

Calculus II Recap: Integration

January 2026

7. Integral Calculus

7.1 Definition

The **Indefinite Integral** (antiderivative) of a function $f(x)$ is a function $F(x)$ such that $F'(x) = f(x)$. It is denoted as:

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C$$

where C is the constant of integration. The **Definite Integral** represents the signed area under the curve from a to b :

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) \quad (\text{Fundamental Theorem of Calculus})$$

[Image of area under a curve definite integral]

7.2 Basic Integration Rules

- **Power Rule:** $\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C \quad (n \neq -1)$

- **Logarithmic Rule:** $\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C$

- **Exponential Rule:** $\int e^x dx = e^x + C$

- **Constant Multiple Rule:**

$$\int k \cdot f(x) dx = k \int f(x) dx$$

- **Sum Rule:**

$$\int [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$$

- **Difference Rule:**

$$\int [f(x) - g(x)] dx = \int f(x) dx - \int g(x) dx$$

- **Linearity of Integration:** Combined rule: $\int [af(x) + bg(x)] dx = a \int f(x) dx + b \int g(x) dx$

- **Trigonometric Rules:**

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

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

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

- **Hyperbolic Rules:**

- $\int \sinh x dx = \cosh x + C$

- $\int \cosh x dx = \sinh x + C$

- $\int \operatorname{sech}^2 x dx = \tanh x + C$

- $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}} dx = \operatorname{arsinh} x + C = \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2+1}) + C$

- $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2-1}} dx = \operatorname{arcosh} x + C = \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2-1}) + C$

7.3 Partial Integration (Integration by Parts)

Derived from the product rule of differentiation, used when the integrand is a product of two functions:

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

Strategy (LIATE): Choose u in order of: Logarithmic, Inverse trig, Algebraic, Trigonometric, Exponential.

7.4 Integration by Substitution (u -substitution)

Used to simplify an integral by changing variables, essentially the "reverse chain rule":

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) \, dx = \int f(u) \, du, \quad \text{where } u = g(x)$$

For definite integrals, remember to change the limits of integration:

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

Trigonometric Substitution

Used when evaluating integrals of the form $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$, $\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$, $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$ as trigonometric integrals.

Reference Triangles: Helpful for determining where to place the square root and what the trig functions are.

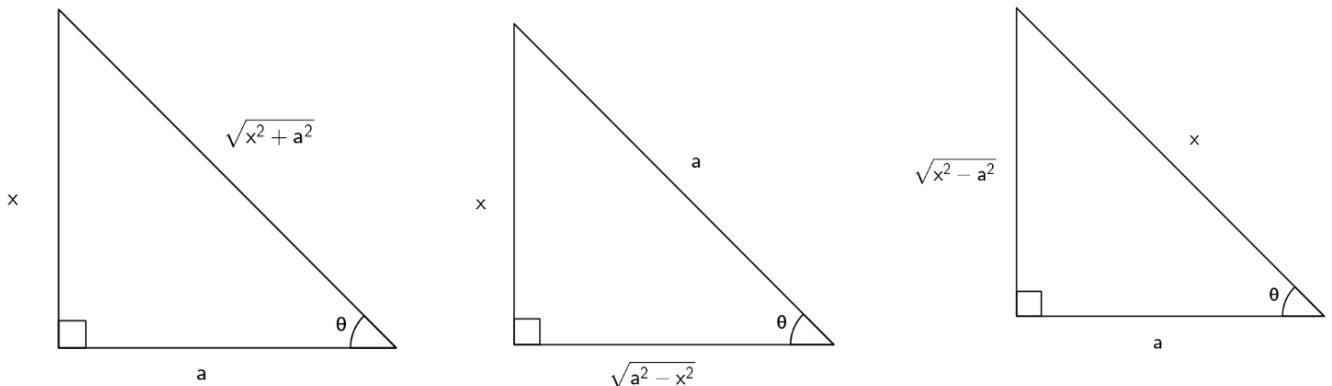


Figure 1: Reference triangles

Hypotenuse

$$a^2 + x^2 = (\sqrt{x^2 + a^2})^2$$

x and number are positive

Use the substitution: $x = a \sin \theta$

Result: $a \cos \theta$

Adjacent

$$(\sqrt{a^2 - x^2})^2 + x^2 = a^2$$

x is negative, number is positive

Use the substitution: $x = a \tan \theta$

Result: $a \sec \theta$

Opposite

$$a^2 + (\sqrt{x^2 - a^2})^2 = x^2$$

x is positive, number is negative

Use the substitution: $x = a \sec \theta = a/\cos \theta$

Result: $a \tan \theta$

Common Hyperbolic Substitutions:

