

# Lecture 22, Thursday, November / 23/2023

## Outline

- Trigonometric integrals (8.3)
  - ↳ Integrands with  $\sqrt{1 \pm \cos 2\theta}$
  - ↳  $\int \sin mx \sin nx dx, \int \sin mx \cos nx dx, \int \cos mx \cos nx dx$
- Trigonometric substitutions (8.4)
- Integration by partial fractions (8.5)
  - ↳ Partial fraction decomposition
  - ↳ Finding undetermined coefficients

## Trigonometric Integrals

### Integrands with $\sqrt{1 \pm \cos 2\theta}$

Trigonometric identities involving squares, such as

$$\cos^2 \theta = \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sin^2 \theta = \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2},$$

may help evaluate integrals.

e.g.  $\int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{1 + \cos 4x} dx = \underline{\hspace{10em}}$   
 $= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}.$

### $\int \sin mx \sin nx dx, \int \sin mx \cos nx dx, \int \cos mx \cos nx dx$

These integrals can be computed by using integration by parts twice.

Alternatively, one may memorize the following identities :

$$\begin{aligned}\sin mx \sin nx &= \frac{1}{2} [\cos(m-n)x - \cos(m+n)x], \\ \sin mx \cos nx &= \frac{1}{2} [\sin(m-n)x + \sin(m+n)x], \\ \cos mx \cos nx &= \frac{1}{2} [\cos(m-n)x + \cos(m+n)x].\end{aligned}$$

e.g.  $\int \sin 4x \sin 8x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int (\cos 4x - \cos 12x) dx$

→ Try it again using integration by parts.

## Trigonometric Substitution

We start by considering  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{9+x^2}}$ , with integrand defined on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

If we consider  $x = 3\tan\theta$ , then all  $x$  will be covered by considering all  $\theta \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ . Hence, we may make the following substitution

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{9+x^2}} = \int \frac{3\sec^2\theta d\theta}{\sqrt{9+9\tan^2\theta}}$$

Let  $x = 3\tan\theta, -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$   
 $dx = 3\sec^2\theta d\theta$

$$= 3 \int \frac{\sec^2\theta d\theta}{3\sqrt{\sec^2\theta}} = \int \sec\theta d\theta$$

$\sec\theta > 0$  for  $\theta \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$

$$= \ln|\sec\theta + \tan\theta| + C$$

$$\begin{aligned}\tan\theta &= \frac{x}{3}, \\ \sec\theta &= \sqrt{1+\tan^2\theta} = \sqrt{1+\frac{x^2}{9}} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{9+x^2}}{3}\end{aligned}$$

The technique of trigonometric substitutions may be useful when integrating functions involving  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ ,  $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$  or  $\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$ . The key idea is to make use of the following trigonometric identities:

- $1 - \sin^2\theta = \cos^2\theta$ .
- $\sec^2\theta - 1 = \tan^2\theta$ .
- $1 + \tan^2\theta = \sec^2\theta$ .

Depending on whether the integrand involves  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ ,  $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$  or  $\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$ , we can make the substitution  $x = a\sin\theta$ ,  $x = a\sec\theta$  or  $x = a\tan\theta$  accordingly.

Remark: For the substitution  $x = f(\theta)$ , the domain of  $f$  is chosen so that  $f$  covers all the possible values of  $x$ .

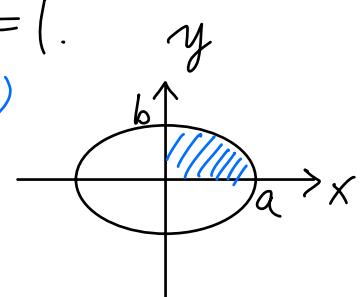
e.g. Compute  $\int_{-4}^{-3} \frac{1}{x^2\sqrt{x^2-4}} dx =: I$ .

$$\bullet \quad I = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{5}}{3} \right).$$

e.g. Find the area of the ellipse  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ .

$(a > 0, b > 0)$

Sol: • Area  $A = 4A_1$ , where  $A_1$  is  
the shaded area.



- $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1 \iff y^2 = b^2(1 - \frac{x^2}{a^2}) = \frac{b^2}{a^2}(a^2 - x^2)$
- $A_1 = \int_0^a y \, dx = \int_0^a \frac{b}{a} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} \, dx$

=

$$\cdot A = 4A_1 = ab\pi .$$

## Integration by Partial Fractions

We now introduce a method that works well for integrating rational functions  $P(x)/Q(x)$ . Consider finding

i.e.,  $P & Q$  are polynomials  $\int \frac{5x - 3}{x^2 - 2x - 3} dx.$

This becomes easy if we realize that

$$\frac{5x - 3}{x^2 - 2x - 3} = \frac{2}{x+1} + \frac{3}{x-3},$$

since the right-hand side is easy to integrate. How do we split  $P(x)/Q(x)$  into rational functions that are easier to integrate?

