

Math 140

Lecture 20

Greg Maloney

with modifications by T. Milev

University of Massachusetts Boston

April 22, 2013

Outline

- 1 Antiderivatives
 - Rectilinear Motion

Outline

- 1 Antiderivatives
 - Rectilinear Motion

- 2 Areas and Distances
 - The Area Problem

Antiderivatives

Definition (Antiderivative)

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

Example

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

Example

- Let $f(x) = x^2$.
- Use the Power Rule to find an antiderivative of f :
- If $F(x) = \quad$, then $F'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.

Example

- Let $f(x) = x^2$.
- Use the Power Rule to find an antiderivative of f :
- If $F(x) =$, then $F'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.

Example

- Let $f(x) = x^2$.
- Use the Power Rule to find an antiderivative of f :
- If $F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3$, then $F'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.

Example

- Let $f(x) = x^2$.
- Use the Power Rule to find an antiderivative of f :
- If $F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3$, then $F'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.
- Is this the only one?

Example

- Let $f(x) = x^2$.
- Use the Power Rule to find an antiderivative of f :
- If $F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3$, then $F'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.
- Is this the only one?
- No. If $G(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 1$, then $G'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.

Example

- Let $f(x) = x^2$.
- Use the Power Rule to find an antiderivative of f :
- If $F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3$, then $F'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.
- Is this the only one?
- No. If $G(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 1$, then $G'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.
- $\frac{1}{3}x^3 + 2$ will also work.

Example

- Let $f(x) = x^2$.
- Use the Power Rule to find an antiderivative of f :
- If $F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3$, then $F'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.
- Is this the only one?
- No. If $G(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + 1$, then $G'(x) = x^2 = f(x)$.
- $\frac{1}{3}x^3 + 2$ will also work.
- Any function of the form $H(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$, where C is a constant, is an antiderivative of f .

Theorem

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.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of each of the following functions.

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

$$f(x) = x^n, n \geq 0$$

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of each of the following functions.

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

$$f(x) = x^n, n \geq 0$$

- If $F(x) =$, then
 $F'(x) = \sin x$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of each of the following functions.

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

$$f(x) = x^n, n \geq 0$$

- If $F(x) =$, then
 $F'(x) = \sin x$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of each of the following functions.

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

$$f(x) = x^n, n \geq 0$$

- If $F(x) = -\cos x$, then
 $F'(x) = \sin x$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of each of the following functions.

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

$$f(x) = x^n, n \geq 0$$

- If $F(x) = -\cos x$, then $F'(x) = \sin x$.
- Therefore the most general antiderivative is $G(x) = -\cos x + C$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of each of the following functions.

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

- If $F(x) = -\cos x$, then $F'(x) = \sin x$.
- Therefore the most general antiderivative is $G(x) = -\cos x + C$.

$$f(x) = x^n, n \geq 0$$

- If $F(x) = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$, then $F'(x) = x^n$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of each of the following functions.

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

- If $F(x) = -\cos x$, then $F'(x) = \sin x$.
- Therefore the most general antiderivative is $G(x) = -\cos x + C$.

$$f(x) = x^n, n \geq 0$$

- If $F(x) = \quad$, then $F'(x) = x^n$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of each of the following functions.

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

- If $F(x) = -\cos x$, then $F'(x) = \sin x$.
- Therefore the most general antiderivative is $G(x) = -\cos x + C$.

$$f(x) = x^n, n \geq 0$$

- If $F(x) = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$, then $F'(x) = x^n$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of each of the following functions.

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

- If $F(x) = -\cos x$, then $F'(x) = \sin x$.
- Therefore the most general antiderivative is $G(x) = -\cos x + C$.

$$f(x) = x^n, n \geq 0$$

- If $F(x) = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$, then $F'(x) = x^n$.
- Therefore the most general antiderivative is $G(x) = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

- If $F(x) =$, then $F'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

- If $F(x) =$, then $F'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

- If $F(x) = \ln |x|$, then $F'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

- If $F(x) = \ln |x|$, then $F'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.
- This is valid for any interval on which $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

- If $F(x) = \ln |x|$, then $F'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.
- This is valid for any interval on which $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined.
- $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

- If $F(x) = \ln |x|$, then $F'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.
- This is valid for any interval on which $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined.
- $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined everywhere except at 0.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

- If $F(x) = \ln|x|$, then $F'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.
- This is valid for any interval on which $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined.
- $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined everywhere except at 0.
- The most general answer needs two different constants, one for $(-\infty, 0)$ and one for $(0, \infty)$.

