# All Integrals Cheatsheet

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# 1 Basic Integrals

$$\int x^n = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$$
$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C$$

### 2 U-substitution

Recall

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

Therefore by identifying a function and it's derivative, we can use u-substitution.

$$\int f'(g(x))g'(x)dx = f(g(x)) + C$$

What does this mean?

First identify a g(x) and g'(x) modified by a f'(x). Say  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ :

$$\int \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)} dx$$

$$u = g(x) \ du = g'(x) \ \frac{du}{g'(x)} = dx$$

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

Similarly, if f'(x) = x

$$\int g'(x)g(x)dx \ u = g(x) \ du = g'(x) \ \frac{du}{g'(x)} = dx \ \int udu = \frac{1}{2}u^2 + C = \frac{1}{2}g(x) + C$$

# 3 Integration by Parts

#### 3.1 Derivation

Recall product rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[uv] = u\frac{dv}{dx} + \frac{du}{dx}v$$

Where u and v are u(x) and v(x) respectively.

$$u\frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}[uv] - v\frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = \int \frac{d}{dx} [uv] - v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

Simplify:

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

#### 3.2 When to Use

Notice that u is **never integrated.** Only u and  $\int v du$  are used. In exchange, dv is integrated twice; once in uv and once in  $\int v du$ .

#### 3.2.1 Traditional usage

$$\int 2xe^x dx \ u = 2x \ dv = e^x dx \ \int u dv = uv - \int v du \implies 2xe^x - \int e^x dx * 2$$
$$\int 2xe^x dx = 2xe^x - 2e^x + C$$

Sometimes, u-substitution or another method may be necessary after integration by parts. Or you might have to integrate by parts again.

#### 3.2.2 Doing it twice

$$\int e^x \cos(x) dx \ u = e^x \ dv = \cos(x) dx \ \int u dv = uv - \int v du \ e^x \sin(x) - \int \sin(x) \cdot e^x dx$$

Now,  $\int e^x \sin(x) dx$  has to be integrated.

$$\int e^x \sin(x) dx \ u = e^x \ dv = \sin(x) dx \ \int u dv = uv - \int v du$$
$$-\int e^x \sin(x) dx = e^x \cos(x) - (-\int \cos(x) \cdot e^x dx)$$

Put it all together:

$$\int e^x \cos(x) dx = e^x \sin(x) - (-e^x \cos(x) - (-\int e^x \cos(x) dx))$$

$$\int e^x \cos(x) dx = e^x \sin(x) + e^x \cos(x) - \int e^x \cos(x) dx$$

$$2 \int e^x \cos(x) dx = e^x (\sin(x) + \cos(x)) + C$$

$$\int e^x \cos(x) dx = \frac{e^x (\sin(x) + \cos(x))}{2} + C$$

#### **3.2.3** Where dv = 1

$$\int \ln(x)dx \ u = \ln(x) \ dv = dx \ \int udv = uv - \int vdu$$
$$\int \ln(x)dx = \ln(x)x - \int x\frac{1}{x}dx + C = x\ln(x) - x + C$$

# 4 Trig Substitution

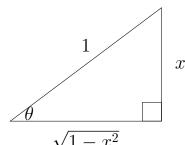
### 4.1 Inverse Trig Functions

#### **4.1.1** $\arcsin(x)$

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}} dx = \arcsin(x) + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[y] = \frac{d}{dx}[\arcsin(x)] \Longrightarrow \frac{d}{dx}[\sin(y)] = \frac{d}{dx}[x] \Longrightarrow \cos(y) * \frac{dy}{dx} = 1 \Longrightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos(y)}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos(\arcsin(x))} \Longrightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$



Second case:

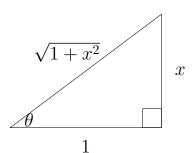
$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} dx = \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 (1 - \frac{x^2}{a^2})}} dx = \frac{1}{a} \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (\frac{x}{a})^2}} dx$$
$$u = \frac{x}{a}; du = \frac{1}{a} dx \Longrightarrow a du = dx$$
$$\frac{1}{a} \int a \frac{1}{1 - u^2} du = \arcsin(u) + C = \arcsin(\frac{x}{a}) + C$$