Def If  $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$  with  $a_n \neq 0$ ,  
then  $\deg(P(x)) = n$ . Here  $\deg(P(x))$  is called the degree of  $P(x)$ .  
We do not consider the degree of a zero polynomial here.

e.g.  $\deg(7x^3 - 2x^2 + \pi x + e) = 3$ ;  $\deg(a_0) = 0$  (for  $a_0 \neq 0$ ).

Fact: If  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  are polynomials with  $Q(x)$  nonzero,  
then there exist polynomials  $S(x)$  and  $R(x)$  such that  
(quotient)      (remainder)

- $P(x) = S(x)Q(x) + R(x)$ , and;
- $R(x) \equiv 0$  or  $\deg(R(x)) < \deg(Q(x))$ .

identically equals  
This means that  $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = S(x) + \frac{R(x)}{Q(x)}$ , so

$$\int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx = \int \overset{\textcircled{1}}{S(x)} dx + \int \overset{\textcircled{2}}{\frac{R(x)}{Q(x)}} dx.$$

Since  $\textcircled{1}$  is easy to integrate, we focus on  $\textcircled{2}$ . Hence, we may assume that  $\deg(P(x)) < \deg(Q(x))$ .

e.g. (Long division of polynomials.)

Since  $\frac{x^3 - 4x^2 + 2x - 3}{x+2} = x^2 - 6x + 14 - \frac{31}{x+2}$ ,

$$\int \frac{x^3 - 4x^2 + 2x - 3}{x+2} dx = \underbrace{\int (x^2 - 6x + 14) dx}_{\text{Easy}} - \underbrace{31 \int \frac{1}{x+2} dx}_{\text{Easy}}$$

Long division:

Divisor	$x+2$	$x^2 - 6x + 14$	Quotient
	$\overline{x^3 - 4x^2 + 2x - 3}$	$x^3 + 2x^2$	Dividend
	$\underline{-6x^2 + 2x}$		
	$\underline{-6x^2 - 12x}$		
	$\underline{\underline{14x - 3}}$		
	$\underline{\underline{4x + 28}}$		
	$\underline{\underline{-31}}$		Remainder

To integrate a rational function  $P(x)/Q(x)$ :

1. Apply long division to reduce the problem to one that has  $\deg(P(x)) < \deg(Q(x))$ .
2. Decompose  $P(x)/Q(x)$  into partial fractions.
3. Integrate each partial fraction.

## Factors of Polynomials

It is a fact from algebra that **every polynomial factors into linear or irreducible quadratic polynomials over the real numbers.** (A quadratic polynomial  $ax^2 + bx + c$  is called **irreducible** if it has no real root, i.e., if  $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ .)

That is, every nonzero polynomial  $Q(x)$  can be written as

$$Q_1(x)Q_2(x)\dots Q_k(x),$$

where each  $Q_i(x)$  has one of the following forms :

- $a_i x + b_i$ ,  $a_i \neq 0$ ; (linear)
- $a_i x^2 + b_i x + c_i$ ,  $a_i \neq 0$ ,  $b_i^2 - 4a_i c_i < 0$ . (irreducible quadratic)

e.g. •  $x^2 - 1 = (x+1)(x-1)$

•  $x^2 + 1$  is irreducible over  $\mathbb{R}$ . (It is **reducible** over  $\mathbb{C}$ , the set of complex numbers, since  $x^2 + 1 = (x+i)(x-i)$ , where  $i := \sqrt{-1}$ .)

• You can check that  $x^4 + 1 = (x^2 + \sqrt{2}x + 1)(x^2 - \sqrt{2}x + 1)$ .

↳ This is for demonstration of the fact only. Do not worry about how to factor a general polynomial.

Now we look at  $\int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx$ , where  $\deg(P(x)) < \deg(Q(x))$ .

