

## Integration of Irrational Functions:

• Integrand with  $\sqrt{a^2-x^2}$ ,  $\sqrt{a^2+x^2}$ ,  $\sqrt{x^2-a^2}$  ( $a > 0$ )

(1) For  $\sqrt{a^2-x^2}$ , we let  $x = a \sin \theta$   $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$

(2) For  $\sqrt{a^2+x^2}$ , we let  $x = a \tan \theta$   $-\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$

(3) For  $\sqrt{x^2-a^2}$ , we let  $x = a \sec \theta$   $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$

e.g.  $\int x^2 \sqrt{4-x^2} dx$

$$\begin{aligned} & \int x^2 \sqrt{4-x^2} dx && \text{Let } x = 2 \sin \theta \\ & = \int 8 \sin^3 \theta \sqrt{4 \cos^2 \theta} (2 \cos \theta) d\theta && dx = 2 \cos \theta d\theta \\ & = \int 32 \cos^2 \theta \sin^3 \theta d\theta \\ & = \int 32 \cos^2 \theta \sin^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta && x = 2 \sin \theta \Rightarrow \sin \theta = \frac{x}{2} \\ & = \int 32 \cos^2 \theta (1 - \cos^2 \theta) d(-\cos \theta) && \cos \theta = \pm \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta} = \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{x}{2}\right)^2} = \pm \frac{\sqrt{4-x^2}}{2} \\ & = \int 32 \cos^4 \theta - 32 \cos^2 \theta d \cos \theta && -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2} \Rightarrow \cos \theta > 0 \\ & = \frac{32}{5} \cos^5 \theta - \frac{32}{3} \cos^3 \theta + C && \therefore \cos \theta = \frac{\sqrt{4-x^2}}{2} \\ & = \frac{32}{5} \left(\frac{\sqrt{4-x^2}}{2}\right)^5 - \frac{32}{3} \left(\frac{\sqrt{4-x^2}}{2}\right)^3 + C \\ & = -\frac{1}{15} (3x^2 + 8)(4-x^2)^{\frac{3}{2}} + C \end{aligned}$$

Note:  $\sqrt{a^2-x^2}$  is well-defined only when  $a^2-x^2 \geq 0$ , that means  $-a < x < a$ .

Also we have  $-1 \leq \sin \theta \leq 1$  when  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ ,

so  $-a \leq a \sin \theta \leq a$ , that is the reason why we let  $x = a \sin \theta$ .

Think: How about  $\sqrt{a^2+x^2}$  and  $\sqrt{x^2-a^2}$ ?

e.g.  $\int \frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{x^3} dx$

$$\int \frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{x^3} dx \quad \text{Let } x = 2\sec\theta$$
$$= \int \frac{\sqrt{4\tan^2\theta}}{8\sec^3\theta} \cdot 2\sec\theta \tan\theta d\theta \quad dx = 2\sec\theta \tan\theta d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int \sin^2\theta d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \int 1 - \cos 2\theta d\theta$$

$$= -\frac{1}{8} \sin 2\theta + \frac{\theta}{4} + C$$

Ex: :

$$= -\frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{2x^2} + \frac{1}{4} \cos^{-1} \frac{2}{x} + C$$

Ex: Show that, for  $a > 0$ ,  $\int \sqrt{a^2-x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} x \sqrt{a^2-x^2} \pm \frac{1}{2} a^2 \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{\sqrt{a^2-x^2}} \right) + C$

$$\int \sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} x \sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2} \pm \frac{1}{2} a^2 \ln |x + \sqrt{x^2 \pm a^2}| + C$$

## Integration by Parts

Recall: Let  $u(x)$  and  $v(x)$  be differentiable functions.

$$\text{Product rule: } \frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$u \frac{dv}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}(uv) - v \frac{du}{dx}$$

Integrate both sides with respect to  $x$ :

$$\int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = \int \frac{d}{dx}(uv) dx - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

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

$$\text{OR: } \int u dv = uv - \int v du$$

$$\text{Integration by Parts: } \int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

$$\text{e.g. } \int x^2 \ln x dx = \int (\ln x) x^2 dx$$

$$= \int (\ln x) \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{x^3}{3} \right) dx \quad (\text{Now, } u = \ln x, v = \frac{x^3}{3})$$

$$= \int \ln x d \frac{x^3}{3}$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} \ln x - \int \frac{x^3}{3} d(\ln x)$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} \ln x - \int \frac{x^3}{3} \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} \ln x - \int \frac{x^2}{3} dx$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} \ln x - \frac{x^3}{9} + C$$

