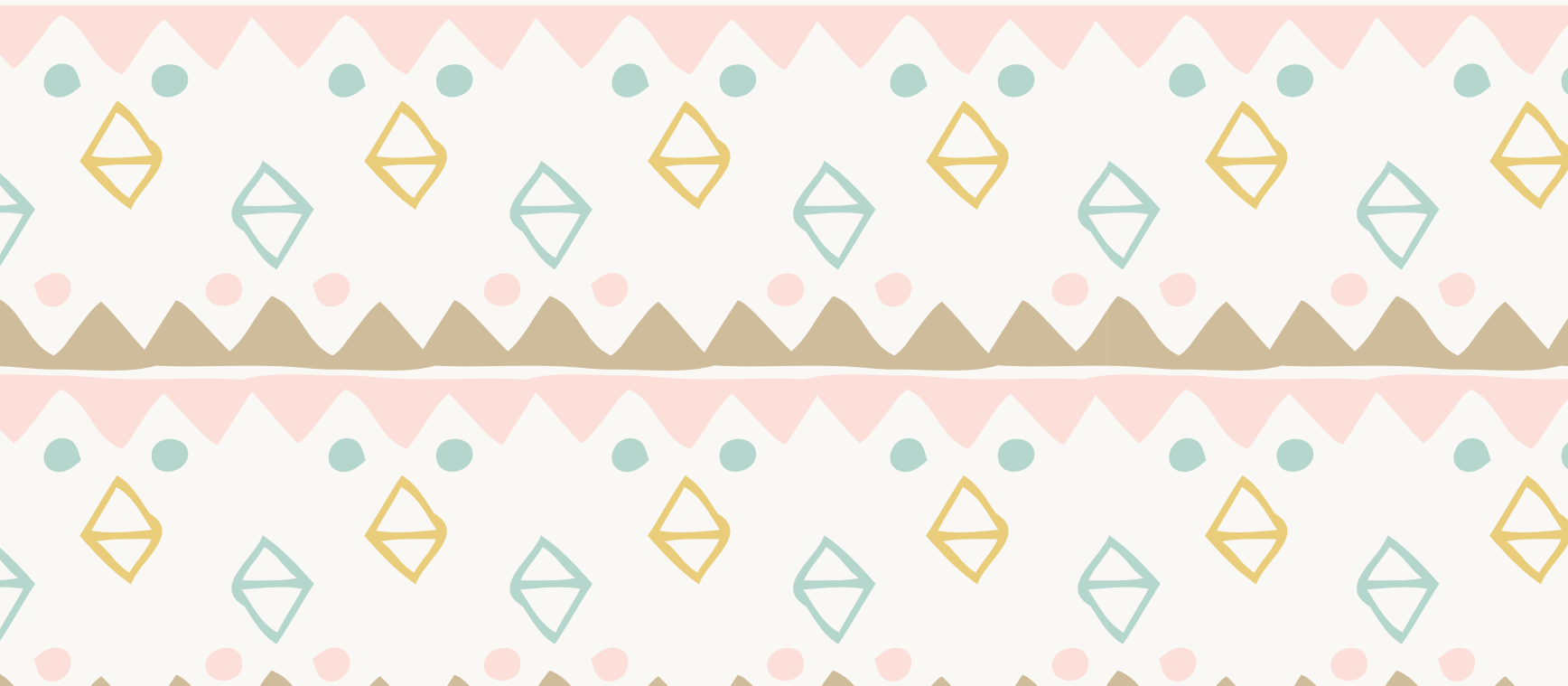


Math 2200-01 (Calculus I) Spring 2020

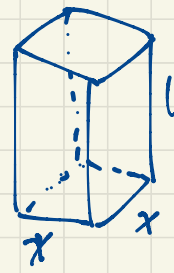
Book 3



Sec 4.5: Optimization

April 13

p.285 #19. of all boxes with a square base and a volume 8m^3 , which one has the minimum surface area?



volume $V = x^2 h = 8 \Rightarrow h = \frac{8}{x^2}$

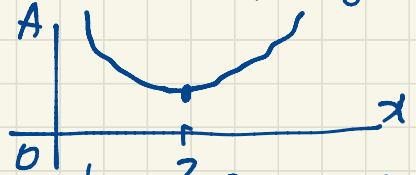
area $A = \underbrace{2x^2}_{\text{top and bottom}} + \underbrace{4xh}_{\text{sides}} = 2x^2 + 4x \cdot \frac{8}{x^2} = 2x^2 + \frac{32}{x}, x > 0$

The domain is $(0, \infty)$, an unbounded open interval.

$$\frac{dA}{dx} = 4x - \frac{32}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x^2} (x^3 - 8)$$

The critical point is at $x=2$.
 (Recall: critical points are where the derivative is zero or undefined. There are no points of the domain where $\frac{dA}{dx}$ is undefined, only one point where $\frac{dA}{dx} = 0$.)

For $0 < x < 2$, $\frac{dA}{dx} < 0$ so $A(x)$ is decreasing.
 For $x=2$, $\frac{dA}{dx} = 0$.
 For $x > 2$, $\frac{dA}{dx} > 0$ so $A(x)$ is increasing.

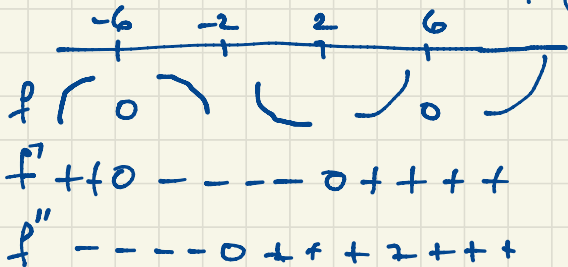


So the minimum surface area $A(2) = 12\text{m}^2$ occurs for a box of size $2\text{m} \times 2\text{m} \times 2\text{m}$.

Sec 4.4. p. 278 # 21. $f(x) = (x-6)(x+6)^2 = (x^2-36)(x+6) = x^3 + 6x^2 - 36x - 216$

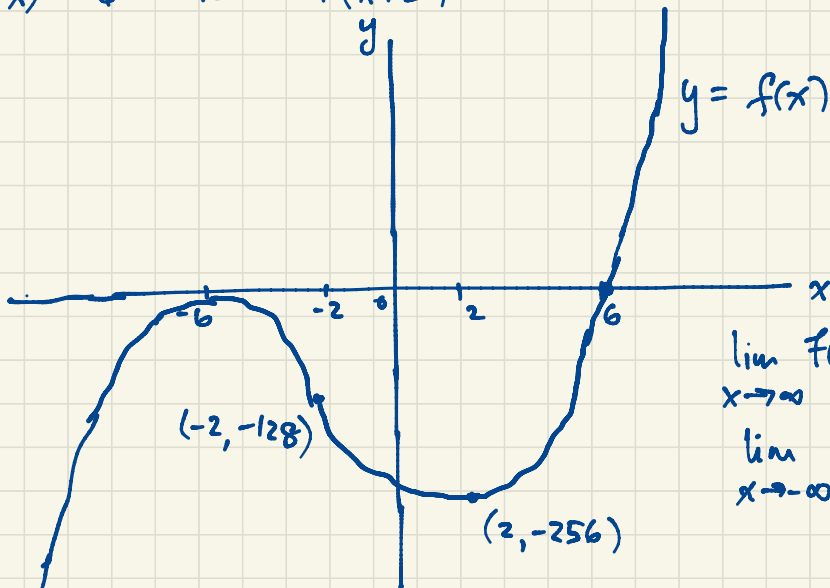
$$f'(x) = 3x^2 + 12x - 36 = 3(x^2 + 4x - 12) = 3(x+6)(x-2)$$

$$f''(x) = 6x + 12 = 6(x+2)$$



$$f(-2) = (-8)(4)^2 = -128$$

$$f(2) = (-4)(8^2) = -256$$

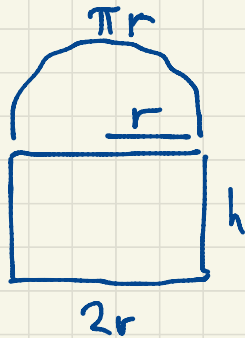


April 14

f is increasing on $(-\infty, -6)$ and on $(2, \infty)$,
 decreasing on $(-6, 2)$,
 concave down on $(-\infty, -2)$,
 concave up on $(-2, \infty)$.

f has an inflection point $(-2, -128)$,
 a local minimum point $(2, -256)$,
 a local maximum point $(-6, 0)$,
 no absolute extrema or asymptotes.

