

Lecture 7 (Integrals)

Antiderivatives (section 4.9)

Very often we need to solve a reverse problem: we need to find a function, $F(x)$, whose derivative, $f(x)$, is known.

Definition: A function F is called an **antiderivative** of f on (a, b) , if

$$F'(x) = f(x), \quad x \in (a, b)$$

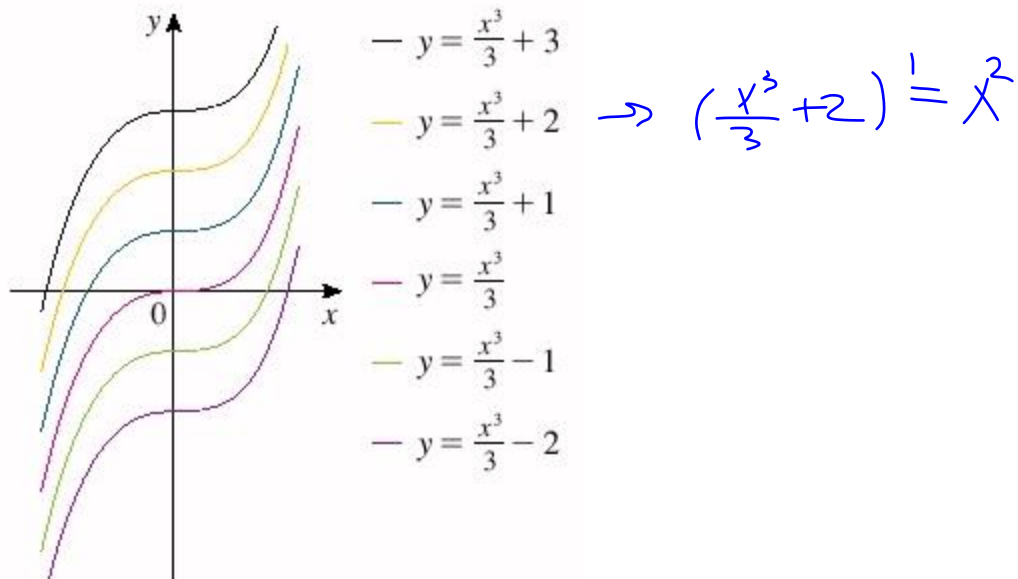
Example: $f(x) = x^2$

$$\frac{1}{3} (x^3)' = \frac{1}{3} 3x^2 = x^2$$

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{3} x^3$$

$$\text{check: } F'(x) = \left(\frac{1}{3} x^3\right)' = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 3x^2 = x^2$$

$$G'(x) = \left(\frac{1}{3} x^3 + 5\right)' = x^2$$



Theorem: If F is an antiderivative of f on (a, b) , then the most general antiderivative of f on (a, b) is

$$F(x) + C$$

where C is a constant

Example: $f(x) = x^n$

$$\frac{1}{n+1} (x^{n+1})' = \frac{(n+1) x^n}{n+1} = x^n$$

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + C$$

Function	Antiderivative
x^n	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x + C$
e^x	$e^x + C$
$\cos x$	$\sin x + C$
$\sin x$	$-\cos x + C$
$\sec^2 x$	$\tan x + C$
$\sec x \tan x$	$\sec x + C$
$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	$\sin^{-1} x + C$
$\frac{1}{1+x^2}$	$\tan^{-1} x + C$

Example: $f(x) = 2e^x - \sin x + 1$. Find the antiderivative, $F(x)$.

$$F(x) = 2e^x + \cos x + x + C$$

Check:

$$F'(x) = 2e^x - \sin x + 1 = f(x)$$

Example: Given $f''(x) = 2 + \cos x$, $f(0) = -1$, $f\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0$. Find f .

antiderivative

$$\text{of } f''(x) \leftarrow f'(x) = 2x + \sin x + C$$

$$\text{Check: } f''(x) = 2 + \cos x$$

antiderivative

$$\begin{aligned} \text{of } f'(x) \leftarrow f(x) &= 2 \cdot \frac{x^2}{2} - \cos x + Cx + D \\ &= x^2 - \cos x + Cx + D \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Check: } f'(x) = 2x + \sin x + C$$