#### **4.1.2** $\arctan(x)$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx}[y] = \frac{d}{dx}[\arctan(x)] \Longrightarrow \frac{d}{dx}[\tan(y)] = \frac{d}{dx}[x] \Longrightarrow \sec^2 y * \frac{dy}{dx} = 1 \Longrightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \cos^2 y$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos^2(\arctan(x)) = \cos^2(\theta) = (\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}})^2 = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$



Second case:

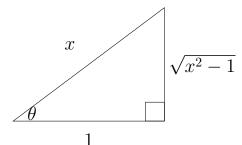
$$\int \frac{1}{a^2 + x^2} dx = \int \frac{1}{a^2 (1 + (\frac{x}{a})^2)} dx = \frac{1}{a} \int \frac{1}{1 + (\frac{x}{a})^2} dx$$
$$u = \frac{x}{a}; du = \frac{1}{a} dx \Longrightarrow a du = dx$$
$$\frac{1}{a} \int \frac{1}{1 + u^2} a du = \arctan(u) + C = \arctan(\frac{x}{a}) + C$$

#### **4.1.3** arcsec(x)

$$\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} dx = arcsec(|x|) + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[y] = \frac{d}{dx}[\operatorname{arcsec}(|x|)] \Longrightarrow \frac{d}{dx}[\sec(y)] = \frac{d}{dx}[x] \Longrightarrow \sec(x)\tan(x) * \frac{dy}{dx} = 1$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec x \tan x} = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$$



Second case:

$$\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} dx = \int \frac{1}{ax\sqrt{(\frac{x}{a})^2 - 1}} dx$$

$$y = \frac{x}{a} \cdot dy = \frac{1}{ax} dx \implies ady = dx$$

$$u = \frac{x}{a}; du = \frac{1}{a}dx \Longrightarrow adu = dx$$

$$\frac{1}{a} \int a \frac{1}{au\sqrt{u^2 - 1}} du = \frac{1}{a}arcsec(|u|) + C = \frac{1}{a}arcsec(|\frac{x}{a}|) + C$$

The absolute value remains because of:

$$\int \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} dx = \operatorname{arcsec}(x) + C \Longrightarrow \frac{|x|}{x} \int \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} dx = (\operatorname{arcsec}(x) + C) \frac{|x|}{x}$$
$$\Longrightarrow \int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} dx = \operatorname{arcsec}(|x|) + C$$

# 4.2 Esoteric / Simplification

The same methods can be used to simplify  $\sqrt{}$  when **u-substitution and all other methods have failed.** Like the title suggests, these are esoteric at best.

**4.2.1**  $\sqrt{a^2-x^2}$ 

$$x = a\sin(\theta); dx = a\cos(\theta)d\theta$$
$$\sqrt{a^2 - x^2} = \sqrt{a^2 - a^2\sin^2(\theta)} = \sqrt{a^2\cos^2(\theta)} = a\cos(\theta)$$

**4.2.2**  $\sqrt{a^2+x^2}$ 

$$x = a\tan(\theta); dx = a\sec^2(\theta)d\theta$$
$$\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} = \sqrt{a^2 + a^2\tan(\theta)} = \sqrt{a^2\sec^2(\theta)} = a\sec(\theta)$$

**4.2.3**  $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$ 

$$x = a\sec(\theta); dx = a\sec(\theta)\tan(\theta)d\theta$$
$$\sqrt{x^2 - a^2} = \sqrt{a^2\sec^2(\theta) - a^2} = \sqrt{a^2\tan^2(\theta)} = atan(\theta)$$

## 4.3 Completing the Square

Completing the square can facilitate usage of the methods outlined above. An example would best illustrate this point:

$$\int \sqrt{5 - 4x - x^2} dx = \int \sqrt{5 + 4 - (x^2 + 4x + 4)} dx = \int \sqrt{9 - (x + 2)^2} dx$$

Since  $\frac{d}{dx}[x+2] = 1$ , we can use the second-case derivative of  $\arctan(x)$ 

$$=\arctan(\frac{x+2}{3})+C$$

# 5 Trig Identity Integrals

#### 5.1 Self Explanatory

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

5.2 
$$\int sec^2(x)dx = tan(x) + C$$

We can derive it using Quotient Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[tan(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)}\right]$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)}\right] = \frac{\cos(x) * \frac{d}{dx}[\sin(x)] - \sin(x) * \frac{d}{dx}[\cos(x)]}{\cos^2(x)}$$

$$\frac{\cos(x) * \frac{d}{dx}[\sin(x)] - \sin(x) * \frac{d}{dx}[\cos(x)]}{\cos^2(x)} = \frac{\cos^2(x) - (-\sin^2(x))}{\cos^2(x)}$$

