



Week 14

- 30. Antiderivatives
- 31. Integration
- 32. The Definite Integral





Definition

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

Example

2x is the derivative of x^2 .

 x^2 is an antiderivative of 2x.



Example

If $g(x) = \cos x$, then an antiderivative of g is

$$G(x) = \sin x$$

because

$$G'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x = g(x).$$



Example

If $h(x) = 2x + \cos x$, then $H(x) = x^2 + \sin x$ is an antiderivative of h(x).



Remark

 $F(x) = x^2$ is not the only antiderivative of f(x) = 2x.

 $x^{2} + 1$ is an antiderivative of 2x because $\frac{d}{dx}(x^{2} + 1) = 2x$.

 $x^{2} + 5$ is an antiderivative of 2x because $\frac{d}{dx}(x^{2} + 5) = 2x$.

 $x^2 - 1234$ is an antiderivative of 2x because $\frac{d}{dx}(x^2 - 1234) = 2x$.



Theorem

If F is an antiderivative of f on I, then the general antiderivative of f is

$$F(x) + C$$

where C is a constant.



Example

Find an antiderivative of $f(x) = 3x^2$ that satisfies F(1) = -1.

solution: x^3 is an antiderivative of f because $\frac{d}{dx}(x^3) = 3x^2$. So the general antiderivative of f is

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

Then we calculate that

$$-1 = F(1) = 1^3 + C = 1 + C \implies C = -2.$$

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



function	derivative
f(x)	f'(x)
x^n	nx^{n-1}
$\sin kx$	$k\cos kx$
$\cos kx$	$-k\sin kx$
e^{kx}	ke^{kx}



function	derivative
f(x)	f'(x)
x^n	nx^{n-1}
$\sin kx$	$k\cos kx$
$\cos kx$	$-k\sin kx$
e^{kx}	ke^{kx}

function	general antiderivative
f(x)	F(x)
$x^n \ (n \neq -1)$	
$\sin kx$	
$\cos kx$	
e^{kx}	



function	derivative
f(x)	f'(x)
x^n	nx^{n-1}
$\sin kx$	$k\cos kx$
$\cos kx$	$-k\sin kx$
e^{kx}	ke^{kx}

function	general antiderivative
f(x)	F(x)
$x^n \ (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$
$\sin kx$	
$\cos kx$	
e^{kx}	



function	derivative
f(x)	f'(x)
x^n	nx^{n-1}
$\sin kx$	$k\cos kx$
$\cos kx$	$-k\sin kx$
e^{kx}	ke^{kx}

function	general antiderivative
f(x)	F(x)
$x^n \ (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$
$\sin kx$	$-\frac{1}{k}\cos kx + C$
$\cos kx$	
e^{kx}	



function	derivative
f(x)	f'(x)
x^n	nx^{n-1}
$\sin kx$	$k\cos kx$
$\cos kx$	$-k\sin kx$
e^{kx}	ke^{kx}

function	general antiderivative
f(x)	F(x)
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function	general antiderivative
f(x)	F(x)
$x^n \ (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$
$\sin kx$	$-\frac{1}{k}\cos kx + C$
$\cos kx$	$\frac{1}{k}\sin kx + C$
e^{kx}	$\frac{1}{k}e^{kx} + C$



The Sum Rule and the Constant Multiple Rule

Suppose that

- \blacksquare F is an antiderivative of f;
- lacksquare G is an antiderivative of g;
- $k \in \mathbb{R}$.

The Sum Rule: The general antiderivative of f + g is

$$F(x) + G(x) + C.$$

The Constant Multiple Rule: The general antiderivative of kf is

$$kF(x) + C$$
.