Sec 4.5 p. 287 #41. Let r be the radius of the semicircular window pane.



The perimeter is $P = \pi r + 2r + 2h = 20$

$$(\pi + 2)r + 2h = 20$$

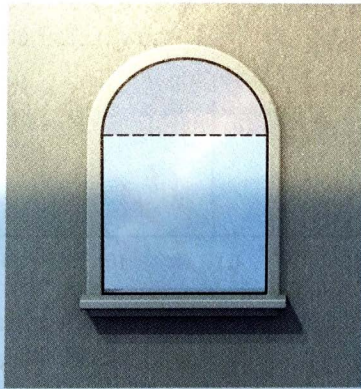
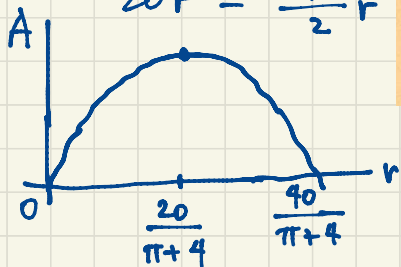
$$2h = 20 - \pi r - 2r$$

$$h = 10 - \frac{\pi + 2}{2}r$$

41. A window consists of rectangular pane of glass surmounted by a semicircular pane of glass (see figure). If the perimeter of the window is 20 feet, determine the dimensions of the window that maximize the area of the window.

$$\frac{dA}{dr} = 20 - (\pi + 4)r$$

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{\pi}{2}r^2 + 2rh \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2}r^2 + 2r\left(10 - \frac{\pi + 2}{2}r\right) \\ &= 20r + \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - (\pi + 2)\right)r^2 \\ &= 20r - \frac{\pi + 4}{2}r^2 \end{aligned}$$



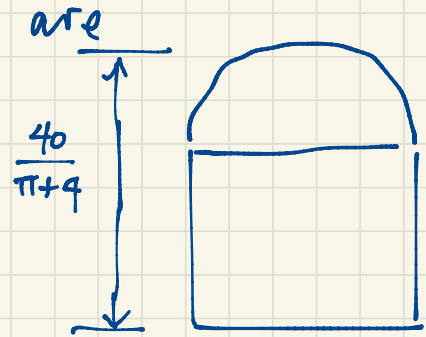
The critical point is at $r = \frac{20}{\pi + 4}$.
When $0 < r < \frac{20}{\pi + 4}$, $\frac{dA}{dr} > 0$ so A is increasing.

When $\frac{20}{\pi + 4} < r < \frac{40}{\pi + 4}$, $\frac{dA}{dr} < 0$ so A is decreasing.

$$A = \left(20 - \frac{\pi + 4}{2}r\right)r$$

So the maximum area occurs when $r = \frac{20}{\pi + 4}$. Alternatively since $A \geq 0$ requires r to be in $\left[0, \frac{40}{\pi + 4}\right]$, we need only check A at endpoints and the critical point.

The dimensions of the window that maximizes the area



$$r = \frac{20}{\pi+4}$$

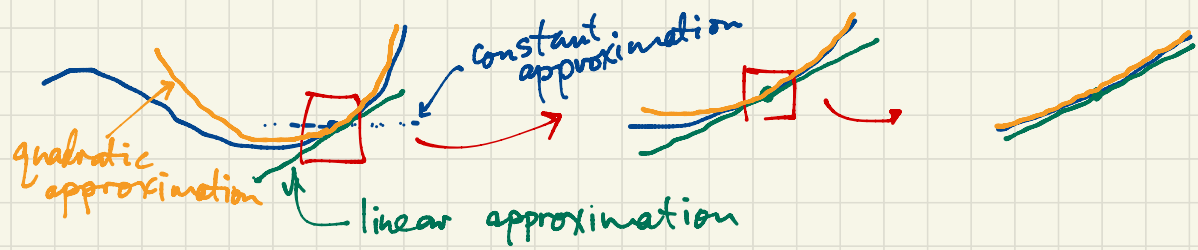
$$h = 10 - \frac{\pi+2}{2}r = 10 - \frac{\pi+2}{2} \cdot \frac{20}{\pi+4}$$

$$= 10 - \frac{10(\pi+2)}{\pi+4}$$

$$= \frac{10(\pi+4) - 10(\pi+2)}{\pi+4}$$

$$2r = \frac{40}{\pi+4}$$

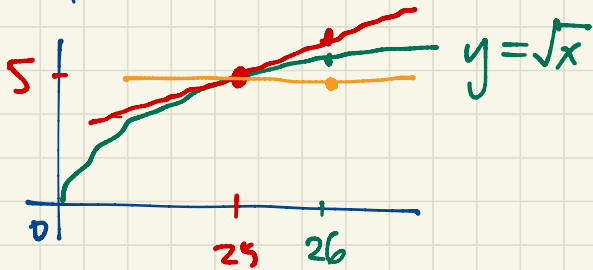
Sec 4.6. Linearization and Differentials $= \frac{20}{\pi+4}$



April 15

For x close to a , $f(x) \approx L(x) = f'(a)(x-a) + f(a) = \boxed{}x + \boxed{}$
 approximately equal to linearization of f at $(a, f(a))$
 $f'(a)$ $f(a) - af'(a)$

Example: Use the linearization of \sqrt{x} at $(25, 5)$ to approximate $\sqrt{26}$.



$$f(x) = \sqrt{x}, \quad f(25) = 5$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}, \quad f'(25) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{25}} = \frac{1}{10}$$

The linearization of \sqrt{x} at $(25, 5)$ is

$$\begin{aligned} L(x) &= f'(25)(x-25) + f(25) \\ &= \frac{1}{10}(x-25) + 5. \end{aligned}$$

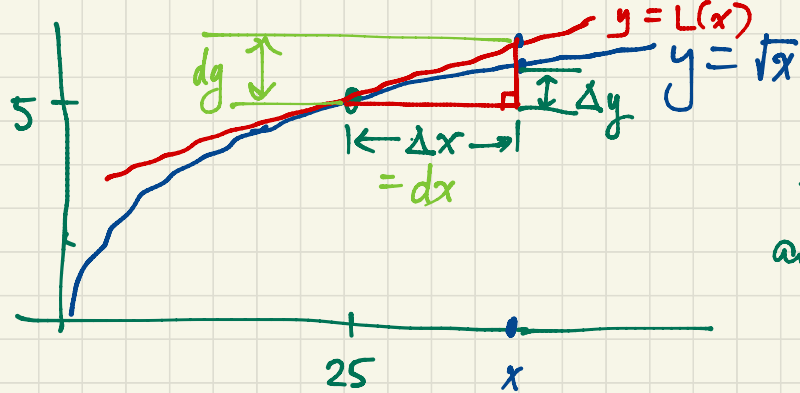
If $x \approx 25$ then $\sqrt{x} \approx \frac{1}{10}(x-25) + 5$.

$$\text{Eq. } \sqrt{26} \approx \frac{1}{10}(26-25) + 5 = 5.1$$

$$\text{Check: } \sqrt{26} \approx 5.099019514$$

correct to 3 significant digits.

Coarser approximation: $\sqrt{26} \approx 5$. (correct to one significant digit)
 Constant approximation $\sqrt{x} \approx 5$



If we move from $(25, 5)$ to $(x, f(x))$ on the graph, our actual function $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ changes by an exact amount

$$\Delta g = f(x) - f(25).$$

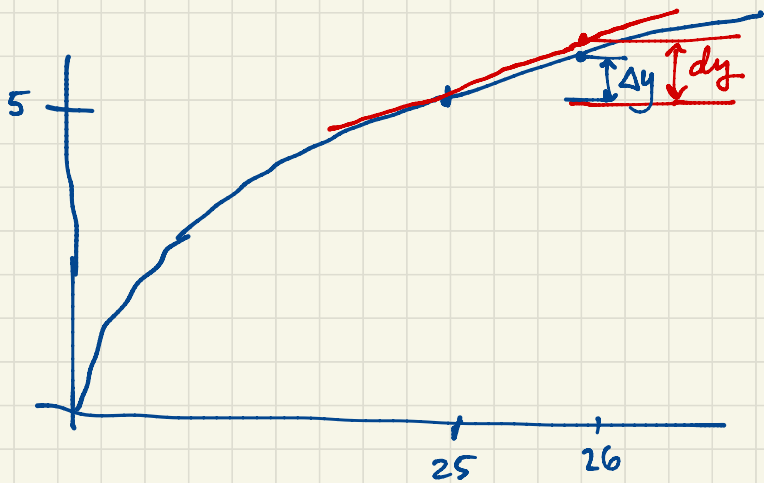
The secant line from $(25, 5)$ to $(x, f(x))$ has slope $\frac{\Delta g}{\Delta x} = \frac{f(x) - f(25)}{x - 25}$.