Use the trig identity  $\cos^2(x) + \sin^2(x) = 1$ :

$$\frac{\cos^2(x) - (-\sin^2(x))}{\cos^2(x)} = \frac{1}{\cos^2(x)} = \sec^2(x)$$

5.3 
$$\int -csc^2(x)dx = \cot(x) + C$$

We can also derive it using Quotient Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\cot(x)] = \frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{\cos(x)}{\sin(x)}\right]$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{\cos(x)}{\sin(x)}\right] = \frac{\sin(x) * \frac{d}{dx}[\cos(x)] - \cos(x) * \frac{d}{dx}[\sin(x)]}{\sin^2(x)}$$

$$\frac{\sin(x) * \frac{d}{dx}[\cos(x)] - \cos(x) * \frac{d}{dx}[\sin(x)]}{\sin^2(x)} = \frac{-\cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x)}{\sin^2(x)}$$

Use the trig identity  $\cos^2(x) + \sin^2(x) = 1$ :

$$\frac{-\cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x)}{\cos^2(x)} = \frac{-1}{\sin^2(x)} = -\csc^2(x)$$

5.4  $\int \sec(x)tan(x)dx = \sec(x) + C$ 

OR

$$\int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos^2(x)} dx = \sec(x) + C$$

There are two methods to arrive at the following. One is to use u-substitution and the other is to use the power rule and chain. Let's start with the easier one.

$$\frac{d}{dx}[\sec(x) + C] = \frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{1}{\cos(x)} + C\right] = \frac{d}{dx}[(\cos(x))^{-1}] = -(\cos(x))^{-2} * \frac{d}{dx}[\cos(x)]$$
$$-\frac{\sin(x)}{\cos^{2}(x)} = \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos^{2}x} = \sec(x)\tan(x)$$

We can also just directly undo the chain rule.

$$\int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos^2(x)} dx$$

$$u = \cos(x)$$

$$du = -\sin(x) dx$$

$$-\frac{du}{\sin(x)} = dx$$

$$\int \frac{\sin(x)}{u^2} * -\frac{du}{\sin(x)} dx = -\int \frac{du}{u^2} = u^{-1} + C = \sec(x) + C$$

**5.5** 
$$\int csc(x)cot(x)dx = \int \frac{\cos(x)}{\sin^2(x)}dx = -csc(x) + C$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}[-csc(x)] = -\frac{d}{dx}[-\frac{1}{\sin(x)}] = \frac{1}{\sin^2(x)} * \frac{d}{dx}[\sin(x)] = \frac{\cos(x)}{\sin^2(x)}$$
$$u = \sin(x) \ du = \cos(x) dx \ \frac{du}{\cos(x)} = dx$$
$$\int \frac{\cos(x)}{u^2} * \frac{du}{\cos(x)} = -u^1 + C = -csc(x) + C$$

# $5.6 \quad \int \tan(x) dx = \ln|\sec(x)| + C$

Let's break it into components and use u-substitution:

$$\int tan(x)dx = \int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)}dx$$

Let's set u to be cos(x)

$$u = \cos(x)$$

$$du = -\sin(x)dx$$

$$\frac{du}{-\sin(x)} = dx$$

Now we have:

$$\int \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)} dx = \int \frac{\sin(x)}{u} * \frac{du}{-\sin(x)}$$
$$-\int \frac{du}{u} = -[\ln|u| + C]$$
$$-\ln|\cos(x)| + C_2$$

### **5.7** Again for $\int \cot(x)dx$

$$\int \frac{\cos(x)}{\sin(x)} dx$$

If we use u substitution on the denominator:

$$u = \sin(x)$$
$$du = \cos(x)dx$$
$$\frac{du}{\cos(x)} = dx$$

Sub it back in:

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

# **5.8** Algebraic: $\int \sec(x) dx = \ln|\sec(x) + \tan(x)| + C$

If you multiply this expression by a certain term, you will get an expression in the form  $\int \frac{du}{u}$ . Can you guess what it is?