Example

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

solution: We have f = 3g + h where $g(x) = x^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ and $h(x) = \sin 2x$. An antiderivative of g is

$$G(x) = \frac{x^{-\frac{1}{2}+1}}{-\frac{1}{2}+1} = \frac{x^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\frac{1}{2}} = 2\sqrt{x}.$$

An antiderivative of h is

$$H(x) = -\frac{1}{2}\cos 2x.$$

Therefore the general antiderivative of f is

$$F(x) = 6\sqrt{x} - \frac{1}{2}\cos 2x + C.$$

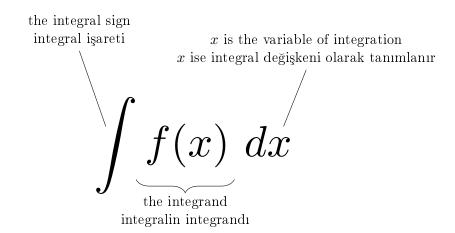


Definition

The general antiderivative of f is also called the *indefinite* integral of f with respect to x, and is denoted by

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







Example

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

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

$$\int (2x + \cos x) \, dx = x^2 + \sin x + C$$



Example

Calculate $\int (x^2 - 2x + 5) dx$.

solution 1. Since $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{x^3}{3}-x^2+5x\right)=x^2-2x+5$ we have that

$$\int (x^2 - 2x + 5) \ dx = \frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 + 5x + C.$$



solution 2.

$$\int (x^2 - 2x + 5) dx = \int x^2 dx - \int 2x dx + \int 5 dx$$
$$= \left(\frac{x^3}{3} + C_1\right) - \left(x^2 + C_2\right) + (5x + C_3)$$
$$= \left(\frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 + 5x\right) + (C_1 - C_2 + C_3).$$

Because we only need one constant, we can define $C := C_1 - C_2 + C_3$. Therefore

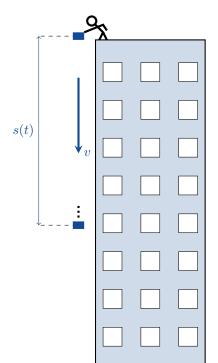
$$\int (x^2 - 2x + 5) \ dx = \frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 + 5x + C.$$



Example

You drop a box off the top of a tall building. The acceleration due to gravity is $9.8 \,\mathrm{ms^{-2}}$. You can ignore air resistance. How far does the box fall in 5 seconds?

30. Antiderivat







solution: The acceleration is

$$a(t) = 9.8 \text{ms}^{-2}$$

downwards. Since

$$\operatorname{acceleration} = \frac{d}{dt}(\operatorname{velocity}),$$

the velocity is an antiderivative of the acceleration. Therefore the velocity is

$$v(t) = 9.8t + C \text{ ms}^{-1}.$$



You let go of the box at time t = 0. So v(0) = 0. Thus C = 0. Hence

$$v(t) = 9.8t \text{ ms}^{-1}.$$



Now velocity = $\frac{d}{dt}$ (position). So the distance fallen is an antiderivative of velocity. Hence

$$s(t) = 4.9t^2 + \tilde{C} \text{ m}.$$

Because you let go of the box at time t = 0, we have s(0) = 0. Thus $\tilde{C} = 0$. Therefore

$$s(t) = 4.9t^2 \text{ m}.$$

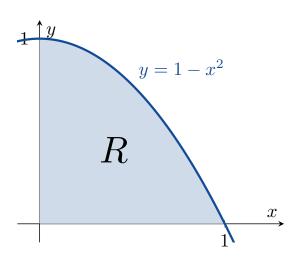


After 5 seconds, the box has fallen

$$s(5) = 4.9 \times 25 = 122.5$$
 metres.

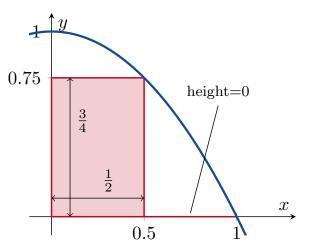






Question: What is the area of R?





We can use two rectangles to approximate the area of R.



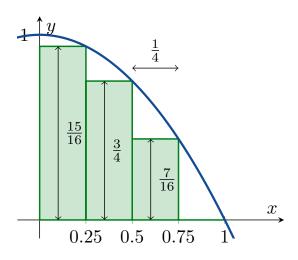
Then we have

area of
$$R \approx$$
 area of 2 rectangles
$$= \left(\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(0 \times \frac{1}{2}\right)$$
$$= \frac{3}{8} = 0.375.$$



Can we do better than this? Yes! We could use more rectangles.







