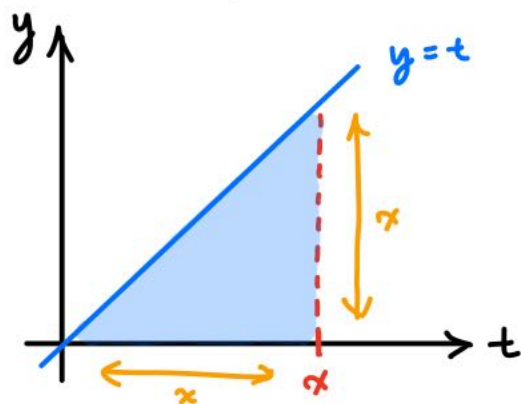


Lecture 4: Areas & Antiderivatives

Let's begin with the function

$$f(t) = t$$



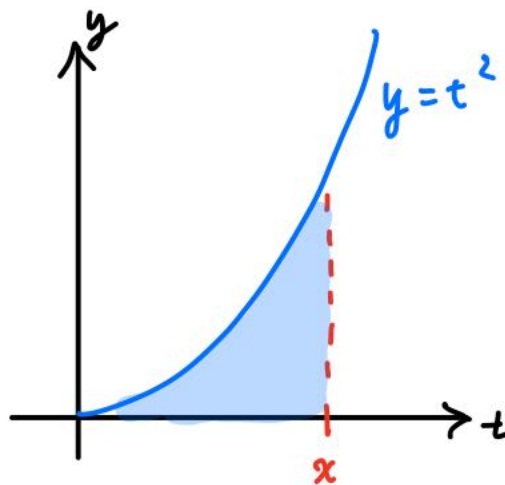
Here x is fixed (for the time being) and we are interested in the area under the curve from 0 to x :

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^x f(t) dt &= \int_0^x t dt = \text{Area}(\triangle) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{base} \cdot \text{height} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} x^2. \end{aligned}$$

Next, let's try

$$f(t) = t^2$$

... only, let's do it with Riemann sums.



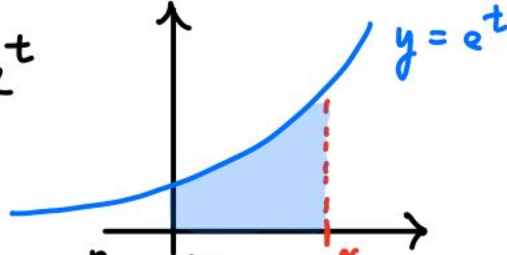
$$\int_0^x f(t) dt = \int_0^x t^2 dt = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\left(\frac{x}{n}\right)}_{\Delta x} \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\left(\frac{i x}{n}\right)^2}_{x_i = i \Delta x}$$

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

$$= x^3 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{6n^2} \right\} = \frac{x^3}{3}$$

One more: take $f(t) = e^t$

and write



$$\int_0^x f(t) dt = \int_0^x e^t dt = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n e^{i x/n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (e^{x/n})^i = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{n} e^{x/n} \frac{e^x - 1}{e^{x/n} - 1} = \dots \rightarrow \text{next page}$$

if $S = a + a^2 + a^3 + \dots + a^n$, then

$$aS = a^2 + a^3 + \dots + a^n + a^{n+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow (a-1)S = a^{n+1} - a \Rightarrow S = a \frac{a^n - 1}{a - 1}$$

† quick "proof":

apply $\sum_{i=1}^n$
to both sides

$$(i+1)^3 - i^3 = 3i^2 + 3i + 1$$

$$(n+1)^3 - 1^3 = 3 \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 + 3 \left(\sum_{i=1}^n i \right) + n$$

$$n^3 + 3n^2 + 3n = 3 \sum_{i=1}^n i^2 + \frac{3}{2} n^2 + \frac{5}{2} n$$

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

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

(Continued)

$$\begin{aligned} \dots &= (e^x - 1) \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{x/n} \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x/n}{e^{x/n} - 1} \\ &= e^x - 1 \end{aligned}$$

1 (why?)