On the tangent line,

$$\frac{\Delta L(x)}{\Delta x} = \frac{L(x) - L(25)}{x - 25} = f'(25) = \frac{dy}{dx}$$

Until now we have written $\frac{dy}{dx}$ as an indivisible symbol. Now we are interpreting dx and dy as changes in x and y . They are changes on the tangent line (just like Δx and Δy are corresponding changes on the actual curve of f). dx and dy are differentials.

We'll interpret $\sqrt{26} \approx 5.1$ in this new language:



$$f'(25) = \frac{1}{10} = \frac{dy}{dx} \Rightarrow dy = \frac{1}{10} dx = \frac{1}{10} \times 1 = 0.1$$

$$dx = \Delta x = 26 - 25 = 1$$

As we move from $x=25$ to $x=26$,
the corresponding change in y is

$$\Delta y \approx dy = 0.1.$$

$$\text{So } \sqrt{26} \approx 5.1$$

This is a quick and easy interpretation for differentials. We will be using differentials throughout Calculus.

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

$$x \rightarrow u \rightarrow y$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$$

If $y = \sin x$, find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ and dy .

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x \quad \text{so} \quad dy = (\cos x) dx$$

$$\text{so } \Delta y \approx dy = \cos x dx$$

Sec 1.7 l'Hôpital's Rule

The limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^3 + 2x^2 - x - 1}{2x^3 - 5x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + \frac{2}{x} - \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{x^3}}{2 - \frac{5}{x^2}} = \frac{1}{2}$.

"indeterminate form $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ "

determinate form

The limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{3x^2 + 5} = 0$.

"determinate form $\frac{1}{\infty}$ "

Do not confuse l'Hôpital's Rule with the Quotient Rule!

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$

indeterminate

form $\frac{0}{0}$

l'Hôpital's Rule For limits of indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$ or $\frac{\pm\infty}{\pm\infty}$, $\lim_x \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_x \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$

assuming the second limit exists.

eg. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} = 1$.

eg. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^3 + 2x^2 - x - 1}{2x^3 - 5x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3x^2 + 4x - 1}{6x^2 - 5} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{6x + 4}{12x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{6}{12} = \frac{1}{2}$

eg. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x e^{-x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{e^x} = 0$

indeterminate form $\infty \cdot 0$ indeterminate form $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$

eg. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{-\frac{1}{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (-x) = 0.$

indeterminate form $0 \cdot (-\infty)$ indeterminate $\frac{-\infty}{\infty}$

Don't keep using l'Hôpital's Rule beyond this point; that approach never reaches a conclusion.

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{x}{\frac{1}{\ln x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{-\frac{1}{(\ln x)^2} \cdot \frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (-x (\ln x)^2)$ this is not an improvement!

indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$

$$(a-b)(a+b) = a^2 - b^2$$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{x^2 + 10x} - x) \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 10x} + x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 10x} + x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 + 10x - x^2}{\sqrt{x^2 + 10x} + x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{10x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 10x} + x}$

indeterminate form $\infty - \infty$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{10}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{10}{x}} + 1} = \frac{10}{\sqrt{1+0} + 1} = 5.$$

Note:

$$\sqrt{x^2 + 10x} = \sqrt{x^2 \left(1 + \frac{10}{x}\right)} = x \sqrt{1 + \frac{10}{x}}$$

$$\sqrt{x^2} = |x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

April 20

Another l'Hôpital's Rule example for the indeterminate form 1^∞ .

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)^x \text{ where } a \text{ is constant.}$$

In order to use l'Hôpital's Rule, we need to rewrite this as a quotient.

$$b^c = (e^{\ln b})^c = e^{c \ln b}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)^x = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{x \ln \left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)} = \lim_{u \rightarrow 1} e^{\frac{a}{u-1} \ln u} = e^{a \cdot 1} = e^a.$$

$$u = 1 + \frac{a}{x} \rightarrow 1.$$

$$\lim_{u \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln u}{u-1} = \lim_{u \rightarrow 1} \frac{1/u}{1} = 1.$$

$$u-1 = \frac{a}{x}$$

$$x = \frac{a}{u-1}$$

(indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$)

$$\text{If } f(x) = e^{ax} \text{ then } \lim_{u \rightarrow 1} f\left(\frac{\ln u}{u-1}\right) = f\left(\lim_{u \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln u}{u-1}\right) = f(1) = e^{a \cdot 1} = e^a.$$

Does $\lim_u f(g(u)) = f(\lim_u g(u))$? Can you move the limit inside?

We can do this when f is continuous and g is continuous.

$$c = \lim_u g(u), \text{ write } t = g(u) \rightarrow c. \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow c} f(t) = f(c).$$

Some books define $e^r = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{r}{x}\right)^x$.

This limit comes from compound interest.

If you deposit a principal amount A in the bank at nominal interest rate r (eg. 5% interest per annum would give $r = 0.05$). If interest is compounded annually then after one year you have earned rA interest. The total balance in the bank after a year would be $A + rA = (1+r)A$.

If interest is compounded semiannually (every 6 months) then after 6 months you have $(1 + \frac{r}{2})A$ as balance after 6 months; then at the end of the year you have $(1 + \frac{r}{2}) \cdot (1 + \frac{r}{2})A = (1 + \frac{r}{2})^2 A = (1 + r + \frac{r^2}{4})A$.

If interest is compounded n times per year then every $\frac{1}{n}$ year your balance is multiplied by $1 + \frac{r}{n}$. After one year your balance is $(1 + \frac{r}{n})^n A$.

For continually compounded interest we let $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^n A = e^r A$. Eg. 5% interest compounded continuously results in

balance $e^{0.05} A \approx 1.05127 A$ (effectively 5.127% interest rate per annum).

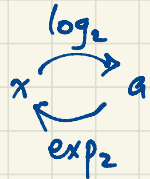
p. 31 # 69. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log_2 x}{\log_3 x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(\ln x) / \ln 2}{(\ln x) / \ln 3} = \frac{\ln 3}{\ln 2} = \log_2 3$

$\log_2 x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln 2}$ why?

$a = \log_2 x \iff 2^a = x \iff \ln(2^a) = \ln x$

$\iff a \ln 2 = \ln x$

$\iff a = \frac{\ln x}{\ln 2}$



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Sec 4.6 Linearization and Differentials

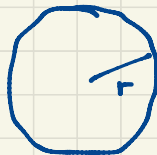
$y = f(x)$

$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$

$\Delta y \approx dy = f'(x) dx = f'(x) \Delta x$

small change in y
due to change
in x .

Formulas for area and circumference of a circle

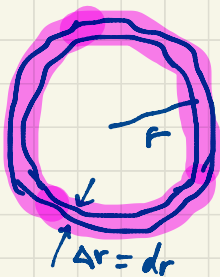


$A = \pi r^2$

$C = 2\pi r$

From the formula $A = \pi r^2$ you can deduce the formula $C = 2\pi r$ using linearization.

Starting with a circle of radius r , area $A = \pi r^2$, enlarge the circle by expanding the radius by a small amount Δr .



$$\Delta A \approx C \Delta r \approx C \Delta r$$

$$\Delta A \approx dA = 2\pi r dr = 2\pi r \Delta r$$

$$A = \pi r^2$$

$$\frac{dA}{dr} = 2\pi r$$

$$dA = 2\pi r dr$$

$$\text{So } C = 2\pi r.$$

For a sphere of radius r ,

$$V = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3. \quad \text{What is the surface area?}$$

Imagine painting the surface of a ball of radius r . How much paint is required to paint the surface? If I add a layer of paint of thickness Δr then the new volume changes by

$$\Delta V \approx A \Delta r$$

$$\Delta V \approx dV = 4\pi r^2 dr = 4\pi r^2 \Delta r$$

$$\text{So } A = 4\pi r^2.$$

Sec 4.6 p. 299 #28. $f(x) = \frac{x}{x+1}$. Approximate $f(1.1)$ using the linearization at $x=1$.

