



Competitive  
Programming and  
Mathematics  
Society

# **Mathematics Workshop**

## Integration

**CPMsoc Maths**

# Table of contents

## 1 Introduction

- Welcome

## 2 Integration

- Preamble
- u substitution
- Applying u substitution
  - Trig sub
  - Reciprocal sub
- Using many integrals to solve one problem
- Other assorted tricks

## 3 Definite integrals

## 4 Thanks for coming!

- SCAN THE ATTENDANCE FORM

# Welcome

- We would like to thank everyone for coming, even if its just for the pizza :D
- We are looking forward to expanding our activities from here onwards, if you have any ideas for what you think we can do to satisfy your interests, please let us know!!
- We do have a lot more planned for TERM 2! More Competitive Mathematics heading your way...
- We may run an integration bee sometime in the future. Full disclaimer, this is nothing official, but there have been discussions.

# Attendance form

 CPMSOC



# About today

Today's workshop is all about integration, specifically the type that is featured in integration bees / competitions.

- We will be dealing with only real valued functions.
- The vast majority of the workshop is about single value functions. However, we will touch on multivariate calculus at the end, but it will not be complicated.
- This is not a rigorous treatment of integral calculus. We are just solving problems, and some formalities will be brushed aside.

# Assumed knowledge

This is an introductory workshop, so there is minimal assumed knowledge:

- You can use properties of and take derivatives of all elementary functions, e.g.
  - Know  $x^{a+b} = x^a x^b$ ,  $\ln(uv) = \ln(u) + \ln(v)$ <sup>1</sup>.
  - Find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  with  $y = x^n$ ,  $y = \sin^{-1} x$ ,  $y = e^{\sin x} \ln(x^2 + 1)$ .
  - Know the chain, product, and quotient rules.
- You know what integration is!
  - Know that the anti-derivative of  $f(x)$  is  $F(x)$  with  $\frac{d}{dx} F(x) = f(x)$ .
  - Familiar with most standard integrals, such those you would find on a 1131 / 1141 formula sheet.
  - E.g.  $\int x^n dx$ ,  $\int \sin x dx$ ,  $\int e^x dx$ .
  - Familiar with basic integration rules.
  - E.g.  $\int \lambda f(x) dx = \lambda \int f(x) dx$ ,  $\int (f(x) + g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx + \int g(x) dx$ .

---

<sup>1</sup> $u, v > 0$

# Notation

Pretty standard math things.

- $\int f$  represents the antiderivative of a function  $f$ . Usually, we notate this as  $F$ , with  $F' = f$ . This is not usually used in our context.
- $\int f(x) dx$  represents the antiderivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x$ . This is a family of functions which, when we take the derivative wrt.  $x$ , yield  $f(x)$ . Once we have found a particular function with this property, say  $F_p$ , since the derivative of any constant is zero, all solutions to  $\frac{d}{dx}F(x) = f(x)$  are  $F(x) = F_p(x) + C$ , where  $C \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Conventionally, we skip all of this and just write

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

# Notation

- $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  represents the definite integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$ , provided  $f(x)$  is integrable on  $(a, b)$ . If  $F$  is any antiderivative from the previous slide, then we have

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

This represents the signed area of the graph  $y = f(x)$  from  $a$  to  $b$ , if  $b \geq a$ .

