

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 $\sqrt{1 \pm \cos 2\theta}$

$$\int \sqrt{1 + \cos 2\theta} d\theta = \int \sqrt{2 \cos^2 \theta} d\theta = \sqrt{2} \int |\cos \theta| d\theta$$

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. $\int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{1 + \cos 4x} dx = \int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{2 \cos^2 2x} dx = \sqrt{2} \int_0^{\pi/4} |\cos 2x| dx$

$$= \sqrt{2} \cdot \left[\frac{\sin 2x}{2} \right]_0^{\pi/4} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}.$$

$$\sqrt{2} \left[\frac{\sin \frac{\pi}{2}}{2} - 0 \right] = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

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

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

Alternatively, one may memorize the following identities :

积化和差

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

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

$$\cos mx \cos nx = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(m-n)x + \cos(m+n)x].$$

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

分步积分法

→ Try it again using integration by parts.

$$\int \sin(ax) \sin(bx) dx = I$$

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \sin ax & dv &= \sin bx dx \\ du &= a \sin ax dx & v &= \frac{1}{b} \sin bx \end{aligned}$$

$$I = \frac{1}{b} \sin ax \sin bx - \frac{1}{b} \int \cos ax \cos bx dx$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{2} \int \cos 4x dx - \frac{1}{2} \int \cos 12x dx \\ = \frac{1}{8} \sin 4x - \frac{1}{24} \sin 12x + C \end{aligned}$$

Trigonometric Substitution 三角代換

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 $\tan^2\theta + 1 = \sec^2\theta$

all $\theta \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$. Hence, we may make the following substitution

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{9+x^2}} \quad x = 3\tan\theta \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$$

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

$$\text{Let } x = 3\tan\theta, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$dx = 3\sec^2\theta d\theta$$

$$d\theta = 3\sec^2\theta d\theta$$

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

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

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

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

$$\sec\theta = \sqrt{1+\tan^2\theta} = \sqrt{1+\frac{x^2}{9}}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{9+x^2}}{3}$$

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

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:

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

$$\sec\theta = \frac{\sqrt{9+x^2}}{3}$$

$$\tan\theta = \frac{x}{3}$$

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

$$x = 2 \operatorname{sect} t \quad t \in (\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi)$$

$$dx = 2 \operatorname{sect} t \tan t dt$$

$$I = \int \frac{2 \operatorname{sect} t \tan t dt}{4 \operatorname{sec}^2 t \sqrt{4 \tan^2 t}}$$

$$I = \int \frac{2 \operatorname{sect} t \tan t dt}{4 \operatorname{sec}^2 t (-2 \tan t)}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{4} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \frac{dt}{\operatorname{sect}} = -\frac{1}{4} \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \cos t dt$$

$$\therefore I = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} - \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{4} (\sin t_1 - \sin t_2)$$

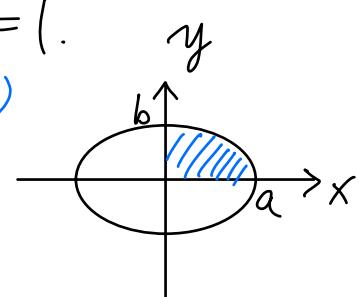
$$\sin \theta = \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 \theta}$$

$$= \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{\operatorname{sec}^2 \theta}} \quad \begin{aligned} \operatorname{sect}_1 &= -2 \\ \operatorname{sect}_2 &= -\frac{3}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\sin t_1 = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4}} \quad \sin t_2 = \sqrt{\frac{5}{9}}$$

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.



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

=

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$

$$y^2 = b^2(1 - \frac{x^2}{a^2}) = \frac{b^2}{a^2}(a^2 - x^2).$$

$$A = \int_0^a y dx = \int_0^a \frac{b}{a} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx$$

$$x = a \sin \theta \quad dx = a \cos \theta d\theta$$

$$\cdot A = 4A_1 = ab\pi. \quad \theta \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}] \quad \frac{\sin 2\theta}{2} \Big|_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} =$$

$$= \int_0^a \frac{b}{a} a \cos^2 \theta a d\theta = \frac{ab}{2} \left[\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} d\theta + \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos 2\theta d\theta \right]$$

$$= \frac{ab}{2} \cdot \left[\frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\theta \Big|_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \right] = \frac{ab\pi}{4}$$

$$= ab \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^2 \theta d\theta = ab \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} d\theta$$

$$\text{Area} = 4 \times \frac{ab\pi}{4} = ab\pi$$

Integration by Partial Fractions 有理函数积分法

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 $P(x) = \underbrace{a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0}_{\text{with } a_n \neq 0}$, 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. $\deg(7x^3 - 2x^2 + 7x + 1) = 3$; $\deg(a_0) = 0$ (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