Example

Find the most general antiderivative of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

- If $F(x) = \ln|x|$, then $F'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.
- This is valid for any interval on which $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined.
- $\frac{1}{x}$ is defined everywhere except at 0.
- The most general answer needs two different constants, one for $(-\infty, 0)$ and one for $(0, \infty)$.

$$G(x) = \begin{cases} \ln|x| + C_1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ \ln|x| + C_2 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	
$f(x) + g(x)$	
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	
$\frac{1}{x}$	
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antiderivation formula.
 Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	
$f(x) + g(x)$	
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	
$\frac{1}{x}$	
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antiderivation formula.
 Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	
$\frac{1}{x}$	
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	
$\frac{1}{x}$	
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	
$\frac{1}{x}$	
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	
$\frac{1}{x}$	
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	e^x
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	e^x
$\cos x$	
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antiderivation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	e^x
$\cos x$	$\sin x$
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antiderivation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	e^x
$\cos x$	$\sin x$
$\sin x$	
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	e^x
$\cos x$	$\sin x$
$\sin x$	$-\cos x$
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antiderivation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	e^x
$\cos x$	$\sin x$
$\sin x$	$-\cos x$
$\sec^2 x$	
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antidifferentiation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	e^x
$\cos x$	$\sin x$
$\sin x$	$-\cos x$
$\sec^2 x$	$\tan x$
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antiderivation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	e^x
$\cos x$	$\sin x$
$\sin x$	$-\cos x$
$\sec^2 x$	$\tan x$
$\sec x \tan x$	

Every differentiation formula gives rise to an antiderivation formula. Suppose $F' = f$ and $G' = g$.

Function	Particular Antiderivative
$cf(x)$	$cF(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$F(x) + G(x)$
$x^n (n \neq -1)$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln x $
e^x	e^x
$\cos x$	$\sin x$
$\sin x$	$-\cos x$
$\sec^2 x$	$\tan x$
$\sec x \tan x$	$\sec x$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Find the antiderivative:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$g(x) = 4 \quad + 2 \quad -$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Find the antiderivative:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$g(x) = 4 \quad + 2 \quad -$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Find the antiderivative:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$g(x) = 4(-\cos x) + 2x^5 - 2\sqrt{x} + C$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Find the antiderivative:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$g(x) = 4(-\cos x) + 2 \quad -$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Find the antiderivative:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$g(x) = 4(-\cos x) + 2 \frac{x^5}{5} -$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Find the antiderivative:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$g(x) = 4(-\cos x) + 2 \frac{x^5}{5} -$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Find the antiderivative:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$g(x) = 4(-\cos x) + 2 \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^{1/2}}{\frac{1}{2}}$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Find the antiderivative:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$g(x) = 4(-\cos x) + 2 \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^{1/2}}{\frac{1}{2}} + C$$

Example

Find all functions g such that

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + \frac{2x^5 - \sqrt{x}}{x}.$$

Rewrite:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2 \frac{x^5}{x} - \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

Find the antiderivative:

$$g'(x) = 4 \sin x + 2x^4 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$g(x) = 4(-\cos x) + 2 \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^{1/2}}{\frac{1}{2}} + C$$

$$= -4 \cos x + \frac{2}{5}x^5 - 2\sqrt{x} + C$$

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = x^{-3/2}$$

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = x^{-3/2}$$

$$f(x) =$$

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = x^{-3/2}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{x^{-1/2}}{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = x^{-3/2}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{x^{-1/2}}{-\frac{1}{2}} + C$$

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = x^{-3/2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{x^{-1/2}}{-\frac{1}{2}} + C \\ &= -\frac{2}{\sqrt{x}} + C \end{aligned}$$

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = x^{-3/2}$$

To find C , use the fact that $f(1) = 1$.

$$f(1) = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{x^{-1/2}}{-\frac{1}{2}} + C \\ &= -\frac{2}{\sqrt{x}} + C \end{aligned}$$

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = x^{-3/2}$$

To find C , use the fact that $f(1) = 1$.

$$f(1) = 1$$

$$-\frac{2}{\sqrt{1}} + C = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{x^{-1/2}}{-\frac{1}{2}} + C \\ &= -\frac{2}{\sqrt{x}} + C \end{aligned}$$

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = x^{-3/2}$$

To find C , use the fact that $f(1) = 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{x^{-1/2}}{-\frac{1}{2}} + C \\ &= -\frac{2}{\sqrt{x}} + C \end{aligned}$$

$$f(1) = 1$$

$$-\frac{2}{\sqrt{1}} + C = 1$$

$$C = 3$$

Example

Find f if $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}}$ for $x > 0$, and $f(1) = 1$.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = x^{-3/2}$$

To find C , use the fact that $f(1) = 1$.

$$f(1) = 1$$

$$f(x) = \frac{x^{-1/2}}{-\frac{1}{2}} + C$$

$$-\frac{2}{\sqrt{1}} + C = 1$$

$$= -\frac{2}{\sqrt{x}} + C$$

$$C = 3$$

Therefore

$$f(x) = -\frac{2}{\sqrt{x}} + 3.$$

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.
- Its velocity is $v(t) =$

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.
- Its velocity is $v(t) = s'(t)$.

