

# INTEGRATION

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## References:

1. **Maurice Weir, Joel Hass, George B. Thomas**, *Thomas Calculus*, 12<sup>th</sup> ed. (2012).
2. **G Stephenson** *Mathematical Methods for Science Students* (1983).
3. **Anton Bivens Davis** *Calculus* (2002).

# Integration:

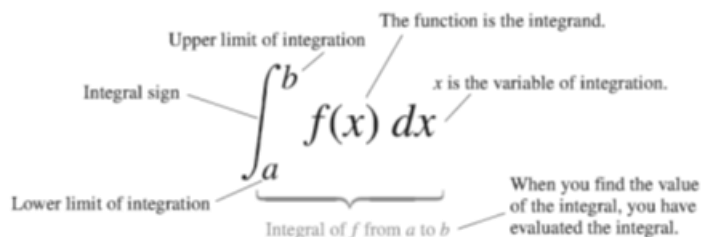
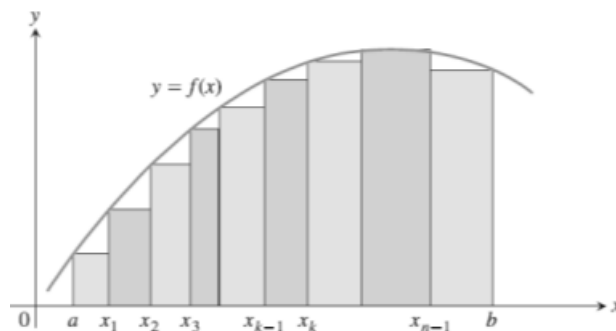
## 1) The Definite Integral

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \left( \frac{b-a}{n} \right),$$

$\Delta x_k = \Delta x = (b-a)/n$  for all  $k$

$$J = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \left( \frac{b-a}{n} \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x$$

$\Delta x = (b-a)/n$



## Rules satisfied by definite integrals

1. *Order of Integration:*  $\int_b^a f(x) dx = -\int_a^b f(x) dx$  A Definition
2. *Zero Width Interval:*  $\int_a^a f(x) dx = 0$  A Definition when  $f(a)$  exists
3. *Constant Multiple:*  $\int_a^b kf(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx$  Any constant  $k$
4. *Sum and Difference:*  $\int_a^b (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx \pm \int_a^b g(x) dx$
5. *Additivity:*  $\int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx$
6.  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[a, b] \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$   
 $f(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, b] \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$  (Special Case)

### EXAMPLE:

Let  $\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = 5$ ,  $\int_1^4 f(x) dx = -2$ , and  $\int_{-1}^1 h(x) dx = 7$ .

- Then:
1.  $\int_4^1 f(x) dx = -\int_1^4 f(x) dx = -(-2) = 2$
  2.  $\int_{-1}^1 [2f(x) + 3h(x)] dx = 2 \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx + 3 \int_{-1}^1 h(x) dx$   
 $= 2(5) + 3(7) = 31$
  3.  $\int_{-1}^4 f(x) dx = \int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx + \int_1^4 f(x) dx = 5 + (-2) = 3$

**DEFINITION:** If  $y = f(x)$  is nonnegative and integrable over a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , then the area under the curve  $y = f(x)$  over  $[a, b]$  is the integral of  $f$  from  $a$  to  $b$ .

$$A = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

If  $f(x)$  is negative then  $A = \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$

## 2) THEOREM (The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus 1):

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$  and its derivative is  $f(x)$ :  $F'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x)$ .

### EXAMPLE:

Use the Fundamental Theorem to find  $dy/dx$  if:

$$(a) y = \int_a^x (t^3 + 1) dt \quad (b) y = \int_x^5 3t \sin t dt \quad (c) y = \int_1^{x^2} \cos t dt$$

Sol: (a)  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x (t^3 + 1) dt = x^3 + 1$

$$\begin{aligned} (b) \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} \int_x^5 3t \sin t dt = \frac{d}{dx} \left( - \int_5^x 3t \sin t dt \right) \\ &= - \frac{d}{dx} \int_5^x 3t \sin t dt \\ &= -3x \sin x \end{aligned}$$

(c) The upper limit of integration is not  $x$ . This makes  $y$  a composite of the two functions. We must therefore apply the Chain Rule when finding  $dy/dx$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \\ &= \left( \frac{d}{du} \int_1^u \cos t dt \right) \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \\ &= \cos u \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \\ &= \cos(x^2) \cdot 2x \\ &= 2x \cos x^2 \end{aligned}$$

