

# Calculus 1B- Lecture 2

Tugce Akkaya

E-mail: [t.akkaya@utwente.nl](mailto:t.akkaya@utwente.nl)

16 November, 2020

# Calculus 1B lecture 2

## -Contents-

### ☒ Integrals

- ☐ Calculation techniques for integrals
- ☐ Power and Taylor series

### ☐ First order ODEs

### ☐ Complex numbers

### ☐ Second order ODEs

# Calculus 1 B lecture 2

- Substitution method
- Integration by parts
- Improper integrals

# Thomas' Calculus

## 5.5

Indefinite Integrals and the  
substitution method

# Introduction Substitution Method

## Example:

Find:

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

- We first show how the substitution  $\sin(x) = u$  works here.
- Then we prove that it is mathematically correct
- Finally we explain how we found this substitution.

# Introduction Substitution Method

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

If we substitute  $\sin(x) = u$ , what to do with  $\cos(x)$  and  $dx$ ??

We try to find out by “calculating”  $du$ .

We have:

$$u = \sin x \quad \text{so} \quad \frac{du}{dx} = \cos x \quad \text{and} \quad du = \cos x \, dx$$

This suggests to replace “ $\cos x \, dx$ ” by “ $du$ ” !

# Introduction Substitution Method

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

$\sin(x) = u$  and  $\cos x dx = du$  leads to

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

$$(backwards - substitution) = \ln|\sin x| + C$$

Check by differentiation:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln|\sin x| + C) = \frac{1}{\sin x} \cdot \cos x = \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$$

# Substitution Method

**THEOREM 6—The Substitution Rule** If  $u = g(x)$  is a differentiable function whose range is an interval  $I$ , and  $f$  is continuous on  $I$ , then

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) \, dx = \int f(u) \, du.$$

$$[ = F(u) + C = F(g(x)) + C ]$$

Check by differentiation:

$$(F(g(x)) + C)' = F'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) = f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

# Substitution Method

**Strategy:** replace the expression you don't like by “ $u$ ”:

- $u = e\text{-power}$
- $u = (\text{square}) \text{ root}$
- $u = \sin \text{ or } \cos \text{ or } \tan$
- $du = u'(x)dx$

Can lead to a simpler function in  $u$ ... to integrate

# Substitution Method

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) \, dx = \int f(u) \, du.$$

Example:

Find:

$$\int \frac{e^x}{e^x + 1} \, dx$$

Solution:

# Substitution Method

**Another example:** Sometimes a useful substitution is more difficult ...

Find:  $\int x^3 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} \, dx$

# Substitution Method

**Another example:** Sometimes a useful substitution is more difficult ...

Find:  $\int x^3 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx$

**Solution:** Just try the substitution:  $u = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$

Then:  $\frac{du}{dx} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}$  or:  $dx = \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}{x} du$

Substituting gives:

$$\begin{aligned}\int x^3 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx &= \int x^3 u \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}{x} du = \int x^2 u \sqrt{x^2 + 1} du \\ &= \int x^2 u \cdot u du \\ &= \int x^2 u^2 du\end{aligned}$$

# Substitution Method

$$\int x^3 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} \, dx$$

Solution (continued):

In  $\int x^2 u^2 \, du$  we have to express  $x$  in  $u$  !!

$$\text{Now: } u = \sqrt{x^2 + 1} \quad \text{so} \quad u^2 = x^2 + 1 \quad \text{so} \quad x^2 = u^2 - 1$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Hence: } \int x^3 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} \, dx &= \int x^2 u^2 \, du = \int (u^2 - 1)u^2 \, du = \int (u^4 - u^2) \, du \\ &= \frac{1}{5}u^5 - \frac{1}{3}u^3 + C \\ &= \frac{1}{5}(\sqrt{x^2 + 1})^5 - \frac{1}{3}(\sqrt{x^2 + 1})^3 + C\end{aligned}$$

You can check the result by differentiation.