$$-1 = f(0) = 0^2 - 1 + C \cdot 0 + D \Rightarrow D = 0$$

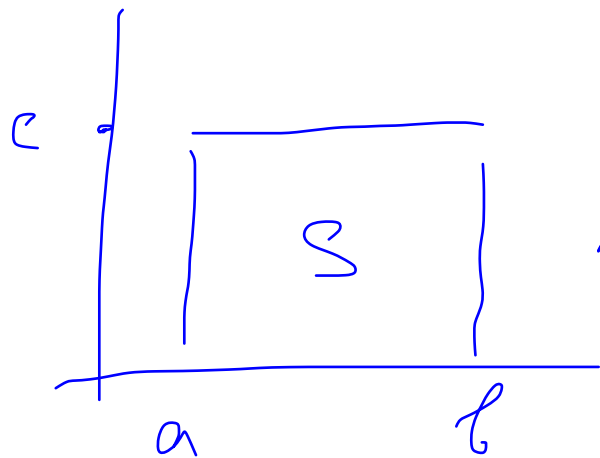
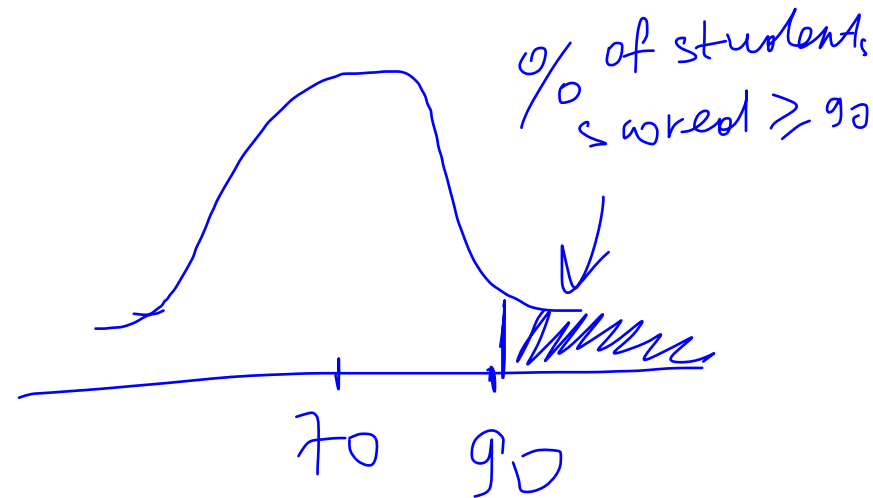
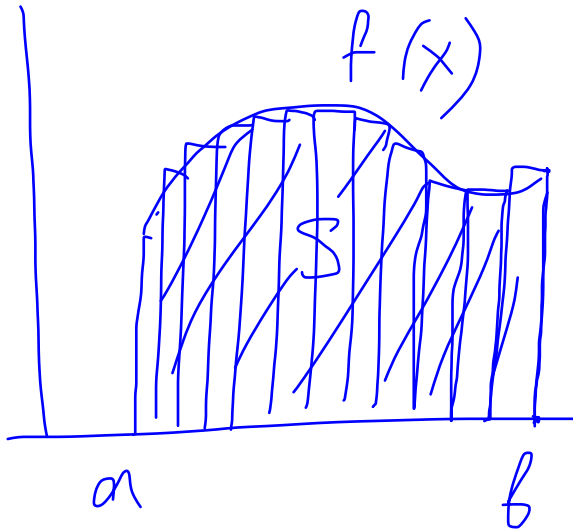
$$0 = f\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)^2 - 0 + C \cdot \frac{\pi}{2} + 0 \Rightarrow C = -\frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\boxed{f(x) = x^2 + \cos x - \frac{\pi}{2}x}$$

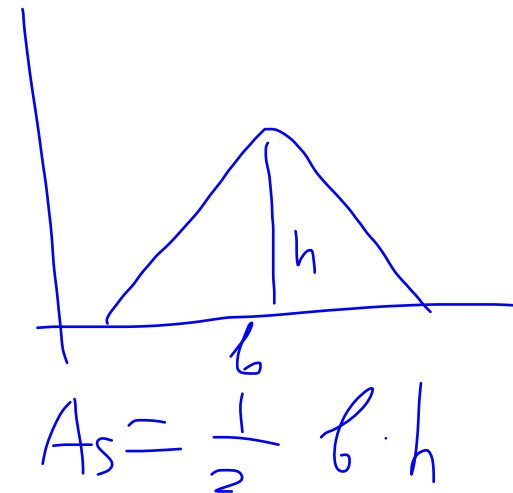
Area Problem

Find the area of the region under the curve $y = f(x)$ from a to b .

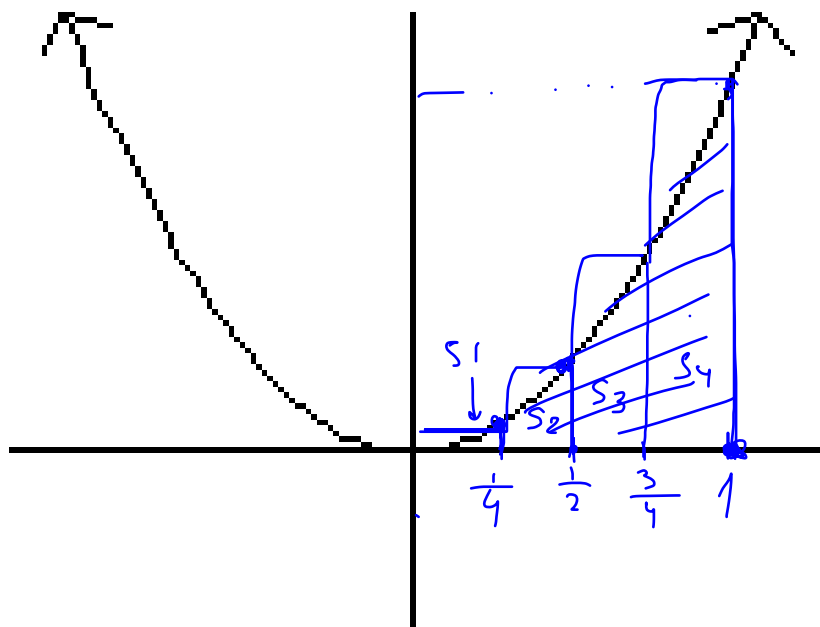
$$A_s = ?$$



$$A_s = c(b-a)$$



Example: Estimate the area under $y = x^2$ on $(0, 1)$.