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.
- Its velocity is $v(t) = s'(t)$.
- Its acceleration is $a(t) =$

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.
- Its velocity is $v(t) = s'(t)$.
- Its acceleration is $a(t) = v'(t)$.

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.
- Its velocity is $v(t) = s'(t)$.
- Its acceleration is $a(t) = v'(t)$.
- **Position is the antiderivative of**
- Velocity is the antiderivative of

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.
- Its velocity is $v(t) = s'(t)$.
- Its acceleration is $a(t) = v'(t)$.
- **Position is the antiderivative of velocity.**
- Velocity is the antiderivative of

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.
- Its velocity is $v(t) = s'(t)$.
- Its acceleration is $a(t) = v'(t)$.
- Position is the antiderivative of velocity.
- **Velocity is the antiderivative of**

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.
- Its velocity is $v(t) = s'(t)$.
- Its acceleration is $a(t) = v'(t)$.
- Position is the antiderivative of velocity.
- **Velocity is the antiderivative of acceleration.**

Rectilinear Motion

- Suppose a particle is moving in a straight line, with position function $s(t)$.
- Its velocity is $v(t) = s'(t)$.
- Its acceleration is $a(t) = v'(t)$.
- Position is the antiderivative of velocity.
- Velocity is the antiderivative of acceleration.
- If we know the acceleration and the initial values $s(0)$ and $v(0)$ for position and velocity, then we can find $s(t)$ by antidifferentiating twice.

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t)$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$v(t) =$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$v(t) = -32t$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$v(t) = -32t + C$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$v(t) = -32t + C$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$v(t) = -32t + C$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

$$-32 \cdot 0 + C = 48$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$\begin{aligned} v(t) &= -32t + C \\ &= -32t + 48 \end{aligned}$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

$$-32 \cdot 0 + C = 48$$

$$C = 48$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$\begin{aligned} v(t) &= -32t + C \\ &= -32t + 48 \end{aligned}$$

$$s'(t) = -32t + 48$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

$$-32 \cdot 0 + C = 48$$

$$C = 48$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$\begin{aligned} v(t) &= -32t + C \\ &= -32t + 48 \end{aligned}$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

$$-32 \cdot 0 + C = 48$$

$$C = 48$$

$$s'(t) = -32t + 48$$

$$s(t) =$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$v(t) = -32t + C$$

$$= -32t + 48$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

$$-32 \cdot 0 + C = 48$$

$$C = 48$$

$$s'(t) = -32t + 48$$

$$s(t) = -16t^2 + 48t$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$v(t) = -32t + C$$

$$= -32t + 48$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

$$-32 \cdot 0 + C = 48$$

$$C = 48$$

$$s'(t) = -32t + 48$$

$$s(t) = -16t^2 + 48t + D$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s **from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground**. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$\begin{aligned} v(t) &= -32t + C \\ &= -32t + 48 \end{aligned}$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

$$-32 \cdot 0 + C = 48$$

$$C = 48$$

$$s'(t) = -32t + 48$$

To find D , use the fact that **$s(0) = 432$** .

$$s(t) = -16t^2 + 48t + D$$

$$s(0) = 432$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$v(t) = -32t + C$$

$$= -32t + 48$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

$$-32 \cdot 0 + C = 48$$

$$C = 48$$

$$s'(t) = -32t + 48$$

To find D , use the fact that $s(0) = 432$.

$$s(0) = 432$$

$$s(t) = -16t^2 + 48t + D$$

$$-16 \cdot 0^2 + 48 \cdot 0 + D = 432$$

An object near the Earth is subject to a gravitational force that produces a downward acceleration of 32 ft/s^2 (or 9.8 m/s^2).

Example

A ball is thrown upward with a speed of 48 ft/s from the edge of a cliff 432 ft above the ground. Find its height above the ground t seconds later.

$$v'(t) = a(t) = -32$$

$$\begin{aligned} v(t) &= -32t + C \\ &= -32t + 48 \end{aligned}$$

To find C , use the fact that $v(0) = 48$.

$$v(0) = 48$$

$$-32 \cdot 0 + C = 48$$

$$C = 48$$

$$s'(t) = -32t + 48$$

To find D , use the fact that $s(0) = 432$.

$$s(0) = 432$$

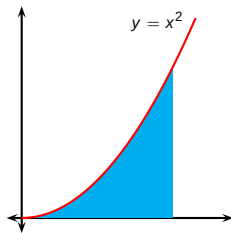
$$\begin{aligned} s(t) &= -16t^2 + 48t + D \\ &= -16t^2 + 48t + 432 \end{aligned}$$

$$-16 \cdot 0^2 + 48 \cdot 0 + D = 432$$

$$D = 432$$

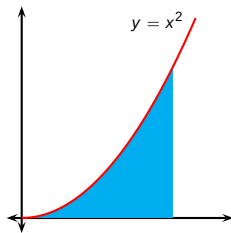
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?