# 5.6

## Substitution Method (Definite integrals)

# Substitution Method

The substitution method for definite integrals is:

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

## Proof:

According to the substitution method for indefinite integrals:

$$\int_a^b f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = [F(g(x))]_{x=a}^{x=b} = F(g(b)) - F(g(a))$$

Also:

$$\int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du = [F(u)]_{u=g(a)}^{u=g(b)} = F(g(b)) - F(g(a))$$

# Substitution Method

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

So there are three changes:

1. The integrand changes (*via*  $u = g(x)$ )
2. The differential  $dx$  changes ( $dx = du/g'(x)$ )
3. The limits of integration change

# Substitution Method

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

Example: Calculate

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \tan x dx$$

Solution: Because  $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$ , we substitute  $u = \cos(x)$

So  $du = -\sin(x) dx$ , and hence  $\sin(x) dx = -du$

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \tan x dx = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} dx = \int_{\cos 0}^{\cos(\frac{\pi}{4})} -\frac{du}{u} = \left[ -\frac{1}{u} \right]_{1}^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}}$$

$$= \left[ -\ln|u| \right]_{u=1}^{u=\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}} = -\ln \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \ln 1 = -\ln \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

# 8.1

## Integration by Parts

# Integration by parts

By definition of integral and derivative

$$f(x)g(x) = \int \frac{d}{dx} \left( f(x)g(x) \right) dx$$

... and by the product rule

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

# Integration by parts

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) \textcolor{red}{-} \int f'(x)g(x) dx \quad (1)$$

## Integration by Parts Formula

$$\int u dv = uv \textcolor{red}{-} \int v du \quad (2)$$

## Integration by Parts Formula for Definite Integrals

$$\int_a^b f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) \Big|_a^b \textcolor{red}{-} \int_a^b f'(x)g(x) dx \quad (3)$$

# Integration by parts

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

Example: Evaluate

$$\int x \sin x dx$$

Solution:

You can check the result by differentiation. Work out!

# Integration by parts twice

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

Example:

$$\int x^2 e^x dx.$$

Solution:

# Integration by parts

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

Find:  $\int \ln x dx$

Solution:

# Integration by parts

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

Find:  $\int \ln x dx$

Solution:

Use partial integration with  $u = \ln(x)$  and  $dv = 1 dx$ .

Then  $du = 1/x dx$  and  $v = x$ .

We conclude:

$$\begin{aligned}\int \ln x dx &= x \ln x - \int x \cdot \frac{1}{x} dx \\ &= x \ln x - x + C\end{aligned}$$

**Because  $\ln x$  is standard function, learn by head!**

# 8.7

## Improper Integrals

# Improper integrals

In this section, we extend the concept  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  of a definite integral with continuous  $f(x)$  on finite bounded interval  $[a,b]$  to the cases where:

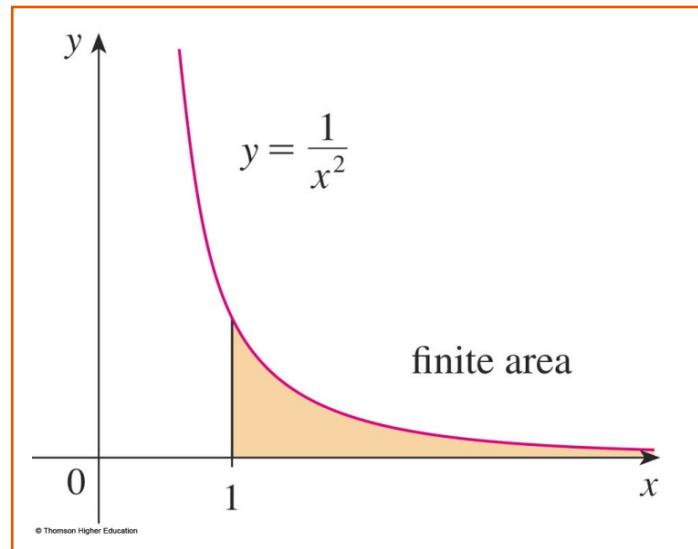
- the interval is infinite, thus  $[a,\infty)$  or  $(-\infty,b]$
- $f$  has a vertical asymptote in  $(a, b]$  or in  $[a, b)$
- $f$  has a discontinuity in  $[a, b]$

In either case or combination of cases, the integral is called an ***improper integral***. For combinations the integral has to be split up in singular properties.