$$0 < A_S < 1$$

$$A_S = A_{S_1} + A_{S_2} + A_{S_3} + A_{S_4}$$

$A_{S_1} \approx$ area of rectangle

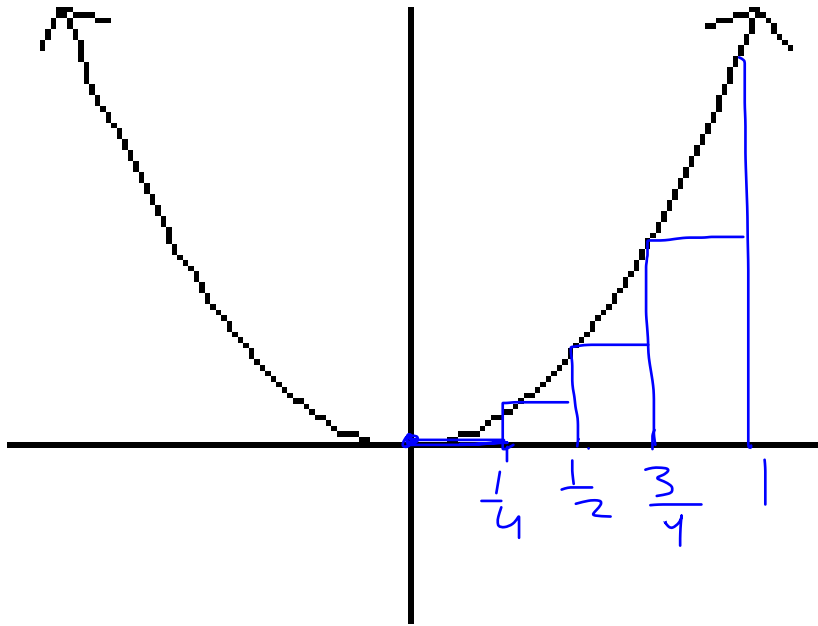
$$= \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2$$

$$A_{S_2} \approx \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2$$

$$A_S \approx \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} (1)^2$$

$$= 0.469 = R_4 \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \# \text{ of} \\ \text{intervals} \\ \downarrow \\ \text{right end point} \end{array}$$

$$A_S < 0.469$$



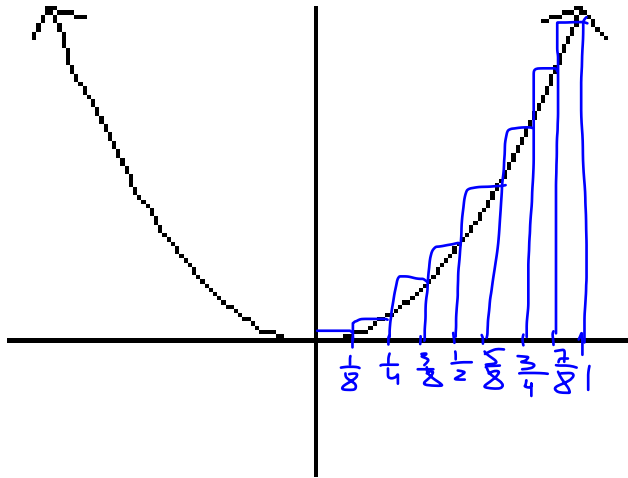
\swarrow 4
 \downarrow
 left
 end
 point

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{3}{4} \right)^2$$

$$= 0.219$$

$$A_S > 0.219$$

$$0.219 < A_S < 0.469$$



$$R_8 = \frac{1}{8} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{8} \cdot 1^2$$

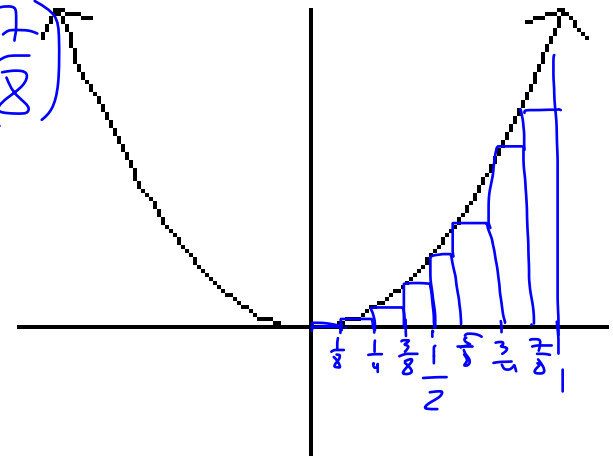
$$= 0.398$$

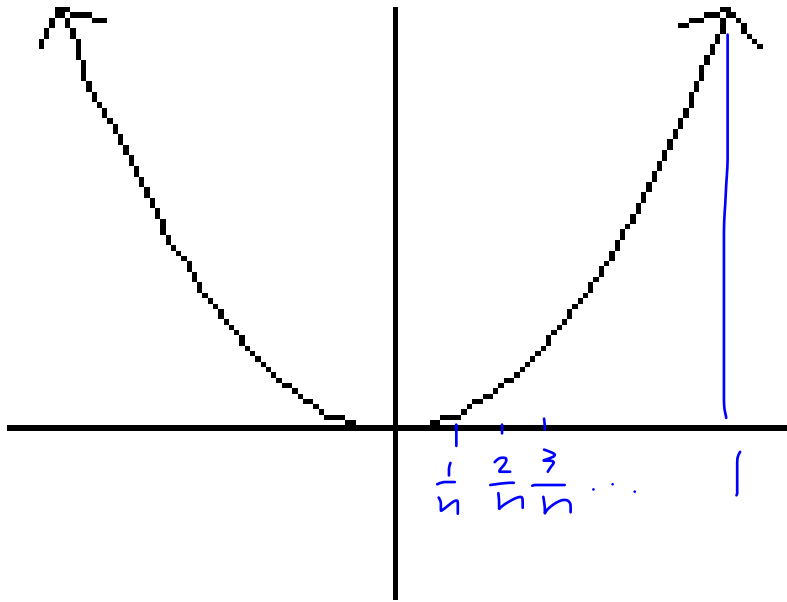
$$A_S < 0.398$$

$$L_8 = \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{7}{8}\right)^2$$

$$= 0.273 < A_S$$

$$0.273 < A_S < 0.398$$



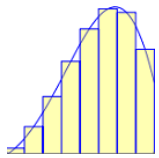


$$A_S \approx \frac{0.3328 + 0.3338}{2}$$

$$\approx 0.333$$

$A_S = \text{limit} \left[\begin{array}{l} \text{sum of areas} \\ \text{of rectangles} \end{array} \right]$
 as the width of rectangle $\rightarrow 0$
 $n \rightarrow \infty$