We can say that

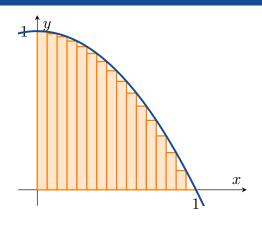
area of
$$R \approx$$
 area of 4 rectangles

$$= \left(\frac{15}{16} \times \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{3}{4} \times \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(\frac{7}{16} \times \frac{1}{4}\right) + \left(0 \times \frac{1}{4}\right) = \frac{17}{32} = 0.53125.$$



Every time we increase the number of rectangles, the total area of the rectangles gets closer and closer to the area of R.

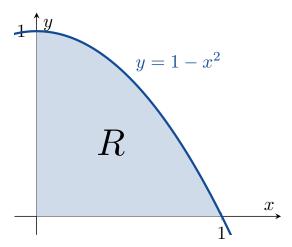




area of $R \approx$ area of 16 rectangles = 0.63476.



Limits of Finite Sums





STEP 1: We will cut [0,1] into n pieces of width

$$\Delta x = \frac{1-0}{n} = \frac{1}{n}.$$

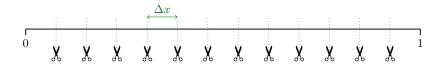
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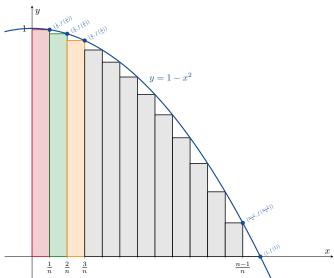


STEP 1: We will cut [0,1] into n pieces of width

$$\Delta x = \frac{1-0}{n} = \frac{1}{n}.$$







STEP 2: We will use n rectangles to approximate the area of R.



STEP 3: Then we will take the limit as $n \to \infty$.



Let $f(x) = 1 - x^2$. Then

- the first rectangle has area $\frac{1}{n}f(\frac{1}{n})$;
- the second rectangle has area $\frac{1}{n}f\left(\frac{2}{n}\right)$;
- the third rectangle has area $\frac{1}{n}f\left(\frac{3}{n}\right)$; and so on.



The area of all n rectangles is

area =
$$\sum_{k=1}^{n}$$
 (area of the k th rectangle) = $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right)$
= $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} \left(1 - \left(\frac{k}{n}\right)^{2}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \left(\frac{1}{n} - \frac{k^{2}}{n^{3}}\right)$
= $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} - \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{k^{2}}{n^{3}}$
= $n\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) - \frac{1}{n^{3}} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k^{2}$
= $1 - \frac{1}{n^{3}} \left(\frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}\right)$
= $1 - \frac{2n^{2} + 3n + 1}{6n^{2}}$.



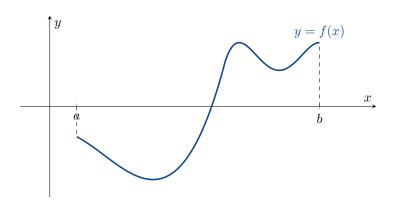
Taking the limit gives

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{n} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \right) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(1 - \frac{2n^2 + 3n + 1}{6n^2} \right)$$
$$= 1 - \frac{2}{6} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Therefore the area of R is $\frac{2}{3}$.



Riemann Sums

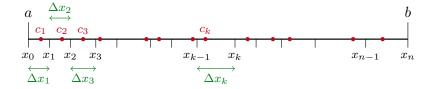




Now let $f[a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function. We will cut [a, b] into n subintervals (the pieces don't have to all be the same size).