# Improper integrals – infinite intervals

Consider the infinite region  $S$  that lies:

- Under the curve  $y = 1/x^2$
- Above the  $x$ -axis
- To the right of the line  $x = 1$

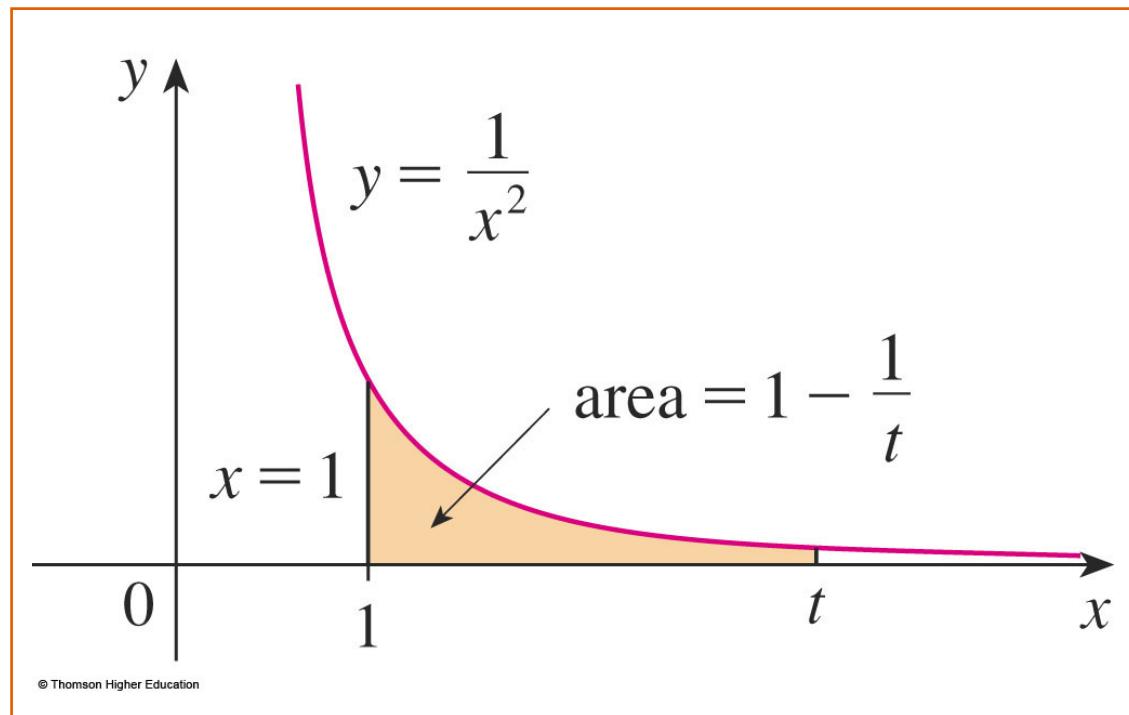


# INFINITE INTERVALS

The area of the part of  $S$  that lies to the left of the line  $x = 1$  (shaded) is:

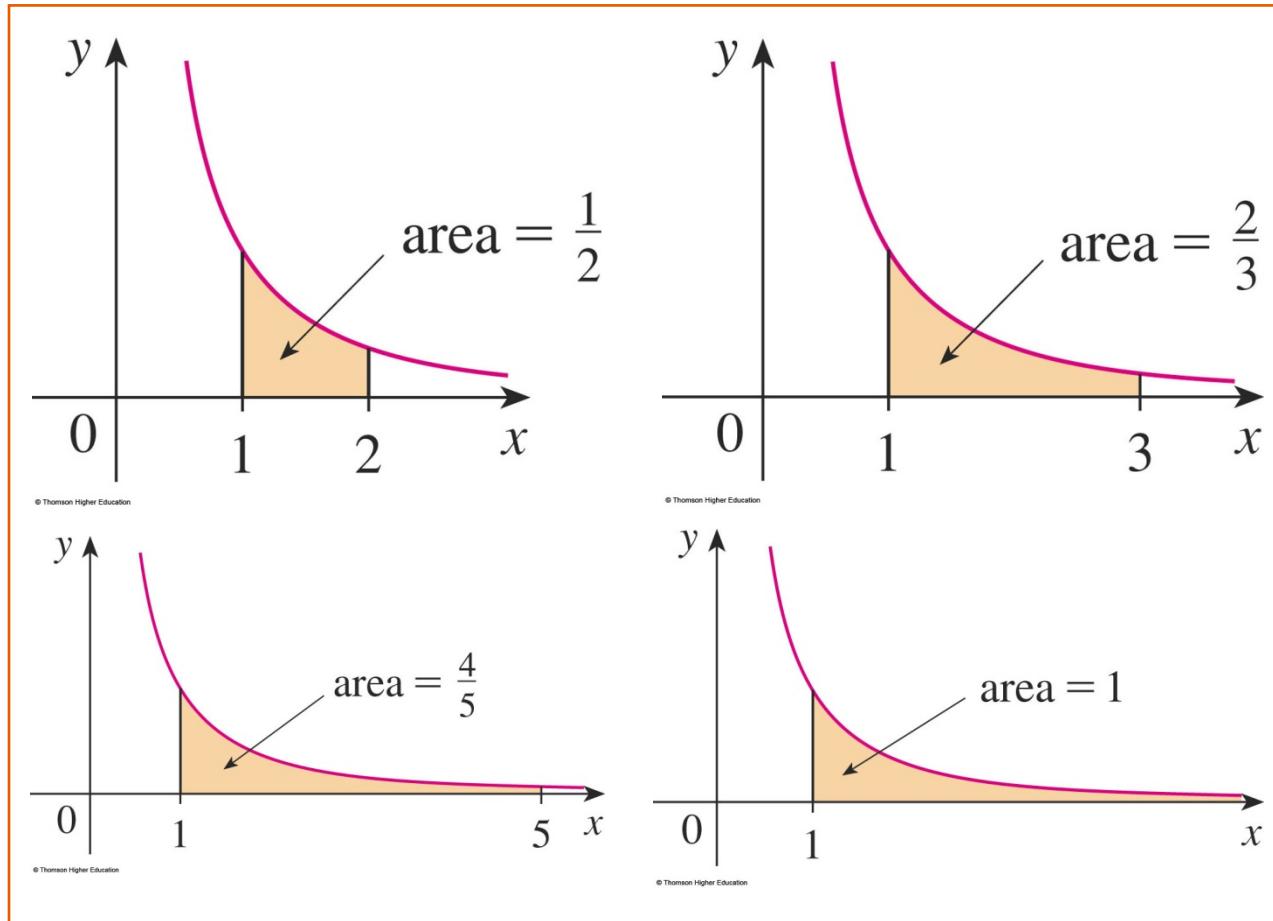
$$A(t) = \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{x} \Big|_1^t = 1 - \frac{1}{t}$$

- Notice that  $A(t) < 1$  no matter how large  $t$  is chosen.



# INFINITE INTERVALS

The area of the shaded region approaches 1 as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ .



# INFINITE INTERVALS

We observe that:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} A(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{t} \right) = 1$$

So, we say that the area of the infinite region  $S$  is equal to 1 and we write:

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 1$$

# Definition improper integral

If  $\int_a^t f(x) dx$  exists for every number  $t \geq a$ , then

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

provided this limit exists (as a finite number).

If  $\int_t^b f(x) dx$  exists for every number  $t \leq b$ , then

$$\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \int_t^b f(x) dx$$

provided this limit exists (as a finite number).

# Convergent and divergent

The improper integrals  $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$  and  $\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx$  are called:

- *Convergent* if the corresponding limit exists.
- *Divergent* if the limit does not exist.

# Convergent and divergent

## Example:

Determine whether the integral  $\int_1^\infty (1/x) dx$  is convergent or divergent.

According to the definition,  
we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \ln|x| \Big|_1^t \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\ln t - \ln 1) \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \ln t = \infty\end{aligned}$$

- The limit does not exist as a finite number.
- So, the integral is divergent.