**Case 1:**  $Q(x)$  is a product of distinct linear factors:

$$Q(x) = (a_1x + b_1)(a_2x + b_2) \dots (a_kx + b_k).$$

In this case, there exist constants  $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_k$  such that

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{A_1}{a_1x + b_1} + \frac{A_2}{a_2x + b_2} + \dots + \frac{A_k}{a_kx + b_k}. \quad (1)$$

Example

$$\text{Find } \int \frac{x^2 + 2x - 1}{2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x} dx.$$

$$\text{Answer: } \frac{1}{2} \ln|x| + \frac{1}{10} \ln|2x - 1| - \frac{1}{10} \ln|x + 2| + C.$$

Sol: .  $2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x = x(2x^2 + 3x - 2) = x(2x - 1)(x + 2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \cdot \frac{x^2 + 2x - 1}{2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x} &= \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{2x-1} + \frac{C}{x+2} \\ &= \frac{(2A+B+2C)x^2 + (3A+2B-C)x - 2A}{x(2x-1)(x+2)} \end{aligned}$$

$A, B, C$   
are "undetermined  
coefficients".

$$\cdot \begin{cases} 2A + B + 2C = 1 \\ 3A + 2B - C = 2 \\ -2A = -1 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} A = \frac{1}{2} \\ B = \frac{1}{5} \\ C = -\frac{1}{10} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cdot \int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{1}{x} dx + \frac{1}{5} \int \frac{1}{2x-1} dx - \frac{1}{10} \int \frac{1}{x+2} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \ln|x| + \frac{1}{10} \ln|2x-1| - \frac{1}{10} \ln|x+2| + C. \end{aligned}$$

What happens if we have a linear factor  $a_1x+b_1$  repeating?

e.g.  $\frac{x^2+x+1}{(x+1)^3}$

• Note that  $x^2+x+1 = x(x+1)+1$

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \frac{x^2+x+1}{(x+1)^3} &= \frac{x(x+1)+1}{(x+1)^3} = \frac{x}{(x+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(x+1)^3} = \frac{x+1-1}{(x+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(x+1)^3} \\ &= \frac{1}{x+1} - \frac{1}{(x+1)^2} + \frac{1}{(x+1)^3}\end{aligned}$$

The general principle is summarized below.

**Case 2:  $Q(x)$  is a product of linear factors, some of which are repeated.**

Suppose that a linear factor  $(a_1x + b_1)$  is repeated  $r$  times; that is,  $(a_1x + b_1)^r$  appears in the factorization of  $Q(x)$ . Then instead of the single term  $A_1/(a_1x + b_1)$  in Equation (1) on the previous slide, we would use

$$\frac{A_1}{a_1x + b_1} + \frac{A_2}{(a_1x + b_1)^2} + \cdots + \frac{A_r}{(a_1x + b_1)^r}. \quad (2)$$

Example

Find  $\int \frac{x^4 - 2x^2 + 4x + 1}{x^3 - x^2 - x + 1} dx =: I$

Sol: • Apply long division and get

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

$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$

- $x^3 - x^2 - x + 1 = x^2(x-1) - (x-1) = (x^2-1)(x-1) = (x+1)(x-1)^2$
- $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{(x-1)^2} + \frac{C}{x+1} = \frac{(A+C)x^2 + (B-2C)x + (-A+B+C)}{(x+1)(x-1)^2}$
- $\begin{cases} A+C=0 \\ B-2C=4 \\ -A+B+C=0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} A=1 \\ B=2 \\ C=-1 \end{cases}$
- $$\begin{aligned} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} &= \int \frac{1}{x-1} dx + 2 \int \frac{1}{(x-1)^2} dx - \int \frac{1}{x+1} dx \\ &= \ln|x-1| + (2)(x-1)^{-1} - \ln|x+1| + C \\ &= \ln\left|\frac{x-1}{x+1}\right| - \frac{2}{x-1} + C \end{aligned}$$
- $I = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + x + \ln\left|\frac{x-1}{x+1}\right| - \frac{2}{x-1} + C$

**Case 3:  $Q(x)$  contains irreducible quadratic factors, none of which is repeated.**

If  $Q(x)$  has a factor  $ax^2 + bx + c$ , where  $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ , then, in addition to the partial fractions in Equations (1) and (2), the expression for  $P(x)/Q(x)$  will have a term of the form

$$\frac{Ax + B}{ax^2 + bx + c}. \quad (3)$$

For example, there exist constants  $A, B, C, D$  and  $E$  such that

$$\frac{x}{(x-2)(x^2+1)(x^2+4)} = \frac{A}{x-2} + \frac{Bx+C}{x^2+1} + \frac{Dx+E}{x^2+4}.$$

e.g.  $\int \frac{-2x+4}{(x^2+1)(x-1)^2} dx \quad (= : I)$

Sol:  $\frac{-2x+4}{(x^2+1)(x-1)^2} = \frac{Ax+B}{x^2+1} + \frac{C}{x-1} + \frac{D}{(x-1)^2}$

$-2x+4 = \underbrace{(A+C)x^3}_0 + \underbrace{(-2A+B-C+D)x^2}_0 + \underbrace{(A-2B+C)x}_{-2} + \underbrace{(B-C+D)}_4$

Solving linear system gives  $A=2, B=1, C=-2, D=1$ .