$f(1) = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5$. This value is the base for our linearization.

$$L(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a), \quad a=1$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4}(x-1)$$

$$f(1.1) \approx L(1.1) = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4}(0.1) = 0.5 + 0.025 = 0.525$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x) = \frac{(x+1) \cdot 1 - x \cdot 1}{(x+1)^2}$$

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

$$dy = \frac{dx}{(x+1)^2}$$

Alternatively using differentials:

x goes from 1 to 1.1, a small change of $\Delta x = dx = 0.1$. What is the corresponding change in y ?

$$\Delta y \approx dy = \frac{dx}{(x+1)^2}$$

$$\Delta y \approx \frac{\Delta x}{(1+1)^2} = \frac{\Delta x}{4} = \frac{0.1}{4} = 0.025$$

$$y \approx 0.5 + \Delta y = 0.525.$$

Actually $0.0023 = 0.23\%$
"per cent" means "divided by 100"

$$f(1.1) = \frac{1.1}{2.1} = 0.52380952\dots$$

The error is $0.525 - f(1.1) = 0.00119\dots$

The relative error is $\frac{0.00119}{0.5238} = 0.0023\dots$

(an over estimate since this difference is positive).

The percentage error is $0.0023 \times 100\% = 0.23\%$
(about a quarter of a percent error).

Sec 4.9 Antiderivatives

$$\frac{d}{dx} (7x^2 + 2x + 1)^3 = 3(7x^2 + 2x + 1)^2 (14x + 2).$$

Reverse: ~~The~~ ^{An} antiderivative of $3(7x^2 + 2x + 1)^2 (14x + 2)$ is $(7x^2 + 2x + 1)^3$.

The general answer for antiderivative: $(7x^2 + 2x + 1)^3 + \text{constant}$.

$$\frac{d}{dx} [(7x^2 + 2x + 1)^3 + 11] = 3(7x^2 + 2x + 1)^2 (14x + 2).$$

We write $\int 3(7x^2 + 2x + 1)^2 (14x + 2) dx = (7x^2 + 2x + 1)^3 + C$ where C is an arbitrary

The general antiderivative of $3(7x^2 + 2x + 1)^2 (14x + 2)$ with constant respect to x is $(7x^2 + 2x + 1)^3 + \text{constant}$.

April 22

$$\text{eg. } \int x^k dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{k+1} x^{k+1}, & \text{if } k \neq -1 \\ \ln|x|, & \text{if } k = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Check: } \frac{d}{dx} \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} = \frac{(k+1)}{k+1} x^k = x^k \quad (k \text{ constant}).$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\ln|x|) = x^{-1} = \frac{1}{x}$$

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

Check: $\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{1}{4}x^4 - \frac{7}{3}x^3 - \frac{5}{2}x^2 + 3x + C \right) = x^3 - 7x^2 - 5x + 3$

Compare notation: $\int f(x) dx$ antiderivative (function) (indefinite integral)

vs. $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ integral (a number) (definite integral)

↑
Integrand

How do we find antiderivatives? Best method: guess and check.

Eq. $\int x \sin x dx = \sin x - x \cos x + C$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (?) = x \sin x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (x \cos x) = 1 \cdot \cos x + x \cdot (-\sin x) = \cos x - x \sin x$$

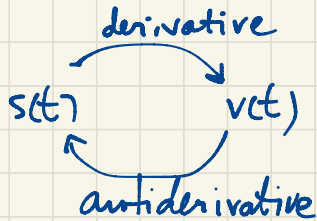
$$\frac{d}{dx} (-\cos x) = \sin x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (x \cos x - \sin x) = (\cancel{\cos x} - x \sin x) - \cancel{\cos x} = -x \sin x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\sin x - x \cos x) = x \sin x$$

Sec 4.9 #92. Given velocity $v(t) = e^t + 4$ } initial value problem
 and initial position $s(0) = 2$ }
 find $s(t)$, the position at time t .

Recall $s'(t) = v(t)$ so $s(t) = \int v(t) dt = \int (e^t + 4) dt = e^t + 4t + C$



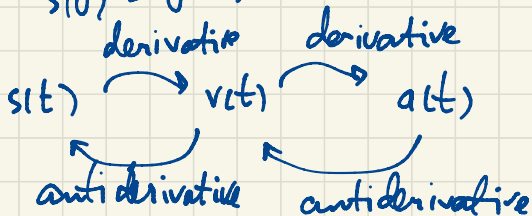
Using $s(0) = 2$, find C .

$$s(t) = e^t + 4t + C$$

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

So $s(t) = e^t + 4t + 1$.

#97. $a(t) = -32$ } differential equation } initial value problem
 $v(0) = 20$ } initial conditions }
 $s(0) = 0$ }



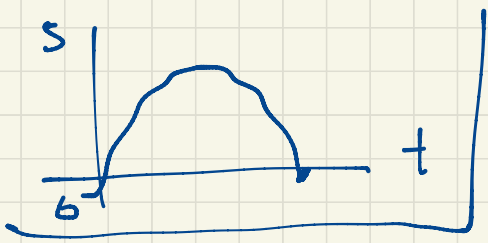
$$v(t) = \int a(t) dt = \int (-32) dt = -32t + C$$

$$20 = v(0) = C \Rightarrow v(t) = -32t + 20$$

$$s(t) = \int v(t) dt = \int (-32t + 20) dt = -16t^2 + 20t + K$$

Since $s(0) = 0 = K$,

$s(t) = -16t^2 + 20t$.



#100. $a(t) = 2 \cos t$

$$v(0) = 1$$

$$s(0) = 0$$

$$v(t) = \int a(t) dt = \int 2 \cos t dt = 2 \sin t + C$$

$$1 = v(0) = C \Rightarrow v(t) = 2 \sin t + 1$$

$$s(t) = \int v(t) dt = \int (2 \sin t + 1) dt$$

$$= -2 \cos t + t + K$$

$$0 = s(0) = -2 + K \Rightarrow K = 2$$

$$s(t) = -2 \cos t + t + 2$$

$$\int \frac{dt}{t^2+1} = \int \frac{1}{t^2+1} dt = \tan^{-1} t + C$$

~~$$\int \tan^{-1} t dt = \frac{1}{t^2+1}$$~~

$$\int \frac{dt}{t} = \int \frac{1}{t} dt = \ln |t| + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dt} \frac{1}{t^2+1} = -\frac{1}{(t^2+1)^2} \cdot 2t = -\frac{2t}{(t^2+1)^2}$$

$$\int dt = \int 1 dt = t + C$$

April 24

Bouncing up on l'Hôpital's Rule

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{e^x} = 0 \quad (n \text{ applications of l'Hôpital's Rule})$$

$$\text{Eq for } n=4, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^4}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4x^3}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{12x^2}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{24x}{e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{24}{e^x} = 0.$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^4}{e^{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4x^3}{2xe^{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2}{e^{x^2}} = \dots = 0.$$

$$e^{x^2} = e^{(x^2)} \quad \text{or } \cancel{(e^x)^2}$$

$$(e^x)^2 = e^{2x}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^4}{e^{x^2}} = \lim_{u \rightarrow \infty} \frac{u^2}{e^u} = 0$$

$$u = x^2$$

$$\text{OR: } 0 < \frac{x^4}{e^{x^2}} < \frac{x^4}{e^x} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^4}{e^{x^2}} = 0 \text{ by the Squeeze Theorem.}$$

$$\text{p. 311 \# 28. } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{x - 3\sqrt{x}}{x - \sqrt{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1 - \frac{3}{2\sqrt{x}}}{1 - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{2\sqrt{x} - 3}{2\sqrt{x} - 1} = 3.$$

$$\text{OR } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{x - 3\sqrt{x}}{x - \sqrt{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\sqrt{x} - 3}{\sqrt{x} - 1} = \frac{0 - 3}{0 - 1} = 3.$$

$$\#40. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x - x}{7x^3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x - 1}{21x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-\sin x}{42x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-\cos x}{42} = -\frac{1}{42}$$

$$\#83. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x + \cos x)^{1/x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} e^{\frac{1}{x} \ln(x + \cos x)} = e' = e$$

indeterminate form 1^∞

using $e^{\ln a} = a$, $e^{\ln(x + \cos x)} = (x + \cos x)$

Compare: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (x+1)^{1/x} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{t}\right)^t = e$

$$t = \frac{1}{x} \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(x + \cos x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{x + \cos x} (1 - \sin x)}{1} = 1$$

indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$

$$\#68. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^{\frac{1}{\ln x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} e^{\frac{1}{\ln x} \ln x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} e = e$$

$$x = e^{\ln x} \Rightarrow x^{\frac{1}{\ln x}} = (e^{\ln x})^{\frac{1}{\ln x}} = e$$

