Chapter 1

Methods of Integration

1.1 u-substitution

Sometimes a function's antiderivative isn't obvious. Take this integral for example:

$$\int 4x\sqrt{1+2x^2}\,dx$$

We can solve this integral using *u-substitution*. Recall from implicit differentiation that if $u = f(x)$, then we can also say $du = f'(x)dx$. Let's set u so that it is equal to the statement under the square root sign:

$$u = 1 + 2x^2$$

Taking the derivative of both sides, we see that

$$du = (4x)dx$$

How does this help us evaluate the integral? First, let's rearrange the integrand a bit:

$$\int 4x\sqrt{1+2x^2}\,dx = \int \sqrt{1+2x^2}4x\,dx$$

We can substitute $u = 1 + 2x^2$ and $du = 4xdx$ to get:

$$= \int \sqrt{u}\,du$$

That is a much nicer integral! We can evaluate this integral using the Power Rule:

$$\int \sqrt{u}\,du = \frac{2}{3}u^{3/2}$$

We can now substitute $u = 1 + 2x^2$ back into our solution to yield:

$$= \frac{2}{3}(1 + 2x^2)^{3/2}$$

Feel free to double-check this answer by taking the derivative using the Chain Rule. You should get the original integrand, $4x\sqrt{1 + 2x^2}$, back.

As you may have guessed, u-substitution is a method to help us "undo" the Chain Rule. Recall that the Chain Rule states:

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

If we integrate both sides we see that:

$$f(g(x)) = \int f'(g(x))g'(x)\,dx$$

Which leads us to the formal definition of the u-substitution method:

If u = g(x) is a differentiable function whose range is an interval I and f is continuous on I, then $\int f(g(x))g'(x)\,dx = \int f(u)\,du$

Let's apply u-substitution to a definite integral:

Example: Evaluate $\int_e^{e^4} \frac{1}{x\sqrt{\ln x}}\,dx$.

Solution: Recall that $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$. Letting $\ln x = u$, it follows that $\frac{dx}{x} = du$. Rearranging the integral and substituting:

$$\int_e^{e^4} \frac{1}{x\sqrt{\ln x}}\,dx = \int_e^{e^4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\ln x}} \frac{dx}{x}$$
$$= \int_{x=e}^{x=e^4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}}\,du$$

Proceeding from here, there are two options: you can find the value of u at $x = e$ and $x = e^4$ and change the limits of the integral OR you can evaluate the integral, resubstitute back for x and then evaluate the result with the original limits. We will show both to demonstrate each method and show they have the same result.

Method 1: change the limits of integration When $x = e$, $u = \ln e = 1$. And when $x = e^4$, $u = \ln e^4 = 4$. Therefore, we can change the limits of the integral to:

$$\int_1^4 \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}}\,du = 2\sqrt{u}\Big|_1^4 = 2\left[\sqrt{4} - \sqrt{1}\right] = 2(2-1) = 2$$

Method 2: keep the limits of integration and resubstitute for u:

$$\int_{x=e}^{x=e^4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}}\,du = 2\sqrt{u}\Big|_{x=e}^{x=e^4} = 2\sqrt{\ln x}\Big|_e^{e^4}$$

$$= 2\left[\sqrt{\ln e^4} - \sqrt{\ln e}\right] = 2(\sqrt{4} - \sqrt{1}) = 2(2-1) = 2$$

Which is the same result as method 1. When done correctly, either method will yield the correct result. Choose the method you prefer.

Exercise 1

Using the substitution $u = x^2 - 3$, rewrite $\int_{-1}^{4} x(x^2-3)^5 dx$ in terms of u.

Working Space

Answer on Page 15

Exercise 2

Evaluate $\int_1^\infty xe^{-x^2}\,dx$.