(Verify the answer by differentiation!)

$$\text{e.g. } \int x e^x dx$$

$$\text{Note: } \frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$$

$$e^x dx = de^x$$

$$\int x e^x dx$$

$$\text{Now, } u = x, v = e^x$$

$$= \int x de^x$$

$$= x e^x - \int e^x dx$$

$$= x e^x - e^x + C$$

$$= e^x(x-1) + C$$

Remark: Why don't we try the following?

$$\int x e^x dx$$

$$= \int e^x x dx$$

$$= \int e^x d\left(\frac{x^2}{2}\right)$$

⋮

What happens?

$$\text{e.g. } \int x^2 e^x dx$$

$$= \int x^2 de^x$$

$$= x^2 e^x - \int e^x dx^2$$

$$= x^2 e^x - \int 2x e^x dx$$

Ex: :  $\int 2x e^x dx$  Apply Integration by parts again!

$$\text{Ans: } e^x(x^2 - 2x + 2) + C$$

Question: How to make a guess of  $u(x)$  and  $v(x)$ ?

$$\text{Integration by Parts: } \int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx = uv - \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx$$

$$\text{e.g. } \int x^2 \ln x dx = \int (\ln x) x^2 dx$$

$$= \int (\ln x) \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{x^3}{3}\right) dx$$

Realize the integrand as a product of parts and make a guess of  $u(x)$  and  $v(x)$  such that one part can be realized as a function  $u(x)$ , another part is  $v'(x)$

e.g.  $\int x \sin 3x dx$

$$\begin{aligned} & \int x \sin 3x dx \\ &= \int x d\left(-\frac{1}{3} \cos 3x\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{3} x \cos 3x - \int -\frac{1}{3} \cos 3x dx \\ &= -\frac{1}{3} x \cos 3x + \frac{1}{9} \sin 3x + C \end{aligned}$$

Integration of Logarithmic Functions :

$$\int \ln x dx = ? \quad \text{for } x > 0$$

Using Integration by part :

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

Ex:  $\int \log_a x dx = ?$

Hints:  $\log_a x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln a}$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \log_a x dx &= \frac{1}{\ln a} \int \ln x dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\ln a} (x \ln x - x + C) \end{aligned}$$

$$= x \frac{\ln x}{\ln a} - \frac{x}{\ln a} + \frac{C}{\ln a}$$

$$= x \log_a x - \frac{x}{\ln a} + C' \quad \quad C' = \frac{C}{\ln a} \quad \text{just a constant!}$$

e.g. (Transformed into the original Integral)

$$\int e^x \cos x \, dx$$

$$\int e^x \cos x \, dx = \int e^x \, d \sin x$$

$$= e^x \sin x - \int \sin x \, de^x$$

$$= e^x \sin x - \int e^x \sin x \, dx$$

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

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

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

$$= e^x \sin x + e^x \cos x - \underbrace{\int e^x \cos x \, dx}$$

back to itself!

Be careful of +/-!

$$\therefore 2 \int e^x \cos x \, dx = e^x \sin x + e^x \cos x + C' \quad \leftarrow \text{Don't forget!}$$

$$\int e^x \cos x \, dx = \frac{1}{2} e^x (\sin x + \cos x) + C \quad (C = \frac{1}{2} C')$$

e.g.  $\int \sin(\ln x) \, dx$

$$\int \sin(\ln x) \, dx$$

$$= x \sin(\ln x) - \int x \, d \sin(\ln x)$$

$$= x \sin(\ln x) - \int \cos(\ln x) \, dx$$

$$= x \sin(\ln x) - (x \cos(\ln x) - \int x \, d \cos(\ln x))$$

$$= x \sin(\ln x) - x \cos(\ln x) - \int \sin(\ln x) \, dx$$

$$\therefore \int \sin(\ln x) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} x [\sin(\ln x) + \cos(\ln x)] + C$$

## Reduction Formulae

Idea: Obtain a formula to reduce the complexity of the integrand.

e.g. Let  $I_n = \int x^n e^x dx$ , where  $n$  is a nonnegative integer.