**THEOREM (The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus 2):** If  $f$  is continuous at every point in  $[a, b]$  and  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ , then

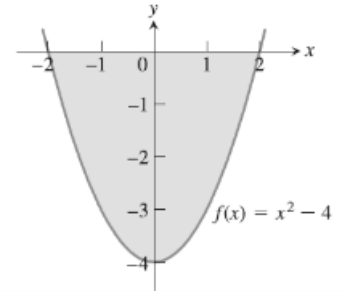
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

**EXAMPLE**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(a)} \quad \int_0^\pi \cos x \, dx &= \sin x \Big|_0^\pi \\
 &= \sin \pi - \sin 0 = 0 - 0 = 0 \\
 \text{(b)} \quad \int_{-\pi/4}^0 \sec x \tan x \, dx &= \sec x \Big|_{-\pi/4}^0 \\
 &= \sec 0 - \sec \left(-\frac{\pi}{4}\right) = 1 - \sqrt{2} \\
 \text{(c)} \quad \int_1^4 \left(\frac{3}{2} \sqrt{x} - \frac{4}{x^2}\right) dx &= \left[ x^{3/2} + \frac{4}{x} \right]_1^4 \\
 &= \left[ (4)^{3/2} + \frac{4}{4} \right] - \left[ (1)^{3/2} + \frac{4}{1} \right] \\
 &= [8 + 1] - [5] = 4.
 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE**

Let  $f(x) = x^2 - 4$ , compute (a) the definite integral over the interval  $[-2, 2]$ , and (b) the area between the graph and the x-axis over  $[-2, 2]$ .

**Solution:**

$$\text{(a)} \quad \int_{-2}^2 f(x) \, dx = \left[ \frac{x^3}{3} - 4x \right]_{-2}^2 = \left( \frac{8}{3} - 8 \right) - \left( -\frac{8}{3} + 8 \right) = -\frac{32}{3},$$

(b) The area between the graph and the x-axis is  $\left| -\frac{32}{3} \right| = \frac{32}{3}$

**EXAMPLE:** Find the area between the graph  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 - x + 2$  and the x-axis

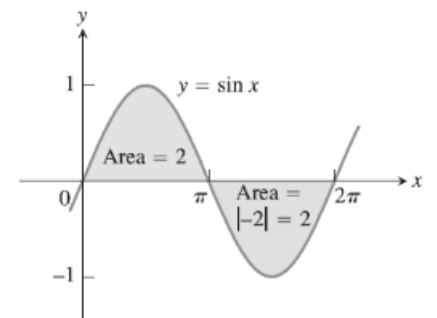
**SOL:**  $f(x)=0$  then  $(x^2 - 1)(x - 2) = 0$  that is  $x=1, -1$  and  $x=2$

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= A_1 + A_2 = \int_{-1}^1 |f(x)| \, dx + \int_1^2 |f(x)| \, dx \\
 &= \left[ \frac{x^4}{4} - 2 \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^2}{2} + 2x \right]_{-1}^1 + \left[ \frac{x^4}{4} - 2 \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^2}{2} + 2x \right]_1^2
 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE:** Let the function  $f(x) = \sin x$  between  $x = 0$  and  $x = 2\pi$ . Compute

(a) the definite integral of  $f(x)$  over  $[0, 2\pi]$ .

(b) the area between the graph of  $f(x)$  and the x-axis over  $[0, 2\pi]$ .

**Solution**

(a) The definite integral for  $f(x) = \sin x$  is given by

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \sin x \, dx = -\cos x \Big|_0^{2\pi} = -[\cos 2\pi - \cos 0] = -[1 - 1] = 0.$$

(b) To compute the area between the graph of  $f(x)$  and the x-axis over  $[0, 2\pi]$  we should find the points in which  $f$  is intersect x-axis i.e.  $f(x)=0$  this implies to  $\sin x=0$  i.e.  $x=0, x=\pi$  or  $x=2\pi$  Now subdivide  $[0, 2\pi]$  into two pieces: the interval  $[0, \pi]$  and the interval  $[\pi, 2\pi]$ .