$I = \cancel{\int \frac{2x+1}{x^2+1} dx} - 2 \int \frac{1}{x-1} dx + \int \frac{1}{(x-1)^2} dx$

$$\int \frac{2x}{x^2+1} dx + \int \frac{dx}{x+1}$$

$$= \ln(x^2+1) + \arctan x - 2 \ln|x-1| - \frac{1}{x-1} + C.$$

### Case 4: $Q(x)$ contains a repeated irreducible quadratic factor.

If  $Q(x)$  has a factor  $(ax^2 + bx + c)^r$ , where  $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ , then instead of a single term (3) on the previous slide, the sum

$$\frac{A_1x + B_1}{ax^2 + bx + c} + \frac{A_2x + B_2}{(ax^2 + bx + c)^2} + \cdots + \frac{A_rx + B_r}{(ax^2 + bx + c)^r}$$

appears in the partial fraction decomposition of  $P(x)/Q(x)$ . For example, there exist constants  $A, B, \dots, I$  and  $J$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{x^3 + x^2 + 1}{x(x-1)(x^2+x+1)(x^2+1)^3} \\ &= \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{x-1} + \frac{Cx+D}{x^2+x+1} + \frac{Ex+F}{x^2+1} + \frac{Gx+H}{(x^2+1)^2} + \frac{Ix+J}{(x^2+1)^3} \end{aligned}$$

### Finding Undetermined Coefficients

#### Heaviside "Cover-up" Method

In case 1, where

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(x)}{(x-r_1)\dots(x-r_n)} = \frac{A_1}{x-r_1} + \dots + \frac{A_n}{x-r_n},$$

there is a quickway for finding  $A_1, \dots, A_n$ . Indeed, by multiplying both sides by  $x-r_1$ , we have

$$\frac{f(x)}{(x-r_1)\dots(x-r_n)} = A_1 + (x-r_1) \left( \frac{A_2}{x-r_2} + \dots + \frac{A_n}{x-r_n} \right).$$

Substituting  $x=r_1$  yields

$$A_1 = \frac{f(r_1)}{(r_1-r_2)\dots(r_1-r_n)}.$$

(Cover up  $(x-r_1)$  in  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  then sub in  $x=r_1$  gives you  $A_1$ :  
hence the name.)

The similar approach works for all the  $A_i$ 's : remove  $x-r_i$  from the bottom of  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ , then sub in  $x=r_i$  to get  $A_i$

e.g. In one of our previous examples, we have

$$\frac{x^2+2x-1}{2x^3+3x^2-2x} = \frac{f(x)}{x(2x-1)(x+2)} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{2x-1} + \frac{C}{x+2}.$$

- $A = \frac{f(0)}{(2 \cdot 0 - 1)(0 + 2)} = \frac{-1}{(-1)2} = \frac{1}{2}$ .
- $B = \frac{f(\frac{1}{2})}{\frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{2} + 2)} = \frac{\frac{1}{4}}{\frac{5}{4}} = \frac{1}{5}$ .
- $C = \frac{f(-2)}{-2(-2-1)} = \frac{-1}{-2(-5)} = -\frac{1}{10}$ .

This approach may be modified slightly to handle other cases.

e.g.  $\frac{3x^2-16x+21}{(x-1)^2(x+3)} = \frac{A}{(x-1)^2} + \frac{B}{x-1} + \frac{C}{x+3}$

• To get  $A$ , cover up  $(x-1)^2$  on LHS and evaluate at  $x=1$ :

$$A = \frac{3-16+21}{1+3} = \frac{8}{4} = 2.$$

• Move  $\frac{2}{(x-1)^2}$  to LHS :

$$\frac{3x^2 - 16x + 21 - 2(x+3)}{(x-1)^2(x+3)} = \frac{B}{x-1} + \frac{C}{x+3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{3x^2 - 18x + 15}{(x-1)^2(x+3)} = \frac{B}{x-1} + \frac{C}{x+3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{3x-15}{(x-1)(x+3)} = \frac{B}{x-1} + \frac{C}{x+3}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} 3x-15 \\ x-1 \sqrt{3x^2 - 18x + 15} \\ 3x^2 - 3x \\ \hline -15x + 15 \\ -15x + 15 \\ \hline 0 \end{array}$$

Now B & C can be found by the cover-up method again.