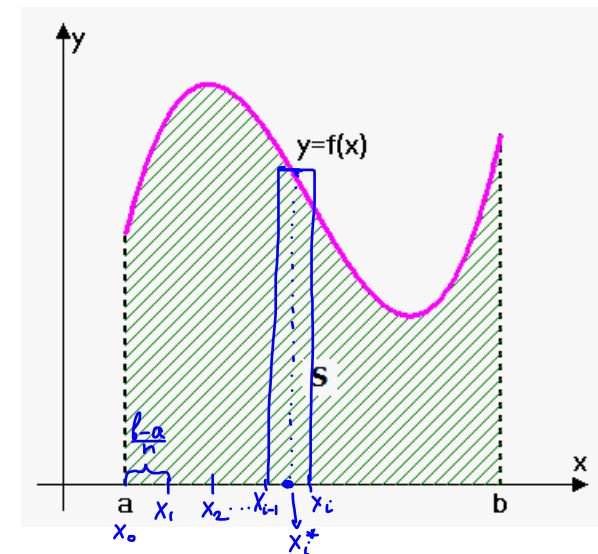
n	L_n	R_n
10	0.285	0.385
30	0.317	0.350
100	0.328	0.338
1000	0.3328	0.3338



Riemann Sums

Our goal is to find a formula for the area which is bounded by the graph of the continuous function f defined on $[a, b]$.

To achieve that, we divide the interval $[a, b]$ into n equal subintervals of the width $\frac{b-a}{n}$. Then we choose points $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$, called **sample points**.



We denote by R_i the area of the rectangle with height $f(x_i^*)$ and width

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}, \text{ i.e.}$$

$$R_i = f(x_i^*) \cdot \Delta x$$

\swarrow height \searrow width

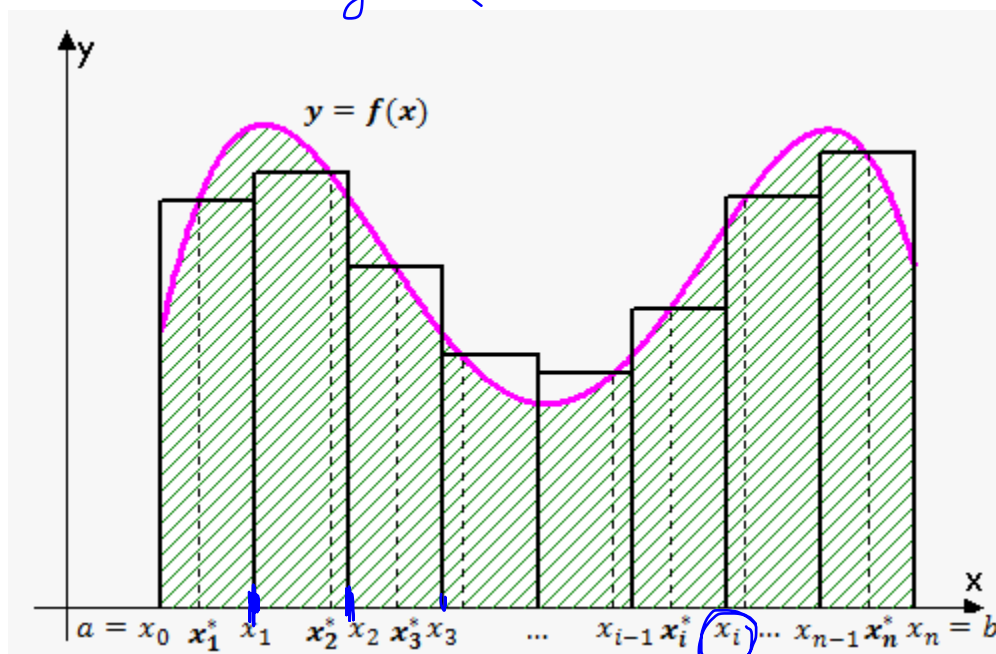
Definition: The **area** A of the region S that lies under the graph of the continuous function f is the limit of the sum of the areas of approximating rectangles:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [R_1 + \dots + R_n] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_1^*) \cdot \Delta x + \dots + f(x_n^*) \cdot \Delta x]$$

$\approx \frac{b-a}{h}$

In **sigma notation**: $A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \cdot \Delta x$

↓
sigma



$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$= x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^5$$

$$= 1 + 2 + \dots + n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^3 = 1 + 2 + 3$$

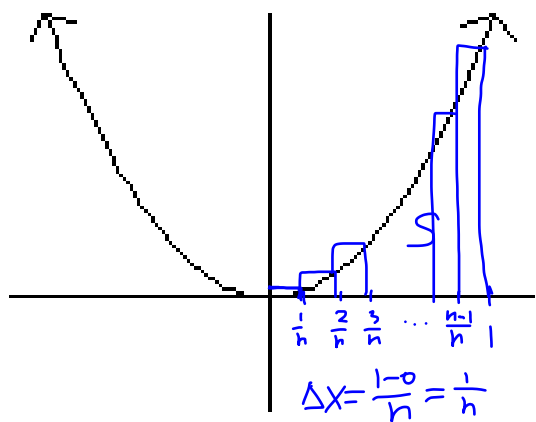
Definition: The sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \cdot \Delta x$$

is called a **Riemann sum**.