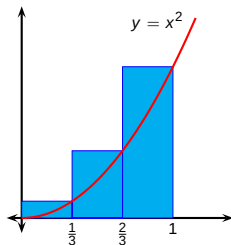
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.



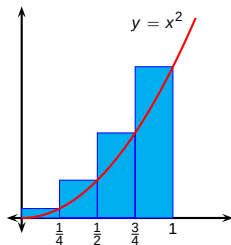
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.



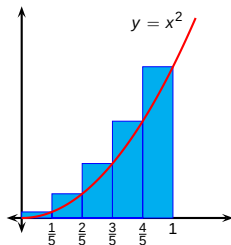
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation.



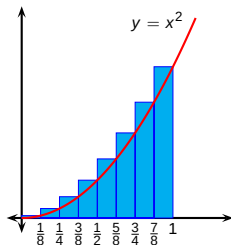
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.



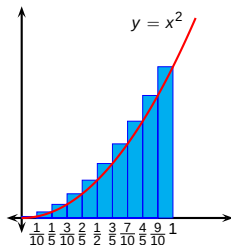
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.



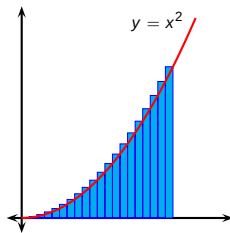
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.



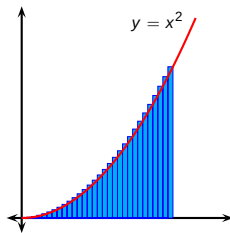
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.



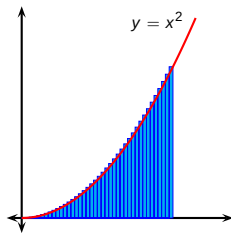
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.



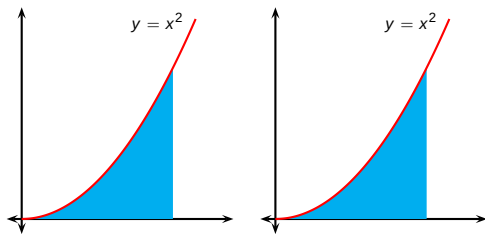
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.



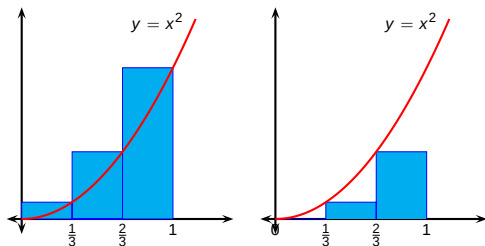
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.
- We could use the left endpoints to find the heights instead.



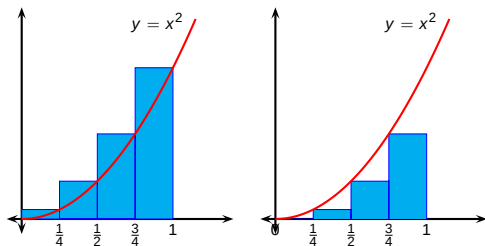
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.
- We could use the left endpoints to find the heights instead.



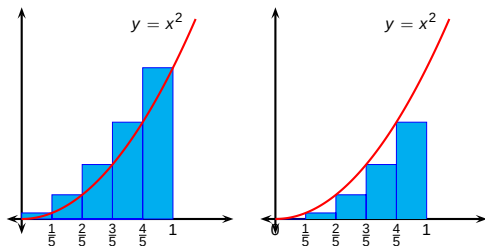
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.
- We could use the left endpoints to find the heights instead.



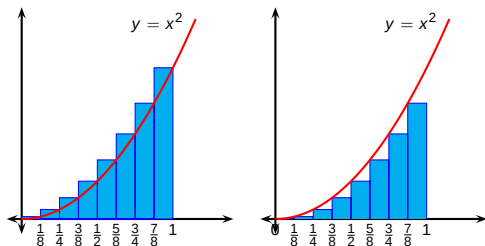
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.
- We could use the left endpoints to find the heights instead.



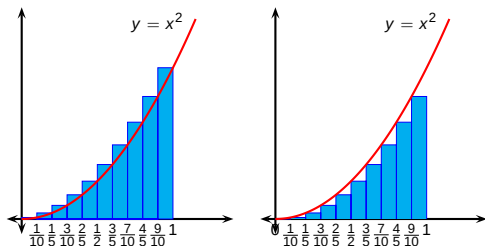
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.
- We could use the left endpoints to find the heights instead.



