

## Calculus Lecture 6: Integration techniques

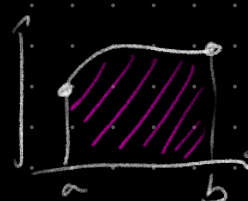
- Recap: definite and indefinite integrals
- Substitution (inverse chain rule)
- Integration by parts (inverse product rule)
- Partial fraction decomposition (rational functions)
- Improper integrals

Adams' Ch. 5.6, 6.1, 6.2, 6.5

## Recap

- Definite integral

- Area below a graph
- Limit of a Riemann sum of rectangular areas

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \text{NUMBER}$$


- Indefinite integral = anti-derivative

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C \quad \text{if} \quad F'(x) = f(x)$$

FUNCTION of x

- The fundamental theorem of Calculus connects definite and indefinite integrals

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) \quad \text{with} \quad F'(x) = f(x)$$

This lecture: how to calculate integrals

## Simple integrals (that are on your formula sheet)

(socratic)

$$\int dx = x + C$$

$$r \neq -1 \quad \int x^r dx = \frac{x^{r+1}}{r+1} + C$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{x} = \ln|x| + C$$

$$\int \cos(x) dx$$

$$\int e^x dx$$

$$\int e^{-x^2} dx$$

$$F(x) = \ln|x|$$

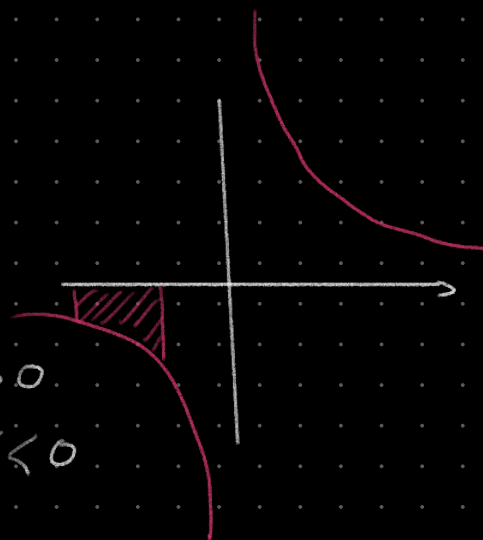
$$F(x) = \ln(x), x > 0$$

$$= \ln(-x), x < 0$$

$$F'(x) = \frac{1}{x} \quad x > 0$$

$$F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} (\ln(-x)) = \frac{1}{(-x)} \cdot (-1) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$x < 0$$



# Substitution

chain rule :  $\frac{d}{dx} (f(g(x))) = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$

$$\int \underbrace{f'(g(x))}_{u} \underbrace{g'(x)}_{du} dx = \int f'(u) du = f(u) + C$$

$$u = g(x) \quad du = g'(x) dx \quad = f(g(x)) + C$$

$$\int \sin(3x) dx = \int \sin(u) \cdot \frac{du}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \int \sin(u) du = \frac{1}{3} [-\cos(u)] + C$$

$$\begin{aligned} u &= 3x \\ du &= 3 \cdot dx \rightarrow dx = \frac{du}{3} \end{aligned} \quad = -\frac{1}{3} \cos(3x) + C$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{x+1} = \int \frac{du}{u} = \ln|u| + C = \ln|x+1| + C$$

$$\begin{aligned} u &= x+1 \\ du &= 1 \cdot dx = dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\int \tan(x) dx = \int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)} dx = \int \frac{-du}{u} = -\ln|u| + C = -\ln|\cos(x)| + C$$

$$\int \frac{x dx}{x^2+1} = \int \frac{\frac{1}{2} du}{u} \quad u = x^2+1 \quad du = 2x \cdot dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{du}{u} = \frac{1}{2} \ln|u| = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2+1) + C$$

$$u = x^2+1 \quad du = 2x \cdot dx$$

## Substitution - definite integrals

$$\int_0^{\pi/4} \tan(x) \cdot dx = \int_0^{\pi/4} \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)} dx = \int_1^{\sqrt{2}/2} \frac{-du}{u} = \int_{\sqrt{2}/2}^1 \frac{du}{u} = \ln(1) - \ln\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right) = 0 - \ln\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \ln(2)$$

$$u = \cos(x) \quad u(0) = 1$$

$$du = -\sin(x) dx \quad u\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

$$-\ln\left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}\right) = \ln\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