Working Space

Answer on Page 15

1.2 Partial Fractions

We can integrate rational functions by using partial fraction to decompose a complex rational function into simpler ones. Recall that if we want to add terms with different denominators, we cross-multiply to create a common denominator:

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

The reverse of this process is called **partial fractions** . Suppose we wanted to integrate $f(x) = \frac{4x+5}{x^2+x-2}$:

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{4x+5}{x^2+x-2}\,dx &= \int \left(\frac{3}{x-1} + \frac{1}{x+2}\right) dx \\ &= 3\ln|x-1| + \ln|x+2| + C\end{aligned}$$

Let $g(x)$ be a rational function such that

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

Where $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ are polynomials. If $g(x)$ is proper (that is, the degree of P is less than the degree of Q) then we can express $g(x)$ as the sum of simpler rational fractions. If $g(x)$ is improper (that is, the degree of P is greater than or equal to the degree of Q), then we must first perform long division to obtain a remainder, $R(x)$, where the degree of R is less than the degree of Q:

$$g(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = S(x) + \frac{R(x)}{Q(x)}$$

1.2.1 Improper fractions

What is $\int \frac{x^3+x}{x-1}\,dx$. Using long division, we see that:

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

(see figure 1.1 for an explanation). Then we can also say that:

$$\int \frac{x^3+x}{x-1}\,dx = \int \left[x^2 + x + 2 + \frac{2}{x-1}\right] dx$$

And therefore:

$$\int \frac{x^3+x}{x-1}\,dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 2x + 2\ln|x-1| + C$$

When you start with an improper fraction, use long division to reduce it to a term plus a proper fraction, then use the methods outlined below to further manipulate the proper fraction.

1.2.2 Proper fractions

When the order of the numerator is less than or equal to the denominator, there are three further possibilities.

$$\begin{array}{rl} & x^2+x+2 \\ x-1 & \overline{)\,x^3+0x^2+x} \\ & -(x^3-x^2) \\ \hline & \qquad x^2+x \\ & \quad -(x^2-x) \\ \hline & \qquad\qquad 2x \\ & \qquad -(2x-2) \\ \hline & \qquad\qquad\quad 2 \end{array}$$

Figure 1.1: Evaluating $(x^3+x) \div (x-1)$ with the long division method

No repeated linear factors

In the first case, the denominator, $Q(x)$ is composed of distinct linear factors. In this case, we can say that $Q(x) = (a_1x+b_1)(a_2x+b_2)\cdots(a_nx+b_n)$, where no factor is repeated (including constant multiples). Then, there exists $A, B, C, \cdots$ such that:

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{A}{a_1x+b_1} + \frac{B}{a_2x+b_2} + \cdots$$

Let's see an example of this by decomposing $\frac{4x^2-7x-12}{x(x+2)(x-3)}$. We start by defining A, B, and C, such that:

$$\frac{4x^2-7x-12}{x(x+2)(x-3)} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{x+2} + \frac{C}{x-3}$$

Multiplying both sides by $x(x+2)(x-3)$ we get:

$$4x^2-7x-12 = A(x+2)(x-3) + B(x)(x-3) + C(x)(x+2)$$

We have 3 unknowns and only one equation! Don't worry: remember this equation is true for all x, so we can choose a convenient value of x to isolate each unknown in turn. Starting, let $x = 0$. Then:

$$4(0)^2 - 7(0) - 12 = A(0+2)(0-3) + B(0)(x-3) + C(0)(x+2)$$

$$-12 = A(2)(-3) + 0 + 0$$

Notice that the B and C disappear, and we can solve for A:

$$A = \frac{-12}{-6} = 2$$

We can solve for B by setting $x = -2$ and for C by setting $x = 3$ (notice, we've used all three zeroes of the denominator polynomial):

$$4(-2)^2 - 7(-2) - 12 = A(-2+2)(-2-3) + B(-2)(-2-3) + C(-2)(-2+2)$$

$$4(4)+14-12=0+B(-2)(-5)+0$$
$$16+2=10B$$
$$B=\frac{9}{5}$$

and

$$4(3)^2-7(3)-12=A(3+2)(3-3)+B(3)(3-3)+C(3)(3+2)$$
$$4(9)-21-12=0+0+C(3)(5)$$
$$36-33=15C$$
$$C=\frac{1}{5}$$

And we can decompose our original fraction:

$$\frac{4x^2-7x-12}{x(x+2)(x-3)}=\frac{2}{x}+\frac{9}{5(x+2)}+\frac{1}{5(x-3)}$$

You can check your answer by cross-multiplying and adding. You should get the same rational function back.