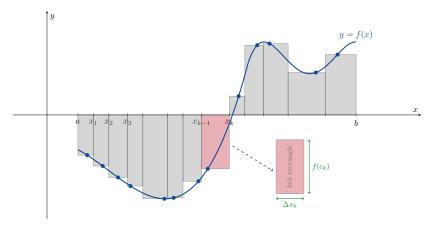
In each subinterval we will choose one point $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$.

The width of each subinterval is $\Delta x_k = x_k - x_{k-1}$.





On each subinterval $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$, we draw a rectangle of width Δx_k and height $f(c_k)$.





Note that if $f(c_k) < 0$, then the rectangle on $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ will have 'negative area' – this is ok.

The total of the n rectangles is

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

This is called a Riemann Sum for f on [a, b].

Then we want to take the limit as $n \to \infty$ (or more precisely, we want to take the limit as $\max\{\Delta x_1, \Delta x_2, \dots, \Delta x_n\} \to 0$). Sometimes this limit exists, sometimes this limit does not exist.





Definition_l

If the limit

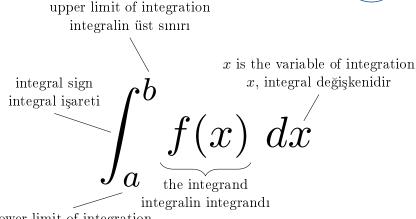
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(c_k) \Delta x_k$$

exists, then it is called the definite integral of f over [a,b]. We write

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(c_k) \Delta x_k$$

if the limit exists.

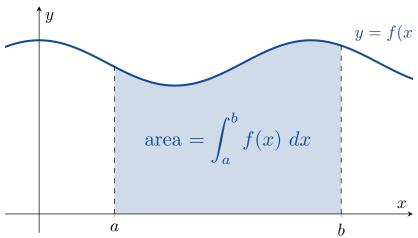




lower limit of integration integralin alt sınırı

"the integral of f from a to b"







Definition

If $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ exists, then we say that f is integrable on [a, b].



Example

$$f(x) = 1 - x^2$$
 is integrable on [0, 1] and $\int_0^1 (1 - x^2) dx = \frac{2}{3}$.



Remark

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \ dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(u) \ du = \int_{a}^{b} f(t) \ dt$$

It doesn't matter which letter we use for the dummy variable.

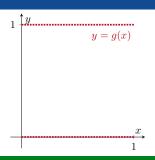


Theorem

If f is continuous on [a,b], then f is integrable on [a,b].

If f has finitely many jump discontinuities but is otherwise continuous on [a, b], then f is integrable on [a, b].





Example

Define a function $g:[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 0 & x \notin \mathbb{Q}. \end{cases}$$

This function is not integrable on [0,1].



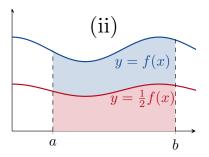
Theorem



Theorem



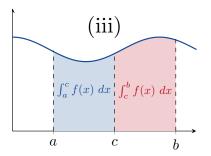
Theorem





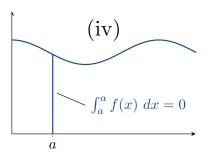
Theorem

$$\int_{a}^{c} f(x) \ dx + \int_{c}^{b} f(x) \ dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \ dx$$





Theorem





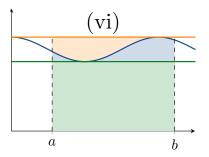
Theorem

$$\int_{a}^{b} (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx;$$



Theorem

$$(b-a)\min f \le \int_a^b f(x) \ dx \le (b-a)\max f;$$



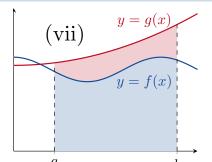


Theorem

Suppose that f and g are integrable. Let k be a number. Then

if $f(x) \leq g(x)$ on [a, b], then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \ dx \le \int_{a}^{b} g(x) \ dx;$$