$$\int_0^{\pi} \sin x \, dx = -\cos x \Big|_0^{\pi} = -[\cos \pi - \cos 0] = -[-1 - 1] = 2$$

$$\int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \sin x \, dx = -\cos x \Big|_{\pi}^{2\pi} = -[\cos 2\pi - \cos \pi] = -[1 - (-1)] = -2$$

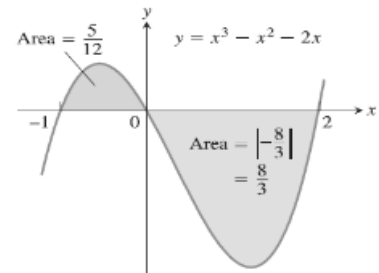
$$\text{Area} = |2| + |-2| = 4.$$

**EXAMPLE:**

Find the area of the region between the x-axis and the graph of  $f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 2x$ ,  $-1 \leq x \leq 2$

**Solution**

First find the zeros of  $f$ .  $f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 2x = 0$   
 $x(x^2 - x - 2) = 0$   
 $x(x + 1)(x - 2) = 0$



$x = 0, -1$ , and  $2$ . The zeros subdivide  $[-1, 2]$  into two subintervals:  $[-1, 0]$ , on which  $f \geq 0$ , and  $[0, 2]$ , on which  $f \leq 0$ . We integrate  $f$  over each subinterval and add the absolute values of the calculated integrals.

$$\int_{-1}^0 (x^3 - x^2 - 2x) \, dx = \left[ \frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 \right]_{-1}^0 = 0 - \left[ \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{3} - 1 \right] = \frac{5}{12}$$

$$\int_0^2 (x^3 - x^2 - 2x) \, dx = \left[ \frac{x^4}{4} - \frac{x^3}{3} - x^2 \right]_0^2 = \left[ 4 - \frac{8}{3} - 4 \right] - 0 = -\frac{8}{3}$$

$$\text{Total enclosed area} = \frac{5}{12} + \left| -\frac{8}{3} \right| = \frac{37}{12}$$

**EXAMPLE:** Find  $\int_{-1}^2 |x - 1| \, dx$

Since  $|x - 1| = \begin{cases} x - 1 & x \geq 1 \\ -x + 1 & x < 1 \end{cases}$  then  $\int_{-1}^2 |x - 1| \, dx = \int_{-1}^1 (-x + 1) \, dx + \int_1^2 (x - 1) \, dx$

### 3) Indefinite Integrals and the Substitution Method

Since any two antiderivatives of  $f$  differ by a constant, the indefinite integral notation means that for any antiderivative  $F$  of  $f$ ,

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

where  $C$  is any arbitrary constant.

**THEOREM:**

The Substitution Rule If  $u = g(x)$  is a differentiable function whose range is an interval  $I$ , and  $f$  is continuous on  $I$ , then  $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du$ .

**Substitution: Running the Chain Rule Backwards**

If  $u$  is a differentiable function of  $x$  and  $n$  is any number different from  $-1$ , the Chain Rule tells us that

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} \right) = u^n \frac{du}{dx}$$

Therefore  $\int u^n \frac{du}{dx} dx = \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$ .

As well as  $\int u^n du = \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$ , then  $du = \frac{du}{dx} dx$

**EXAMPLE:**

Find the integral  $\int (x^3 + x)^5(3x^2 + 1) dx$ .

**Sol:** let  $u = x^3 + x$ . then  $du = \frac{du}{dx} dx = (3x^2 + 1) dx$ ,

so that by substitution we have :

$$\begin{aligned} \int (x^3 + x)^5(3x^2 + 1) dx &= \int u^5 du && \text{Let } u = x^3 + x, du = (3x^2 + 1) dx. \\ &= \frac{u^6}{6} + C && \text{Integrate with respect to } u. \\ &= \frac{(x^3 + x)^6}{6} + C && \text{Substitute } x^3 + x \text{ for } u. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE:**

Find the integral  $\int \sqrt{2x + 1} dx$ .

**SOL:** let  $u=2x+1$  and  $n=1/2$ ,  $du = \frac{du}{dx} dx = 2 dx$

because of the constant factor 2 is missing from the integral. So we write

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sqrt{2x + 1} dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int \sqrt{\frac{2x + 1}{u}} \cdot \frac{2 dx}{du} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int u^{1/2} du && \text{Let } u = 2x + 1, du = 2 dx. \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{u^{3/2}}{3/2} + C && \text{Integrate with respect to } u. \\ &= \frac{1}{3} (2x + 1)^{3/2} + C && \text{Substitute } 2x + 1 \text{ for } u. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE:** Find  $\int \sec^2(5t + 1) \cdot 5 dt$ .