← Same as $\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{z}{e^z - 1} \stackrel{\text{L'Hôpital}}{=} \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{e^z} = 1$

What do these three examples have in common?

That's right, $\left. \begin{array}{l} x^2/2 \\ x^3/3 \\ e^x - 1 \end{array} \right\}$ is an antiderivative of $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} x \\ x^2 \\ e^x \end{array} \right.$

— Carefully chosen flakes or general phenomenon?

In other words, if we define

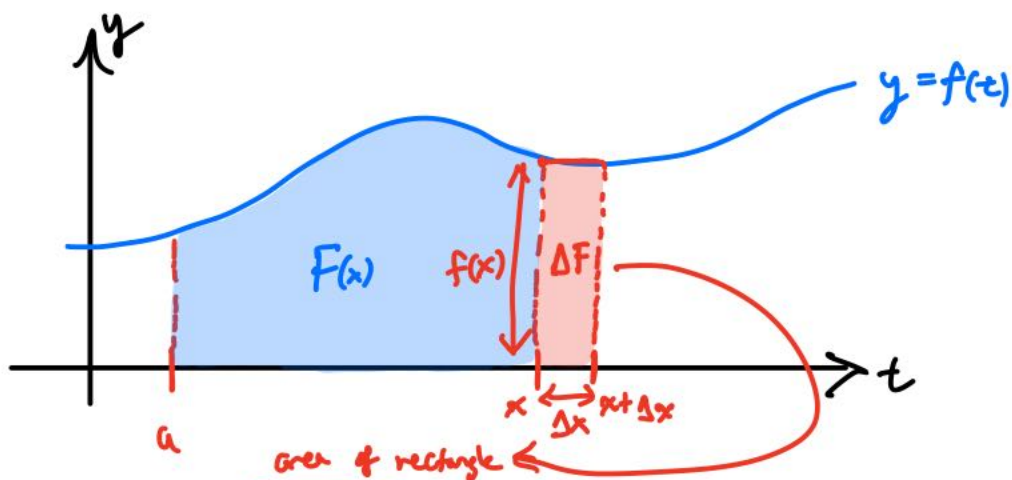
$$F(x) := \int_a^x f(t) dt = \text{"area up to } x \text{"}$$

is F an antiderivative of f ? i.e. does $F'(x) = f(x)$?

Aside: $\int_a^x f(t) dt$ is a function of x , not of t .

We're looking at area under $y=f(t)$ from $t=a$ to $t=x$; this area depends on x . Here t is just the integral version of a dummy index — the "integration variable".

How should we think of the rate of change of area (under the curve) up to x , with respect to x ?

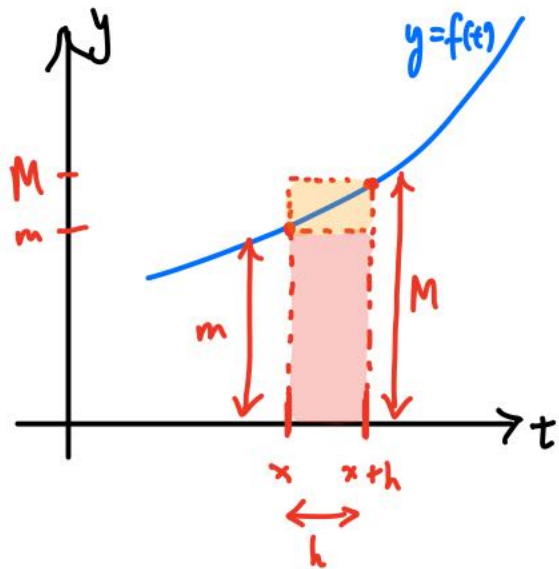


Heuristically $\frac{\Delta F}{\Delta x} \approx \frac{f(x) \cdot \Delta x}{\Delta x} = f(x)$.

