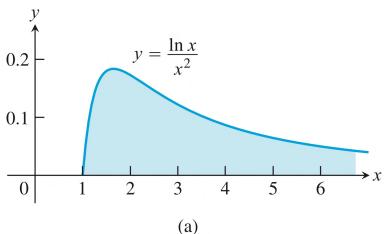


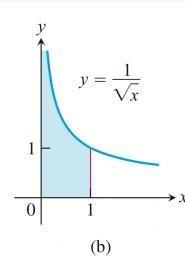
MA 103- SVC Lecture 8

Sect. 8.8 – Improper integrals

Background :



(a)



(b)

DEFINITION Type I Improper Integrals

Integrals with infinite limits of integration are **improper integrals of Type I**.

1. If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, \infty)$, then

$$\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

2. If $f(x)$ is continuous on $(-\infty, b]$, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

3. If $f(x)$ is continuous on $(-\infty, \infty)$, then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^c f(x) dx + \int_c^{\infty} f(x) dx,$$

where c is any real number.

In each case, if the limit is finite we say that the improper integral **converges** and that the limit is the **value** of the improper integral. If the limit fails to exist, the improper integral **diverges**.

$$\text{Example 1: } \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x/2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b e^{-x/2} dx$$

$$= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{e^{-x/2}}{-\frac{1}{2}} \right]_0^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(-2 \cdot [e^{-x/2}]_0^b \right)$$

$$= -2 \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (e^{-b/2} - 1) = -2(0 - 1) = 2$$

$$\text{Example 2: } \int_1^{\infty} \frac{\ln x}{x^2} dx \quad u = \ln x \quad dv = \frac{1}{x^2} dx$$

$$\Rightarrow du = \frac{1}{x} dx, \quad v = -\frac{1}{x}$$

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\ln x}{x^2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{\ln x}{x^2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(\left[\frac{-\ln x}{x} \right]_1^b - \left[\frac{1}{x} \right]_1^b \right)$$

$$= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(-\frac{\ln(b)}{b} + 0 - \left[\frac{1}{x} \right]_1^b \right) = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(-\frac{\ln(b)}{b} - \frac{1}{b} + 1 \right)$$

$$= 0 - 0 + 1 = 1.$$

$$\text{Example 3} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

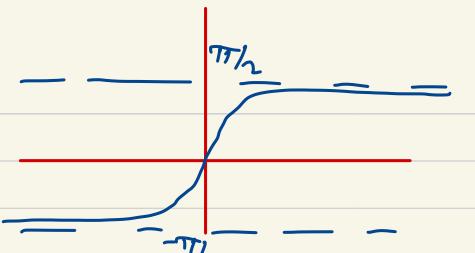
$$= \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx + \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

$$= \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} [\tan^{-1} x]_a^0 + \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [\tan^{-1} x]_0^b$$

$$= \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} (\tan^{-1} 0 - \tan^{-1}(a)) + \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (\tan^{-1}(b) - \tan^{-1}(0))$$

$$= -\left(\frac{-\pi}{2}\right) + \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$= \pi$$



Ex. 4 For what values of p does the integral $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx$ converge? Find the value of the integral when it converges.

Ans. $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{1}{x^p} dx$

Case 1 $p \neq 1$:

$$\int_1^b \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \int_1^b x^{-p} dx = \left[\frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \right]_1^b$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{b^{-p+1} - 1}{-p+1} \right)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p-1}, & \text{if } p > 1 \\ \infty, & \text{if } p < 1 \end{cases}$$

$\Rightarrow \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx$ converges if $p > 1$ &
is equal to $\frac{1}{p-1}$ there, whereas
it diverges if $p \leq 1$.

Case 2: $p = 1$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x} dx &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{1}{x} dx \\&= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[\ln|x| \right]_1^b \\&= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [\ln b - \ln 1] \\&= \infty.\end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx$ diverges when $p = 1$

DEFINITION Type II Improper Integrals

Integrals of functions that become infinite at a point within the interval of integration are **improper integrals of Type II**.