**SOL:** Let  $u = 5t + 1$  and  $du = 5 dt$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sec^2(5t + 1) \cdot 5 \, dt &= \int \sec^2 u \, du && \text{Let } u = 5t + 1, \, du = 5 \, dt. \\ &= \tan u + C && \frac{d}{du} \tan u = \sec^2 u \\ &= \tan(5t + 1) + C && \text{Substitute } 5t + 1 \text{ for } u. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE:**  $\int \cos(7\theta + 3) \, d\theta.$

**SOL:** Let  $u = 7\theta + 3$  so that  $du = 7 \, d\theta$ . The constant factor 7 is missing from the  $d\theta$  term in the integral. We can compensate for it by multiplying and dividing by 7. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \cos(7\theta + 3) \, d\theta &= \frac{1}{7} \int \cos(7\theta + 3) \cdot 7 \, d\theta && \text{Place factor } 1/7 \text{ in front of integral.} \\ &= \frac{1}{7} \int \cos u \, du && \text{Let } u = 7\theta + 3, \, du = 7 \, d\theta. \\ &= \frac{1}{7} \sin u + C && \text{Integrate.} \\ &= \frac{1}{7} \sin(7\theta + 3) + C && \text{Substitute } 7\theta + 3 \text{ for } u. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE:**  $\int x^2 \sin(x^3) \, dx = \int \sin(x^3) \cdot x^2 \, dx$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int \sin u \cdot \frac{1}{3} \, du && \text{Let } u = x^3, \, du = 3x^2 \, dx, \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \int \sin u \, du && (1/3) \, du = x^2 \, dx. \\ &= \frac{1}{3} (-\cos u) + C && \text{Integrate.} \\ &= -\frac{1}{3} \cos(x^3) + C && \text{Replace } u \text{ by } x^3. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE:** Evaluate  $\int x\sqrt{2x+1} \, dx$ :

**SOL:**  $u = 2x + 1$  to obtain  $x = (u - 1)/2$ , and find that  $x\sqrt{2x+1} \, dx = \frac{1}{2}(u - 1) \cdot \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{u} \, du.$

The integration now becomes

$$\begin{aligned} \int x\sqrt{2x+1} \, dx &= \frac{1}{4} \int (u - 1)\sqrt{u} \, du = \frac{1}{4} \int (u - 1)u^{1/2} \, du && \text{Substitute.} \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \int (u^{3/2} - u^{1/2}) \, du && \text{Multiply terms.} \\ &= \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{2}{5} u^{5/2} - \frac{2}{3} u^{3/2} \right) + C && \text{Integrate.} \\ &= \frac{1}{10} \left( 2x + \int \frac{2z \, dz}{\sqrt{z^2 + 1}} + 1 \right)^{3/2} + C && \text{Replace } u \text{ by } 2x + 1. \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

Let

$$u = z^2 + 1.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{2z \, dz}{\sqrt[3]{z^2 + 1}} &= \int \frac{du}{u^{1/3}} && \text{Let } u = z^2 + 1, \\ &= \int u^{-1/3} \, du && du = 2z \, dz. \\ &= \frac{u^{2/3}}{2/3} + C && \text{In the form } \int u^n \, du \\ &= \frac{3}{2} u^{2/3} + C && \text{Integrate.} \\ &= \frac{3}{2} (z^2 + 1)^{2/3} + C && \text{Replace } u \text{ by } z^2 + 1. \end{aligned}$$

### The Integrals of $\sin^2 x$ and $\cos^2 x$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad \int \sin^2 x \, dx &= \int \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2} \, dx && \sin^2 x = \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int (1 - \cos 2x) \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} x - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin 2x}{2} + C = \frac{x}{2} - \frac{\sin 2x}{4} + C \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{(b)} \quad \int \cos^2 x \, dx = \int \frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2} \, dx = \frac{x}{2} + \frac{\sin 2x}{4} + C \quad \cos^2 x = \frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2} \quad \blacksquare$$

## 4) SUBSTITUTION AND AREA BETWEEN CURVES:

**THEOREM Substitution in Definite Integrals:** If  $g'$  is continuous on the interval  $[a, b]$  and  $f$  is continuous on the range of  $g(x) = u$ , then  $\int_a^b f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) \, dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) \, du$ .