Prove that  $I_n = x^n e^x - n I_{n-1}$ , for  $n \geq 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} I_n &= \int x^n e^x dx \\ &= \int x^n de^x \\ &= x^n e^x - \int e^x dx^n \\ &= x^n e^x - \int n e^x x^{n-1} dx \\ &= x^n e^x - n I_{n-1} \end{aligned}$$

Note:  $I_0 = \int e^x dx = e^x + C$

We can apply this formula repeatedly until we see  $I_0$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \int x^3 e^x dx &= I_3 = x^3 e^x - 3 I_2 \\ &= x^3 e^x - 3(x^2 e^x - 2 I_1) \\ &= x^3 e^x - 3(x^2 e^x - 2(x e^x - 1 \cdot I_0)) \\ &= x^3 e^x - 3x^2 e^x + 3 \cdot 2 x e^x - 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot I_0 \\ &= x^3 e^x - 3x^2 e^x + 3 \cdot 2 x e^x - 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot e^x + C \\ &= x^3 e^x - P_1 x^2 e^x + P_2 x e^x - P_3 e^x + C \\ &= \left[ \sum_{r=0}^3 (-1)^r P_r x^{3-r} e^x \right] + C \end{aligned}$$

In general,  $\int x^n e^x dx = \left[ \sum_{r=0}^n (-1)^r P_r x^{n-r} e^x \right] + C$  for  $n \geq 1$ .

The formula  $I_n = x^n e^x - n I_{n-1}$  is called a reduction formula.

e.g. Let  $I_n = \int \tan^n x \, dx$ , where  $n$  is a nonnegative integer.

Show that  $I_n = \frac{1}{n-1} \tan^{n-1} x - I_{n-2}$  for  $n \geq 2$ .

Why/How do we get this?

$$\int \tan^{n-2} x \, d \tan x$$

$$\begin{aligned} I_n &= \int \tan^n x \, dx \\ &= \int \tan^{n-2} x \tan^2 x \, dx \\ &= \int \tan^{n-2} x (\sec^2 x - 1) \, dx \\ &= \int \tan^{n-2} x \sec^2 x \, dx - \int \tan^{n-2} x \, dx \\ &= \int \tan^{n-2} x \, d \tan x - I_{n-2} \\ &= \frac{1}{n-1} \tan^{n-1} x - I_{n-2} \end{aligned}$$

As we can see, the index  $n$  is decreased by 2, so we have two cases:

Case 1: start from an even integer  $n=2m$

$$\begin{aligned} I_{2m} &= \frac{1}{2m-1} \tan^{2m-1} x + I_{2m-2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2m-1} \tan^{2m-1} x + \frac{1}{2m-3} \tan^{2m-3} x + I_{2m-4} \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &= \frac{1}{2m-1} \tan^{2m-1} x + \frac{1}{2m-3} \tan^{2m-3} x + \dots + \frac{1}{3} \tan^3 x + \tan x + I_0 \quad (\text{end at } I_0) \\ &= \frac{1}{2m-1} \tan^{2m-1} x + \frac{1}{2m-3} \tan^{2m-3} x + \dots + \frac{1}{3} \tan^3 x + \tan x + x + C \quad (I_0 = \int dx = x + C) \end{aligned}$$

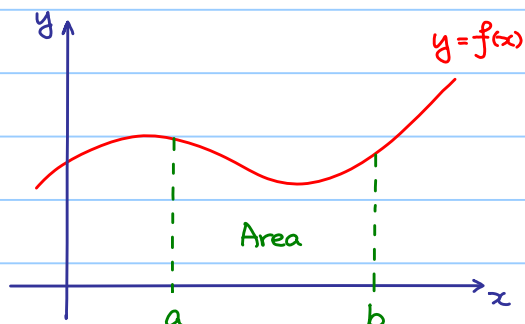
Case 2: start from an odd integer  $n=2m+1$

$$\begin{aligned} I_{2m+1} &= \frac{1}{2m} \tan^{2m} x + I_{2m-1} \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &= \frac{1}{2m} \tan^{2m} x + \frac{1}{2m-2} \tan^{2m-2} x + \dots + \frac{1}{4} \tan^4 x + \frac{1}{2} \tan^2 x + I_1 \quad (\text{end at } I_0) \\ &= \frac{1}{2m} \tan^{2m} x + \frac{1}{2m-2} \tan^{2m-2} x + \dots + \frac{1}{4} \tan^4 x + \frac{1}{2} \tan^2 x + \ln|\sec x| + C \\ &\quad (I_1 = \int \tan x \, dx = \ln|\sec x| + C) \end{aligned}$$