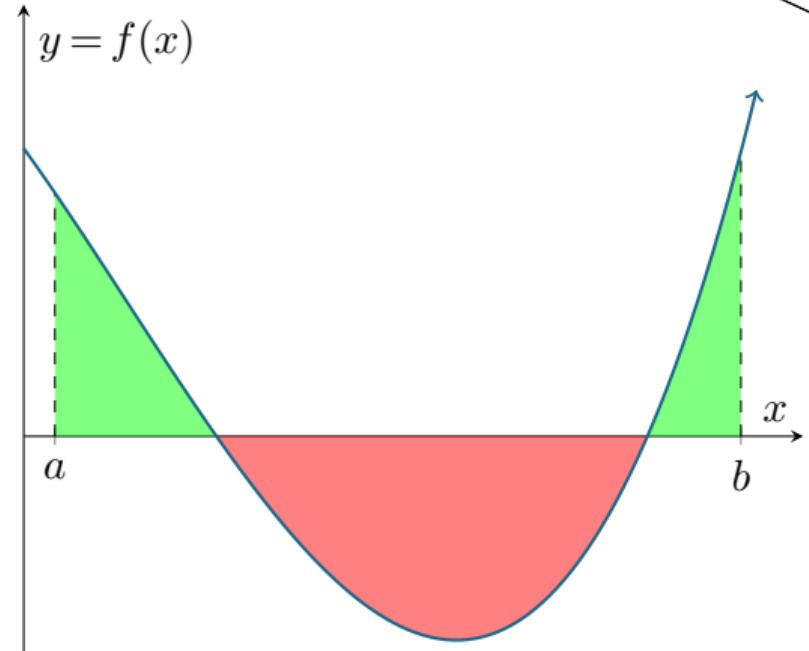
# Notation

When we say signed area, we mean that area underneath the  $x$ -axis is counted as having negative contribution.

E.g. for the figure on the right,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = A_{\text{green}} - A_{\text{red}}.$$

This has many useful applications, which we will cover.



# Notation

- $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  represents the definite integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$ , provided  $f(x)$  is integrable on  $(a, b)$ . If  $F$  is any antiderivative from the previous slide, then we have

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

Also, note that the variable  $x$  we integrate wrt. to is arbitrary. Often, we write

$$\int_a^x f(t) dt = F(x) - F(a),$$

and this is another way of expressing the indefinite integral of  $f$  explicitly as a function. The variable  $t$  is what we call a “dummy variable”, acting as a placeholder and replaceable with anything.

# *u* substitution

Suppose that  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , and we are interested in finding

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx,$$

where  $g(x)$  is some differentiable function. Recall the chain rule when taking derivatives.

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

but  $F'(x) = f(x)$  by definition! Thus,

$$\frac{d}{dx}F(g(x)) = f(g(x))g'(x) \iff \int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = F(g(x)) + C.$$

Why is this useful?

# *u* substitution

Why is this useful? If we have a function which can be expressed in the form  $f(g(x))g'(x)$  for some  $f$  and  $g$ , finding the antiderivative of  $f(g(x))g'(x)$  reduces to the problem of finding the antiderivative of  $f(x)$ , which can be much easier. This technique is called integration by substitution.

The name *u* substitution comes from an equivalent formulation:

$$\int f(u) \frac{du}{dx} dx = \int f(u) du,$$

where  $u = g(x)$ . E.g. with  $u = 1 + x^2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\int x(1 + x^2)^\pi dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int u^\pi \frac{du}{dx} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int u^\pi du \\ &= \frac{1}{2(\pi + 1)} u^{\pi+1} + C.\end{aligned}$$

# *u* substitution

We can also do things the other way. Suppose, instead, that  $x = g(u)$ , where  $g$  is an invertible function. Then,

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

This looks like we are complicating the integral, however if  $f(g(u))$  simplifies nicely, for example  $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$  and  $g(u) = \sin u$ , and we know a way to integrate functions in the family of  $g(u)$  and  $g'(u)$  (trig!), then this allows us to evaluate integrals we otherwise cannot.

Since our answer will be in terms of  $u$ ,  $g$  must be invertible or we will have no way to express our answer in terms of  $x$ . This is particularly important for definite integrals.

# $u$ substitution

$u$  substitution can also be used for definite integrals. With  $u = g(x)$ ,

$$\int_a^b f(u) \frac{du}{dx} dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du.$$

Likewise, if  $x = g(u)$  where  $g$  is invertible,

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{g^{-1}(a)}^{g^{-1}(b)} f(x) \frac{dx}{du} du.$$

This may lead you to think the second type of  $u$  substitution is more finicky with invertibility. This is not true, because *if* an inverse exists for  $g$  (we can pick any branch) with  $g^{-1}(x) = u$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ , then the theorem will always hold. The first theorem is often more troublesome.

