

## 10. Antiderivatives & Areas

### ANTIDERIVATIVES

A function  $F(x)$  is called an **antiderivative** of  $f(x)$  if  $F'(x) = f(x)$

**Example 10.1.** Guess an antiderivative for each of the following functions. Then check your answer by differentiating.

function $f(x)$	guess an antiderivative $F(x)$ of $f$	verify that $F'(x) = f(x)$
(a) $f(x) = 2x$	$F(x) = x^2$	$F'(x) = 2x = f(x)$ ✓
(b) $f(x) = 3x^2$	$F(x) = x^3$	$F'(x) = 3x^2 = f(x)$ ✓
(c) $f(x) = e^x$	$F(x) = e^x$	$F'(x) = e^x = f(x)$ ✓
(d) $f(x) = \cos(x)$	$F(x) = \sin(x)$	$F'(x) = \cos(x) = f(x)$ ✓
(e) $f(x) = 0$	$F(x) = C$	$F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}[C] = 0 = f(x)$ ✓
$C \in \mathbb{R}$ , could be any constant!		

In fact, since the derivative of any constant  $C \in \mathbb{R}$  is zero, we can always include a " $+C$ " (an arbitrary constant) to any antiderivative.

**Fact.** If  $F(x)$  and  $G(x)$  are both antiderivatives of  $f(x)$ , then  $F(x) - G(x) = C$ , for some constant  $C$ .

- Thus, if  $F$  and  $G$  are two distinct antiderivatives of  $f(x)$ , then the graphs of  $F$  and  $G$  are identical, up to a vertical translation.

**Theorem 10.2.** If  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$  on an interval  $I$ , then the most general antiderivative of  $f$  on  $I$  is  $F(x) + C$  where  $C$  is an arbitrary constant.

$\nwarrow$  the constant of integration

**Integral Notation:**

A diagram illustrating the components of the integral notation  $\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$ . 
 - The 'integral sign' ( $\int$ ) is shown with a blue arrow pointing to it from the left, labeled 'should both be used like opening + closing parentheses'.
 - The 'integrand' ( $f(x)$ ) is highlighted in green and labeled '(what we are integrating)' with an arrow below it.
 - The differential 'dx' is shown with a blue arrow pointing to it from the right, labeled 'the variable of integration'.
 - The result ' $F(x) + C$ ' is highlighted in yellow and labeled 'the most general antiderivative of the integrand  $f(x)$ ' with an orange arrow pointing to it from the bottom right.

### "UNDOING" BASIC RULES OF DIFFERENTIATION

Constants.

$$\int 0 dx = C$$

because  $\frac{d}{dx}[C] = 0$  ✓

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

because  $\frac{d}{dx}[kx + C] = k$  ✓

Powers.

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

"old" exponent becomes a constant multiple  
 exponent decreases by 1

- For the antiderivative of  $x^n$  we needed the "old" exponent to be  $n+1$  (to get  $n$  after differentiating)
- We also need to compensate for the "missing" constant multiple of the "old" exponent...

For  $n \neq -1$ ,

$$\int x^n dx = \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + C$$

BEWARE OF  $n = -1$

$\int x^{-1} dx$	$\cancel{\times}$	$\frac{1}{0} x^0 + C$
		undefined!

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + C\right] = \frac{1}{n+1}(n+1)x^{n+1-1} + 0 = x^n \quad \checkmark$$

The special power  $n = -1$        $x^{-1} = \frac{1}{x}$  is the derivative of  $\ln x$  (for  $x > 0$ )

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

$x^{-1} = \frac{1}{x}$  is the derivative of  $\ln|x|$  (for  $x \neq 0$ )

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

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\ln|x| + C] = \frac{1}{x} + 0 = \frac{1}{x} \quad \checkmark$$

Constant multiples ( $k \in \mathbb{R}$ )

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

Sums and differences.

$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

$$\int (f(x) - g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx - \int g(x) dx$$

Example 10.3. Find  $f(x)$  given that  $f'(x) = \frac{5}{x^6} + 8x^3 - \frac{2}{x}$  and  $f(1) = 2$ .

$f'(x) = 5x^{-6} + 8x^3 - 2x^{-1}$  so  $f(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f'(x)$ .