Repeated linear factors

The second case is if $Q(x)$ has repeated factors (such as $x^2+8x+16=(x+4)^2$). Suppose the first linear factor, (a_1x+b_1) is repeated r times (that is, $Q(x)$ contains the factor $(a_1x+b_1)^r$). Then instead of $\frac{A}{a_1x+b_1}$ we should write:

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

Let's look at a concrete example to see how this works: **Example**: Find $\int \frac{x^2+x+1}{(x+1)^2(x+2)}\,dx$

Solution: We start by defining:

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

Multiplying both sides by $(x+1)^2(x+2)$:

$$x^2+x+1=A(x+1)(x+2)+B(x+2)+C(x+1)^2$$

Since there are only 2 roots to $(x+1)^2(x+2)$, we will use another method called "equating the coefficients" to find A, B, and C. We start by expanding the right side of the equation:

$$x^2+x+1=A(x^2+3x+2)+B(x+2)+C(x^2+2x+1)$$

Distributing and combining, we find that:

$$x^2+x+1=Ax^2+3Ax+2A+Bx+2B+Cx^2+2Cx+C$$

$$x^2 + x + 1 = (A + C)x^2 + (3A + B + 2C)x + (2A + 2B + C)$$

For this equation to be true, we know that:

$$A + C = 1$$

$$3A + B + 2C = 1$$

$$2A + 2B + C = 1$$

(That is, the coefficient for x^2 on the left, 1, must be equal to the coefficient for x^2 on the right, (A + C), and so on.) We now have a system of 3 equations and 3 unknowns. When you solve for each, you should find that:

$$A = -2$$

$$B = 1$$

$$C = 3$$

And therefore,

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

Substituting this into our integral,

$$\int \frac{x^2 + x + 1}{(x+1)^2(x+2)}\, dx = \int \left[\frac{-2}{x+1} + \frac{1}{(x+1)^2} + \frac{3}{x+2}\right] dx$$

$$= -2\ln|x+1| + \frac{-1}{x+1} + 3\ln|x+2| + C = \ln\left|\frac{(x+2)^3}{(x+1)^2}\right| - \frac{1}{x+1} + C$$

Irreducible quadratic factors

Sometimes we cannot express a polynomial as the product of two linear statements (that is, terms in the form $ax + b$). Take $x^2 + 1$, which cannot be expressed as the product of real, linear terms. What do you do if something like $x^2 + 1$ is in the denominator? Then when we write an expression for $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ we include a term in the form:

$$\frac{Ax + B}{ax^2 + bx + c}$$

For example, we can write

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

Example: Evaluate $\int \frac{2x^2 - x + 4}{x^3 + 4x}\, dx$

Solution: We begin by factoring the denominator:

$$x^3 + 4x = x(x^2 + 4)$$

Which cannot be factored further. Therefore, we define:

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

$$2x^2 - x + 4 = A(x^2 + 4) + (Bx + C)x$$
$$2x^2 - x + 4 = Ax^2 + 4A + Bx^2 + Cx$$

Which implies that:

$$2 = A + B$$
$$C = -1$$
$$4A = 4$$

Therefore, $A = 1$, $B = 1$, and $C = -1$ and we can say that:

$$\int \frac{2x^2 - x + 4}{x^3 + 4x}\, dx = \int \left[\frac{1}{x} + \frac{x - 1}{x^2 + 4}\right] dx$$
$$= \int \left[\frac{1}{x} + \frac{x}{x^2 + 4} - \frac{1}{x^2 + 4}\right] dx$$
$$= \ln|x| + \frac{1}{2}\ln\left(x^2 + 4\right) - \frac{1}{2}\arctan\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) + C$$

A useful identity that we used here is

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2 + a^2}\, dx = \frac{1}{a}\arctan\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$$

Repeated irreducible quadratic factors

Lastly, the denominator might contain repeated irreducible quadratic factors. Similar to repeated linear factors, when setting up your partial fractions, instead of only writing

$$\frac{A}{ax^2 + bx + c}$$

For a quadratic factor that is repeated r times, your equation should include:

$$\frac{A_1}{ax^2 + bx + c} + \frac{A_2}{(ax^2 + bx + c)^2} + \cdots + \frac{A_r}{(ax^2 + bx + c)^r}$$

Exercise 3

Evaluate $\int_0^1 \frac{5x+8}{x^2+3x+2}\, dx$ without a calculator.