1. If $f(x)$ is continuous on $(a, b]$ and is discontinuous at a then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow a^+} \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

2. If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b)$ and is discontinuous at b , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^c f(x) dx.$$

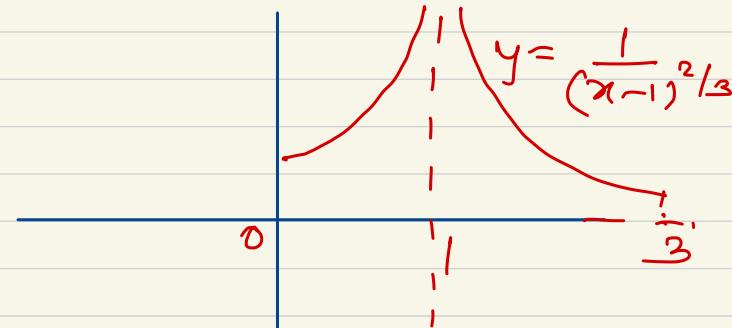
3. If $f(x)$ is discontinuous at c , where $a < c < b$, and continuous on $[a, c) \cup (c, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

In each case, if the limit is finite we say the improper integral **converges** and that the limit is the **value** of the improper integral. If the limit does not exist, the integral **diverges**.

Example (Vertical asymptote at an interior pt)

Evaluate $\int_0^3 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}}$.



$$\begin{aligned} \bullet \int_0^3 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} &= \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} + \int_1^3 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} \\ \bullet \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} &= \lim_{b \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^b \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} = \lim_{b \rightarrow 1^-} \left[\frac{(x-1)^{1/3}}{1/3} \right]_0^b \\ &= 3 \lim_{b \rightarrow 1^-} \left[(b-1)^{1/3} \right]_0^b = 3 \lim_{b \rightarrow 1^-} ((b-1)^{1/3} - (0-1)^{1/3}) \\ &= 3 \lim_{b \rightarrow 1^-} ((b-1)^{1/3} + 1) = 3 \end{aligned}$$

$$\bullet \int_1^3 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 1^+} \int_a^3 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} = 3 \cdot 2^{1/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^3 \frac{dx}{(x-1)^{2/3}} = 3 + 3 \cdot 2^{1/2}$$

Evaluate $\int_0^3 \frac{dx}{x-1}$

WARNING!

INCORRECT EVALUATION

$$\int_0^3 \frac{dx}{x-1} = \left[\ln|x-1| \right]_0^3 = \ln 2 - 0, \\ = \ln 2.$$

THIS IS WRONG!

$$\int_0^3 \frac{dx}{x-1} = \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x-1} + \int_1^3 \frac{dx}{x-1}$$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x-1} = \lim_{b \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^b \frac{dx}{x-1} = \lim_{b \rightarrow 1^-} \left[\ln|x-1| \right]_0^b \\ = \lim_{b \rightarrow 1^-} (\ln|b-1|) = -\infty.$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x-1} \text{ does not exist & hence } \int_0^3 \frac{dx}{x-1} \text{ does not exist.}$$

Tests for convergence and divergence

THEOREM 1 Direct Comparison Test

Let f and g be continuous on $[a, \infty)$ with $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all $x \geq a$. Then

1. $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ converges if $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ converges
2. $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ diverges if $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ diverges.

Example ① $\int_1^\infty e^{-x^2} dx$ ② $\int_1^\infty \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx$

$f(x) = e^{-x^2}$, $g(x) = e^{-x}$ On $[1, \infty)$,
 $e^{-x^2} \leq e^{-x}$

$\Rightarrow \int_1^\infty e^{-x^2} dx \leq \int_1^\infty e^{-x} dx = \left[\frac{e^{-x}}{-1} \right]_1^\infty$
 $= 0 + \frac{1}{e}.$

\uparrow
 converges

Hence by direct comparison test, $\int_1^\infty e^{-x^2} dx$
 also converges.

THEOREM 2 Limit Comparison Test

If the positive functions f and g are continuous on $[a, \infty)$ and if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L, \quad 0 < L < \infty,$$

then

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx \quad \text{and} \quad \int_a^\infty g(x) dx$$

both converge or both diverge.

Example ① $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{1+x^2}$ ② $\int_1^\infty \frac{3}{e^x+5} dx$

① Let $g(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$, $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1+x^2}{x^2} = 1 > 0$$

Both $\int_1^\infty f(x) dx$ & $\int_1^\infty g(x) dx$ converge or both diverge

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{x} \right]_1^b$$

$$= \infty$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{1+x^2} \text{ also converges}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \text{Take } f(x) = e^{-x}, g(x) = \frac{3}{e^x + 5}$$

$$\frac{3}{e^x + 5} = \frac{3e^{-x}}{1 + 5e^{-x}} \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3e^{-x}}{5}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-x}}{\frac{3}{e^x + 5}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-x}}{3e^{-x}} \cdot (1 + 5e^{-x})$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \leftarrow L$$

$$\int_1^\infty e^{-x} dx \text{ & } \int_1^\infty \frac{3}{e^x + 5} dx$$

either both converge or both diverge

$$\int_1^\infty e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b e^{-x} dx$$

$$= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{e^{-x}}{-1} \right]_1^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (e^{-b} + e^{-1})$$

$$= \frac{1}{e}$$

Sect. 8.3 – Integration of rational functions by partial fractions

- Method to rewrite rational functions as a sum of simple fractions is called the method of partial fractions.