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = 5\left(\frac{1}{(-6+1)}x^{-6+1}\right) + 8\left(\frac{1}{(3+1)}x^{3+1}\right) - 2\ln|x| + C$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = 5\left(\frac{1}{-5}x^{-5}\right) + 8\left(\frac{1}{4}x^4\right) - 2\ln|x| + C$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = -\frac{1}{x^5} + 2x^4 - 2\ln|x| + C$$

Now, using the initial value  $f(1) = 2$ , we can solve for the constant  $C$ .

$$\Rightarrow 2 = f(1) = -\frac{1}{1^5} + 2(1^4) - 2\ln|1| + C$$

$$\Rightarrow 2 = -1 + 2 - 2(0) + C$$

$$\Rightarrow C = 1.$$

$$\therefore f(x) = -\frac{1}{x^5} + 2x^4 - 2\ln|x| + 1$$

Trig functions.

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\sin x + C] = \cos x + 0 = \cos x \checkmark$$

$$\int \sin(x) dx = -\cos(x) + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} [-\cos x + C] = -(-\sin x) + 0 = \sin x \checkmark$$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\tan x + C] = \sec^2 x + 0 = \sec^2 x \checkmark$$

:

\*for any recognizable derivative, you should know its antiderivative...

Example 10.4. Verify that  $F(x) = -\ln |\cos x| + C$  is an antiderivative of  $\tan x$ .

We must check that  $F'(x) = \tan x$ .

$$\frac{d}{dx} [F(x)] = \frac{d}{dx} [-\ln |\cos x| + C] = -\underbrace{\frac{1}{\cos x} (-\sin x)}_{\text{using ln chain rule}} = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} = \tan x \checkmark$$

Exponential functions.

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

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

$$\int b^x dx = \frac{1}{\ln(b)} b^x + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ \frac{1}{\ln(b)} b^x + C \right] = \frac{1}{\ln(b)} (\ln b) b^x = b^x \checkmark$$

Keep in mind  
 $\frac{d}{dx} [b^x] = (\ln b) b^x$

Inverse trig functions.

$$\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \arctan(x) + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\arctan(x) + C] = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \checkmark$$

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \arcsin(x) + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\arcsin(x) + C] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \checkmark$$

:

\*again, if you're faced with a recognizable derivative (or constant multiple of) then you should know its antiderivative.

## "UNDOING" LESS BASIC RULES OF DIFFERENTIATION

**Example 10.5.** Verify that  $x \ln x - x$  is an antiderivative of  $\ln(x)$ .

We must check that  $F'(x) = \ln(x)$ .

$$\frac{d}{dx}[F(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}[x \ln x - x] = (1)\ln x + x\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) - 1 = \ln x + 1 - 1 = \ln x \quad \checkmark$$

product rule

**Example 10.6.** Try to determine (guess!) an antiderivative for each of the following functions. Verify (check!) your answer by differentiating.

function	antiderivative?	check
(a) $2xe^{x^2}$ <small>looks like the aftermath of an exp. chain rule?</small>	$e^{x^2}$	$\frac{d}{dx}[e^{x^2}] = (e^{x^2})(2x) \quad \checkmark$
(b) $3x^2 \sin x + x^3 \cos x$ <small>looks like aftermath of a product rule?</small>	$x^3 \sin x$	$\frac{d}{dx}[x^3 \sin x] = (3x^2)(\sin x) + (x^3)(\cos x) \quad \checkmark$
(c) $\cot(x) = \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$ <small>looks like aftermath of a ln chain rule?</small>	$\ln \sin x $	$\frac{d}{dx}[\ln \sin x ] = \frac{1}{\sin x}(\cos x) = \cot x \quad \checkmark$
(d) $e^{ax+b}$ where $a$ and $b$ are constant real numbers. <small>looks like aftermath of exp. chain rule?</small>	$\frac{1}{a} e^{ax+b}$	$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{1}{a} e^{ax+b}\right] = \frac{1}{a}(e^{ax+b})(a+0) = e^{ax+b} \quad \checkmark$
(e) $\frac{g'(x)}{g(x)}$ <small>looks like aftermath of a ln chain rule?</small>	$\ln g(x) $	$\frac{d}{dx}[\ln g(x) ] = \frac{1}{g(x)}(g'(x)) = \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)} \quad \checkmark$
(f) $e^x [e^x + 8]^{10}$ <small>looks like aftermath of a power chain rule?</small>	$\frac{1}{11} (e^x + 8)^{11}$	$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{1}{11} (e^x + 8)^{11}\right] = \left(\frac{1}{11}\right)(11)(e^x + 8)^{10}(e^x + 0) = e^x (e^x + 8)^{10} \quad \checkmark$