Working Space

Answer on Page 15

Exercise 4

Use the method of partial fractions to evaluate the following integrals:

1. $\int \frac{4x}{x^3+x^2+x+1}\, dx$
2. $\int_{-1}^{0} \frac{x^3-4x+1}{x^2-3x+2}\, dx$
3. $\int \frac{x^3+2x}{x^4+4x^2+3}\, dx$

Working Space

Answer on Page 15

1.3 Integration by Parts

Recall the Product Rule for derivatives:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)\cdot g(x)] = f(x)\cdot g'(x) + f'(x)\cdot g(x)$$

If we integrate both sides, we find that:

$$f(x)\cdot g(x) = \int \left[f(x)\cdot g'(x) + f'(x)\cdot g(x)\right]\, dx$$
$$f(x)\cdot g(x) = \int f(x)g'(x)\, dx + \int f'(x)g(x)\, dx$$

Rearranging,

$$\int f(x)g'(x)\, dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x)\, dx$$

This identity allows us to perform **integration by parts** , a powerful method that allows us to evaluate integrals of complex functions.

Example: Evaluate $\int x\cos x\, dx$.

Solution: We may be tempted to try u-substitution, but that won't work because $\frac{d}{dx}\cos x$ is not proportional to x and $\frac{d}{dx}x$ is not proportional to $\cos x$. Let us define $f(x) = x$ and $g'(x) = \cos x$. This implies $f'(x) = 1$ and $g(x) = \sin x$. Then we can say that:

$$\int x\cos x\, dx = \int f(x)g'(x)\, dx$$

Using the identity $\int f(x)g'(x)\, dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x)\, dx$ and substituting for $f(x)$, $f'(x)$, $g(x)$, and $g'(x)$, we see that:

$$\int x\cos x\, dx = [x\sin x] - \int 1\cdot\sin x\, dx$$
$$= x\sin x - \int \sin x\, dx$$
$$= x\sin x - (-\cos x + C) = x\sin x + \cos x + C$$

(recall that C is the integration constant). You can check your results by taking the derivative: you should get the original integrand back. Let's check our result in this case:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx}[x\sin x+\cos x+C] &= \frac{d}{dx}[x\sin x]+\frac{d}{dx}\cos x\\ &= x\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x)+\sin x\frac{d}{dx}(x)-\sin x\\ &= x\cos x+|\mathrm{SIN} x-\sin x = x\cos x\end{aligned}$$

How did we choose that $f(x)$ should be x and $g(x)$ should be $\sin x$ in the example above? In general, you want to choose such that the resulting integral is simpler than the one we started with. This means you want to choose f such that f' is *less complex* or a *lower order* than f.

To illustrate this, let's re-evalute the example above, but this time let $f(x) = \cos x$ and $g'(x) = x$. Then we can say that $f'(x) = -\sin x$ and $g(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2$. Substituting this into the integration by parts identity, we find that:

$$\int x\cos x\,dx = \frac{1}{2}x^2\cos x - \int -\frac{1}{2}x^2\sin x\,dx$$

Now the integral on the right side is more complex than the one we started with (on the left)! A good general rule for integration by parts is that *if* the two functions in the original integral are a polynomial and a sine or cosine function, set the polynomial to be $g(x)$ and the trigonometric function to be $f'(x)$. The polynomial will be differentiated and become *less* complex, while integrating the trigonometric function won't make it *more* complex.

Integration by parts is valid for definite integrals as well. Mathematically, this means:

$$\int_a^b f(x)g'(x)\,dx = f(x)g(x)|_a^b - \int_a^b f'(x)g(x)\,dx$$

Which is the same as:

$$\int_a^b f(x)g'(x)\,dx = (f(b)g(b)) - (f(a)g(a)) - \int_a^b f'(x)g(x)\,dx$$

Let's see one more example that incorporates both u-substitution and integration by parts.