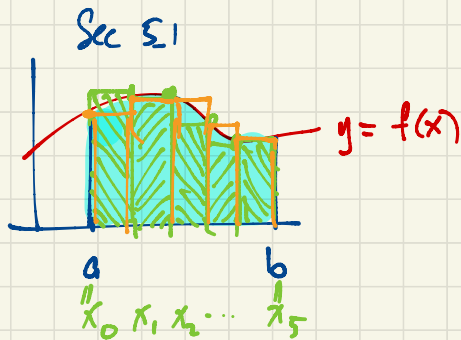
$$\#20. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{2x + 5} = \frac{0}{5} = 0$$

Also:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 0$$

$$\frac{-1}{x} \leq \frac{\sin x}{x} \leq \frac{1}{x}$$

April 27



Find the area shaded (under the graph of f , above the x -axis, for $a \leq x \leq b$).

Idea: Take large n . Divide $[a, b]$ into n subintervals each width $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$. Mark off points $x_0 = a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n = b$ equally spaced Δx apart. i.e. $x_i = a + i\Delta x$.

The Right Riemann Sum ^{with $n=5$} approximates the shaded area as

$$f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + f(x_3)\Delta x + f(x_4)\Delta x + f(x_5)\Delta x = \sum_{i=1}^5 f(x_i)\Delta x \quad (\text{the sum of } f(x_i)\Delta x \text{ as } i \text{ ranges from 1 to 5})$$

The left Riemann sum with $n=5$ subintervals is

$$\sum_{i=1}^5 f(x_{i-1})\Delta x = f(x_0)\Delta x + f(x_1)\Delta x + f(x_2)\Delta x + f(x_3)\Delta x + f(x_4)\Delta x.$$

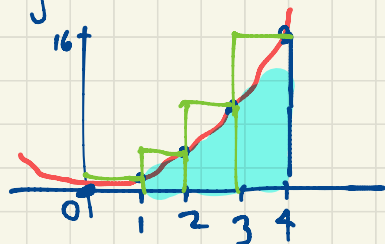
The midpoint Riemann sum with $n=5$ subintervals is

$$\sum_{i=1}^5 f\left(\frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2}\right)\Delta x = f\left(\frac{x_0 + x_1}{2}\right)\Delta x + f\left(\frac{x_1 + x_2}{2}\right)\Delta x + \dots + f\left(\frac{x_4 + x_5}{2}\right)\Delta x$$

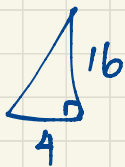
midpoint of
the i^{th} subinterval

$$[x_{i-1}, x_i]$$

Ex. We want the area of $0 \leq y \leq x^2$, $0 \leq x \leq 4$.



Compare:



triangle has area $\frac{1}{2} \times 4 \times 16 = 32$.

So our area should be less than 32.

The Right Riemann Sum approximation with $n=4$ subintervals:

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 f(x_i) \Delta x = 1 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 1 + 9 \cdot 1 + 16 \cdot 1 = 30.$$

$$\Delta x = \frac{4-0}{4} = 1$$

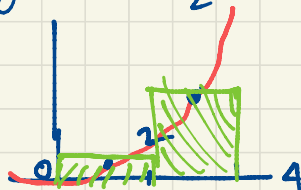
The left Riemann Sum approximation with $n=4$ subintervals is

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 f(x_{i-1}) \Delta x = 0 \cdot 1 + 1 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 1 + 9 \cdot 1 = 14.$$

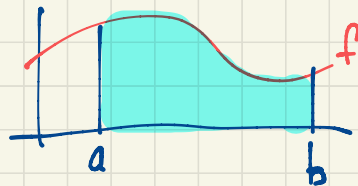
The true area is between 14 and 30. (The average is $\frac{30+14}{2} = 22$)

The midpoint Riemann Sum with $n=2$ subintervals, $\Delta x = \frac{4-0}{2} = 2$:

$$\sum_{i=1}^2 f\left(\frac{x_{i-1}+x_i}{2}\right) \Delta x = f\left(\frac{0+2}{2}\right) \cdot 2 + f\left(\frac{2+4}{2}\right) \cdot 2 = f(1) \cdot 2 + f(3) \cdot 2 = 1 \cdot 2 + 9 \cdot 2 = 20.$$



A Riemann Sum approximation to the area with n subintervals of width $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ has the form



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

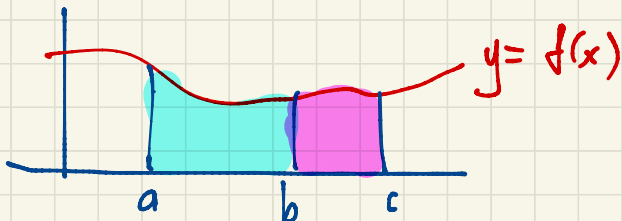
pick a point x_i^* in the i^{th} subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$

Now let $n \rightarrow \infty$.

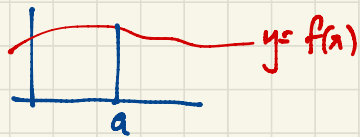
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x = \int_a^b f(x) dx, \text{ the Riemann integral of } f \text{ from } a \text{ to } b.$$

Sec 5.2 (mostly) Properties of Integrals

April 28



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



$$\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^a f(x) dx = \int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$$

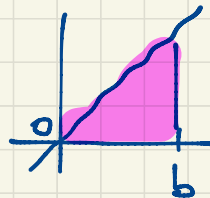
$$\text{so } \int_b^a f(x) dx = -\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

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

↑
or x_i^*

$$\int_0^b x dx = \frac{b^2}{2}$$

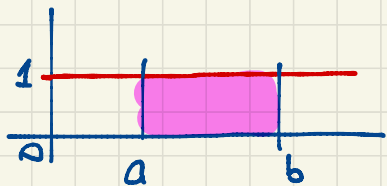
$$\int_a^b (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$$



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

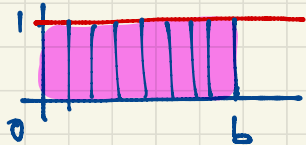
$c = \text{constant}$

$$\int_a^b 1 dx = \int_a^b dx = b-a$$



$$\underbrace{\int_0^a dx}_a + \underbrace{\int_a^b dx}_{b-a} = \underbrace{\int_0^b dx}_b$$

$$\int_0^b dx = b$$



$$\int_0^b 1 dx = b$$

$$\int_0^b x dx = \frac{b^2}{2}$$

$$\int_0^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3}{3}$$

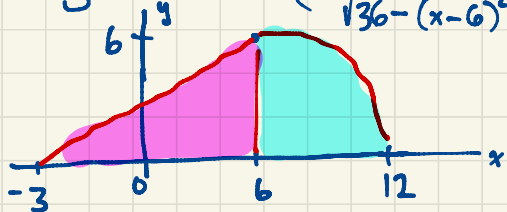
$$\int_0^b x^k dx = \frac{b^{k+1}}{k+1}$$

Compare:

$$\int x^k dx = \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} \text{ if } k \neq -1$$