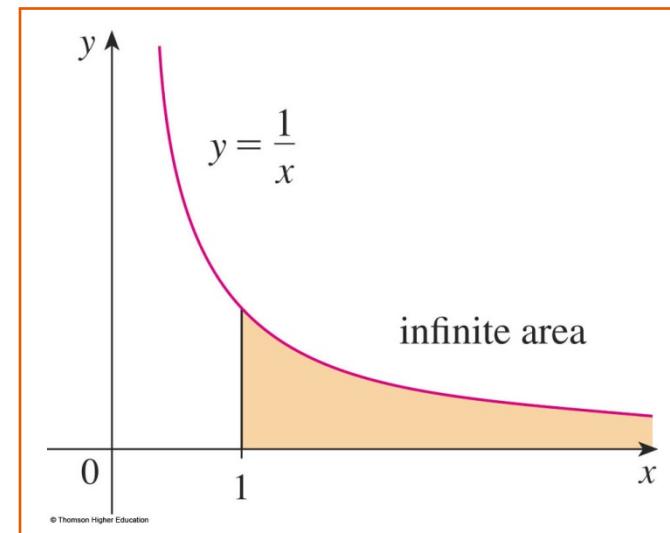
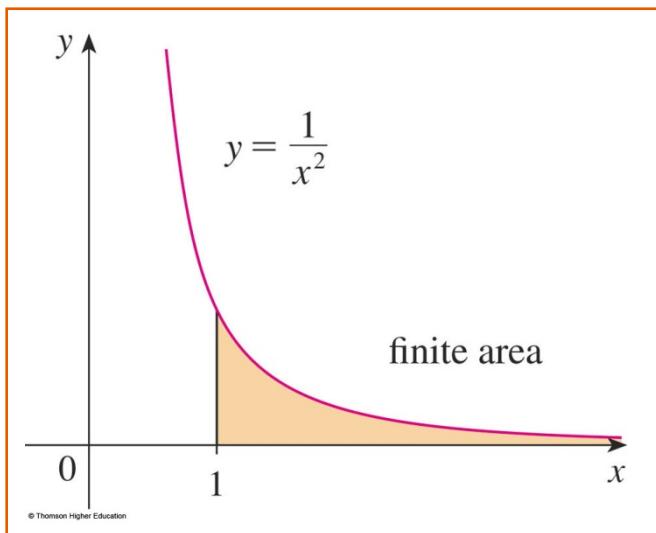
# Convergent and divergent

Let's compare this result to the example at the beginning of the section:

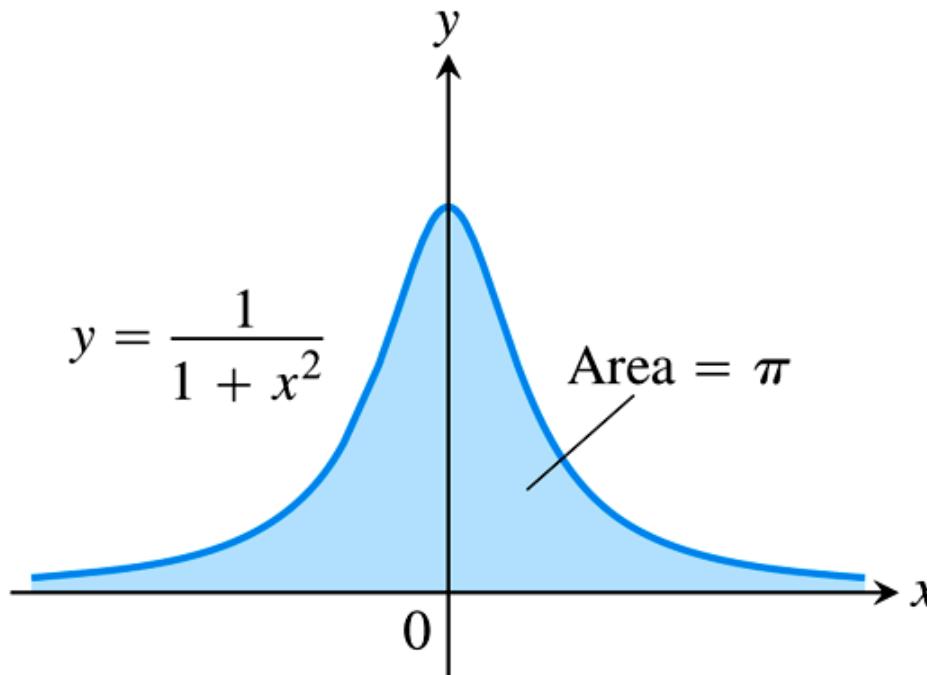
$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx \text{ converges}$$

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx \text{ diverges}$$

- Geometrically, this means the following.