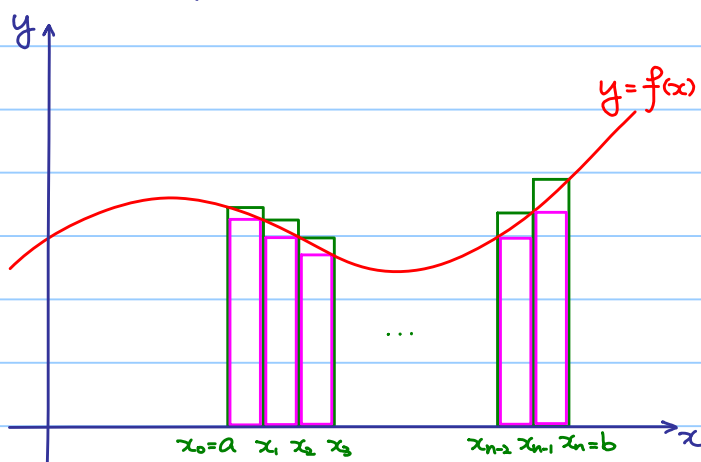
## Definite Integration

Goal: Find the area of the region under the curve  $y=f(x)$  over an interval  $[a,b]$ .



## Riemann Sum

Area as the limit of a sum



Subdivide  $[a,b]$  into  $n$  equal subintervals,  $x_i - x_{i-1} = \Delta x$ ,  $i=1,2,3,\dots,n$

$$\text{Upper sum} = \max_{x_0 \leq \xi_1 \leq x_1} f(\xi_1) \Delta x + \max_{x_1 \leq \xi_2 \leq x_2} f(\xi_2) \Delta x + \dots + \max_{x_{n-1} \leq \xi_n \leq x_n} f(\xi_n) \Delta x$$

$$U_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \max_{x_{i-1} \leq \xi_i \leq x_i} f(\xi_i) \Delta x$$

$$\text{Lower sum} = \min_{x_0 \leq \xi_1 \leq x_1} f(\xi_1) \Delta x + \min_{x_1 \leq \xi_2 \leq x_2} f(\xi_2) \Delta x + \dots + \min_{x_{n-1} \leq \xi_n \leq x_n} f(\xi_n) \Delta x$$

$$L_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \min_{x_{i-1} \leq \xi_i \leq x_i} f(\xi_i) \Delta x$$

Note:  $L_n \leq \text{Area} \leq U_n$

Rough idea:  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , more rectangles, better approximation!

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n = A$ , we define the area to  $A$ . — (\*)

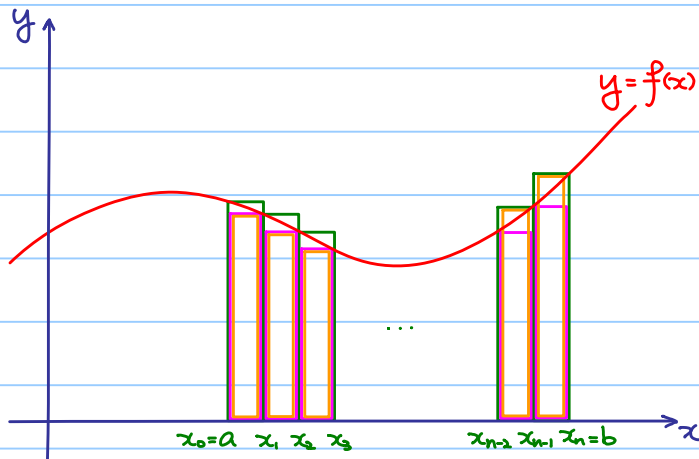
Remark:

1) If the area is defined, we denote it by  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ .

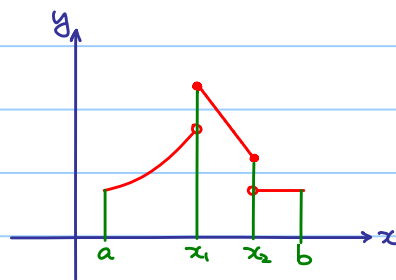
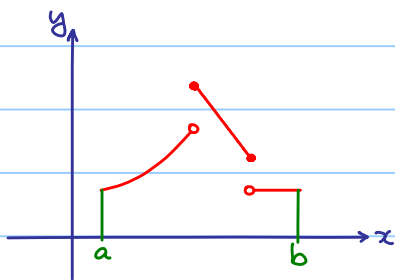
2) If  $f(x)$  is a continuous function,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is well-defined for any  $a \leq b$ .