Back to our

Example: Estimate the area under $y = x^2$ on $(0, 1)$



$$x_i = \frac{i}{n}$$

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$$

↓
right endpoint
point

$$x_1 = \frac{1}{n}, x_2 = \frac{2}{n}, x_3 = \frac{3}{n}, \dots, x_n = 1$$

$$A = \lim \sum f(x_i) \Delta x$$

$$x_i = \frac{i}{n}, \quad \Delta x = \frac{1}{n}, \quad f(x) = x^2$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{i}{n}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{n} + \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{n} + \dots + \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{n} \right]$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^3} [1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2]$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n i^2$$

Useful formula:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^3} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} (n+1)(2n+1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} (n+1) \cdot \frac{1}{n} (2n+1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) \left(2 + \frac{1}{n}\right) = \frac{1}{6} \cdot 1 \cdot 2 = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx$$

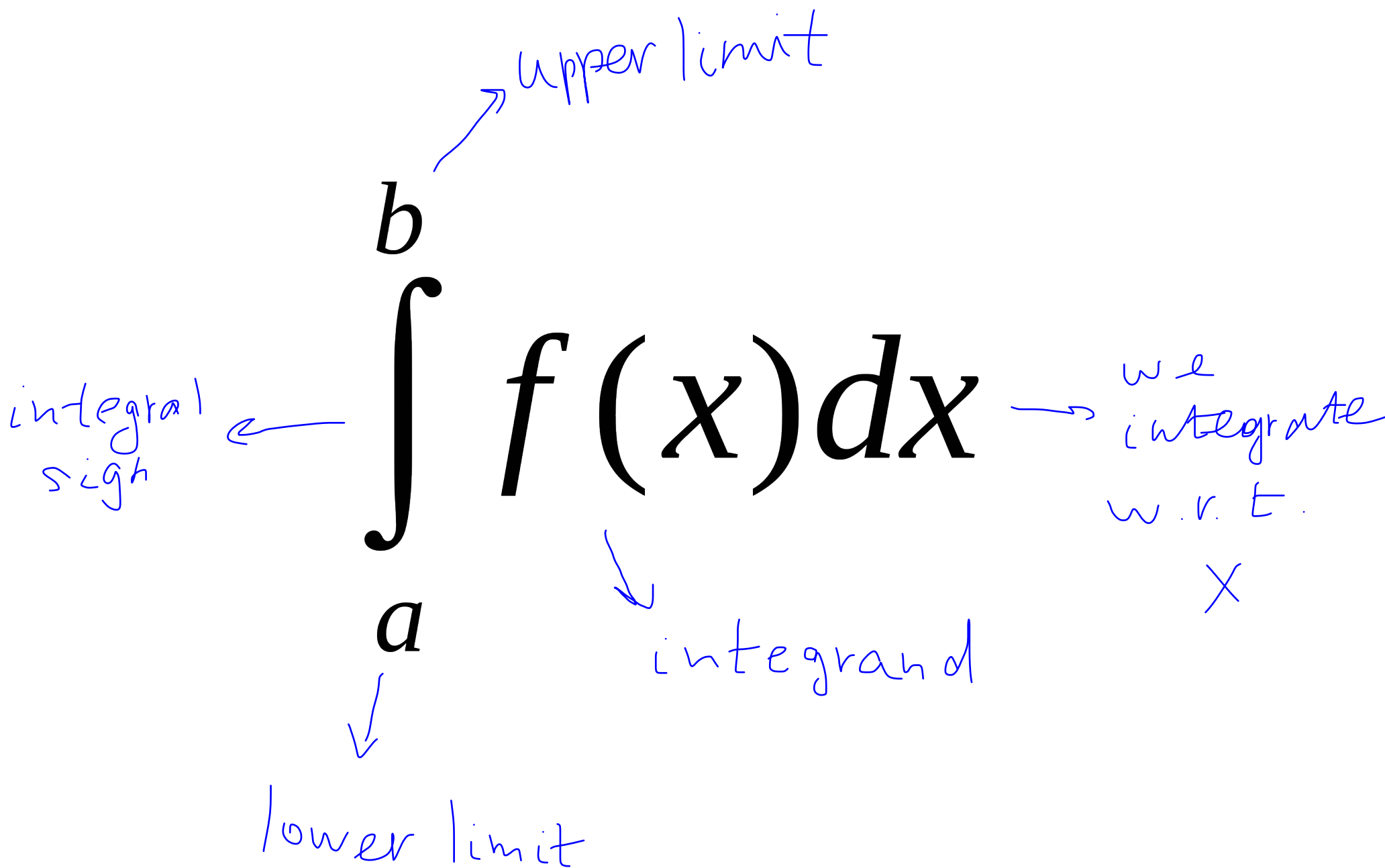
Definite Integral

We tried to estimate the area of the region by subdividing the interval into many subintervals. Our goal is to get the exact area, not just an estimate (like we did in the previous example).

Definition: Let f be a function defined on $[a, b]$. We divide $[a, b]$ into n subintervals of equal width $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$, and let $a = x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n = b$ be the endpoints of these subinterval and we let $x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_n^*$ be any sample points of these subintervals, i.e. $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$. Then the **definite integral of f from a to b** is

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x$$

provided that this limit exists. If it does exist, f is called **integrable** on $[a, b]$.



Theorem: If f is integrable on $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x$$

where $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ and $x_i = a + i\Delta x$ (right endpoints).