# Splitting integrals



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

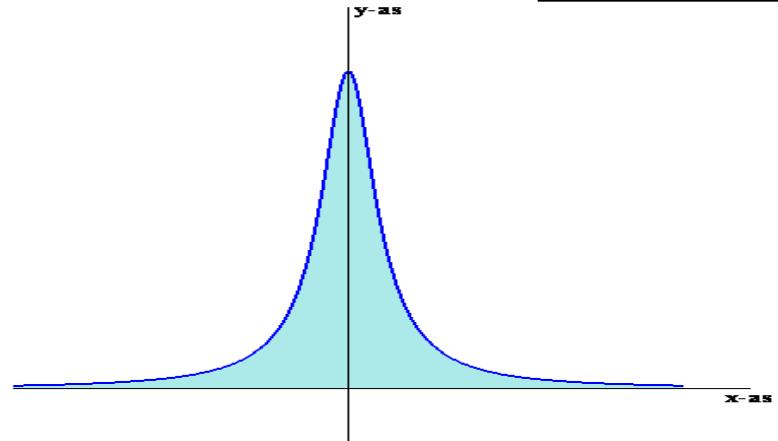
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^c f(x) dx + \int_c^{\infty} f(x) dx,$$

independent of the choice of  $c$

# Splitting integrals

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

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



Solution: (Split)

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

# Splitting integrals

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

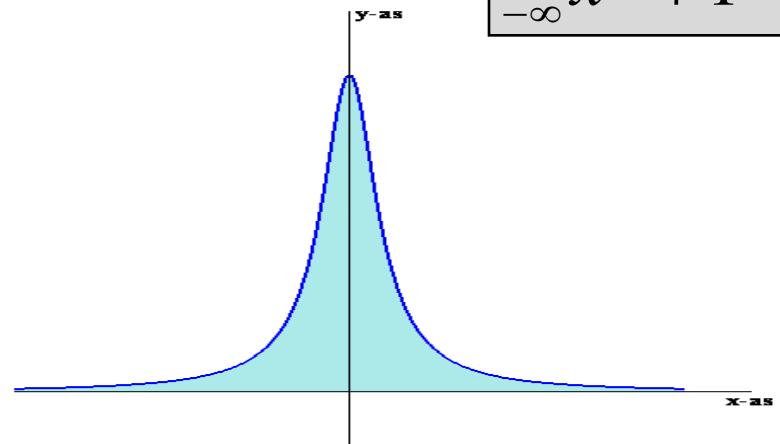
$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \int_t^0 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} [\tan^{-1} x]_{x=t}^{x=0} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} (\tan^{-1} 0 - \tan^{-1} t) = 0 - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} [\tan^{-1} x]_{x=0}^{x=t} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\tan^{-1} t - \tan^{-1} 0) = \frac{\pi}{2} - 0 = \frac{\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

# Splitting integrals

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

Conclusion:



$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx &= \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2} = \pi\end{aligned}$$

**DEFINITION** 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**.

# Functions with ‘bad’ behaviour

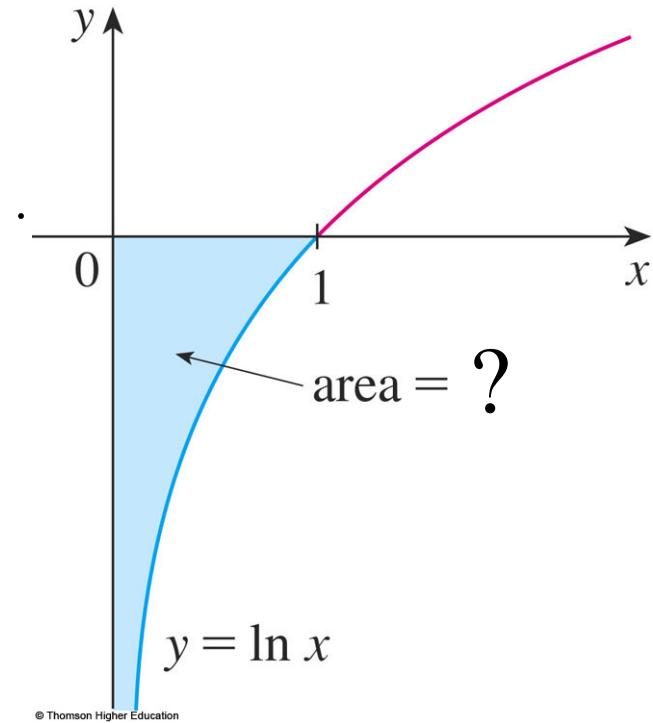
**Example:** Evaluate  $\int_0^1 \ln x \, dx$