3) Let  $a_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \Delta x = \sum_{i=1}^n f(a + (b-a) \frac{i}{n}) \cdot \frac{b-a}{n}$ , then  $L_n \leq a_n \leq U_n$ .

Now, we know  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n = A$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A$

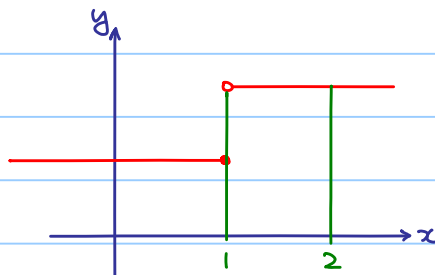


4) If  $f$  is a piecewise continuous on  $[a, b]$ , i.e. discontinuous only at finitely many points, then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is defined as the following:



$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^{x_1} f(x) dx + \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(x) dx + \int_{x_2}^b f(x) dx$$

e.g. Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \leq 1 \\ 2 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$



$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^2 f(x) dx &= \int_0^1 f(x) dx + \int_1^2 f(x) dx \\ &= 1 \times 1 + 2 \times 1 \\ &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

Note: width of a point = 0

## Rules for Definite Integrals :

Let  $f(x)$ ,  $g(x)$  be continuous (or piecewise continuous) functions.

Suppose  $a \leq b$ .

1) If  $k$  is a constant,  $\int_a^b k f(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$

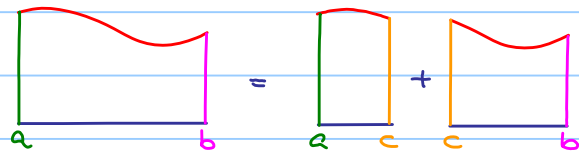
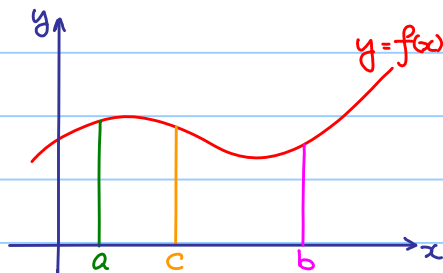
2)  $\int_a^b f(x) \pm g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$

3)  $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$

4)  $\int_b^a f(x) dx$  is defined to be  $-\int_a^b f(x) dx$  (reverse direction)

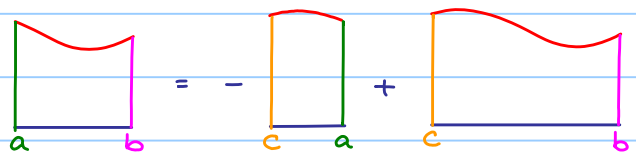
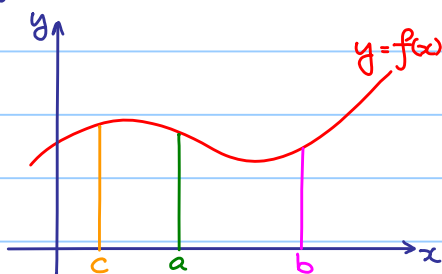
5)  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$  for any  $c$  (subdivision)

If  $a \leq c \leq b$ ,



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

If  $c < a \leq b$ ,



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

"   
  $-\int_c^a f(x) dx$

Ex: Think why (5) is true if  $a \leq b < c$  !

These properties are followed the definition (\*) .

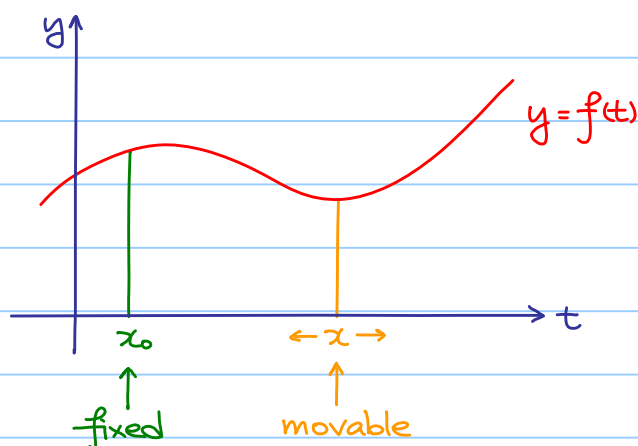
Computation of area :

NOT rely on the above limit, but **Fundamental Theorem of Calculus !**

**Fundamental Theorem of Calculus :**

Preparation :

Let  $f(t)$  be a continuous function.



