

# Analytical Geometry and Calculus II

Conrad A. Mearns

February 7, 2017

## Review of Theorems for Limits

Let  $a$  and  $c$  be any number, if  $F = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  and  $G = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  then

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = F + G$
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - g(x)) = F - G$
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (c * f(x)) = c * F$
4.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right) = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)}$  except when  $G = 0$
5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x))^c = F^c$

## Limits Involving Infinity while $c \neq 0$

These are templates, where  $x$  is either taken to  $\infty$  or  $0$ .

1.  $c * (\pm\infty) = \pm\infty$  Example:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 5x = \infty$
2.  $\frac{c}{\pm\infty} = 0$  Example:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5}{x} = 0$
3.  $\frac{c}{0} = \pm\infty$  Example:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{5}{x} = \infty$
4.  $\frac{\pm\infty}{c} = \pm\infty$

## Limits of Rational Functions

Theorem: Given a rational function  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ , the following is be true. Let  $d$  represent the degree of  $f(x)$  and  $e$  represent the degree of  $g(x)$ .

1. If  $d > e$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \pm\infty$
2. If  $d < e$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$
3. If  $d = e$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{a}{b}$  where  $a$  is the leading term of  $f(x)$  and  $b$  is the leading term of  $g(x)$

Example: To evaluate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{10x^3 - 3x^2 + 8}{\sqrt{25x^6 + x^4 + 2}}$

1. Reduce all terms by  $x$  of the leading coefficient's degree.
2. Then take the limit of each term.  $\frac{10-3x^{-1}+8x^{-3}}{\sqrt{25+x^{-2}+2x^{-6}}}$
3. Simplify.  $\frac{10-0+0}{\sqrt{25+0+0}}$
4.  $\frac{10}{\sqrt{25}} = \frac{10}{5} = 2$

## Inverse Trig Functions

Definition:  $y = \sin^{-1}x$  is the value of  $y$  such that  $x = \sin y$ .

Domain:  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$

Range:  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq y \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$

Definition:  $y = \cos^{-1}x$  is the value of  $y$  such that  $x = \cos y$ .

Domain:  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$

Range:  $0 \leq y \leq \pi$

## Other Trig Functions

- $y = \tan^{-1}x \rightarrow x = \tan y$   
Range:  $-\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2}$
- $y = \cot^{-1}x \rightarrow x = \cot y$   
Range:  $0 < y < \pi$
- $y = \sec^{-1}x \rightarrow x = \sec y$   
Range:  $0 \leq y \leq \pi, y \neq \frac{\pi}{2}$
- $y = \csc^{-1}x \rightarrow x = \csc y$   
Range:  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq y \leq \frac{\pi}{2}, y \neq 0$

## Inverse Trig Identities

- $\sin(\sin^{-1}x) = x$
- $\cos(\cos^{-1}x) = x$
- $\sin^{-1}(\sin x) = x$  only if  $x$  is in range of  $\sin^{-1}$
- $\cos^{-1}(\cos x) = x$  only if  $x$  is in range of  $\cos^{-1}$

Example:  $\sin^{-1}(\sin \pi) = \sin^{-1}(0) = 0 \neq \pi$

Example:  $\cos(\sin^{-1}x)$

1. Let  $y = \sin^{-1}x$  so that  $x = \sin y$  and  $\cos(\sin^{-1}x) = \cos y$
2. Recall that  $\sin = \frac{\text{opposite}}{\text{hypotenuse}}$

3. Let *hypotenuse* = 1 and *opposite* =  $b$  where  $b$  has yet to be determined.

4. Recall that  $\cos y = \frac{\text{adjacent}}{\text{hypotenuse}}$

5.  $\frac{\text{adjacent}}{\text{hypotenuse}} = \frac{b}{1}$ , and therefor  $\cos y = b$

6. Use the Pythagorean Theorem to solve:  $x^2 + b^2 = 1^2$

7.  $b^2 = 1 - x^2$

8.  $b = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$

9. Therefor  $\cos(\sin^{-1}x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$

## Derivatives of Inverse Trig Functions

- $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1}x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
- $\frac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1}x) = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
- $\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$
- $\frac{d}{dx}(\cot^{-1}x) = \frac{-1}{1+x^2}$
- $\frac{d}{dx}(\sec^{-1}x) = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}$
- $\frac{d}{dx}(\csc^{-1}x) = \frac{-1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}$

## Antiderivatives Involving Inverse Trig Functions

- $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2-x^2}} = \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + C$
- $\int \frac{dx}{a^2+x^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + C$
- $\int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-a^2}} = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1} \frac{x}{a} + C$

## L'Hopital's Rule

L'Hopital's Rule let's us evaluate impossible limits.