Example: Evaluate $\int \frac{\arcsin \ln x}{x}\,dx$

Solution: First, we notice that $\ln x$ and $\frac{1}{x}$ both appear in the integrand. Let us define $u = \ln x$. Then $du = \frac{dx}{x}$:

$$\int \arcsin \ln x \frac{dx}{x} = \int \arcsin u \, du$$

For integration by parts, if we let $\arcsin u = f(u)$ and $du = g'(u)$, it follows that $f'(u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}}$ and $g(u) = u$. Then we can say that:

$$\int \arcsin u \, du = \arcsin u \cdot u - \int \frac{u}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \, du$$

We can use u-substitution again to evaluate the second integral (we will use v, since we have already said that $u = \ln x$). Let $v = 1 - u^2$, which means that $\frac{dv}{2} = (-u)du$. Substituting:

$$= u \cdot \arcsin u + \int \frac{1}{2\sqrt{v}} \, dv = u \cdot \arcsin u + \sqrt{v}$$

Substituting back for v:

$$= u \cdot \arcsin u + \sqrt{1-u^2}$$

And substituting back for u:

$$= \ln x \cdot \arcsin \ln x + \sqrt{1 - \ln^2 x}$$

Exercise 5

Let f be a function such that $\int f(x) \sin x \, dx = -f(x) \cos x + \int 4x^3 \sin x \, dx$. Give a possible expression for $f(x)$.

Working Space

Answer on Page 16

Exercise 6

Evaluate the following integrals using integration by parts:

1. $\int_0^1 x \sin \frac{\pi}{2} x \, dx$
2. $\int e^{\theta} \cos \theta \, d\theta$
3. $\int t^3 \cos \beta t \, dt$ (hint: you can apply integration by parts more than once)

Working Space

Answer on Page 16

This is a draft chapter from the Kontinua Project. Please see our website (https://kontinua.org/) for more details.

Appendix A

Answers to Exercises

Answer to Exercise 1 (on page 3)

If $u = x^2 - 3$, then $du = 2xdx$ and $x(x^2-3)^5dx = \frac{1}{2}u^5du$. When $x = -1$, $u = -2$ and when $x = 4$, $u = 13$. Putting it all together, we find an equivalent integral is $\frac{1}{2}\int_{-2}^{13} u^5\,du$.

Answer to Exercise 2 (on page 3)

Letting $u = -x^2$, then $du = -2xdx$ and $xdx = \frac{-1}{2}du$. Substituting u and du into the integral, we have $\int_{x=1}^{x=\infty} \frac{-1}{2}e^u\,du$, which equals $\frac{-1}{2}e^u = \frac{-1}{2}e^{-x^2}|_1^\infty$. Evaluating the statement, we get $\frac{-1}{2}(e^{-\infty} - e^{-1}) = \frac{-1}{2}(0 - \frac{1}{e}) = \frac{1}{2e}$

Answer to Exercise 3 (on page 9)

We cannot use u-substitution because $\frac{d}{dx}(x^2+3x+2) \neq n(5x+8)$. We will use partial fractions to simplify the integrand. Settig up: $\frac{5x+8}{(x+1)(x+2)} = \frac{A}{x+1} + \frac{B}{x+2}$. Rearranging, we find $5x + 8 = A(x + 2) + B(x + 1)$. Letting $x = -2$, we find that $B = 2$. And taking $x = -1$, we find $A = 3$. Therefore, $\int_0^1 \frac{5x+8}{x^2+3x+2}\,dx = \int_0^1 \frac{3}{x+1}\,dx + \int_0^1 \frac{2}{x+2}\,dx$. Evaluating the integrals, we get $3\ln(x+1)|_0^1 + 2\ln(x+2)|_0^1 = 3(\ln 2 - \ln 1) + 2(\ln 3 - \ln 2) = 3\ln 2 + 2\ln\frac{3}{2} = \ln 8 + \ln\frac{9}{4} = \ln\frac{8\cdot 9}{4} = \ln 18$.