1)  $\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt$  is well defined for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$

2) What is a function? Roughly speaking, input  $x$ , output  $y$ .

Now, construct a new function  $F(x)$  defined by

$$F(x) = \text{Area under the curve } y = f(t) \text{ over } [x_0, x] \\ = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt$$

3) How about choosing another fixed point ?

Let  $\tilde{F}(x) = \int_{x_1}^x f(t) dt$ , what is the difference between  $F(x)$  and  $\tilde{F}(x)$  ?

In fact,

$$F(x) - \tilde{F}(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_1}^x f(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt + \int_x^{x_1} f(t) dt$$

$$= \int_{x_0}^{x_1} f(t) dt \quad \text{which is a constant.}$$

Fundamental Theorem of Calculus :

Let  $f(t)$  be a continuous function,  $x_0$  be a fixed point.

Suppose  $F(x)$  is a function defined by

$$F(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt,$$

then  $F(x)$  is a differentiable function and  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

(i.e.  $F(x)$  is an antiderivative of  $f(x)$ .)

1) Direct consequence : 
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{x_0}^b f(x) dx - \int_{x_0}^a f(x) dx$$
$$= F(b) - F(a)$$

i.e. if we know how to compute antiderivative of  $f(x)$ ,  
then we know how to find  $\int_a^b f(t) dt$ .

2) Wait! Antiderivative of  $f(x)$  is NOT unique, but unique up to a constant.

Which one should we pick?

If  $\tilde{F}(x) = \int_{x_1}^x f(t) dt$ , then  $\tilde{F}(x)$  is another antiderivative of  $f(x)$ .

In fact, it is NOT surprising, we know  $F(x) - \tilde{F}(x)$  is a constant.

$$\text{Also, } \int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{x_1}^b f(x) dx - \int_{x_1}^a f(x) dx$$
$$= \tilde{F}(b) - \tilde{F}(a)$$

Therefore, we can pick anyone!

e.g. (Verification of Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)

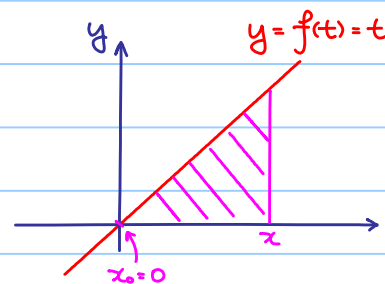
$$f(t) = t, \quad x_0 = 0$$

$$f(x) = x$$

$$F(x) = \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt$$

= Area of the shaded triangle

$$= \frac{1}{2}x^2$$



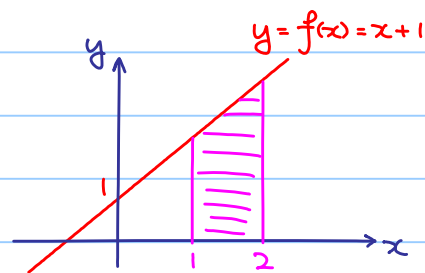
Note: We have  $F'(x) = f(x)$ .

e.g.  $f(x) = x+1$

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

Choose  $C=0$ , let  $F(x) = \frac{x^2}{2} + x$

Area of the shaded region =  $\int_1^2 f(x) dx = F(2) - F(1)$   
 $= 4 - \frac{3}{2}$   
 $= \frac{5}{2}$



What we write :

$$\int_1^2 f(x) dx = \left[ \frac{x^2}{2} + x \right]_1^2$$
$$= \underbrace{\left( \frac{2^2}{2} + 2 \right)}_{F(2)} - \underbrace{\left( \frac{1^2}{2} + 1 \right)}_{F(1)} = 4 - \frac{3}{2} = \frac{5}{2}$$

e.g.  $f(x) = x^2$

Area of the shaded region =  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$   
 $= \left[ \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1$   
 $= \left( \frac{1^3}{3} \right) - \left( \frac{0^3}{3} \right)$   
 $= \frac{1}{3}$