More precisely, you want to use the definition of the derivative:

$$\begin{aligned} F'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt. \end{aligned}$$

To go further we use the picture



which gives

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

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

squeeze
thm.
 $f(x)$

As $h \rightarrow 0$, the maximum (M) and minimum (m) values of f on $[x, x+h]$ limit to $f(x)$ by continuity.

So by the Squeeze Theorem, we get

$$F'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = f(x),$$

$\Rightarrow \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is always an antiderivative of $f(x)$!!

For different choices of a , you'll get different antiderivatives. Say $b > a$. Then

$$\int_a^x f(t) dt = \underbrace{\int_a^b f(t) dt}_{\text{constant}} + \int_b^x f(t) dt;$$

as you'll recall, two functions that differ by a constant have the same derivative (think: slope function) (and indeed all antiderivatives of f differ by a constant).

So we write it the

FUNDAMENTAL THEOREM of CALCULUS (v. 1)

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x).$$

$F(x)$

This says that "taking the slope function"^(a) and "taking the area-up-to-x function"^(b) are "inverse" to each other — do one, then the other, and you get back essentially[†] the same thing. But it's not surprising if you think: the rate of accumulation of area under a function is proportional to the height of the function!

Ex/ Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ if ^(a) $y = \int_{-2}^x \frac{1}{u+3} du.$


^(b) $y = \int_0^{3x} (1+t^4) dt. //$

[†] If you do (a) then (b), the result may differ from the original by a constant.

In (b), we're taking the right-hand limit of integration† to move 3 times as fast ($3x$ rather than x). So you'd expect the area to increase 3 times as quickly, and that's right. But we should be more systematic here and use the Chain Rule.

What is $\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^{g(x)} f(t) dt$? If $F(u)$ means $\int_0^u f(t) dt$, this is $\frac{d}{dx} F(g(x))$. Some goofy function $g(x)$ is controlling how the right-hand limit of integration is being moved. The Chain Rule gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \int_0^{g(x)} f(t) dt &= \frac{d}{dx} F(g(x)) = F'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) \\ &= f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x). \end{aligned}$$

$F' = f$ 

f The (right- and left-hand) limits of integration are the endpoints a & b of the interval over which you are calculating a definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$.

In particular, we get

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^{3x} f(t) dt = 3 \cdot f(3x).$$

WARNING: $\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^x f(g(t)) dt = f(g(x)) \quad !!$

There is no chain rule here: $f(g(t))$ is not being differentiated, only the "area up to x " is.

Ex/ $y = \int_2^{x^2-2} \sqrt{3+u} du, \quad x > 0.$

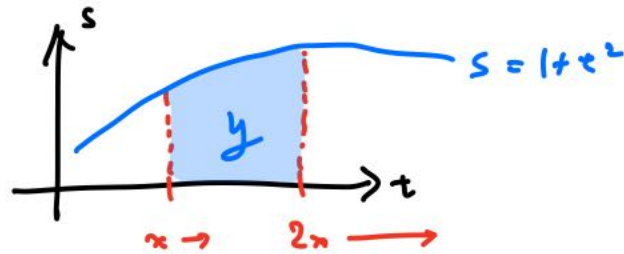
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} (x^2-2) \cdot \sqrt{3+(x^2-2)} \\ &= 2x \sqrt{x^2+1}. \end{aligned}$$

To formalize this, which may make it more or less comprehensible, write

$$\int_2^{x^2-2} \sqrt{3+u} du = F(g(x)) \quad \text{where}$$
$$\begin{cases} F(z) = \int_2^z \sqrt{3+u} du & (\text{has derivative } \sqrt{3+z}) \\ g(x) = x^2 - 2. \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \frac{d}{dx} F(g(x)) &= F'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) = f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) \\ &= 2x \cdot \sqrt{3+g(x)} = 2x \sqrt{x^2+1}. \quad // \end{aligned}$$

Ex / $y = \int_x^{2x} (1+t^2) dt$. Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$!



We'll look on Friday at how the relationship between differentiation and integration discovered today makes computing integrals a whole lot more straightforward.