**Exercise 10.7.** Determine an equation for the height of a ball at time  $t$  if the ball is thrown with an initial upwards velocity of  $v_0$  m/s, from an initial height of  $h_0$  m above the ground, on Earth where acceleration due to gravity is  $-9.8$  m/s $^2$ .

$$\text{acceleration } a(t) = -9.8 \text{ m/s}^2$$

↑ is the rate of change of the ball's velocity with respect to time  
i.e.  $a(t) = v'(t)$

$\Rightarrow v(t)$  is an antiderivative of  $a(t)$ . Moreover,  $v(0) = v_0$  m/s.

$$\Rightarrow v(t) = -9.8t + C \quad \text{Using } v(0) = v_0 \text{ we solve for } C$$

$$v_0 = -9.8(0) + C \Rightarrow C = v_0$$

$$\therefore \text{velocity is given by } v(t) = -9.8t + v_0$$

↑ is the rate of change of the ball's height with respect to time  
i.e.  $v(t) = h'(t)$

$\Rightarrow h(t)$  is an antiderivative of  $v(t)$ . Moreover,  $h(0) = h_0$  m/s.

$$\Rightarrow h(t) = -9.8\left(\frac{1}{2}t^2\right) + v_0 t + K \quad \text{using } h(0) = h_0 \text{ we solve for } K$$

$$= -4.9t^2 + v_0 t + K$$

$$h_0 = -4.9(0^2) + v_0(0) + K$$

$$\Rightarrow K = h_0$$

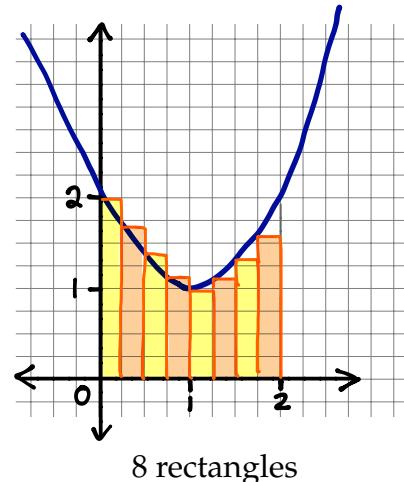
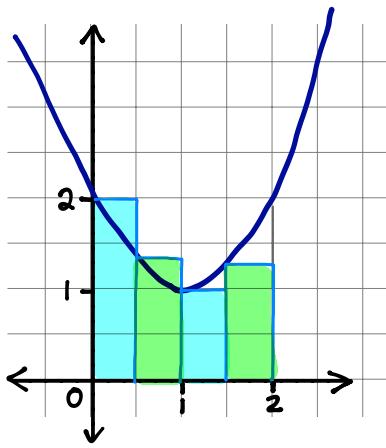
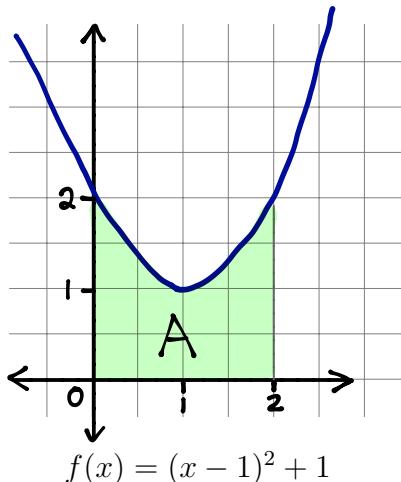
$$\therefore \text{height is given by } h(t) = -4.9t^2 + v_0 t + h_0$$

## AREAS & RIEMANN SUMS

**Example 10.8.** Let  $f(x) = (x - 1)^2 + 1$ .

What is the area of the region under the graph of  $f$ , above the  $x$ -axis between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2$ ?

This is not a standard shape, so we do not have an area formula.