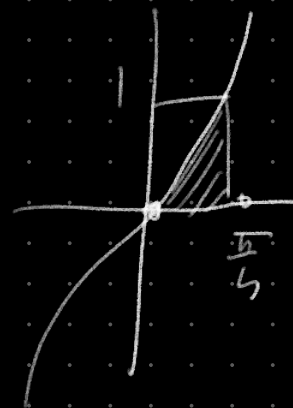
$$= \ln(\sqrt{2}) = \frac{1}{2} \ln(2)$$

In general :

$$\int_a^b f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f'(u) du$$

$$u = g(x)$$

$$du = g'(x) dx$$



## Integration by parts (inverse product rule)

$$\frac{d}{dx}(u \cdot v) = u' \cdot v + v' \cdot u \quad \text{product rule}$$

$$\int u(x) dv(x) = u \cdot v - \int v(x) du(x)$$

$$\int u(x) v'(x) dx = u \cdot v - \int v(x) u'(x) dx$$

$$\int x e^x dx = x \cdot e^x - \int e^x dx = x e^x - e^x + C$$

$$\begin{aligned} u(x) &= x & dv &= e^x dx \\ du &= dx & v &= e^x \end{aligned}$$

$$\int \ln(x) dx = \int 1 \cdot \ln(x) dx = x \cdot \ln(x) - \int \cancel{x} \cdot \frac{dx}{\cancel{x}} = x \ln(x) - x + C$$

$$\begin{aligned} u(x) &= \ln(x) & dv &= \frac{dx}{x} \\ dV &= 1 \cdot dx & v(x) &= x \end{aligned}$$

$$\int x \sin(x) dx = -x \cdot \cos(x) + \int \cos(x) dx = -x \cos(x) + \sin(x) + C$$

$$\begin{aligned} u(x) &= x & du &= dx \\ dv &= \sin(x) dx & v &= -\cos(x) \end{aligned}$$

# Rational functions - partial fraction decomposition

Idea: we write a rational function  $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$  as a sum of a polynomial

and "simple" fractions  $\frac{A_k}{x-x_k}$  that we can easily integrate.  
  $\rightarrow$  poles

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = P_1(x) + \frac{A_1}{x-x_1} + \dots + \frac{A_n}{x-x_n} \quad (*)$$

1) Factorize  $Q(x) = (x-x_1)(x-x_2)\dots$

2) If needed, find  $P_1(x)$  by long division of polynomials.

3)  $A_k = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_k} \left( (x-x_k) \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \right)$

(or solve system of equations)  $\rightarrow$  usually easier.

4) For roots with higher multiplicity:  $\frac{P(x)}{(x-x_k)^2} = \frac{A}{x-x_k} + \frac{B}{(x-x_k)^2}$

$$\text{Example: } \int \frac{dx}{x^2-4} = \int \left( \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{x-2} - \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{x+2} \right) dx = \frac{1}{4} \int \frac{dx}{x-2} - \frac{1}{4} \int \frac{dx}{x+2}$$

$$\frac{1}{x^2-4} = \frac{A_1}{x-2} + \frac{A_2}{x+2} \quad = \frac{1}{4} \ln|x-2| - \frac{1}{4} \ln|x+2| + C$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = A_1(x+2) + A_2(x-2)$$

$$\text{for } x=-2 \quad 1 = A_2(-2-2) = -4A_2 \Rightarrow A_2 = -\frac{1}{4}$$

$$\text{for } x=2 \quad 1 = A_1(2+2) = 4A_1 \Rightarrow A_1 = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$0 \cdot x + 1 = A_1(x+2) + A_2(x-2) = (A_1+A_2)x + 2(A_1-A_2)$$