# *u* substitution

For example, with the substitution  $u = x^2$ , on the integral

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx,$$

an unaware student may write  $x^2 = \frac{\sqrt{x^2}}{2} \cdot 2x = \frac{\sqrt{u}}{2} \frac{du}{dx}$ . Then, using the formula presented above,

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\sqrt{u}}{2} \frac{du}{dx} dx = \int_{(-1)^2}^{1^2} \frac{\sqrt{u}}{2} du.$$

Note that our bounds are now from 1 to 1, and thus the integral must be zero!

# *u* substitution

For example, with the substitution  $u = x^2$ , on the integral

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx,$$

an unaware student may write  $x^2 = \frac{\sqrt{x^2}}{2} \cdot 2x = \frac{\sqrt{u}}{2} \frac{du}{dx}$ . Then, using the formula presented above,

$$\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{\sqrt{u}}{2} \frac{du}{dx} dx = \int_{(-1)^2}^{1^2} \frac{\sqrt{u}}{2} du.$$

Note that our bounds are now from 1 to 1, and thus the integral must be zero!

Obviously not.  $\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \left[ \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{-1}^1 = \frac{2}{3}.$

# *u* substitution

Turns out, there exists no function  $f(u)$  which satisfies  $f(u)\frac{du}{dx} = x^2$ , as this would require  $f(x^2) = \frac{x}{2}$ , and  $f$  must be a many to one relation. Indeed, we simplified  $\sqrt{x^2} = x$ , when it should be  $|x|$ . Instead, if we split the integral up into

$$\int_{-1}^0 x^2 dx + \int_0^1 x^2 dx,$$

we can define  $f(x) = -\frac{\sqrt{x}}{2}$  for the first integral, and  $f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x}}{2}$  for the second. Then, all is fine.

$$\int_{-1}^0 x^2 dx = \int_1^0 -\frac{\sqrt{u}}{2} du = \frac{1}{3}, \quad \int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx = \int_0^1 \frac{\sqrt{u}}{2} du = \frac{1}{3}.$$

The reason why this happened is that the sub  $u = x^2$  is secretly  $x = \pm\sqrt{u}$ , and this is not invertible for  $u$  unless we restrict the domain of  $x$ .

# *u* substitution

When we carry out  $u$  substitution, it is bothersome to write  $f(u) \frac{du}{dx} dx$  in full and nobody does it. Notice that we effectively replace  $\frac{du}{dx} dx$  with  $du$ , so in a sense, if  $u = g(x)$ , we can write  $du = g'(x) dx$ , and directly substitute this into the formula.

We can go even further and skip the notation of  $u$  all together, and just write  $d(g(x)) = g'(x) dx$ . E.g, with the integral earlier,

$$\begin{aligned}\int x(1+x^2)^\pi dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int (1+x^2)^\pi d(1+x^2) \\ &= \frac{(1+x^2)^{\pi+1}}{2(\pi+1)} + C.\end{aligned}$$

This is called implicit integration.

# Using $u$ substitution

Enough pedanticism, we are here to evaluate some integrals.

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{\sqrt{x} + 1}}$$

# Using $u$ substitution

$$\int \frac{dx}{x - x^{\frac{3}{5}}}$$

# Basic trig sub

Here are some common trig substitutions that are useful.

$$I = \int \frac{dx}{x^2\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}.$$

I see a  $\sqrt{x^2 - 1}$ , I sub  $x = \sec u, dx = \sec x \tan x du$ .