Theorem

Suppose that f and g are integrable. Let k be a number. Then

8 if $g(x) \ge 0$ on [a,b], then

$$\int_{a}^{b} g(x) \ dx \ge 0;$$

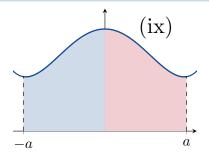


Theorem

Suppose that f and g are integrable. Let k be a number. Then

9 if f is an even function, then

$$\int_{-a}^{a} f(x) \ dx = 2 \int_{0}^{a} f(x) \ dx;$$

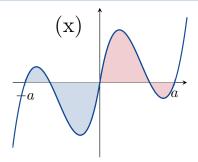




Theorem

Suppose that f and g are integrable. Let k be a number. Then if f is an odd function, then

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





Example

Suppose that
$$\int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dx = 5$$
, $\int_{1}^{4} f(x) dx = -2$ and $\int_{-1}^{1} h(x) dx = 7$. Then

$$\int_{4}^{1} f(x) \ dx = -\int_{1}^{4} f(x) \ dx = 2,$$

$$\int_{-1}^{1} (2f(x) + 3h(x)) dx = 2 \int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dx + 3 \int_{-1}^{1} h(x) dx$$
$$= 2(5) + 3(7) = 31$$

and

$$\int_{-1}^{4} f(x) dx = \int_{-1}^{1} f(x) dx + \int_{1}^{4} f(x) dx$$
$$= 5 + (-2) = 3.$$



Example

Show that
$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + \cos x} \ dx \le \sqrt{2}$$
.

solution: The maximum value of $\sqrt{1 + \cos x}$ on [0, 1] is $\sqrt{1+1} = \sqrt{2}$. Therefore

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + \cos x} \, dx \le (1 - 0) \max \sqrt{1 + \cos x} = 1 \times \sqrt{2}.$$



Example

Calculate
$$\int_{-2}^{2} (x^3 + x) dx$$
.

solution: Because $(x^3 + x)$ is an odd function, we have that

$$\int_{-2}^{2} (x^3 + x) \ dx = 0.$$



Example

Calculate
$$\int_{-1}^{1} (1-x^2) dx$$
.

solution: Because $(1-x^2)$ is an even function, we have that

$$\int_{-1}^{1} (1 - x^2) dx = 2 \int_{0}^{1} (1 - x^2) dx = 2 \times \frac{2}{3} = \frac{4}{3}.$$



Example

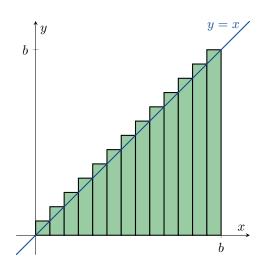
Calculate $\int_0^b x \, dx$ for b > 0.

solution 1: We will use a Riemann Sum. First we cut [0, b] in to n pieces using

$$0 < \frac{b}{n} < \frac{2b}{n} < \frac{3b}{n} < \ldots < \frac{(n-1)b}{n} < b$$

and $c_k = \frac{kb}{n}$. Note that $\Delta x_k = \frac{b}{n}$ for all k.







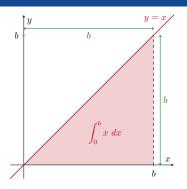
Then

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} f(c_k) \Delta x_k = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{kb}{n} \frac{b}{n} = \frac{b^2}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} k$$
$$= \frac{b^2}{n^2} \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right) = \frac{b^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right).$$

Then

$$\int_0^b x \, dx = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{b^2}{2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) = \frac{b^2}{2}.$$





solution 2: Alternately, we can look at the triangle above and say that

$$\int_0^b x \ dx = \text{area of a triangle} = \frac{1}{2} \times b \times b = \frac{b^2}{2}.$$



Example

$$\int_{a}^{b} x \, dx = \int_{a}^{0} x \, dx + \int_{0}^{b} x \, dx$$

$$= -\int_{0}^{a} x \, dx + \int_{0}^{b} x \, dx$$

$$= -\frac{a^{2}}{2} + \frac{b^{2}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{b^{2}}{2} - \frac{a^{2}}{2}.$$



Next Week

- 33. The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus
- 34. The Substitution Method
- 35. Area Between Curves