Theorem: Suppose  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are differentiable on an open interval  $I$  containing  $a$  where  $g'(x) \neq 0$  on  $I$  when  $x \neq a$ . If

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$
2.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \pm\infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \pm\infty$

then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ . This is also true as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty, x \rightarrow a^+, x \rightarrow a^-$ .

## Basic Approaches to Integration

- Subtle Substitution

$$\begin{aligned} & \int \frac{dx}{x^{-1}+1} \\ &= \int \frac{x}{x+1} dx \text{ and suppose } u = x+1, x = u-1, du = dx \\ &= \int \frac{u-1}{u} du \\ &= \int du - \int \frac{1}{u} du = u - \ln|u| + C \\ &= x+1 - \ln|x| + C \end{aligned}$$

- Splitting Fractions

$$\begin{aligned} & \int \frac{2-3x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \\ &= \int \frac{2}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx - \frac{3x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \\ &= \int 2 \sin^{-1} x - \frac{3x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \\ & \text{etc...} \end{aligned}$$

- Completing the Square

$$\begin{aligned} & \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{27-6x-x^2}} \\ &= \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{-(x^2+6x-27)}} \\ &= \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{-(x+3)^2-36}} \\ &= \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{36-(x+3)^2}} \\ &= \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x+3}{6}\right) + C \end{aligned}$$

- Multiplying by 1 (Using Conjugates)

$$\begin{aligned} & \int \frac{dx}{1+\sin x} \text{ the conjugate of } 1+\sin x \text{ is } 1-\sin x \\ &= \int \frac{dx(1-\sin x)}{(1+\sin x)(1-\sin x)} \\ &= \int \frac{1-\sin x}{1-\sin^2 x} dx \\ &= \int \frac{1-\sin x}{\cos^2 x} dx \\ &= \int \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} dx - \int \frac{\sin x}{\cos^2 x} dx \\ &= \int \sec^2 x dx - \int \tan x \sec x dx \\ &= \tan x - \sec x + C \end{aligned}$$

## Integration by Parts

Integration by Parts, or IBP, is used when integrating products of functions. It's not perfect, and can get messy if used incorrectly. The basic form is

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du$$

Solve by substituting  $u$  and  $dv$ , then using the right hand form.

Example:  $\int te^t dt$

1. Let  $u = t$  and  $dv = e^t dt$  so that  $du = dt$  and  $v = e^t$
2.  $= te^t - \int e^t dt$
3.  $= te^t - e^t + C$

## Trigometetric Integrals

Products of sin and cos

- If the power of sin or cos split off 1 factor and use  $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$   
Example:  $\int \cos^3 x dx \rightarrow \int \cos^2 x \cos x \rightarrow \int (1 - \sin^2 x) \cos x dx$
- If the power of sin or cos is even, use a half-angle identity.  
 $\cos^2 x = \frac{1+\cos^2 x}{2}$  and  $\sin^2 x = \frac{1-\sin^2 x}{2}$   
Example:  $\int \sin^2 x dx = \int \frac{1-\cos^2 x}{2} dx$   
 $= \int \frac{1}{2} dx - \int \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x dx$   
 $= \frac{x}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \sin 2x + C$

Products of of powers of sin and cos

- If the power of  $\sin x$  or  $\cos x$  is odd, split off a factor and rewrite the resulting power in terms of the opposite, then use U-Substituion.

Powers of tan, sec, cot and csc

- $\int \sec^2 x = \tan x + C$
- $\int \tan^2 x = \int \sec^2 x + 1 = \tan x + x + C$
- $\int \csc^2 x = -\cot x + C$
- $\int \cot^2 x = \int \csc^2 x + 1 = -\cot x + x + C$

Products of Powers of tan and sec

- If the power of sec is even, split  $\sec^2$ , rewrite in terms of  $\tan x$  in terms of sec then use U-Sub on  $\tan x$ .  
Example:  $\int \sec^2 x \tan^{1/2} x dx$   
Let  $u = \tan x$  and  $du = \sec^2 x$   
 $= \int u^{1/2} du$   
 $= \frac{2}{3} u^{3/2} + C$
- If the power of tan is odd, split off  $\sec x \tan x$ , rewrite remaining even power of  $\tan x$  in terms of  $\sec x$  then use U-Sub on  $\sec x$ .  
Example:  $10 \int \tan^9 x \sec^2 x dx = 10 \int \tan^8 x \sec x \sec x \tan x dx$   
 $= 10 \int (\sec^2 x - 1)^4 \sec x \sec x \tan x dx$   
 $u = \sec x$  and  $du = \sec x \tan x dx$   
 $= 10 \int (u^2 - 1)^4 u du$

**Integrating with Trig Substitutions** For forms of  $a^2 - x^2$ ,  $a^2 + x^2$  and  $x^2 - a^2$  - because powers do not distribute ovr sums / differences.  
 $a^2 - x^2$  by substituting  $x = a \sin \theta$

•