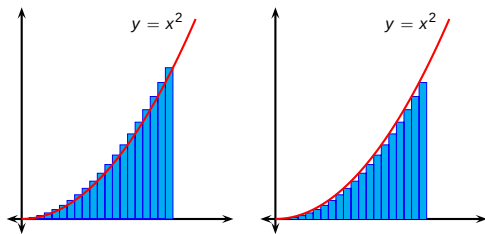
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.
- We could use the left endpoints to find the heights instead.



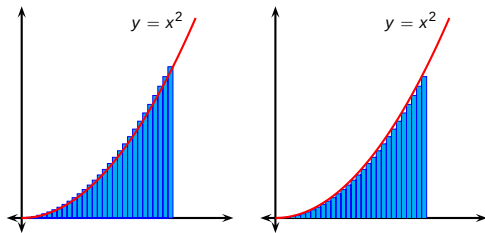
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.
- We could use the left endpoints to find the heights instead.



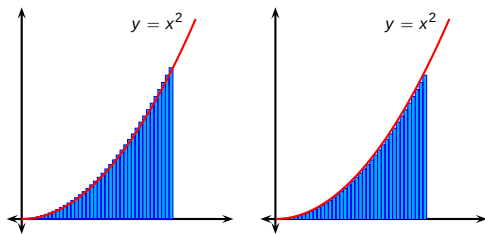
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.
- We could use the left endpoints to find the heights instead.



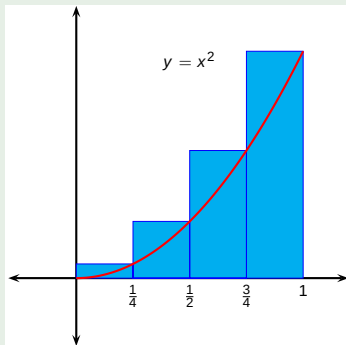
The Area Problem

- How can we find the area under $y = x^2$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$?
- We can approximate it using rectangles.
- Divide $[0, 1]$ into three strips of width $\frac{1}{3}$, and draw rectangles in those strips, the heights of which are the same as the height of the function at the right end of that strip.
- Four strips gives a better approximation. Five is even better.
- We could use the left endpoints to find the heights instead.



Example

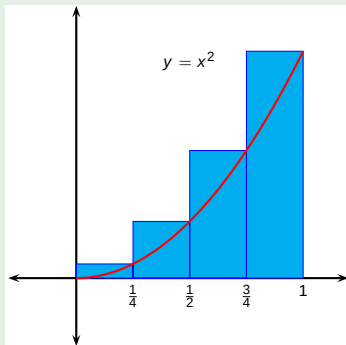
Find the sum of the areas of the four approximating rectangles obtained using right endpoints.



Example

Find the sum of the areas of the four approximating rectangles obtained using right endpoints.

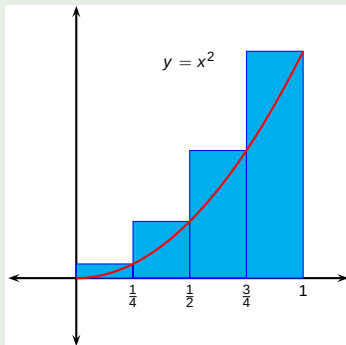
- Let R_4 denote the sum of the areas of the rectangles.



Example

Find the sum of the areas of the four approximating rectangles obtained using right endpoints.

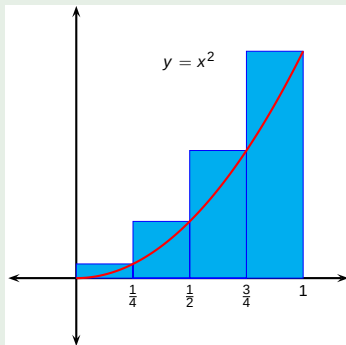
- Let R_4 denote the sum of the areas of the rectangles.
- Each rectangle has width



Example

Find the sum of the areas of the four approximating rectangles obtained using right endpoints.

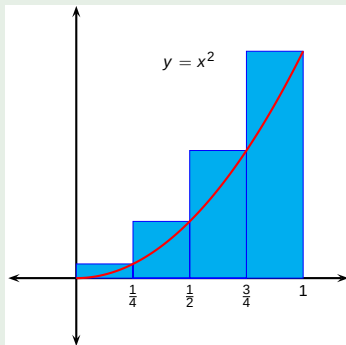
- Let R_4 denote the sum of the areas of the rectangles.
- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{4}$.



Example

Find the sum of the areas of the four approximating rectangles obtained using right endpoints.