$$\int \sec(x)dx = \int \sec(x)\frac{\sec(x) + \tan(x)}{\sec(x) + \tan(x)}dx = \int \frac{\sec^2(x) + \sec(x)\tan(x)}{\sec(x) + \tan(x)}dx$$

using  $u = \sec(x) + \tan(x)$  and  $du = \sec^2(x) + \sec(x)\tan(x)dx$ 

$$\int \frac{du}{u} = \ln|u| + C = \ln|\sec(x) + \tan(x)| + C$$

**5.9** Similarly,  $\int csc(x)dx = -\ln|csc(x) + cot(x)| + C$ 

$$\int csc(x)dx = \int csc(x)\frac{csc(x) + cot(x)}{csc(x) + cot(x)}dx = \int \frac{-csc^2(x) - csc(x)cot(x)}{csc(x) + cot(x)}dx$$

using u = csc(x) + cot(x) and  $du = -csc^2(x) - csc(x)cot(x)dx$ 

$$-\int \frac{du}{u} = -\ln|u| + C = -\ln|\csc(x) + \cot(x)| + C$$

**5.10** 
$$\int \sin^2(x) dx = \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{\sin(2x)}{4} + C$$

For this one, you need to rewrite  $\sin^2(x)$  in a more easily integratable format. Recall that  $\cos(2x) = \cos^2(x) - \sin^2(x)$ , or  $\cos(2x) = 1 - 2\sin^2(x)$ . Simplify a bit further and you get  $\sin^2(x) = \frac{1-\cos(2x)}{2}$ .

$$\int \frac{1 - \cos(2x)}{2} dx = \int \frac{1}{2} dx - \int \frac{\cos(2x)}{2} dx$$

$$u = 2x \ du = 2dx \ \frac{du}{2} = dx$$

$$\int \frac{1}{2} dx - \int \frac{\cos(2x)}{2} dx = \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{\cos(u)}{2} dx + C = \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{\sin(u)}{4} + C = \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{\sin(2x)}{4} + C$$

**5.11** 
$$\int \cos^2(x) dx = \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{\sin(2x)}{4} + C$$

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

using the same u-sub logic:

$$u = 2x \ du = 2dx \ \frac{du}{2} = dx$$
$$\frac{1}{2}x + \frac{1}{4} \int \sin(u)du + C = \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{\sin(2x)}{4} + C$$

# 6 Polynomials

These problems assume a polynomial in the form:

$$\int \frac{A_1 x^n + A_2 x^{n-1} + \dots + A_n}{B_1 x^m + B_2 x^{m-1} + \dots + B_n} dx$$

Where  $\{n, m\} \in \mathbb{R}, \{A_1, A_2, ... A_n\} \in \mathbb{R}, \{B_1, B_2, ... B_n\} \in \mathbb{R}$ 

# 6.1 Long Division

Where  $n \geq m$ , simply use long division.

### 6.2 Partial Fraction Decomposition

Where n - 1 = m

Used to simplify:

$$\int \frac{A_1x + A_2}{B_1x^2 + B_2x + B_3} dx$$

Best illustrated with an example:

$$\int \frac{-3x-7}{x^2-5x+6} dx = \int \frac{-3x-7}{(x-2)(x-3)} dx$$

We need to find an A and B such that:

$$\frac{A}{x-2} * \frac{B}{x-3} = \frac{-3x-7}{(x-2)(x-3)}$$

$$\frac{A(x-3)}{(x-2)(x-3)} + \frac{B(x-2)}{(x-2)(x-3)} = \frac{-3x-7}{(x-2)(x-3)} \Longrightarrow A(x-3) + B(x-2) = -3x-7$$

We can obtain the two following equations:

$$Ax + Bx = -3x \Longrightarrow A + B = -3 \Longrightarrow B = -3 - A$$
$$-3A - 2B = -7$$

Substitute:

$$-3A - 2(-3 - A) = -7 \Longrightarrow -3A + 6 + 2A = -7 \Longrightarrow -A = -13 \Longrightarrow A = 13$$
$$B = -3 - A \Longrightarrow B = -3 - 13 \Longrightarrow B = -16$$

Now we can integrate the two sections individually:

$$\int \frac{-3x-7}{(x-2)(x-3)} dx = 13 \int \frac{1}{x-2} dx - 16 \int \frac{1}{x-3} dx = 13 \ln|x-2| - 16 \ln|x-3| + C$$

