integration is similar to that of differentiation.



We know that the equation $y = \int f(x) dx$ has many solutions (each differing from the others by a constant).

This means that the graphs of any two antiderivatives of *f* are vertical translations of each other.

For example, Figure 4.2 shows the graphs of several antiderivatives of the form

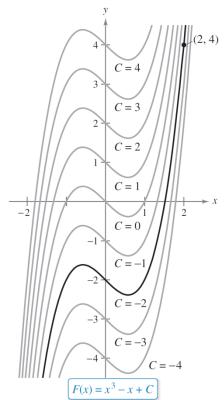
$$y = \int (3x^2 - 1) dx$$

$$= x^3 - x + C$$

General solution

for various integer values of C.

Each of these antiderivatives is a solution of the differential equation $\frac{dy}{dx} = 3x^2 - 1$.



The particular solution that satisfies the initial condition F(2) = 4 is $F(x) = x^3 - x - 2$.

In many applications of integration, you are given enough information to determine a **particular solution**.

To do this, you need only know the value of y = F(x) for one value of x.

This information is called an **initial condition**. For example, in Figure 4.2, only one curve passes through the point (2, 4).

To find this curve, you can use the general solution

$$F(x) = x^3 - x + C$$

General solution

and the initial condition

$$F(2) = 4$$
.

Initial condition

By using the initial condition in the general solution, you can determine that

$$F(2) = 8 - 2 + C = 4$$

which implies that C = -2. So, you obtain

$$F(x) = x^3 - x - 2$$
.

Particular solution

Example 8 – Finding a Particular Solution

Find the general solution of

$$F(x) = e^{x}$$

Differential equation

and find the particular solution that satisfies the initial condition

$$F(0) = 3.$$

Initial condition

Solution:

To find the general solution, integrate to obtain

$$F(x) = \int e^x dx$$

$$= e^x + C$$

General solution

Example 8 – Solution

Using the initial condition F(0) = 3, you can solve for C as follows.

$$F(0) = e^0 + C$$

$$3 = 1 + C$$

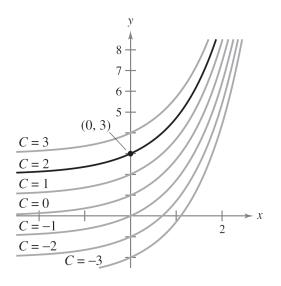
$$2 = C$$

So, the particular solution is

$$F(x) = e^x + 2$$

Particular solution

as shown in Figure 4.3.



The particular solution that satisfies the initial condition F(0) = 3 is $F(x) = e^x + 2$.

Figure 4.3

So far in this section, you have been using *x* as the variable of integration. In applications, it is often convenient to use a different variable.