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

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

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

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

e.g. (Long division of polynomials.) 長除法

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

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

Easy

Long division:

$x+2$	$\begin{array}{r} x^2 - 6x + 14 \\ \hline x^3 - 4x^2 + 2x - 3 \\ x^3 + 2x^2 \\ \hline -6x^2 + 2x \\ -6x^2 - 12x \\ \hline 14x - 3 \\ 14x + 28 \\ \hline -31 \end{array}$	Quotient
Divisor		Dividend
		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

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

$x(2x^2 + 3x - 2) \quad x(2x-1)(x+2)$

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

$$\text{Sol: } 2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x = x(2x^2 + 3x - 2) = x(2x-1)(x+2)$$

$$\bullet \frac{x^2 + 2x - 1}{2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{2x-1} + \frac{C}{x+2}$$

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

待定系数法

A, B, C
are "undetermined
coefficients".

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

$$\bullet \int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{1}{x} dx + \frac{1}{5} \int \frac{1}{2x-1} dx - \frac{1}{10} \int \frac{1}{x+2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \ln|x| + \frac{1}{10} \ln|2x-1| - \frac{1}{10} \ln|x+2| + C.$$

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 $x^2+x+1 = x(x+1)+1$ 拆!

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

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

$Q(x) \text{ is } (ax+b)^r$

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

$$\begin{array}{r} x+1 \\ \overline{x^4 - 2x^2 + 4x + 1} \\ x^4 - x^3 - x^2 + x \\ \hline x^3 - x^2 + 3x + 1 \end{array}$$

Example

$$\text{Find } \int \frac{x^4 - 2x^2 + 4x + 1}{x^3 - x^2 - x + 1} dx. \quad \stackrel{\text{系高}}{=} I \quad \stackrel{\text{系低}}{=} \frac{4x}{x^3 - x^2 - x + 1}$$

Sol: • Apply long division and get

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

• $x^3 - x^2 - x + 1 = x^2(x-1) - (x-1) = (x^2-1)(x-1) = (x+1)(x-1)^2$

• $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{(x-1)^2} + \frac{C}{x+1}$ 待定系数 $= \frac{(A+C)x^2 + (B-2C)x + (-A+B+C)}{(x+1)(x-1)^2}$

• $\begin{cases} A+C=0 \\ B-2C=4 \\ -A+B+C=0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} A=1 \\ B=2 \\ C=-1 \end{cases}$

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

• $I = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + x + \ln\left|\frac{x-1}{x+1}\right| - \frac{2}{x-1} + C$

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. $\int \frac{-2x+4}{(x^2+1)(x-1)^2} dx \quad (= : I) \quad \text{待定系数}$

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

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

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

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

↑ 拆分 ↑ 重复从 1 - n 次

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 $(x-r_i)$ in $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ then sub in $x=r_i$ gives you A_i :
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

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

- $A = \frac{f(0)}{(2 \cdot 0 - 1)(0 + 2)} = \frac{-1}{(-1)2} = \frac{1}{2}$. $(x^n - 1)^r$
- $B = \frac{f(\frac{1}{2})}{\frac{1}{2}(\frac{1}{2} + 2)} = \frac{\frac{1}{4}}{\frac{5}{4}} = \frac{1}{5}$. $\frac{A_1}{(x^n - 1)^r} + \dots$
- $C = \frac{f(-2)}{-2(-2-1)} = \frac{-1}{-2(-5)} = -\frac{1}{10}$.

This approach may be modified slightly to handle other cases.

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

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

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

可以求出 A, C
代 x 值解 B

• Move $\frac{2}{(x-1)^2}$ to LHS :

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

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

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

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

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

$$C = 6,$$

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

$$\frac{3(x-5)}{(x-1)(x+3)} = \frac{B}{x-1} + \frac{C}{x+3}$$

$$3(-3-5) = -8$$
~~$$-28$$~~

$$-31 = -4$$