# 7 Improper Integrals

$$\int_{a}^{\infty} f(x)dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$

Similarly:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{\infty} f(x)dx + \int_{-\infty}^{a} f(x)dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx + \lim_{c \to -\infty} \int_{c}^{a} f(x)dx$$

The integral may not always exist. For polynomials,

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{x^n \dots}{x^m} \in \mathbb{R} \iff m \ge n + 2$$

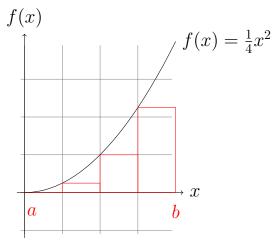
If the degree of the denominator is two higher than the numerator, then the integral will exist.

#### 8 Riemann Sum

A typical Riemann Sum will equal the general expression:

$$\sum f(x_i)\Delta x$$

### 8.1 Left Riemann Sum



Let total steps be represented by n. Let i represent the current step

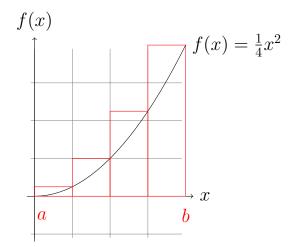
$$\Delta x = \frac{b - a}{n}$$

$$f(x_i) = \frac{f(a + i\Delta x)}{n}$$

Put them together:

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f(x_i) \Delta x \Longrightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{f(a+i\Delta x)}{n} \Delta x \Longrightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{f(a+i\frac{b-a}{n}x)(b-a)}{n^2}$$

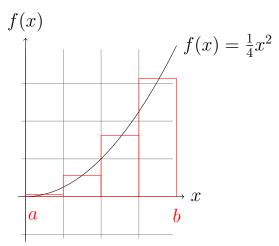
## 8.2 Right Riemann Sum



Nothing changes, except for the  $\sum$  bounds:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) \Delta x \Longrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{f(a+i\Delta x)}{n} \Delta x \Longrightarrow \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{f(a+i\frac{b-a}{n}x)(b-a)}{n^2}$$

### 8.3 Midpoint Riemann Sum

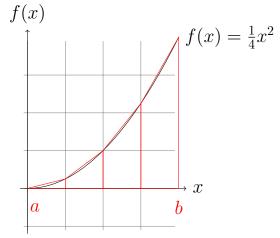


As the name suggests, you take the average of  $f(x_i)$  and  $f(x_{i+1})$ . Instead of using  $f(x_i)$ , use  $f(\frac{x_i+x_{i+1}}{2})$ 

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} f\left(\frac{x_i + x_{i+1}}{2}\right) \Delta x \Longrightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{f\left(\frac{a+i\Delta x + a + (i+1)\Delta x}{2}\right)}{n} \Delta x = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{f\left(\frac{2a + (2i+1)\Delta x}{2}\right)}{n} \Delta x$$

$$\Longrightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{f\left(\frac{2a + (2i+1)\frac{b-a}{2}x}{2}\right)(b-a)}{n^2}$$

### 8.4 Trapezoidal Riemann Sum



Take the average of the two y-values instead. Instead of using  $f(x_i)$ , use  $\frac{f(x_i)+f(x_{i+1})}{2}$ 

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{f(x_i) + f(x_{i+1})}{2} \Delta x \Longrightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{f(a+i\Delta x) + f(a+(i+1)\Delta x)}{2n} \Delta x$$

$$\Longrightarrow \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \frac{(f(a+i\frac{b-a}{n}x) + f(a+(i+1)\frac{b-a}{n}x)(b-a)}{2n^2}$$

### 9 Distance

The distance of the curve is represented by the following:

arc length = 
$$\sqrt{(\Delta x)^2 + (\Delta y)^2} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}\right)^2} \Delta x$$
  
 $\Longrightarrow \int \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx$ 

### 9.1 Example

These problems are taken from Calculus for the AP Course by Michael Sullivan.

1. Let g be the function defined by  $g(x) = \int_1^x \sqrt{9t^2 - 1} dt$ . Which integral represents the graph of g on the interval [2, 5]?

Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{9t^2 - 1}$ . Let F(x) represent its antiderivative.

$$g(x) = F(x) - F(1)$$
$$g'(x) = \sqrt{9x^2 - 1}$$
$$\int_2^5 \sqrt{1 + 9x^2 - 1} dx = \int_2^5 3x dx$$