We can try to estimate the area using several rectangles:

- If we use  $n = 4$  rectangles, then each rectangle has width  $\Delta x = 0.5$  (this is because we are chopping the interval  $[0, 2]$  into four equal pieces).
- If we use  $n = 8$  rectangles instead, then each rectangle has width 0.25 (this is because we are chopping the interval  $[0, 2]$  into eight equal pieces).
- For the height of each rectangle, we will use the  $y$ -coordinate of  $f$  at the appropriate value of  $x$  (for now, we'll use the  $x$ -coordinate at the bottom left corner of each rectangle).

$$L_4 = \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{Estimate of area using} \\ \text{4 rectangles with} \\ \text{left endpoint heights} \end{array} \right]$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\approx (\text{area of 1st rectangle}) + (\text{area of 2nd rectangle}) + (\text{area of 3rd rectangle}) + (\text{area of 4th rectangle}) \\ &= \left( \underbrace{0.5}_{\text{width 1st rect.}} \times \underbrace{f(0)}_{\text{height 1st rect.}} \right) + \left( \underbrace{0.5}_{\text{width 2nd rect.}} \times \underbrace{f(0.5)}_{\text{height 2nd rect.}} \right) + \left( \underbrace{0.5}_{\text{width 3rd rect.}} \times \underbrace{f(1)}_{\text{height 3rd rect.}} \right) + \left( \underbrace{0.5}_{\text{width 4th rect.}} \times \underbrace{f(1.5)}_{\text{height 4th rect.}} \right) \\ &= (0.5 \times 2) + (0.5 \times 1.25) + (0.5 \times 1) + (0.5 \times 1.25) \\ &= [2 + 1.25 + 1 + 1.25](0.5) = 2.75 \end{aligned}$$

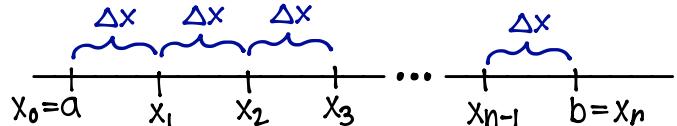
$L_8 = \left[ \begin{array}{l} \text{Estimate of area using} \\ 8 \text{ rectangles with} \\ \text{left endpoint heights} \end{array} \right]$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \approx (\text{area of 1st rectangle}) + (\text{area of 2nd rectangle}) + (\text{area of 3rd rectangle}) + (\text{area of 4th rectangle}) \\
 & \quad + (\text{area of 5th rectangle}) + (\text{area of 6th rectangle}) + (\text{area of 7th rectangle}) + (\text{area of 8th rectangle}) \\
 & = (0.25 \times f(0)) + (0.25 \times f(0.25)) + (0.25 \times f(0.5)) + (0.25 \times f(0.75)) \\
 & \quad + (0.25 \times f(1)) + (0.25 \times f(1.25)) + (0.25 \times f(1.5)) + (0.25 \times f(1.75)) \\
 & = [1 + 1.5625 + 1.25 + 1.0625 + 1 + 1.0625 + 1.25 + 1.5625] 0.25 = 2.6875
 \end{aligned}$$

### General Observations:

- If we chopped the interval into even more (thinner) rectangles, we would get better and better estimates of the actual area.
- Using  $n$  rectangles, each of width  $\Delta x$ , where  $\Delta x$  is the interval length divided by  $n$ , we can estimate the net area between any continuous function and the  $x$ -axis from  $x = a$  to  $x = b$ .

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



• for  $i=0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ , let  $x_i = a + i\Delta x$

- The bigger  $n$  gets, the smaller  $\Delta x$  gets (more rectangles, but they are thinner).
- For the height of the  $i$ th rectangle, we could just as well have used the  $x$ -coordinate at the bottom right corner of each rectangle, or the  $x$ -coordinate at the midpoint of the rectangles two sides, or some other sample point  $x_i^*$ .

