

Antiderivatives

$F(x)$ is an **antiderivative** of $f(x)$ if

$$\frac{dF(x)}{dx} = f(x).$$

Notation:

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

For example,

$$\int x^3 dx = \frac{1}{4}x^4 + C, \quad \text{because} \quad \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{4}x^4 \right) = x^3.$$

In fact, all of the following functions are antiderivatives of x^3 , because they all differentiate to x^3 :

$$\frac{1}{4}x^4, \quad \frac{1}{4}x^4 + 1, \quad \frac{1}{4}x^4 - 13, \quad \frac{1}{4}x^4 + 157.$$

This is the reason for the “ $+C$ ” in the notation: You can add any *constant* to the “basic” antiderivative $\frac{1}{4}x^4$ and come up with another antiderivative.

C is called the **arbitrary constant**. \square

Remark. (a) Antiderivatives are often referred to as **indefinite integrals**, and sometimes I’ll refer to $\int f(x) dx$ as “the integral of $f(x)$ with respect to x ”. This terminology is actually a bit misleading, but it’s traditional, so I’ll often use it. There is another kind of “integral” — the **definite integral** — which is probably more deserving of the name.

(b) The notation “ $\int f(x) dx$ ” will also be used for **definite integrals**. The integral sign \int is a stretched-out “S”, and comes from the fact that definite integrals are defined in terms of **sums**.

“ $\int () dx$ ” is a mathematical object called an **operator**, which roughly speaking is a function which takes functions as inputs and produces functions as outputs. Despite appearances, “ dx ” isn’t a separate thing; in fact, “ $\int () dx$ ” is the **whole name** of the antiderivative operator. It’s a weird name — it consists of three symbols (“ \int ”, “ d ”, and “ x ”), and has a space between the “ \int ” and the “ dx ” for the input function.

I’ll come back to this again when I discuss **substitution**, since at that point this can become a source of confusion.

Every differentiation formula has a corresponding antidifferentiation formula. This makes it easy to derive antidifferentiation rules from the rules for differentiation.

Theorem. (Power Rule) For $n \neq -1$,

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

Proof. This follows from the fact that

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} = x^n.$$

(Notice that the expression on the left is undefined if $n = -1$.) \square

Example. Compute the following antiderivatives:

(a) $\int x^{100} dx.$

(b) $\int \sqrt{x} dx.$

(c) $\int \frac{1}{x^5} dx.$

(d) $\int \frac{1}{x^{5/3}} dx.$

(a)

$$\int x^{100} dx = \frac{1}{101} x^{101} + C.$$

(b)

$$\int \sqrt{x} dx = \int x^{1/2} dx = \frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} + C.$$

(c)

$$\int \frac{1}{x^5} dx = \int x^{-5} dx = -\frac{1}{4} x^{-4} + C.$$

(d)

$$\int \frac{1}{x^{5/3}} dx = \int x^{-5/3} dx = -\frac{3}{2} x^{-2/3} + C. \quad \square$$

Theorem.

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

$$\int k \cdot f(x) dx = k \int f(x) dx, \quad \text{if } k \text{ is a constant.}$$

$$\int k dx = kx + \int f(x) dx, \quad \text{if } k \text{ is a constant.}$$

Proof. I'll prove the first formula by way of example; see if you can prove the others.

Suppose that

$$\frac{d}{dx} F(x) = f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx} G(x) = g(x).$$

By definition, this means that

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C \quad \text{and} \quad \int g(x) dx = G(x) + C.$$

By the rule for the derivative of a sum,

$$\frac{d}{dx} (F(x) + G(x)) = \frac{d}{dx} F(x) + \frac{d}{dx} G(x) = f(x) + g(x).$$

By definition, this means that

$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = F(x) + G(x) + C. \quad \square$$

Example. Compute the following antiderivatives:

(a) $\int 8x^{10} dx$.

(b) $\int (3x^4 + 2x + 5) dx$.