- We know that the function  $f(x) = \ln x$  has a vertical asymptote at 0 since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln x = -\infty$$

- Thus, the given integral is improper, and we have:

$$\int_0^1 \ln x \, dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_t^1 \ln x \, dx$$



© Thomson Higher Education

# Functions with ‘bad’ behaviour

Now, we integrate by parts with  $u = \ln x$ , and  $dv = dx$ ,

$$du = dx/x, \text{ and } v = x:$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_t^1 \ln x \, dx &= x \ln x \Big|_t^1 - \int_t^1 dx \\ &= 1 \ln 1 - t \ln t - (1 - t) \\ &= -t \ln t - 1 + t\end{aligned}$$

# Functions with ‘bad’ behaviour

To find the limit of the first term,  
we use l’Hospital’s Rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} t \ln t &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln t}{1/t} \\&= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1/t}{-1/t^2} \\&= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} (-t) \\&= 0\end{aligned}$$

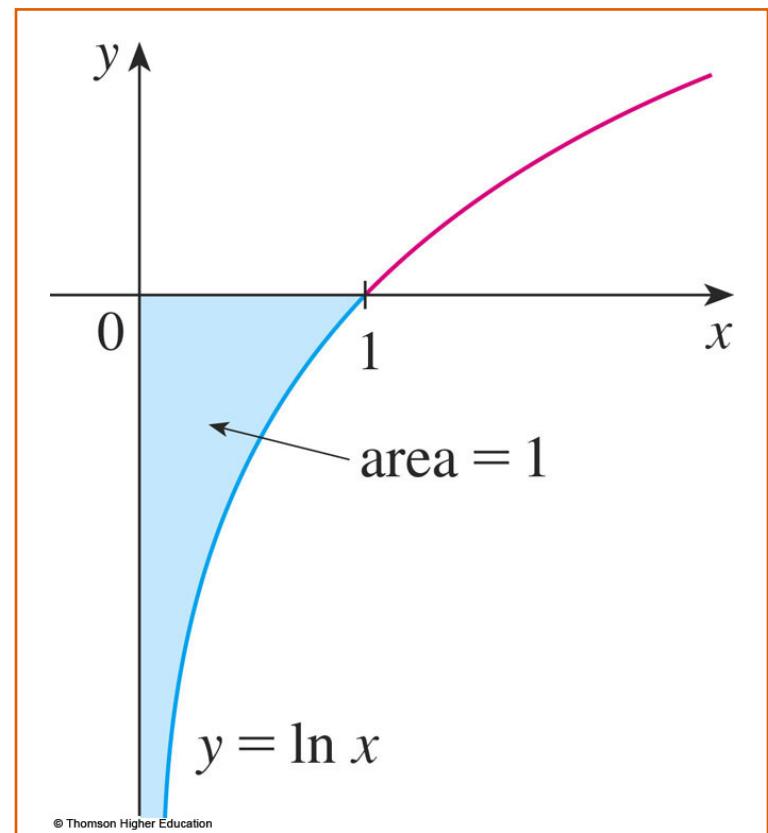
# Functions with ‘bad’ behaviour

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \ln x \, dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} (-t \ln t - 1 + t) \\ &= -0 - 1 + 0 \\ &= -1\end{aligned}$$

The geometric interpretation of the result is shown.

- The area of the shaded region above  $y = \ln x$  and below the  $x$ -axis is 1.