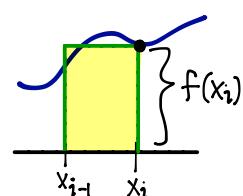
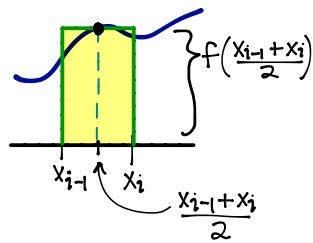
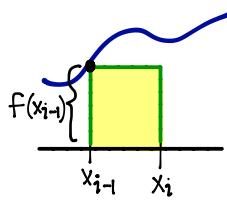
• base of  $i$ th rectangle is the  $i$ th subinterval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$

• height of  $i$ th rectangle could be

left endpoint

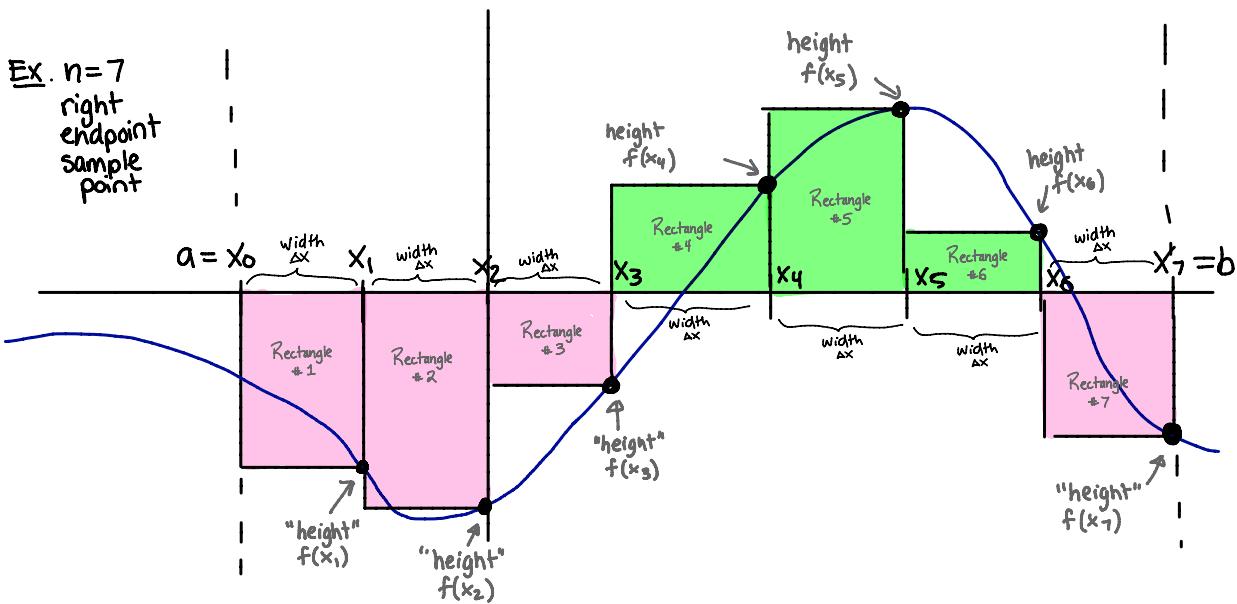
midpoint

right endpoint



- The widths of the rectangles did not all have to be equal (but having them all of equal width made the calculation more straightforward).

→ Ex.  $n=7$   
right endpoint sample point



- for  $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ , the  $i$ th subinterval is  $\underbrace{[x_{i-1}, x_i]}$   
the base of rectangle # $i$

- from each subinterval, choose a sample point  $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$

- for  $i=1, 2, \dots, n$ , we will use  $f(x_i^*)$  as the height of rectangle # $i$

- the sum  $f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \dots + f(x_n^*)\Delta x$  is denoted  $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x$
- $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x$  is called a Riemann Sum.

It gives an approximation of the net area between  $f(x)$  and the  $x$ -axis on the interval  $[a, b]$ .

Ex  $f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + f(x_3)\Delta x + f(x_4)\Delta x + f(x_5)\Delta x + f(x_6)\Delta x + f(x_7)\Delta x$   $\approx$  Net Area between  $f$  and  $x$ -axis on  $[a, b]$

$-\text{(area of rectangle } \#1\text{)} + -\text{(area of rectangle } \#2\text{)} + -\text{(area of rectangle } \#3\text{)} + \text{(area of rectangle } \#4\text{)} + \text{(area of rectangle } \#5\text{)} + \text{(area of rectangle } \#6\text{)} - \text{(area of rectangle } \#7\text{)}$

## STUDY GUIDE

- ◊ an antiderivative vs. the most general antiderivative
- ◊ undoing basic rules of differentiation
- ◊ some ideas for undoing less basic rules of differentiation

- ◊ approximating area (or distance) using a Riemann sum:  $A \approx \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x$