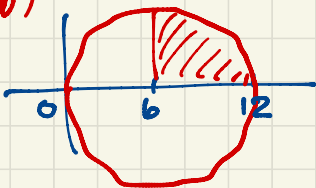
if $k \neq -1$

Ex. $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2}(x+3) & \text{for } -3 \leq x \leq 6 \\ \sqrt{36 - (x-6)^2} & \text{for } 6 \leq x \leq 12 \end{cases}$



circle
center at $(6, 0)$
radius b

$$(x-6)^2 + y^2 = 36 = 6^2$$

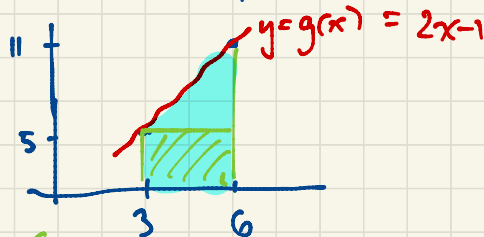


$$\int_{-3}^{12} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \times 9 \times 6 + \frac{36\pi}{4} = 27 + 9\pi$$

$$\int_3^6 g(x) dx$$

$$= 3 \times 5 + \frac{1}{2} \times 3 \times 6$$

$$= 15 + 9 = 24$$



Second way: $\int_3^6 g(x) dx = 3 \times \frac{5+11}{2} = 3 \times 8 = 24$

base average height

Third way: $y = g(x)$ has slope $\frac{11-5}{6-3} = \frac{6}{3} = 2$

Ifs equation is $y - 5 = 2(x - 3)$
i.e. $y = 2x - 1$

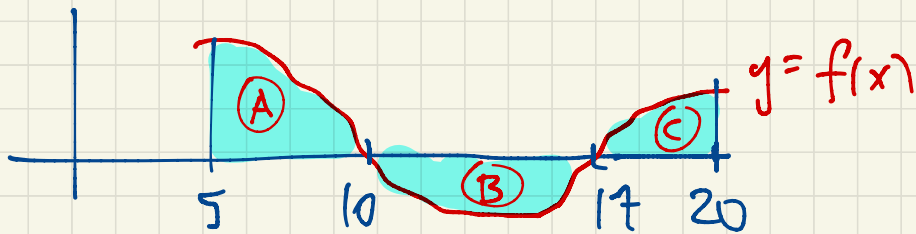
$$\int_3^6 g(x) dx = \int_0^6 g(x) dx - \int_0^3 g(x) dx$$

$$= 30 - 6 = 24$$

$$\int_0^3 g(x) dx = 2 \cdot \frac{3^2}{2} - 3 = 6$$

$$\int_0^6 g(x) dx = \int_0^6 (2x - 1) dx = 2 \int_0^6 x dx - \int_0^6 dx$$

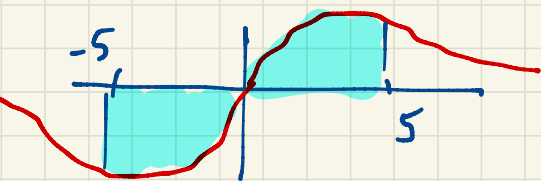
$$= 2 \cdot \frac{6^2}{2} - 6 = 30$$



$$\int_5^{20} f(x) dx = \int_5^{10} f(x) dx + \int_{10}^{17} -f(x) dx + \int_{17}^{20} f(x) dx$$

area of (A) \rightarrow $\int_5^{10} f(x) dx$
 $-(\text{area of (B)}) \rightarrow \int_{10}^{17} -f(x) dx$
 \rightarrow area of (C) $\int_{17}^{20} f(x) dx$

Eg. $\int_{-5}^5 \frac{x}{x^{10}+1} dx = 0$ by symmetry



Sec 5.2 Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

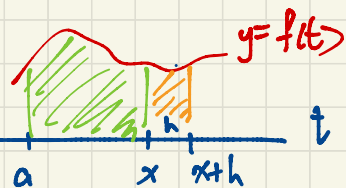
(April 29)

Let a, x be points in an interval where f is defined. Look at

$$F(x+h) \approx F(x) + h f(x)$$

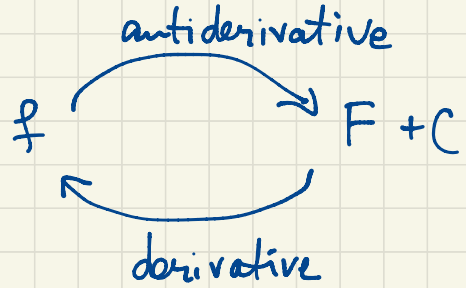
$$f(x) \approx \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$$

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



Let $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$. Then $F'(x) = f(x)$.

Why? $\int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt = \underbrace{\int_a^x f(t) dt}_{F(x)} + \underbrace{\int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt}_{\approx h f(x)}$



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

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$

This is one form of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

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

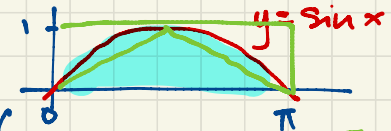
In a nutshell: If you start with f and you integrate, then differentiate, you get back the original f .

The other way around gives the other form of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus: If you start with a function F , take its derivative, then integrate, you get back $F + C$.

eg. Find the shaded area under the first arch of the sine curve:

$$\text{Area} = \int_0^{\pi} f(x) dx = F(\pi) = 1 - \cos \pi = 1 - (-1) = 2$$

$$F(x) = 1 - \cos x$$



$$\text{Use } F(x) = \int_0^x \sin t dt, \quad F'(x) = \sin x \Rightarrow F(x) = -\cos x + C$$

$$0 = F(0) = -\cos 0 + C \Rightarrow C = 1$$

$\frac{\pi}{2} < \text{Area} < \pi$

The mechanics of using the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to get an integral:
Evaluate the antiderivative between the two endpoints.

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = F(\pi) - F(0) = \underbrace{-\cos(\pi)}_{F(\pi)} - \underbrace{(-\cos 0)}_{F(0)} = 1 + 1 = 2.$$

First find an antiderivative $F(x)$ for $\sin x$. I can use $F(x) = -\cos x$.
(Any antiderivative will do because the $+C$ will cancel in the end.)

In practice we write:

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = \left[\cos x \right]_0^{\pi} = -\cos \pi - (-\cos 0) = 1 + 1 = 2.$$

Notation:

$$\left[F(x) \right]_a^b = F(b) - F(a).$$

Note: If $F(x) = \int f(x) \, dx$ (antiderivative)

$$\text{then } \left[F(x) \right]_a^b = F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

$$\text{i.e. } \left[\int f(x) \, dx \right]_a^b = \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

eg. $\left[e^{x^2} \right]_1^3 = e^9 - e$

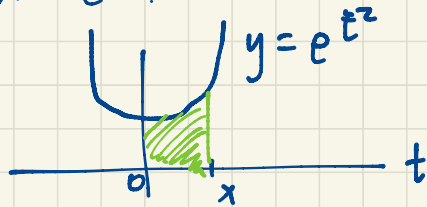
$$\text{Eg. } \int_1^3 (6x^2 + 4x + 3) dx = \left[2x^3 + 2x^2 + 3x \right]_1^3 = \left[2 \times 27 + 2 \times 9 + 9 \right] - \left[2 + 2 + 3 \right] \\ = 81 - 7 = 74.$$

$$\int_1^3 e^{x^2} dx =$$

Find an antiderivative for e^{x^2} ? No nice formula for it.