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int \frac{\sec u \tan u}{\sec^2 u \sqrt{\sec^2 u - 1}} du \\ &= \int \frac{du}{\sec u} = \sin u + C \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{\sec^2 u - 1}}{\sec u} + C = \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}{x} + C. \end{aligned}$$

# Basic trig sub

Of course, trig sub goes the other way too. Consider

$$I = \int \frac{\cos^2 x}{1 + \sin^2 x} dx.$$

The substitution  $t = \tan x$  works for all integrals with even powers of sin and cos, but in this case it gets us to

$$I = \int \frac{dt}{(t^2 + 1)(2t^2 + 1)} = \int \left( \frac{2}{2t^2 + 1} - \frac{1}{t^2 + 1} \right) dt.$$

but this is slow. Instead, write

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int \frac{1 - \sin^2 x}{1 + \sin^2 x} dx = \int \frac{2 - (1 + \sin^2 x)}{1 + \sin^2 x} dx \\ &= 2 \int \frac{\sec^2 x}{\sec^2 x + \tan^2 x} dx - x = 2 \int \frac{d(\tan x)}{2 \tan^2 x + 1} - x. \end{aligned}$$

This is effectively the same thing we did with the  $t$  sub, but it is much easier to see.

# Basic trig sub

$$\int \frac{dx}{\cos x \sqrt{\sin 2x}} dx, \int \frac{dx}{\sin x \sqrt{\sin 2x}} dx$$

# Basic trig sub

$$\int \sqrt{1 + \sin x} \cot x \, dx$$

# Basic trig sub

Being able to trig sub requires a solid foundation of trig. E.g.,

$$\int \sqrt{1 + \sin x} dx$$



# Advanced trig sub

Now, for the integral

$$I = \int \frac{\tan x}{\sqrt{1 + \sin^2 x}} dx,$$

it would be unwise to do the sub  $u = \sin x$ , as if we do,

$$I = \int \frac{\sin x}{\cos x \sqrt{1 + \sin^2 x}} = \int \frac{\sin x \cos x}{\cos^2 x \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 x}} dx = \int \frac{u}{(1 - u^2) \sqrt{1 + u^2}} du,$$

and we would need more substitutions to proceed. Instead, you could try  $u = \cos x$ , so

$$I \int \frac{\sin x}{\cos x \sqrt{2 - \cos^2 x}} dx = - \int \frac{du}{u \sqrt{2 - u^2}},$$

and this seems much simpler. The next step is to let  $u = \sqrt{2} \sin v$  for the radical, but we might as well skip this step because  $u = \cos x$ , so  $\cos = \sqrt{2} \sin v$ .

# Advanced trig sub

If we directly substitute  $\cos x = \sqrt{2} \sin u$ , we get  $-\sin x dx = \sqrt{2} \cos u du$ , so

$$I = - \int \frac{\sqrt{2} \cos u}{\sqrt{2} \sin u \sqrt{2 - 2 \sin^2 u}} du = - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \int \csc u du,$$

and this is easy. Using the integral of  $\csc$ , which you should memorise,

$$I = - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \ln |\csc u - \cot u| + C = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \ln \left| \frac{\sin u}{1 - \cos u} \right| + C,$$

and after a little bit of simplification we get

$$I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \ln \left| \frac{\cos x}{\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{1 + \sin^2 x}} \right| + C.$$

# Advanced trig sub

Of course, there are always better ways to do integrals. If we let  $u = \sec x$  in  $I$ , we have

$$I = \int \frac{\sec x \tan x}{\sqrt{\sec^2 x + \tan^2 x}} dx = \int \frac{d(\sec x)}{\sqrt{2 \sec^2 x - 1}}.$$

The formula  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2x^2 \pm b^2}} = \frac{1}{a} \ln |ax + \sqrt{a^2x^2 \pm b^2}|$  is useful here.

$$\therefore I = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \ln |\sqrt{2} \sec x + \sqrt{2 \sec^2 x - 1}| + C.$$

This answer is not fully correct. We assume that  $\sec x \sqrt{1 + \sin^2 x} = \sqrt{\sec^2 x + \tan^2 x}$ , where we drop the sign of  $\sec x$ .