# Functions with ‘bad’ behaviour

## 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

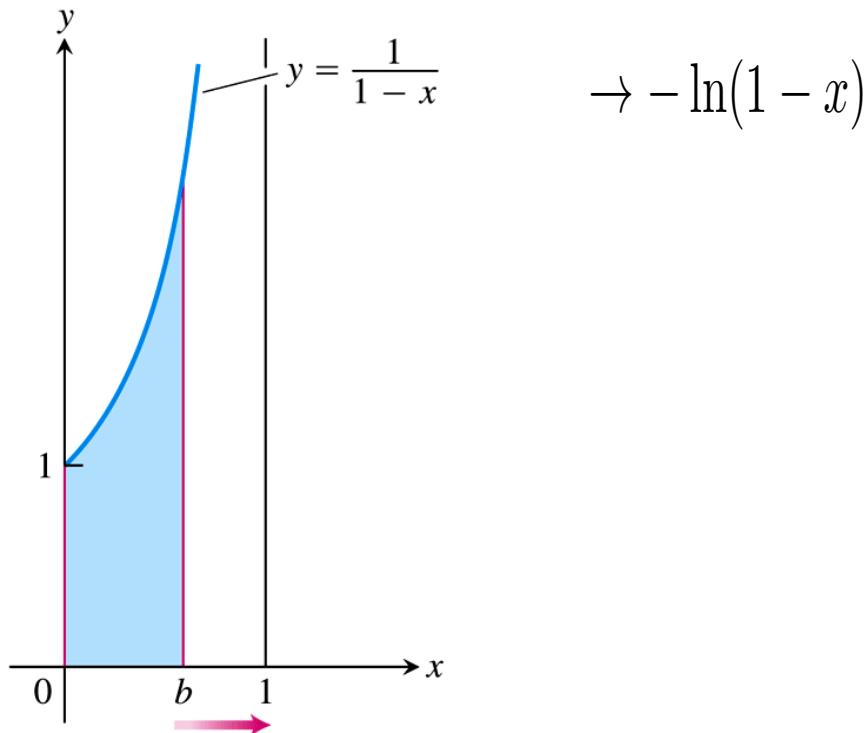
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

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**.

# Terminology

**Definition** for improper integrals of Type 1 or Type 2:

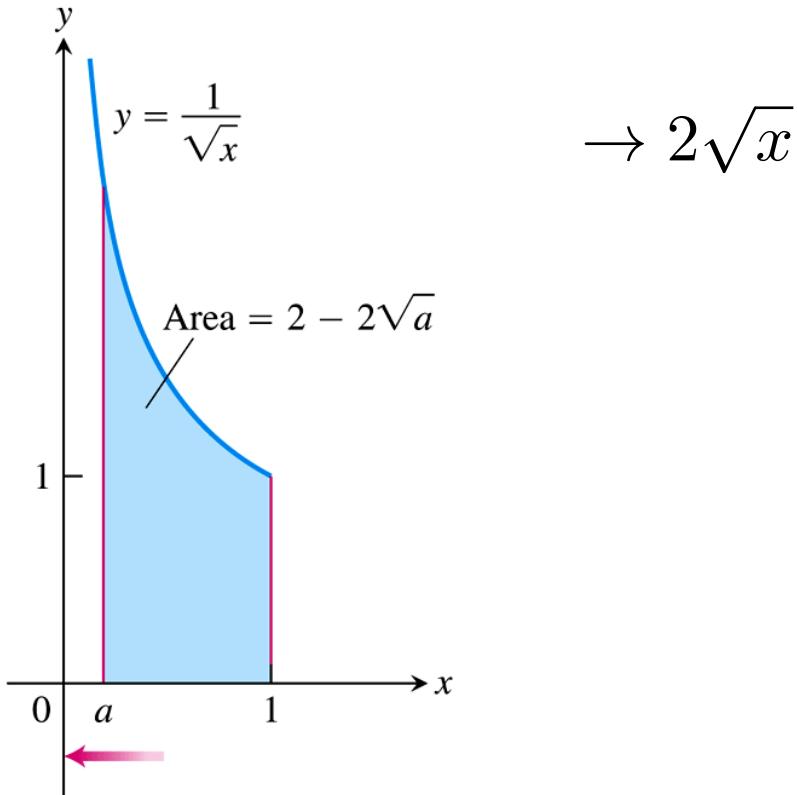
If (one of) the limit(s) that define(s) the integral does not exist (or is infinite), then the integral is called ***divergent***.



The integral is ***divergent***. (the area is infinite)

# Terminology

If the limit(s) that define(s) the integral exist(s) (and are finite), then the integral is called **convergent**.



$$\rightarrow 2\sqrt{x}$$

The integral is **convergent** (the area is finite)

# Summarizing Exercises

- a. Compute  $\int_0^\infty \frac{x}{(1+x^2)^2} dx$
- b. Compute  $\int x \ln^2(x) dx$

Hint: apply partial integration twice

# Summarizing Exercises

Compute  $\int_0^\infty \frac{x}{(1+x^2)^2} dx$

# Summarizing Exercises

Compute  $\int x \ln^2(x) dx$

Hint: apply partial integration twice