(a)

$$\int 8x^{10} dx = 8 \int x^{10} dx = \frac{8}{11}x^{11} + C.$$

(b)

$$\int (3x^4 + 2x + 5) dx = 3 \int x^4 dx + 2 \int x dx + 5 \int dx = \frac{3}{5}x^5 + x^2 + 5x + C. \quad \square$$

Since the derivative of a product is *not* the product of the derivatives, you can't expect that it would work that way for antiderivatives, either.

Example. Compute $\int (x^2 - 1)(x^4 + 2) dx$.

To do this antiderivative, I *don't* antidifferentiate $x^2 - 1$ and $x^4 + 2$ separately. Instead, I multiply out, then use the rules I discussed above.

$$\int (x^2 - 1)(x^4 + 2) dx = \int (x^6 - x^4 + 2x^2 - 2) dx = \frac{1}{7}x^7 - \frac{1}{5}x^5 + \frac{2}{3}x^3 - 2x + C. \quad \square$$

Likewise, the derivative of a quotient is *not* the quotient of the derivatives, and it doesn't work that way for antiderivatives.

Example. Compute $\int \frac{x^4 + 1}{x^2} dx$.

Don't antidifferentiate $x^4 + 1$ and x^2 separately! Instead, divide the bottom into the top:

$$\int \frac{x^4 + 1}{x^2} dx = \int (x^2 + x^{-2}) dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 - x^{-1} + C. \quad \square$$

Every differentiation rule gives an antidifferentiation rule. So

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sin x = \cos x \quad \text{means that} \quad \int \cos x dx = \sin x + C.$$

Example. Compute $\int (5x^7 + 4 \cos x) dx$.

For example,

$$\int (5x^7 + 4 \cos x) dx = \frac{5}{8}x^8 + 4 \sin x + C. \quad \square$$

Example. $\frac{dy}{dx} = \left(x^2 + \frac{1}{x^2}\right)^2$ and $y(1) = \frac{1}{5}$. Find y .

To find y , antidifferentiate $\frac{dy}{dx}$:

$$y = \int \frac{dy}{dx} dx = \int \left(x^2 + \frac{1}{x^2}\right)^2 dx = \int \left(x^4 + 2 + \frac{1}{x^4}\right) dx = \frac{1}{5}x^5 + 2x - \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{x^3} + C.$$

$$y(1) = \frac{1}{5}:$$

$$\frac{1}{5} = y(1) = \frac{1}{5} + 2 - \frac{2}{3} + C$$

$$C = -\frac{4}{3}$$

Therefore,

$$y = \frac{1}{5}x^5 + 2x - \frac{2}{3} \frac{1}{x^3} - \frac{4}{3}.$$

This process is a simple example of **solving a differential equation with an initial condition**. \square

Example. Suppose an object moves with constant acceleration a . Its initial velocity is v_0 , and its initial position is s_0 . Find its position function $s(t)$.

First, $a(t) = v'(t) = \frac{dv}{dt}$, so

$$v = \int a(t) dt = \int a dt = at + C.$$

When $t = 0$, $v = v_0$, so

$$v_0 = a \cdot 0 + C, \quad C = v_0.$$

Therefore,

$$v = at + v_0.$$

Next, $v(t) = s'(t) = \frac{ds}{dt}$, so

$$s = \int v(t) dt = \int (at + v_0) dt = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0t + D.$$

When $t = 0$, $s = s_0$:

$$s_0 = \frac{1}{2}a \cdot 0 + v_0 \cdot 0 + D, \quad D = s_0.$$

Therefore,

$$s = \frac{1}{2}at^2 + v_0t + s_0.$$

For example, an object falling near the surface of the earth experiences a constant acceleration of -32 feet per second per second (negative, since the object's height s is *decreasing*). Its height at time t is

$$s = -16t^2 + v_0t + s_0.$$

Here v_0 is its initial velocity and s_0 is the height from which it's dropped. \square