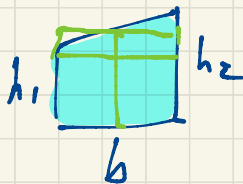
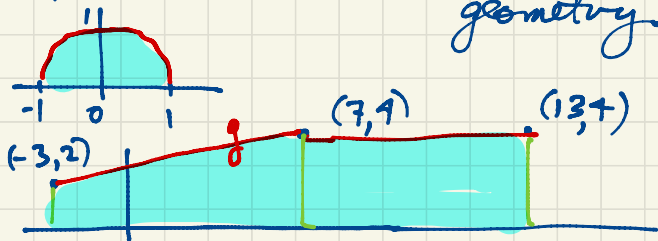
I know there is an antiderivative for e^{x^2} . Here it is:

$$F(x) = \int_0^x e^{t^2} dt$$



May 1

$$\int_{-1}^1 \sqrt{1-x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \text{ using high school geometry.}$$

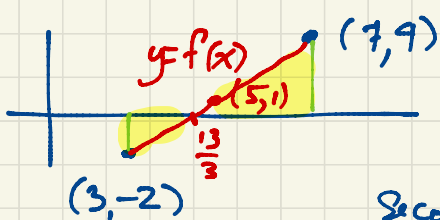


Area of trapezoid is

$$\frac{h_1 + h_2}{2} b$$

$$\frac{4+2}{2} = 3$$

$$\int_{-3}^{13} g(x) dx = 10 \times 3 + 6 \times 4 \\ = 54$$



midpoint Riemann sum with one subinterval

$$\int_3^7 f(x) dx = 4 \times 1 = 4.$$

$$\text{slope} = \frac{6}{4} = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$y + 2 = \frac{3}{2}(x - 3)$$

$$y = \frac{3}{2}x - \frac{13}{2}$$

Second solution:

$$x\text{-intercept is: } \frac{13}{3}$$

$$\text{solve } 0 = \frac{3}{2}x - \frac{13}{2}$$

$$\int_3^7 f(x) dx = (\text{Area above } x\text{-axis}) - (\text{Area below } x\text{-axis})$$

$$= \frac{(7 - \frac{13}{3}) \times 4}{2} - \frac{(\frac{13}{3} - 3) \times 2}{2}$$

$$= \frac{\frac{8}{3} \times 4}{2} - \frac{\frac{4}{3} \times 2}{2} = \frac{16}{3} - \frac{4}{3} = \frac{12}{3} = 4.$$

Third solution: Use the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$$\int_3^7 \left(\frac{3}{2}x - \frac{13}{2}\right) dx = \left[\frac{3}{4}x^2 - \frac{13}{2}x \right]_3^7 = \left[\frac{3 \times 49}{4} - \frac{13 \times 7}{2} \right] - \left[\frac{3 \times 9}{4} - \frac{13 \times 3}{2} \right]$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{F(x)} \qquad \qquad \qquad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{F(7)} \qquad \qquad \qquad \underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{F(3)}$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left[\frac{147}{4} - \frac{91}{2} \right] - \left[\frac{27}{4} - \frac{39}{2} \right] \\ &= \frac{120}{4} - \frac{52}{2} = 30 - 26 \\ &= 4. \end{aligned}$$

$$\int_1^3 (6x^2 - 5x + 2) dx = \left[2x^3 - \frac{5}{2}x^2 + 2x \right]_1^3 = \left[54 - \frac{45}{2} + 6 \right] - \left[2 - \frac{5}{2} + 2 \right]$$

$$= 56 - \frac{45}{2} + \frac{5}{2} = 56 - \frac{40}{2} = 56 - 20 = 36.$$

$$\int x^k dx = \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} \quad \text{if } k \neq -1$$

$$\int_0^1 x e^x dx = (x-1)e^x \Big|_0^1 = 0 - (-1) = 1.$$

Use the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus:

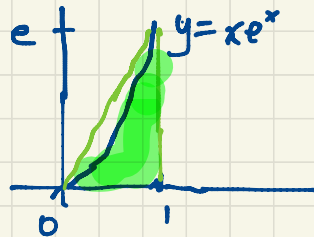
$$\frac{d}{dx} (?) = x e^x ?$$

Guess and check:

$$\frac{d}{dx} (x e^x) = 1 \cdot e^x + x \cdot e^x = e^x + x e^x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (x e^x - e^x) = e^x + x e^x - e^x = x e^x$$

$$\int x e^x dx = (x-1)e^x + C$$



Compare: triangle has area $\frac{e}{2} \approx 1.36$

So ↓ does seem reasonable.

(May 4)

Examples of the first form of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^1 (7t^2+1)e^t dt = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_3^x \underbrace{6t^2 e^{t^3-t}}_{f(t)} dt = 6x^2 e^{x^2-x}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^7 = 0$$

$$f(t) = 6t^2 e^{t^3-t}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^7 = e^7 \cdot \frac{d7}{dx} = 0$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_3^{x^3} \underbrace{\sin t^2}_{f(t)} dt = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} = (\sin u^2) \cdot 3x^2 = 3x^2 \sin x^6$$

$$(\sin t)^2 = \sin^2 t$$

$$y = \int_3^u \sin t^2 dt, \quad u = x^3$$

$$\sin t^2 = \sin(t^2)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_x^2 e^{\sin t} dt = -\frac{d}{dx} \int_2^x e^{\sin t} dt = -e^{\sin x}$$

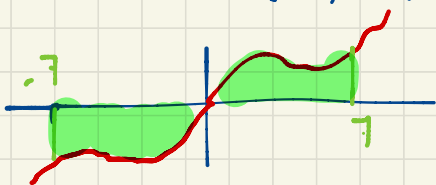
$$\int_0^{\cos x} f(t) dt = \int_0^{x^3} f(t) dt + \int_{x^3}^{\cos x} f(t) dt$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_{x^3}^{\cos x} (t^2+3)^5 dt = \frac{d}{dx} \left[\int_0^{\cos x} (t^2+1)^5 dt - \int_0^{x^3} (t^2+1)^5 dt \right] = (\cos^2 x + 1)^5 \cdot (-\sin x) - (x^3+1)^5 \cdot 3x^2$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 t(35t^4 + \cos t)^7 dt = 0$$

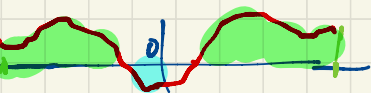
$f(t) = \underbrace{t}_{\text{odd}} \underbrace{(35t^4 + \cos t)^7}_{\text{even}}$ is an odd function

$$f(-t) = -f(t)$$



For an even function $f(-x) = f(x)$,

$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx$$



For an odd function $f(-x) = -f(x)$,

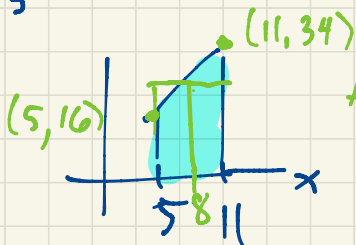
$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0.$$

$$\int_{-1}^1 (\cancel{x^5} - 2x^4 - \cancel{x^3} + 7x^2 + 3\cancel{x} + 1) dx = 2 \int_0^1 (-2x^4 + 7x^2 + 1) dx$$

$$= 2 \left[-\frac{2}{5}x^5 + \frac{7}{3}x^3 + x \right]_0^1 = 2 \left(-\frac{2}{5} + \frac{7}{3} + 1 \right) = 2 \left(\frac{-6 + 35 + 15}{15} \right)$$

$$= 2 \cdot \frac{44}{15} = \frac{88}{15}$$

$$\int_5^{11} (3x+1) dx = \int_5^{11} (3t+1) dt = \int_5^{11} (3u+1) du$$



$$\text{Area} = \frac{1}{2}(16+34) \cdot 6 = \underline{25} \cdot \underline{6}$$

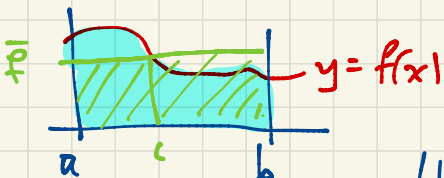
The average value of $3x+1$ on $[5, 11]$ is 25.

For $f(x) = 3x+1$, $\bar{f} = 25$, $f(8) = 25$.

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(s) ds = f(x)$$

May 5



Sec 5.4

\bar{f} = average value of f on $[a, b]$

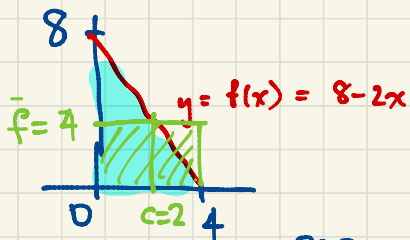
$$(b-a)\bar{f} = \int_a^b f(x) dx \Leftrightarrow \bar{f} = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Mean Value Theorem for Integrals: If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then there exists a point c in $[a, b]$ where $f(c) = \bar{f}$.

p. 386 #39. Find all points in $[0,4]$ where the function $f(x) = 8-2x$ has its average value.

First find $\bar{f} = \frac{1}{4-0} \int_0^4 (8-2x) dx = \frac{1}{4} [8x - x^2]_0^4 = \frac{1}{4} (16 - 0) = 4$

Find all points c in $[0,4]$ where $f(c) = \bar{f} = 4 \Rightarrow 8-2c = 4 \Rightarrow c=2$. (the midpoint of the interval)



$$\text{Area} = \frac{1}{2} \times 4 \times 8 = 16$$

$$\bar{f} = \frac{16}{4} = 4$$

p. 385 #12. $\int_{-200}^{200} 2x^5 dx = 0$.