Method of Partial Fractions ($f(x)/g(x)$ Proper)

- Let $x - r$ be a linear factor of $g(x)$. Suppose that $(x - r)^m$ is the highest power of $x - r$ that divides $g(x)$. Then, to this factor, assign the sum of the m partial fractions:

$$\frac{A_1}{x - r} + \frac{A_2}{(x - r)^2} + \cdots + \frac{A_m}{(x - r)^m}.$$

Do this for each distinct linear factor of $g(x)$.

- Let $x^2 + px + q$ be a quadratic factor of $g(x)$. Suppose that $(x^2 + px + q)^n$ is the highest power of this factor that divides $g(x)$. Then, to this factor, assign the sum of the n partial fractions:

$$\frac{B_1x + C_1}{x^2 + px + q} + \frac{B_2x + C_2}{(x^2 + px + q)^2} + \cdots + \frac{B_nx + C_n}{(x^2 + px + q)^n}.$$

Do this for each distinct quadratic factor of $g(x)$ that cannot be factored into linear factors with real coefficients.

- Set the original fraction $f(x)/g(x)$ equal to the sum of all these partial fractions. Clear the resulting equation of fractions and arrange the terms in decreasing powers of x .
- Equate the coefficients of corresponding powers of x and solve the resulting equations for the undetermined coefficients.

Example: Evaluate $\int \frac{x^2 + 4x + 1}{(x-1)(x+1)(x+3)} dx$

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

$$x^2+4x+1 = A(x+1)(x+3) + B(x-1)(x+3) + C(x-1)(x+1)$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2+4x+1 = A(x^2+4x+3) + B(x^2+2x-2) + C(x^2-1)$$

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

$$\Rightarrow A+B+C=1$$

$$4A+2B=4$$

$$3A-3B-C=1$$

$$\Rightarrow A=\frac{3}{4}, B=\frac{1}{2}, C=-\frac{1}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{x^2+4x+1}{(x-1)(x+1)(x+3)} dx = \frac{3}{4} \ln|x-1| + \frac{1}{2} \ln|x+1| - \frac{1}{4} \ln|x+3| + C$$

Example (Repeated linear factor)

$$\text{Evaluate } \int \frac{x^2 dx}{(x-1)(x^2+2x+1)}$$

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

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

$$\Rightarrow x^2 = (A+B)x^2 + (2A+C)x + (A-B-C)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow A+B &= 1 \\ 2A+C &= 0 \\ A-B-C &= 0 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} B &= 1-A \\ C &= -2A \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow A - (1-A) - (-2A) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 4A - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow A = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$B = \frac{3}{4}, \quad C = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{x^2 dx}{(x-1)(x^2+2x+1)} = \frac{1}{4} \ln|x-1| + \frac{3}{4} \ln|x+1| + \frac{1}{2(x+1)} + C$$

Example Evaluate $\int \frac{(-2x+4) dx}{(x^2+1)(x-1)^2}$

$$\frac{(-2x+4)}{(x^2+1)(x-1)^2} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{(x-1)^2} + \frac{Cx+D}{x^2+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow -2x+4 = A(x^2+1)(x-1) + B(x^2+1) + (Cx+D)(x-1)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow A = -2, \quad B = 1, \quad C = 2, \quad D = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int \frac{(-2x+4) dx}{(x^2+1)(x-1)^2}$$

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

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

Heaviside Method

1. Write the quotient with $g(x)$ factored:

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(x)}{(x - r_1)(x - r_2) \cdots (x - r_n)}.$$

2. Cover the factors $(x - r_i)$ of $g(x)$ one at a time, each time replacing all the uncovered x 's by the number r_i . This gives a number A_i for each root r_i :

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 &= \frac{f(r_1)}{(r_1 - r_2) \cdots (r_1 - r_n)} \\ A_2 &= \frac{f(r_2)}{(r_2 - r_1)(r_2 - r_3) \cdots (r_2 - r_n)} \\ &\vdots \\ A_n &= \frac{f(r_n)}{(r_n - r_1)(r_n - r_2) \cdots (r_n - r_{n-1})}. \end{aligned}$$