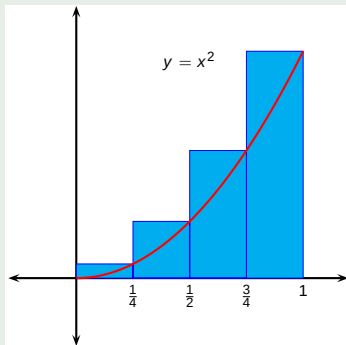
- Let R_4 denote the sum of the areas of the rectangles.
- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{4}$.
- The heights are



Example

Find the sum of the areas of the four approximating rectangles obtained using right endpoints.

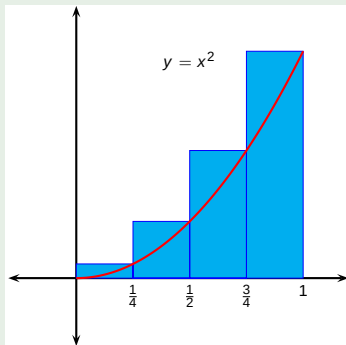
- Let R_4 denote the sum of the areas of the rectangles.
- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{4}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2$, $\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2$, and 1^2 .



Example

Find the sum of the areas of the four approximating rectangles obtained using right endpoints.

- Let R_4 denote the sum of the areas of the rectangles.
- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{4}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2$, $\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2$, and 1^2 .

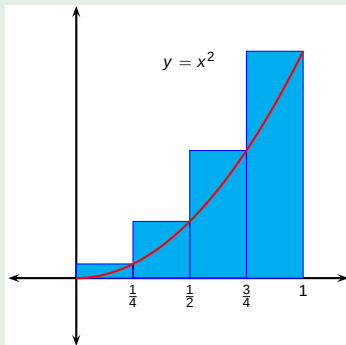


$$R_4 = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot (1)^2$$

Example

Find the sum of the areas of the four approximating rectangles obtained using right endpoints.

- Let R_4 denote the sum of the areas of the rectangles.
- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{4}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2$, $\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2$, and 1^2 .

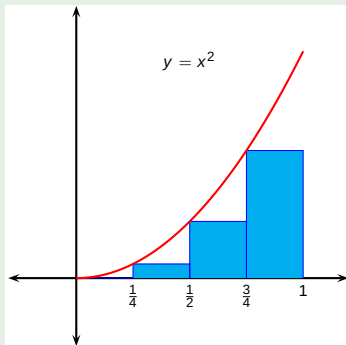


$$R_4 = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot (1)^2 = \frac{15}{32} = 0.46875$$

Example

Find the sum of the areas of the four approximating rectangles obtained using right endpoints.

- Let R_4 denote the sum of the areas of the rectangles.
- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{4}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2$, $\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2$, $\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2$, and 1^2 .
- A similar calculation works for L_4 , the sum of the areas of the left endpoint rectangles.



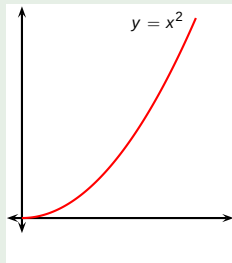
$$R_4 = \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot (1)^2 = \frac{15}{32} = 0.46875$$

$$L_4 = \frac{1}{4} \cdot (0)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^2 = \frac{7}{32} = 0.21875$$

Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

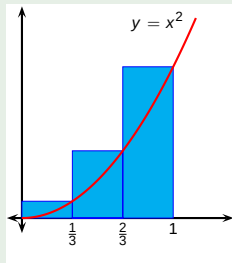
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$



Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

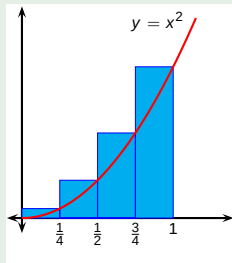
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$



Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

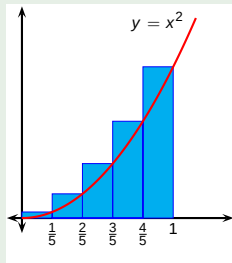
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$



Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

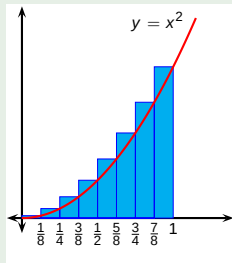
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$



Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

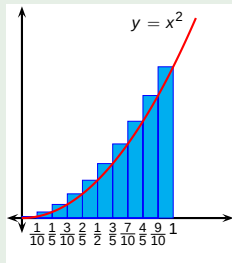
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$



Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

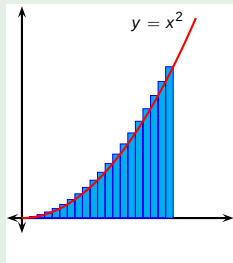
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$



Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

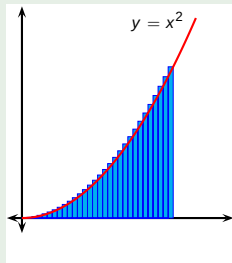
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$



Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

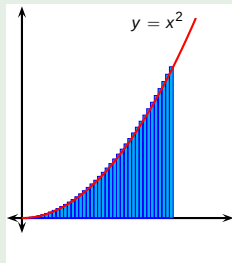


Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width
- The heights are

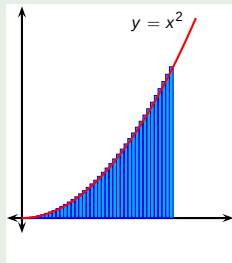


Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are

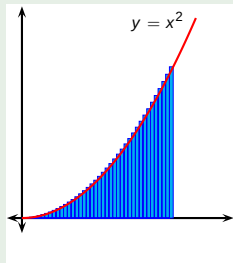


Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are

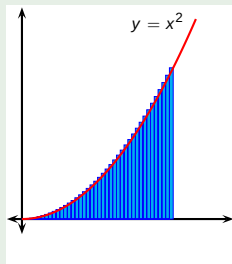


Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2, \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2$.

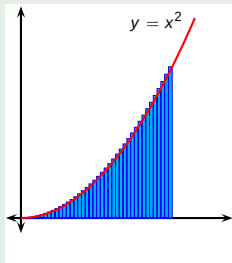


Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2, \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2$.



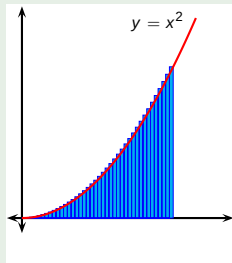
$$R_n = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2$$

Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2, \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2$.



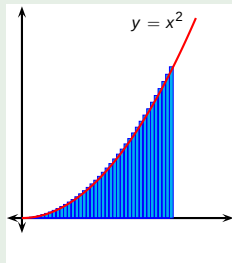
$$R_n = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{n^3} (1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + n^2)$$

Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2, \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2$.



$$R_n = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 + \cdots + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{n^3} (1^2 + 2^2 + \cdots + n^2)$$

Example

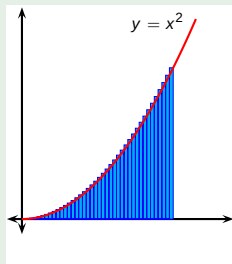
For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2, \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2$.
- New formula:

$$\bullet \quad 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}.$$

$$R_n = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{n^3} (1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2)$$



Example

For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

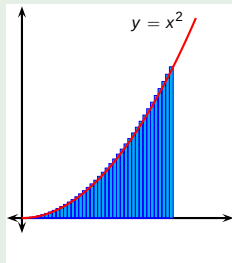
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are $(\frac{1}{n})^2, (\frac{2}{n})^2, \dots, (\frac{n}{n})^2$.
- New formula:

$$\bullet \quad 1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}.$$

$$R_n = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{n^3} (1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2)$$

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



Example

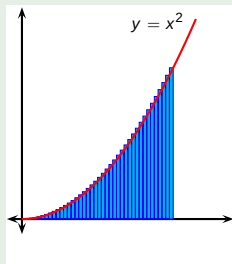
For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2, \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2$.
- New formula:
- $1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$.

$$R_n = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{n^3} (1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2)$$

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



Example

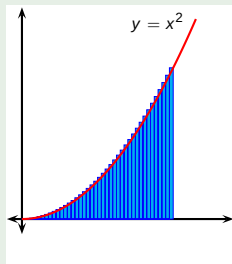
For the region S underneath the parabola $y = x^2$ from 0 to 1, show that the area under the approximating rectangles approaches $\frac{1}{3}$, that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \frac{1}{3}.$$

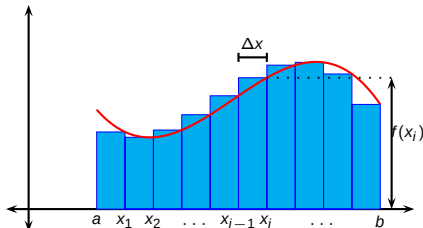
- Each rectangle has width $\frac{1}{n}$.
- The heights are $\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2, \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2, \dots, \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2$.
- New formula:
- $1^2 + 2^2 + 3^2 + \dots + n^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$.

$$R_n = \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{1}{n}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{2}{n}\right)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n} \left(\frac{n}{n}\right)^2 = \frac{1}{n^3} (1^2 + 2^2 + \dots + n^2)$$

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



Estimate the area under the curve $y = f(x)$ between a and b .