Answer to Exercise 4 (on page 9)

1. Let $\frac{4x}{x^3+x^2+x+1} = \frac{A}{x+1} + \frac{Bx+C}{x^2+1}$. Rearranging, we see that $4x = A(x^2+1) + (Bx+C)(x+1)$. Which means that $4x = Ax^2 + A + Bx^2 + Bx + Cx + C$, which implies that $A + B = 0$ and $B + C = 4$ and $A + C = 0$. Solving this system of equations, we see that $A = -2$, $B = 2$, and $C = 2$. So we can say that $\int \frac{4x}{x^3+x^2+x+1}\,dx = \int \left[\frac{-2}{x+1} + \frac{2x}{x^2+1} + \frac{2}{x^2+1}\right] dx$. Which evaluates to $-2\ln|x+1| + \ln|x^2+1| + 2\arctan(x) + K$, where K is the constant of integration.

2. Since the order of x is greater in the numerator, first we divide and see that $\frac{x^3-4x+1}{x^2-3x+2} =$

$(x+3) + \frac{3x-5}{x^2-3x+2}$. Now let $\frac{3x-5}{x^2-3x+2} = \frac{A}{x-2} + \frac{B}{x-1}$, which means that $3x - 5 = A(x-1) + B(x-2)$. Solving, we find that $A = 1$ and $B = 2$. Therefore, $\int_{-1}^{0} \frac{x^3-4x+1}{x^2-3x+2}\,dx = \int_{-1}^{0} \left[x + 3 + \frac{1}{x-2} + \frac{2}{x-1}\right] dx$ which evaluates to $\frac{1}{2}x^2 + 3x + \ln|x-2| + \ln|x-1||_{x=-1}^{x=0} = \frac{5}{2} - \ln(3)$.

3. Note that $\frac{x^3+2x}{x^4+4x^2+3} = \frac{x^3+2x}{(x^2+1)(x^2+3)}$. Then let $\frac{x^3+2x}{(x^2+1)(x^2+3)} = \frac{Ax+B}{x^2+1} + \frac{Cx+D}{x^2+3}$. Then $x^3+2x = (A+C)x^3 + (B+D)x^2 + (3A+C)x + (3B+D)$ which implies that $A + C = 1$, $B + D = 0$, $3A + C = 2$, and $3b + D = 0$. Solving this system of equations, we see that $A = C = \frac{1}{2}$ and $B = D = 0$, which means that $\frac{x^3+2x}{x^4+4x^2+3} = \frac{x}{2(x^2+1)} + \frac{x}{2(x^3+3)}$. And therefore, $int\frac{x^3+2x}{x^4+4x^2+3}\,dx = \int \left[\frac{x}{2(x^2+1)} + \frac{x}{2(x^3+3)}\right] dx = \frac{1}{4}\ln|x^2+1| + \frac{1}{4}\ln|x^2+3| + K$, where K is the constant of integration.

Answer to Exercise 5 (on page 12)

This question takes the form of integration by parts. That is, $\int f(x)g'(x)\,dx = f(x)g(x) - \int g(x)f'(x)\,dx$. If we let $g(x) = -\cos x$, then $g'(x) = \sin x$. The structure of the equation implies that $f'(x) = 4x^3$ and therefore that f could be $f(x) = x^4$.

Answer to Exercise 6 (on page 13)

1. $\frac{4}{\pi^2}$. Let $f = x$ and $g' = \sin\frac{\pi}{2}x dx$. Then $f' = dx$ and $g = -\frac{2}{\pi}\cos\frac{\pi}{2}x$. Which implies that $\int_0^1 x\sin\frac{\pi}{2}x\,dx = \left[\frac{-2}{\pi}\cos\frac{\pi}{2}x\right]_{x=0}^{x=1} - \int_0^1 \frac{-2}{\pi}\cos\frac{\pi}{2}x\,dx$. Evaluating $\left[\frac{-2x}{\pi}\cos\frac{\pi}{2}x\right]_{x=0}^{x=1} = \left(\frac{-2}{\pi}\cos\frac{\pi}{2}\right) - (0\cos 0) = 0 - 0 = 0$. Therefore, $\int_0^1 x\sin\frac{\pi}{2}x\,dx = \int_0^1 \frac{2}{\pi}\cos\frac{\pi}{2}x\,dx = \frac{2}{\pi}\left[\frac{2}{\pi}\sin\frac{\pi}{2}x\right]_0^1 = \frac{4}{\pi^2}\left[\sin\frac{\pi}{2} - \sin 0\right] = \frac{4}{\pi^2}$.

Index