3. Write the partial-fraction expansion of $f(x)/g(x)$ as

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{A_1}{(x - r_1)} + \frac{A_2}{(x - r_2)} + \cdots + \frac{A_n}{(x - r_n)}.$$

Example

$$\int \frac{(x^2 + 7x - 1) dx}{(x-4)(x+2)(x-3)}$$

$$\frac{x^2 + 7x - 1}{(x-4)(x+2)(x-3)} = \frac{A}{x-4} + \frac{B}{x+2} + \frac{C}{x-3}.$$

$$\text{Then } A = \frac{(4)^2 + 7(4) - 1}{(4+2)(4-3)} = \frac{43}{6}$$

$$B = \left. \frac{x^2 + 7x - 1}{(x-4)(x-3)} \right|_{x=-2} =$$

$$C = \left. \frac{x^2 + 7x - 1}{(x-4)(x+2)} \right|_{x=3} =$$

complete
the problem!

Sect. 8.4 - Trigonometric integrals

Integral: $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x dx$

Case 1: m is odd, say, $m = 2k+1$

$$\sin^m x = (\sin x)^{2k+1} = (\sin^2 x)^k \cdot \sin x$$

$$= (1 - \cos^2 x)^k \cdot \sin x$$

Let $\cos x = u$. Then $-\sin x dx = du$

Case 2: m is even & n is odd; write

$$n = 2j+1 \text{ & so}$$

$$(\cos x)^{2k+1} = (1 - \sin^2 x)^k \cdot \cos x$$

Let $\sin x = u$, then $\cos x dx = du$.

Case 3: m & n both are even, say $m = 2k$

$$\sin^{2k}(x) = (\sin^2 x)^k = \left(\frac{1 - \cos(2x)}{2} \right)^k$$

$$\cos^{2j}(x) = (\cos^2 x)^j = \left(\frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{2} \right)^j$$

$$\text{Example: } \int \cos^7 x dx$$

$$\begin{aligned}\cos^7 x &= (\cos x)^6 \cdot \cos x = (\cos^2 x)^3 \cos x \\ &= (1 - \sin^2 x)^3 \cos x.\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Let } \sin x = t, \quad dt = \cos x dx$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int \cos^7 x dx &= \int (1 - t^2)^3 dt \\ &= \int [1 - t^6 - 3t^2(1 - t^2)] dt \\ &= \int (1 - 3t^2 + 3t^4 - t^6) dt \\ &= t - t^3 + \frac{3}{5}t^5 - \frac{t^7}{7} + C \\ &= \sin x - \sin^3 x + \frac{3}{5} \sin^5 x - \frac{\sin^7 x}{7} + C.\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Example: } \int \sin^2 x \cos^4 x dx$$

$$\begin{aligned}&= \int \left(\frac{1 - \cos(2x)}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1 + \cos(2x)}{2}\right)^2 dx \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \int (1 - \cos(2x))(1 + 2\cos(2x) + \cos^2(2x)) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \int (1 + 2\cos(2x) + \cos^2(2x) - \cos(2x) \\ &\quad - 2\cos^2(2x) - \cos^3(2x)) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \int (1 + \cos(2x) - \cos^2(2x) - \cos^3(2x)) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \left[x + \frac{\sin(2x)}{2} \right] - \frac{1}{8} \int (\cos^2(2x) + \cos^3(2x)) dx\end{aligned}$$

$$\int \cos^2(2x) dx = \int \frac{1 + \cos(4x)}{2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(x + \frac{\sin(4x)}{4} \right)$$

$$\int \cos^3(2x) dx = \int (1 - \sin^2(2x)) \cos(2x) dx$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \sin(2x) = t \\ \cos(2x) dx = \frac{dt}{2} \end{array} \right]$$

$$= \int (1 - t^2) \frac{dt}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(t - \frac{t^3}{3} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sin(2x) - \sin^3(2x) \right)$$

Now complete the problem.

Example $\int \tan^4 x dx$

$$= \int \tan^2 x \cdot \tan^2 x dx$$

$$= \int \tan^2 x (\sec^2 x - 1) dx$$

$$= \int \tan^2 x \sec^2 x dx - \int \tan^2 x dx$$

$$\underbrace{\tan x = u}_{\sec^2 x dx = du}$$

$$= \sec^2 x - 1$$

$$= \int u^2 du - \int (\sec^2 x - 1) dx$$

$$= \frac{u^3}{3} - \tan x + x + C$$

$$= \frac{\tan^3 x}{3} - \tan x + x + C$$

Example $\int \sec^3 x dx$
 (Write $\sec^3 x dx = (\sec x)(\sec^2 x dx)$)
 & use integration by parts.