If you used an antiderivative,

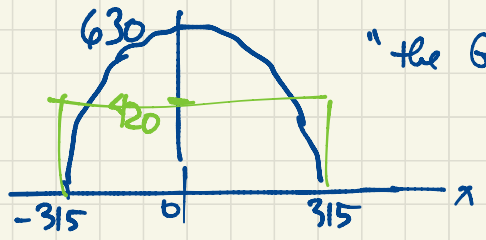
$$\int_{-200}^{200} 2x^5 dx = \frac{x^6}{3} \Big|_{-200}^{200} = 0.$$

#23. $\int_{-2}^2 \frac{x^3 - 4x}{x^2 + 1} dx = 0$.

odd function

#17. $\int_{-2}^2 (\cancel{x^4} - \cancel{3x^5} + \underbrace{2x^2 - 10}_{\text{even function}}) dx = 2 \int_0^2 (2x^2 - 10) dx = 2 \left[\frac{2}{3}x^3 - 10x \right]_0^2 = 2 \left(\frac{16}{3} - 20 \right) = 2 \frac{16-60}{3} = -\frac{88}{3}$

p. 386 #47.



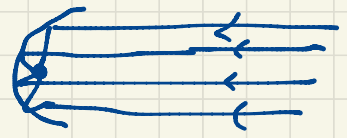
"the Gateway Arch"

$$y = 630 \left(1 - \left(\frac{x}{315} \right)^2 \right)$$

average height: $\frac{1}{630} \int_{-315}^{315} 630 \left(1 - \left(\frac{x}{315} \right)^2 \right) dx = \int_{-315}^{315} \left(1 - \left(\frac{x}{315} \right)^2 \right) dx = 2 \int_0^{315} \left(1 - \left(\frac{x}{315} \right)^2 \right) dx$

$$= 2 \left[x - \frac{x^3}{3 \cdot 315^2} \right]_0^{315} = \frac{2}{3 \cdot 315^2} \left[3 \cdot 315^3 - 315^3 \right] = \frac{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 315}{3} = 420 \text{ ft.}$$

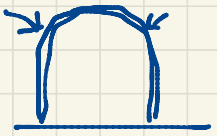
May 6



Catenary

$$y = \cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$$

is the shape of a hanging cable



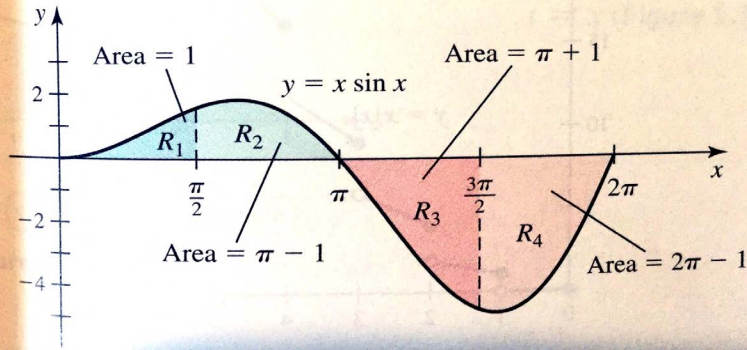
Sec 5.1 p. 350 # 49.

$$(a) \sum_{k=1}^{10} k = 1+2+3+\dots+10 = 55$$

I used $\sum_{k=1}^n k = 1+2+3+\dots+n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

$$(b) \sum_{n=0}^4 \sin \frac{n\pi}{2} = \underbrace{\cancel{\sin \frac{0\pi}{2}}}_0 + \underbrace{\sin \frac{\pi}{2}}_1 + \underbrace{\cancel{\sin \frac{2\pi}{2}}}_0 + \underbrace{\cancel{\sin \frac{3\pi}{2}}}_{-1} + \underbrace{\cancel{\sin \frac{4\pi}{2}}}_0 = 0$$

47-50. The accompanying figure shows four regions bounded by the graph of $y = x \sin x$: R_1 , R_2 , R_3 , and R_4 , whose areas are 1, $\pi - 1$, $\pi + 1$, and $2\pi - 1$, respectively. (We verify these results later in the text.) Use this information to evaluate the following integrals.



$$47. \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x \, dx$$

$$48. \int_0^{3\pi/2} x \sin x \, dx$$

$$49. \int_0^{2\pi} x \sin x \, dx$$

$$50. \int_{\pi/2}^{2\pi} x \sin x \, dx$$

$$\#47. \int_0^{\pi} x \sin x \, dx = R_1 + R_2 = 1 + \pi - 1 = \pi$$

$$\#48. \int_0^{3\pi/2} x \sin x \, dx = R_1 + R_2 - R_3 = \pi - (\pi + 1) = -1$$

$$\#49. \int_0^{2\pi} x \sin x \, dx = \underbrace{R_1 + R_2 - R_3 - R_4}_{-1} = -1 - (2\pi - 1) = -2\pi$$

$$\#50. \int_{\pi/2}^{2\pi} x \sin x \, dx = R_2 - R_3 - R_4 = 2\pi - 1$$

check using the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} x \cos x &= 1 \cdot \cos x + x \cdot (-\sin x) \\ &= \cos x - x \sin x \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (-x \cos x) = -\cos x + x \sin x$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} (-x \cos x + \sin x) &= -\cos x + x \sin x + \cos x \\ &= x \sin x \end{aligned}$$

$$\int x \sin x \, dx = -x \cos x + \sin x + C$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{2\pi} x \sin x \, dx &= \left[-x \cos x + \sin x \right]_0^{2\pi} \\ &= (-2\pi \cdot 1 + 0) - (0 + 0) = -2\pi. \end{aligned}$$

Sec 5.1 p. 350 #43.

x	x_0	x_1	x_2	x_3	x_4
	0	0.5	1.0	1.5	2.0
$f(x)$	5	3	2	1	1

$$n=4$$

$$\Delta x = \frac{2-0}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Approximate $\int_0^2 f(x) dx$ using left and right Riemann sums with $n=4$ subdivisions.

Left Riemann Sum:

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 f(x_{i-1}) \Delta x = (f(x_0) + f(x_1) + f(x_2) + f(x_3)) \Delta x = (5 + 3 + 2 + 1) \times 0.5 = 11 \times 0.5 = 5.5$$

Right Riemann Sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^4 f(x_i) \Delta x = (f(x_1) + f(x_2) + f(x_3) + f(x_4)) \Delta x = (3 + 2 + 1 + 1) \times 0.5 = 7 \times 0.5 = 3.5$$

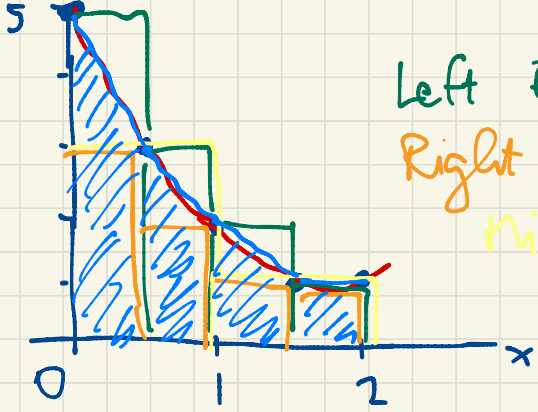
We don't have enough data to find the midpoint Riemann sum with $n=4$ subdivisions because that would require $f\left(\frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2}\right)$ for $i=1, 2, 3, 4$ i.e. $f(0.25)$, $f(0.75)$, $f(1.25)$, $f(1.75)$.

We can give a midpoint Riemann sum with $n=2$ subdivisions

x	$x_0=0$	$\frac{x_0+x_1}{2}=0.5$	$x_1=1$	$\frac{x_1+x_2}{2}=1.5$	$x_2=2$
$f(x)$		3		1	

$$\Delta x = \frac{2-0}{2} = 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^2 f\left(\frac{x_{i-1} + x_i}{2}\right) \Delta x = (f(0.5) + f(1.5)) \cdot 1 = 3 + 1 = 4$$



Left Riemann Sum

Right Riemann Sum

Midpoint Riemann Sum

Trapezoidal Rule

gives $\frac{5.5 + 3.5}{2} = 4.5$