Integral	Circle trig substitution	Hyperbolic trig substitution
$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}$	$x = a \sin(u)$	$x = a \tanh(u)$
$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}$	$x = a \tan(u)$	$x = a \sinh(u)$
$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}}$	$x = a \sec(u)$	$x = a \cosh(u)$

7.5 Partial Fraction Decomposition

Used to integrate rational functions $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ by breaking them into simpler fractions.

- Linear Factors:** $\frac{1}{(x-a)(x-b)} = \frac{A}{x-a} + \frac{B}{x-b}$
- Repeated Factors:** $\frac{1}{(x-a)^2} = \frac{A}{x-a} + \frac{B}{(x-a)^2}$
- Irreducible Quadratic:** $\frac{1}{x^2+px+q} = \frac{Ax+B}{x^2+px+q}$

7.6 Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then there exists a number c in $[a, b]$ such that:

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

Here, $f(c)$ represents the **average value** of the function f on the interval $[a, b]$.

8. Sequences and Series

8.1 Sequences

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is an ordered list of numbers. It can be defined:

- **Explicitly:** $a_n = f(n)$, e.g., $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$.
- **Recursively:** $a_{n+1} = f(a_n)$, e.g., $a_{n+1} = \sqrt{a_n} + 1$.

Special Sequences

- **Geometric Sequence:** $a_n = a \cdot r^{n-1}$. Constant ratio r .
- **Harmonic Sequence:** $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$.

Convergence and Boundedness

A sequence **converges** if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$.

- **Monotone Convergence Theorem:** If a sequence is **monotonic** (always increasing or decreasing) and **bounded**, then it must converge.

8.2 Series

A series is the sum of the terms of a sequence: $S = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

- **Partial Sums (s_n):** $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$. A series converges if the sequence of partial sums $\{s_n\}$ has a finite limit.
- **Necessary Condition:** If $\sum a_n$ converges, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$. (Note: If the limit is not 0, the series diverges).

Convergence Tests

Test	Condition for Convergence	Notes
Geometric Series	$\sum r^n$ converges if $ r < 1$	Sum $S = \frac{a}{1-r}$
Harmonic Series	$\sum \frac{1}{n}$ always diverges	p -series with $p = 1$
Ratio Test	$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right = L < 1$	Diverges if $L > 1$
Root Test	$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{ a_n } = L < 1$	Diverges if $L > 1$
Comparison Test	$a_n \leq b_n$ and $\sum b_n$ converges	$\sum a_n$ must converge

8.3 Power Series

A power series is of the form $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (x - x_0)^n$.

- **Convergence Radius (R):** The series converges for $|x - x_0| < R$.
- **Formula (Ratio Test):** $R = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{c_n}{c_{n+1}} \right|$ or $R = \frac{1}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|}}$

9. Taylor Expansion

9.1 Taylor Series Formula

The Taylor series of $f(x)$ centered at x_0 is:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n$$

If $x_0 = 0$, it is called a **Maclaurin Series**.

9.2 Common Taylor Expansions (at $x_0 = 0$)

- $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots = \sum \frac{x^n}{n!}, \quad R = \infty$

- $\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots, \quad R = \infty$

- $\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots, \quad R = \infty$

- $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots, \quad R = 1$

9.3 Applications

1. **Approximation:** Using the first few terms (Taylor Polynomial $P_n(x)$) to estimate function values.
2. **Limits:** Solving indeterminate forms by replacing functions with their series.
3. **Integration:** Approximating integrals that have no elementary antiderivative:

$$\int e^{-x^2} dx \approx \int \left(1 - x^2 + \frac{x^4}{2} \right) dx$$