**EXAMPLE:** Evaluate  $\int_{-1}^1 3x^2 \sqrt{x^3 + 1} \, dx$ .

**SOL:**

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-1}^1 3x^2 \sqrt{x^3 + 1} \, dx & \quad \text{Let } u = x^3 + 1, \, du = 3x^2 \, dx. \\ & \quad \text{When } x = -1, \, u = (-1)^3 + 1 = 0. \\ & \quad \text{When } x = 1, \, u = (1)^3 + 1 = 2. \\ &= \int_0^2 \sqrt{u} \, du \\ &= \left. \frac{2}{3} u^{3/2} \right|_0^2 && \text{Evaluate the new definite integral.} \\ &= \frac{2}{3} [2^{3/2} - 0^{3/2}] = \frac{2}{3} [2\sqrt{2}] = \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE:** Find  $\int_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} \cot \theta \csc^2 \theta \, d\theta$

**SOL:** Let  $u = \cot \theta$ ,  $du = -\csc^2 \theta \, d\theta$ ,  
 $-du = \csc^2 \theta \, d\theta$ .  
 When  $\theta = \pi/4$ ,  $u = \cot(\pi/4) = 1$ .  
 When  $\theta = \pi/2$ ,  $u = \cot(\pi/2) = 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} \cot \theta \csc^2 \theta \, d\theta &= \int_1^0 u \cdot (-du) \\ &= -\int_1^0 u \, du = -\left[ \frac{(0)^2}{2} - \frac{(1)^2}{2} \right] = \frac{1}{2} \\ &= -\left[ \frac{u^2}{2} \right]_1^0 \end{aligned}$$



### THEOREM:

Let  $f$  be continuous on the symmetric interval  $[-a, a]$ .

(a) If  $f$  is even, then  $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx$ .

(b) If  $f$  is odd, then  $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0$ .

EXAMPLE: Evaluate  $\int_{-2}^2 (x^4 - 4x^2 + 6) dx$ .

SOL: Since  $f(x) = x^4 - 4x^2 + 6$  satisfies  $f(-x) = f(x)$ , it is even on the symmetric interval  $[-2, 2]$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-2}^2 (x^4 - 4x^2 + 6) dx &= 2 \int_0^2 (x^4 - 4x^2 + 6) dx \\ &= 2 \left[ \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{4}{3}x^3 + 6x \right]_0^2 \\ &= 2 \left( \frac{32}{5} - \frac{32}{3} + 12 \right) = \frac{232}{15}. \end{aligned}$$

### AREAS BETWEEN CURVES:

DEFINITION: If  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous with  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  throughout  $[a, b]$ , then the area of the region between the curves  $y = f(x)$  and  $y = g(x)$  from  $a$  to  $b$  is the integral of  $(f - g)$  from  $a$  to  $b$ :

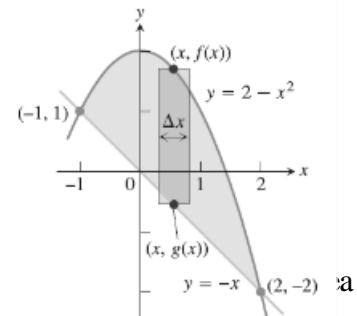
$$A = \int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)] dx.$$

### EXAMPLE:

Find the area of the region enclosed by the parabola  $y = 2 - x^2$  and the line  $y = -x$ .

Solution: First we sketch the two curves. The limits of integration are found from the intersection points  $y = 2 - x^2$  and  $y = -x$ .

$2 - x^2 = -x$	Equate $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ .
$x^2 - x - 2 = 0$	Rewrite.
$(x + 1)(x - 2) = 0$	Factor.
$x = -1, \quad x = 2.$	Solve.