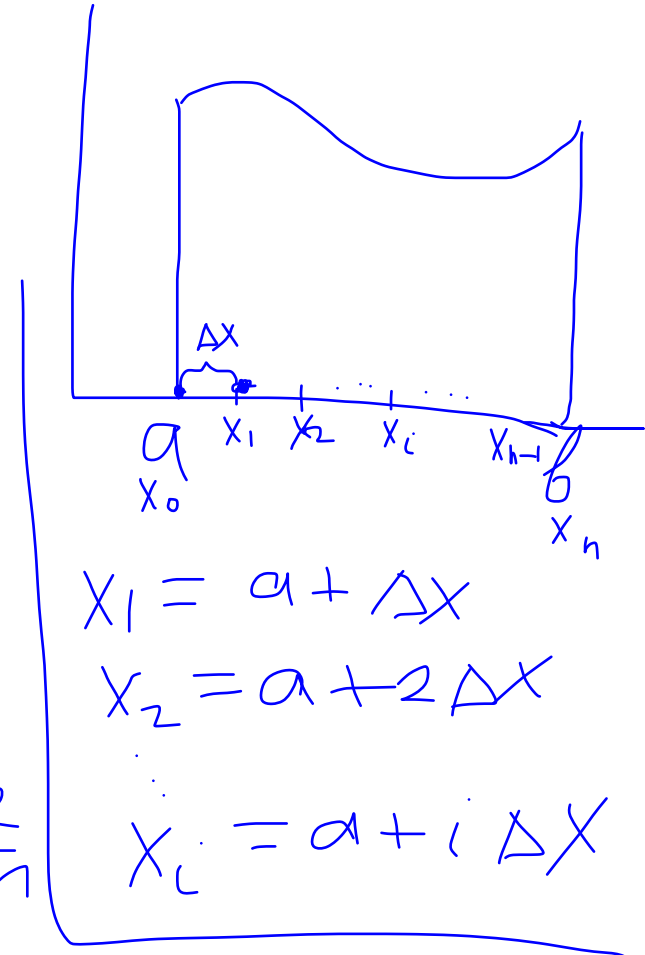
Example: Evaluate $\int_0^2 (2x - x^3) dx$

$$f(x) = 2x - x^3, \quad \Delta x = \frac{2-0}{n} = \frac{2}{n}$$

$$x_i = a + i\Delta x = 0 + i \cdot \frac{2}{n} = \frac{2}{n}i$$

$$\int_0^2 (2x - x^3) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[2 \cdot \frac{2}{n}i - \left(\frac{2}{n}i \right)^3 \right] \frac{2}{n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{4}{n}i + \frac{8}{n^3}i^3 \right] \frac{2}{n}$$



Rules for sigma notation:

- $\sum_{i=1}^n c = nc$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n c = \underbrace{c + c + \dots + c}_{n \text{ times}} = nc$$

- $\sum_{i=1}^n cx_i = c \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n cx_i &= cx_1 + cx_2 + \dots + cx_n = c(x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n) \\ &= c \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \end{aligned}$$

- $\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \pm y_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \pm \sum_{i=1}^n y_i$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i \pm y_i) &= x_1 \pm y_1 + x_2 \pm y_2 + \dots + x_n \pm y_n \\ &= (x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n) \pm (y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_n) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \pm \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \end{aligned}$$

Useful formulas:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \left[\frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right]^2$$

$$= 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n$$

$$= 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2$$

$$= 1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + \dots + n^3$$

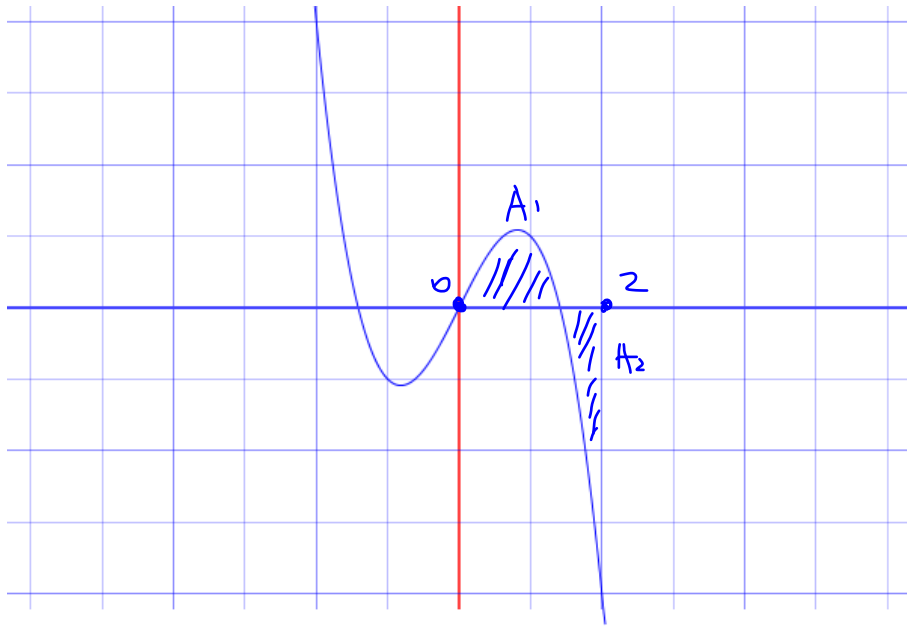
Back to $\int_0^2 (2x - x^3) dx$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\frac{4}{n} i - \frac{8}{n^3} i^3 \right] \frac{2}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{4}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n i - \frac{8}{n^3} \sum_{i=1}^n i^3 \right] \frac{2}{n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{4}{n} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} - \frac{8}{n^3} \cdot \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right)^2 \right] \cdot \frac{2}{n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{4}{n} (n+1) - \frac{4}{n^2} (n+1)^2 \right] = 4 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{n+1}{n} - \left(\frac{n+1}{n} \right)^2 \right]$$

$$= 4 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[1 + \frac{1}{n} - \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^2 \right] = 0$$



$$\int_0^2 (2x - x^3) dx$$
$$= A_1 - A_2$$

Properties of Definite Integral

- $\int_a^b f(x) dx = -\int_b^a f(x) dx$

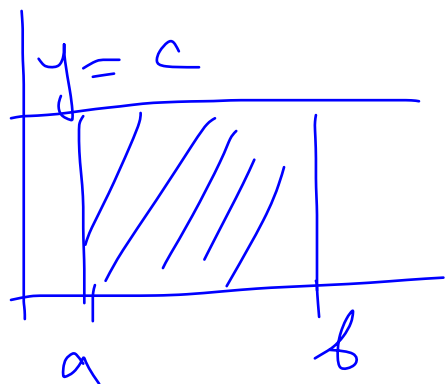
Proof:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \frac{b-a}{n} = -\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \frac{a-b}{n} = -\int_b^a f(x) dx$$