$$0 = A_1 + A_2 \Rightarrow A_1 = -A_2$$

$$1 = 2(A_1 - A_2) \Rightarrow A_1 = -A_2 = \frac{1}{4}$$



What if  $Q(x) = (x - x_0)^2$ ?  $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{A_1}{(x - x_0)} + \frac{A_2}{(x - x_0)^2}$

$$\int \frac{x+3}{(x-2)^2} dx = \int \left( \frac{1}{x-2} + \frac{5}{(x-2)^2} \right) dx = \int \frac{dx}{x-2} + 5 \int \frac{dx}{(x-2)^2} \quad \text{Diy}$$

$$\frac{x+3}{(x-2)^2} = \frac{A_1}{x-2} + \frac{A_2}{(x-2)^2}$$

$$\underline{x+3} = A_1(x-2) + A_2 = \underline{A_1 x} + (A_2 - 2A_1)$$

$$1 = A_1$$

$$3 = A_2 - 2A_1 \Rightarrow A_2 = 5$$

What if  $Q(x) = (x - x_0)(ax^2 + bx + c)$   $\hookrightarrow$  no real roots?

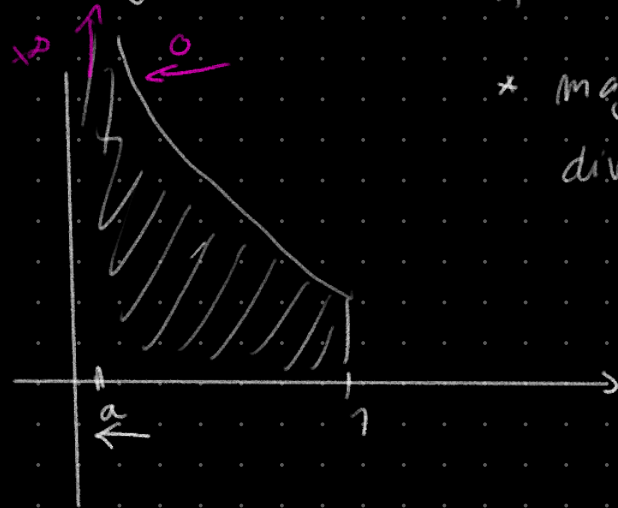
$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{A_1}{x - x_0} + \frac{Bx + C}{ax^2 + bx + c}$$

## Improper integrals

- Type I: integrating next to a vertical asymptote

- $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \int_a^1 \frac{dx}{x} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} (\ln(1) - \ln(a)) = +\infty$

↳ always indeterminate forms!



\* may converge : Area is finite  
diverge : Area is  $\pm \infty$

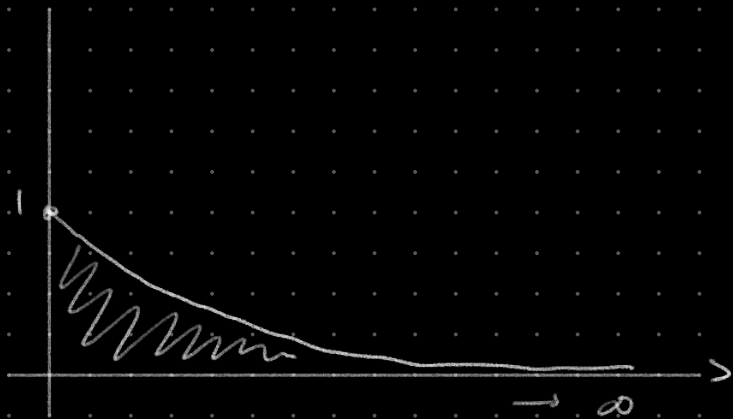
↳  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = +\infty$ , then, if  $g(x) \geq f(x)$ , then  $\int_a^b g(x) dx = +\infty$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x}} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \int_a^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x}} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} 2(\sqrt{1} - \sqrt{a}) = 2$$

## Improper integrals

- Type II: integrating to infinity

$$\int_0^{+\infty} e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [-e^{-x}]_0^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (-e^{-b} + e^0) = 1$$



- Improper integrals are an INDETERMINATE FORM. They may
  - converge : the area is finite
  - diverge to  $\pm\infty$  : the area grows arbitrarily large
  - diverge / not exist : it is not possible to calculate the area