- The width of the interval is $b - a$.
- The width of each of the n strips is $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$.
- The strips divide $[a, b]$ into n subintervals:
 $[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n]$,
 where $x_0 = a$ and $x_n = b$.

$$R_n = f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + f(x_3)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x$$

- The right endpoints of the subintervals are

$$x_1 = a + \Delta x$$

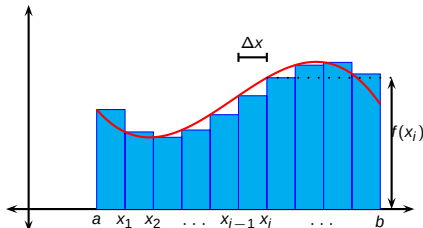
$$x_2 = a + 2\Delta x$$

$$x_3 = a + 3\Delta x$$

$$\vdots$$

- The height of the i th rectangle is $f(x_i)$.
- The area of the i th rectangle is $f(x_i)\Delta x$.

Estimate the area under the curve $y = f(x)$ between a and b .



- The width of the interval is $b - a$.
- The width of each of the n strips is $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$.
- The strips divide $[a, b]$ into n subintervals:
 $[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n]$,
 where $x_0 = a$ and $x_n = b$.

$$L_n = f(x_0)\Delta x + f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \dots + f(x_{n-1})\Delta x$$

- The **left** endpoints of the subintervals are

$$x_0 = a$$

$$x_1 = a + \Delta x$$

$$x_2 = a + 2\Delta x$$

$$\vdots$$

- The height of the i th rectangle is $f(x_{i-1})$.
- The area of the i th rectangle is $f(x_{i-1})\Delta x$.

Definition (Area Under a Curve)

The area of the region S that lies under the curve $y = f(x)$ is the limit of the sum of the areas of the approximating rectangles:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x]$$

Definition (Area Under a Curve)

The area of the region S that lies under the curve $y = f(x)$ is the limit of the sum of the areas of the approximating rectangles:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x]$$

- This limit always exists if f is continuous.

Definition (Area Under a Curve)

The area of the region S that lies under the curve $y = f(x)$ is the limit of the sum of the areas of the approximating rectangles:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x]$$

- This limit always exists if f is continuous.
- We get the same answer if we use left endpoints:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_0)\Delta x + f(x_1)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_{n-1})\Delta x]$$

Definition (Area Under a Curve)

The area of the region S that lies under the curve $y = f(x)$ is the limit of the sum of the areas of the approximating rectangles:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x]$$

- This limit always exists if f is continuous.
- We get the same answer if we use left endpoints:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_0)\Delta x + f(x_1)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_{n-1})\Delta x]$$

- We get the same answer if we use any number x_i^* in the interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$. x_i^* is called a sample point.

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n^*)\Delta x]$$

Definition (Area Under a Curve)

The area of the region S that lies under the curve $y = f(x)$ is the limit of the sum of the areas of the approximating rectangles:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x]$$

- This limit always exists if f is continuous.
- We get the same answer if we use left endpoints:

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_0)\Delta x + f(x_1)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_{n-1})\Delta x]$$

- We get the same answer if we use any number x_i^* in the interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$. x_i^* is called a sample point.

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n^*)\Delta x]$$

Definition (Riemann Sum)

A Riemann sum is any sum of the form

$$f(x_1^*)\Delta x + f(x_2^*)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n^*)\Delta x.$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x$$

- We use sigma notation to write sums more compactly.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x$$

- We use sigma notation to write sums more compactly.
- $\sum$ is the Greek letter sigma. It tells us to add.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x$$

- We use sigma notation to write sums more compactly.
- $\sum$ is the Greek letter sigma. It tells us to add.
- The subscript tells us to start at 1.

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x$$

- We use sigma notation to write sums more compactly.
- $\sum$ is the Greek letter sigma. It tells us to add.
- The subscript tells us to start at 1.
- The superscript tells us to finish at n .

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x$$

- We use sigma notation to write sums more compactly.
- $\sum$ is the Greek letter sigma. It tells us to add.
- The subscript tells us to start at 1.
- The superscript tells us to finish at n .

Example

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 2i\Delta x = 2\Delta x + 4\Delta x + 6\Delta x + 8\Delta x$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x$$

- We use sigma notation to write sums more compactly.
- $\sum$ is the Greek letter sigma. It tells us to add.
- The subscript tells us to start at 1.
- The superscript tells us to finish at n .

Example

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 2i\Delta x = 2\Delta x + 4\Delta x + 6\Delta x + 8\Delta x$$

$$\sum_{i=3}^7 i^2 \Delta x =$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)\Delta x = f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + \cdots + f(x_n)\Delta x$$

- We use sigma notation to write sums more compactly.
- $\sum$ is the Greek letter sigma. It tells us to add.
- The subscript tells us to start at 1.
- The superscript tells us to finish at n .

Example

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 2i\Delta x = 2\Delta x + 4\Delta x + 6\Delta x + 8\Delta x$$

$$\sum_{i=3}^7 i^2\Delta x = 9\Delta x + 16\Delta x + 25\Delta x + 36\Delta x + 49\Delta x$$