- $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$ since $\frac{a-a}{n} = 0$

- $\int_a^b c dx = c(b-a)$

Proof:



$$A = c(b-a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b c dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n c \frac{b-a}{n} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{b-a}{n} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c \cdot \frac{b-a}{n} \cdot n \\ &= c(b-a) \end{aligned}$$

- $\int_a^b cf(x)dx = c \int_a^b f(x)dx$

- $\int_a^b [f(x) \pm g(x)]dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx \pm \int_a^b g(x)dx$

Proof:

$$\int_a^b [f(x) + g(x)]dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n [f(x_i) + g(x_i)] \Delta x$$

$$= \lim \sum f(x_i) \Delta x + \lim \sum g(x_i) \Delta x$$

$$= \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$$

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

Example: Evaluate $\int_0^1 (1 - 2x^2) dx$

$$\int_0^1 (1 - 2x^2) dx = \int_0^1 1 dx - 2 \int_0^1 x^2 dx$$

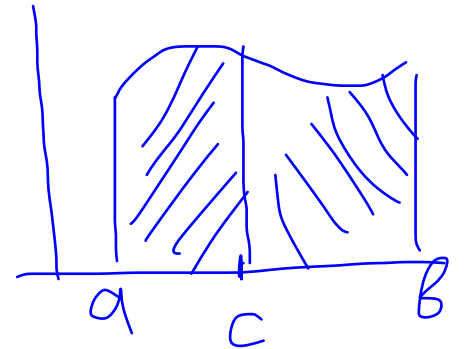
$$= 1 \cdot (1 - 0) - 2 \cdot \frac{1}{3}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{2}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

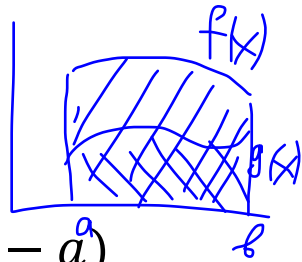
↑
calculated
it earlier

More properties...

- $\int_a^c f(x)dx + \int_c^b f(x)dx = \int_a^b f(x)dx, \quad a < c < b$

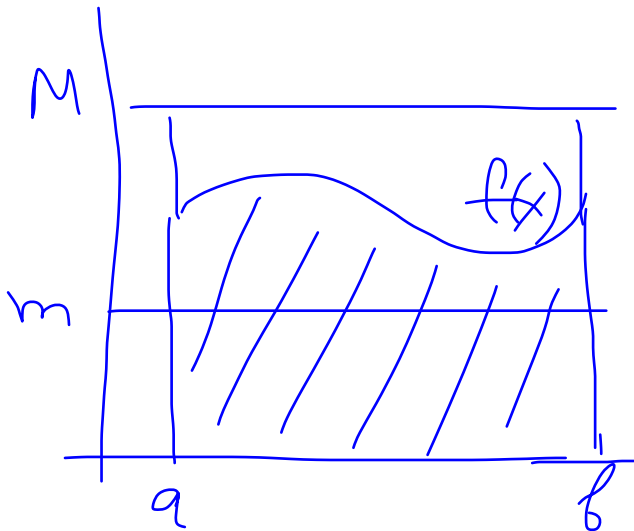


- If $f(x) \geq g(x)$ for $a \leq x \leq b$, then $\int_a^b f(x)dx \geq \int_a^b g(x)dx$



- If $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ for $a \leq x \leq b$ then $m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x)dx \leq M(b-a)$

Proof:



$$\begin{aligned} \text{area under } y=m &\leq \int_a^b f(x)dx \leq \text{area under } y=M \\ m(b-a) &\leq \int_a^b f(x)dx \leq M(b-a) \end{aligned}$$

Example: Use the last property to estimate $\int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{1+x^2} dx$.

$$f(x) = \sqrt{1+x^2}, \quad [-1, 1]$$

$$-1 \leq x \leq 1$$

$$0 \leq x^2 \leq 1$$

$$1 \leq 1+x^2 \leq 2$$

$$m = \sqrt{1} \leq \sqrt{1+x^2} \leq \sqrt{2} = M$$

$$\sqrt{1} (1 - (-1)) \leq \int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{1+x^2} dx \leq \sqrt{2} (1 - (-1))$$

$$2 \leq \int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{1+x^2} dx \leq 2\sqrt{2}$$

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (FTC)

The FTC consists of two parts:

Part I: If f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and

$$g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

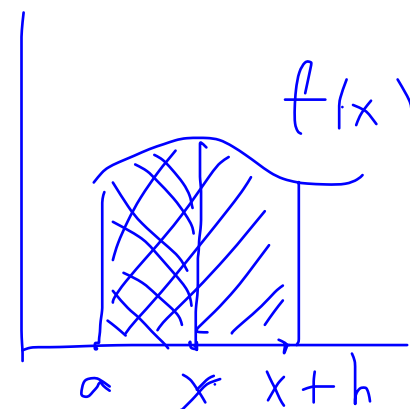
Then g is an antiderivative of f , i.e.

$$g' = f$$

Proof:

$$g'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h}$$

$$\begin{aligned} g(x+h) - g(x) &= \int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt \\ &= \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \end{aligned}$$



Proof (continued):