# Advanced trig sub

The sub  $u = \sin x \pm \cos x$  is another good friend, because  $u^2 = 1 \pm \sin 2x$ . E.g, with

$$\int \frac{\sin x - \cos x}{\sqrt{\sin 2x}}$$

# Advanced trig sub

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

# Reciprocal sub

Earlier in this section, we ran into the integral

$$I = \int \frac{dx}{x^2 \sqrt{x^2 - 1}},$$

which I claimed we needed trig sub to do. That was me spreading misinformation. Notice

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int \frac{(1/x)}{\sqrt{1 - (1/x)^2}} d(1/x) \\ &= \sqrt{1 - (1/x)^2} + C \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}{x} + C. \end{aligned}$$

The substitution  $u = \frac{1}{x}$  is the smallest child of a family of powerful subs.

# Reciprocal sub

Consider

$$I = \int \frac{x^2 + 1}{x^4 + 1} dx.$$

Some of you may recognise  $x^4 + 1 = (x^2 + \sqrt{2}x + 1)(x^2 - \sqrt{2}x + 1)$ , and be inclined to bash with partial fractions. Instead, consider the following:

$$I = \int \frac{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}}{x^2 + \frac{1}{x^2}} dx = \int \frac{d(x - 1/x)}{(x - 1/x)^2 + 2}.$$

The sub  $u = ax + b/x$  is quite strong. Often, it is just  $x \pm 1/x$ , which you see here.

# Reciprocal sub



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

# Reciprocal sub

$$\int \frac{(x+1)^4(x-1)^2\sqrt{x^4+x^2+1}}{(x^2+1)^2(x^6-1)} dx$$

# *I* and *J*

How would you approach  $\int \frac{\sin x}{\sin x + \cos x} dx$ ?

# *I* and *J*

$$\int \frac{\cos^3 x}{\sin x - \cos x}$$

# *I* and *J*

$$\int \sqrt{\cot x} dx$$

# Cancelling integrals through by parts

We have all seen how in finding  $\int e^x \sin x \, dx$  you have to integrate by parts twice to recover the original integral. This is somewhat similar.

$$\int \frac{x^2 - x - 1}{x^2 - 2x + 1} e^x \, dx$$

Hint: Consider splitting into

$$\int \frac{x^2 - x}{x^2 - 2x + 1} e^x \, dx - \int \frac{e^x}{x^2 - 2x + 1}$$

# Random aspull manipulation

 CPMSOC



$$\int \frac{x^{2023}}{x + x^{2025}} dx$$

# Random asspull manipulation



$$\int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^n - 1}}$$

# Reverse product rule

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

# Reverse quotient rule

$$\int \frac{x \cos x - \sin x}{x^2 + \sin^2 x} dx$$

# Kings rule

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(a + b - x) dx$$

Very commonly used. Especially for trig, where there is a special rule for it.

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} f(\sin x) dx = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} f(\cos x) dx$$

# Kings rule

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \ln(1 + \tan x) dx$$

# Kings rule

$$\int_1^3 \frac{\ln x}{\ln(4x - x^2)} dx$$

# Reciprocal sub

$$\int_{\frac{1}{a}}^a f(x) dx = \int_{\frac{1}{a}}^a \frac{f(1/x)}{x^2} dx$$

Very useful when there are  $\ln s$ s anywhere in the integral, or  $1 + x^2$ s in the denominator.

# Reciprocal sub

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

# Together now!

If  $\varphi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}$  is the golden ratio, evaluate

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\tan x}{\varphi^2 + 4 \ln(\tan x)^2} dx$$

# Involution

Notice that both of these substitutions took the bounds and changed them into the other bound. Specifically,  $f(b) = a$  and  $f(a) = b$ , where  $f(x) = a + b - x$  or  $f(x) = 1/x$ . These functions are called “involutions” because they satisfy  $f(f(x)) = x$ . Another involution is

$$f(x) = \frac{1-x}{1+x}.$$

Use  $u = f(x)$  to evaluate

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

# Interval splitting

A trick which is usually only helpful for trig integrals, where cases would be required due to the invertible requirement for  $u$  sub:

$$\int_0^{2a} f(x) dx = \int_0^a (f(x) + f(2a - x)) dx$$

In the case when  $a = \pi$  or  $a = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , this has a couple applications.

# Go practice.

Pizza should arrive soon



CPMSOC



# Attendance form :D

CPMSOC