Example $\int \cos 5x \cos 4x dx$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \frac{1}{2} \int [\cos(9x) + \cos(x)] dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{\sin(9x)}{9} + \sin x \right) + C. \end{aligned}$$

Sect. 8.5 - Trigonometric substitutions

- Useful in evaluating integrals which contain $\sqrt{a^2-x^2}$, $\sqrt{a^2+x^2}$ and $\sqrt{x^2-a^2}$.

$$\sqrt{a^2-x^2} \quad \text{Let } x = a \sin \theta$$

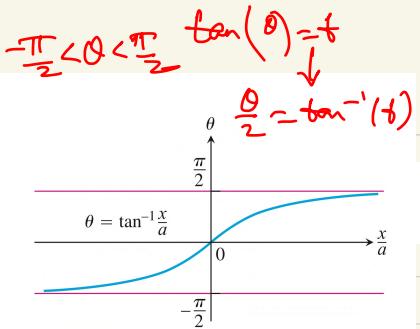
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \sqrt{a^2-x^2} &= \sqrt{a^2-a^2 \sin^2 \theta} = \sqrt{a^2(1-\sin^2 \theta)} \\ &= \sqrt{a^2 \cos^2 \theta} = a |\cos \theta|. \end{aligned}$$

$$\sqrt{a^2+x^2} \quad \text{Let } x = a \tan \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{a^2+x^2} &= \sqrt{a^2+a^2 \tan^2 \theta} = \sqrt{a^2(1+\tan^2 \theta)} \\ &= \sqrt{a^2 \sec^2 \theta} = a |\sec(\theta)| \end{aligned}$$

$$\sqrt{x^2-a^2} \quad \text{Let } x = a \sec \theta$$

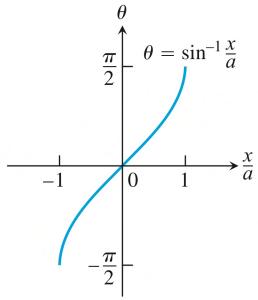
$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{x^2-a^2} &= \sqrt{a^2 \sec^2 \theta - a^2} = \sqrt{a^2(\sec^2 \theta - 1)} \\ &= \sqrt{a^2 \tan^2 \theta} = a |\tan \theta|. \end{aligned}$$



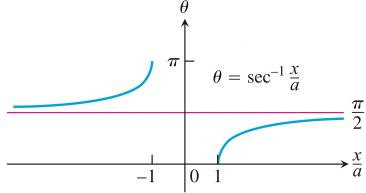
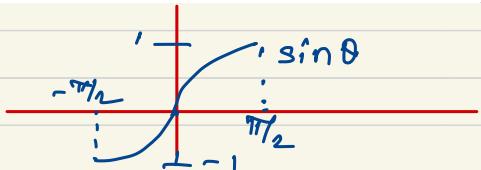
$$\int_{\pi/2}^{2\pi/3} \cos \theta \, d\theta$$

$$\sin \theta / (\sec \theta),$$

$x = a \tan \theta$ requires $\theta = \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)$ with $-\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$,



$x = a \sin \theta$ requires $\theta = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)$ with $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$,



$x = a \sec \theta$ requires $\theta = \sec^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right)$ with

$$\begin{cases} 0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } \frac{x}{a} \geq 1, \\ \frac{\pi}{2} < \theta \leq \pi & \text{if } \frac{x}{a} \leq -1. \end{cases}$$

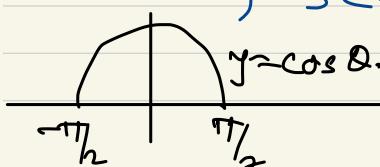
Example $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4+x^2}}$ Let $\alpha = 2\tan \theta$,

$$-\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

$$dx = 2 \sec^2 \theta \, d\theta.$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4+x^2}} = \int \frac{2 \sec^2 \theta \, d\theta}{2 |\sec \theta|}$$

$$= \int \frac{\sec^2 \theta}{\sec \theta} \, d\theta \quad \left(\because \sec \theta > 0 \text{ on } -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$$