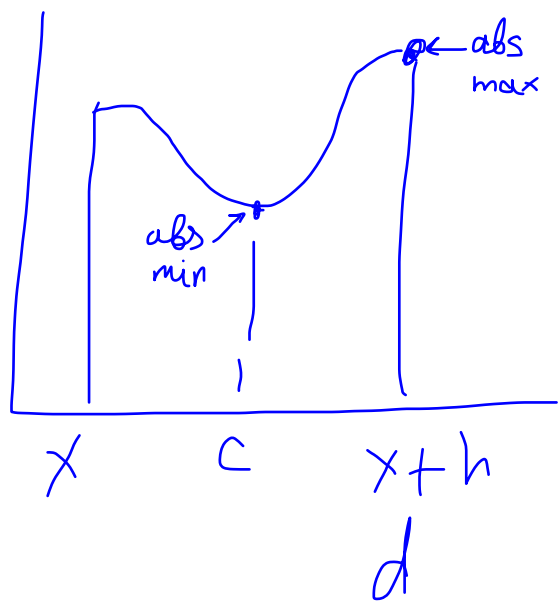
$$\frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h} = \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt$$

Let $h > 0$, f is continuous on $[x, x+h]$

Then there are $c, d \in [x, x+h]$

$$\text{s.t. } f(c) = m \text{ - abs. min}$$

$$f(d) = M \text{ - abs. max}$$



$$m \leq f(t) \leq M$$

$$m(x+h-x) \leq \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \leq M(x+h-x)$$

$$mh \leq \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \leq Mh$$

Proof (continued):

$$f(c) = m \leq \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \leq M = f(d)$$

As $h \rightarrow 0$ $[x, x+h] \rightarrow x \Rightarrow c, d \rightarrow x$

$$\text{So, as } h \rightarrow 0, \begin{matrix} f(c) \rightarrow f(x) \\ f(d) \rightarrow f(x) \end{matrix}$$

By the Squeeze Thm,

$$\frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \xrightarrow{h \rightarrow 0} f(x)$$

$$g'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = f(x) \quad \square$$

Example: Find the derivative of $g(x) = \int_3^x e^{t^2-t} dt$

$$g'(x) \underset{\text{FTC, I}}{=} f(x) = e^{x^2-x}$$

Example: Find the derivative of $h(x) = \int_{\sin x}^1 \sqrt{1+t^2} dt$

→
quiz

$$= - \int^{\sin x} \sqrt{1+t^2} dt$$

If $g(x) = \int_1^x \sqrt{1+t^2} dt$

$$h(x) = -g(\sin x)$$

$$h'(x) = -g'(\sin x) \cdot \cos x$$

$$g'(x) \underset{\text{FTC, I}}{=} \sqrt{1+x^2} \quad \Bigg| \quad = -\sqrt{1+\sin^2 x} \cdot \cos x$$

Part II: If F is any antiderivative of f , i.e. $F' = f$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

Note: FTC shows that differentiation and integration are inverse processes.

Proof:

$$g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \xRightarrow{\text{FTC, I}} g'(x) = f(x)$$

g is also antiderivative of f .

$$\text{So, } F(x) = g(x) + C$$

$$F(b) - F(a) = g(b) + C - [g(a) + C]$$
$$= g(b) - g(a) = g(b) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$$

$$g(a) = \int_a^a f(t) dt = 0$$



Example: Evaluate the integral $\int_0^1 x^2 dx$.

$$x^n \rightarrow \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1}$$

$$\int_0^1 x^2 dx = F(1) - F(0) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 1^3 - \frac{1}{3} \cdot 0^3$$

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{3} x^3$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}$$

Example: Evaluate the integral $\int_1^5 e^{x+1} dx$.

$$= \int_1^5 e \cdot e^x dx = e \int_1^5 e^x dx$$

$$= e \left[e^x \right]_1^5 = e \cdot \left[e^5 - e^1 \right]$$

$F(x)$ $F(5) - F(1)$

$$= e^6 - e^2$$

quiz

Example: Evaluate the integral $\int_1^2 \frac{1+x^2}{x^3} dx$. $= \int_1^2 \left[\frac{1}{x^3} + \frac{1}{x} \right] dx$

$$\frac{1}{x^3} = x^{-3} \rightarrow \frac{x^{-3+1}}{-3+1} = -\frac{x^{-2}}{2}$$

$$\frac{1}{x} \rightarrow \ln x$$

$$= \left[-\frac{x^{-2}}{2} + \ln x \right]_1^2$$

$$= \left[-\frac{2^{-2}}{2} + \ln 2 \right] - \left[-\frac{1^{-2}}{2} + \ln 1 \right]$$

$$= -\frac{1}{8} + \ln 2 + \frac{1}{2} - 0 = \frac{3}{8} + \ln 2$$

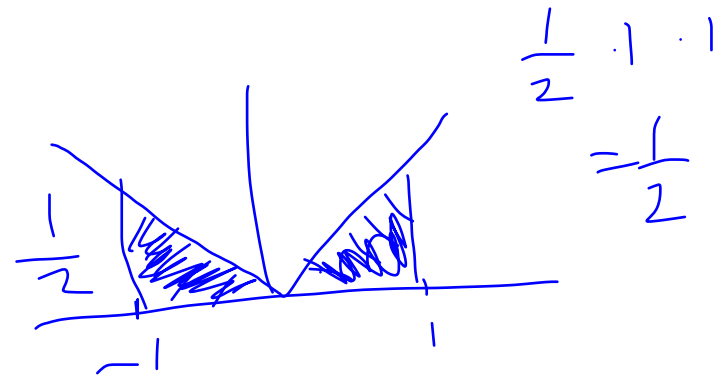
Example: Evaluate the integral $\int_{-1}^1 |x| dx$.

$$= \int_{-1}^0 (-x) dx + \int_0^1 x dx$$

$$= -\frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_{-1}^0 + \frac{x^2}{2} \Big|_0^1$$

$$= -\frac{0^2}{2} + \frac{(-1)^2}{2} + \frac{1^2}{2} - \frac{0^2}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$$



$$|x| = \begin{cases} -x, & x \leq 0 \\ x, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$