$$= \int \sec \theta \, d\theta$$

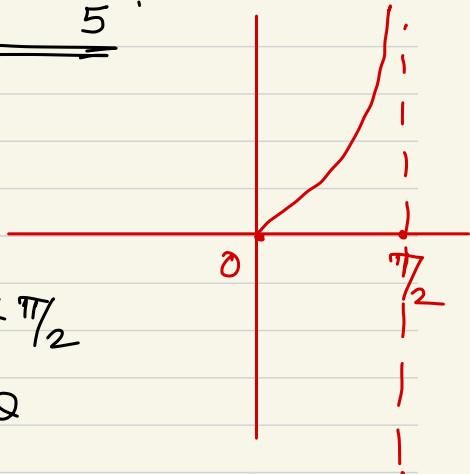
$$= \ln |\sec \theta + \tan \theta| + C$$

$$= \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{x^2+4}}{2} + \frac{x}{2} \right| + C .$$

since $\sec \theta = \sqrt{\tan^2 \theta + 1} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2 + 1} = \frac{\sqrt{x^2+4}}{2}$

* Example $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{25x^2 - 4}}, \quad x > \frac{2}{5} .$

$$= \int \frac{dx}{5\sqrt{x^2 - \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^2}}$$



Let $x = \frac{2}{5} \sec \theta, \quad 0 < \theta < \pi/2$

$$dx = \frac{2}{5} \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta$$

$$x^2 - \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^2 \tan^2 .$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{25x^2 - 4}} = \frac{1}{5} \int \frac{\frac{2}{5} \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta}{\frac{2}{5} |\tan \theta|}$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} \int \sec \theta d\theta \quad (\because \text{if } 0 < \theta < \pi/2, \tan \theta > 0)$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} \ln |\sec \theta + \tan \theta| + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} \ln \left| \frac{5x}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{25x^2}{4} - 1} \right| + C$$

Chapter 11 - Infinite sequences and series

Sect. 11.1 - Sequences

DEFINITION Infinite Sequence

An **infinite sequence** of numbers is a function whose domain is the set of positive integers.

Examples ① $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\}$

$$\{\alpha_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}; f(n) = n \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

② $\{1, 1, 1, 1, \dots\}$: $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty} = \{1\}_{n=1}^{\infty}; f(n) = 1 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

③ $\left\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots\right\}$; $\alpha_n = \frac{1}{n}, f(n) = \frac{1}{n} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

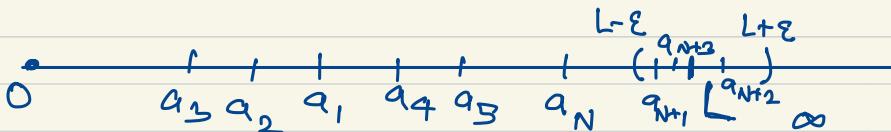
④ $\left\{1, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{4}, \dots\right\}$ $\alpha_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n};$

DEFINITIONS Converges, Diverges, Limit

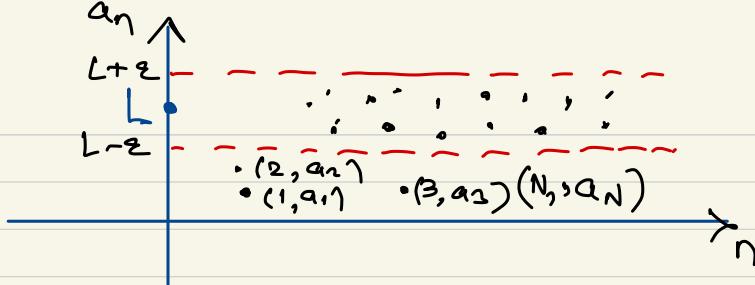
The sequence $\{\alpha_n\}$ **converges** to the number L if to every positive number ϵ there corresponds an integer N such that for all n ,

$$n > N \quad \Rightarrow \quad |\alpha_n - L| < \epsilon.$$

If no such number L exists, we say that $\{\alpha_n\}$ **diverges**.



$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \alpha_n = L$, and we say $\{\alpha_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ converges to L .



Example Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$ by defn.

Proof: Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. We have to find an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\forall n > N$, $|\frac{1}{n} - 0| < \varepsilon$, i.e.; $\frac{1}{n} < \varepsilon$, i.e. $n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$. Hence choose $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $N > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ Archimedean property
so that $n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \quad \forall n > N$.

Hence by defn. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$. ◻

ASSIGNMENT PROBLEM

↓ Ex.1 Prove that the sequence $\left\{ (-1)^n \right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ diverges.