The region runs from  $x = -1$  to  $x = 2$ . The limits of integration are

between the curves is  $A = \int_a^b [f(x) - g(x)] dx = \int_{-1}^2 [(2 - x^2) - (-x)] dx$

$$= \int_{-1}^2 (2 + x - x^2) dx = \left[ 2x + \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{-1}^2$$

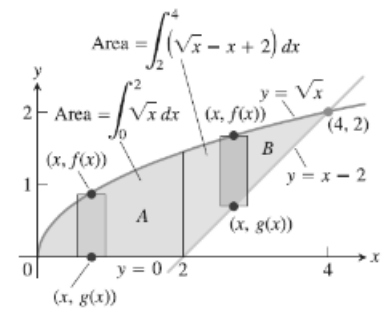
$$= \left( 4 + \frac{4}{2} - \frac{8}{3} \right) - \left( -2 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \right) = \frac{9}{2}$$

**EXAMPLE:**

Find the area of the region in the first quadrant that is bounded above by  $y = \sqrt{x}$  and below by the  $x$ -axis and the line  $y = x - 2$ .

**Solution:**

The sketch figure shows that the region's upper boundary is the graph of  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ . The lower boundary changes from  $g(x) = 0$  for  $0 \leq x \leq 2$  to  $g(x) = x - 2$  for  $2 \leq x \leq 4$ . We subdivide the region at  $x = 2$  into subregions  $A$  and  $B$ , shown in the figure.



The limits of integration for region  $A$  are  $a = 0$  and  $b = 2$ . The left-hand limit for region  $B$  is  $a = 2$ . To find the right-hand limit, we solve the equations  $y = \sqrt{x}$  and  $y = x - 2$  simultaneously for  $x$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{x} &= x - 2 \\ x &= (x - 2)^2 = x^2 - 4x + 4 \\ x^2 - 5x + 4 &= 0 \\ (x - 1)(x - 4) &= 0 \\ x &= 1, \quad x = 4.\end{aligned}$$

Only the value  $x = 4$  satisfies the equation  $\sqrt{x} = x - 2$ . Therefore the right-hand limit is  $b = 4$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\text{For } 0 \leq x \leq 2: & \quad f(x) - g(x) = \sqrt{x} - 0 = \sqrt{x} \\ \text{For } 2 \leq x \leq 4: & \quad f(x) - g(x) = \sqrt{x} - (x - 2) = \sqrt{x} - x + 2\end{aligned}$$

We add the areas of subregions  $A$  and  $B$  to find the total area:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Total area} &= \underbrace{\int_0^2 \sqrt{x} \, dx}_{\text{area of } A} + \underbrace{\int_2^4 (\sqrt{x} - x + 2) \, dx}_{\text{area of } B} \\ &= \left[ \frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} \right]_0^2 + \left[ \frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} - \frac{x^2}{2} + 2x \right]_2^4 \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (2)^{3/2} - 0 + \left( \frac{2}{3} (4)^{3/2} - 8 + 8 \right) - \left( \frac{2}{3} (2)^{3/2} - 2 + 4 \right) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} (8) - 2 = \frac{10}{3}.\end{aligned}$$

## 5) Natural Logarithms

**DEFINITION:** The natural logarithm is the function given by

$$\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt, \quad x > 0.$$

**DEFINITION:** The number  $e$  is that number in the domain of the natural logarithm satisfying  $\ln(e) = 1$ .

The Derivative of  $y = \ln x$

By the first part of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \ln x &= \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt = \frac{1}{x}. \\ \frac{d}{dx} \ln x &= \frac{1}{x}, \end{aligned}$$

For every positive value of  $x$ , we have  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$  and the Chain Rule extends this formula for positive functions  $u(x)$ :  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln u = \frac{d}{du} \ln u \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \rightarrow \frac{d}{dx} \ln u = \frac{1}{u} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad u > 0.$

### EXAMPLE:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad \frac{d}{dx} \ln 2x &= \frac{1}{2x} \frac{d}{dx} (2x) = \frac{1}{2x} (2) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad x > 0 \\ \text{(b)} \quad \frac{d}{dx} \ln (x^2 + 3) &= \frac{1}{x^2 + 3} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} (x^2 + 3) = \frac{1}{x^2 + 3} \cdot 2x = \frac{2x}{x^2 + 3}. \end{aligned}$$

**Now if  $x < 0$  then  $-x > 0$  and hence**

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln(-x) = \frac{1}{-x} \quad \text{for } x < 0.$$

$$\text{Since } |x| = \begin{cases} x & x > 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \\ -x & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

We have the following important result, which says that  $\ln |x|$  is an antiderivative of  $1/x$ ,  $x \neq 0$ .

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln |x| = \frac{1}{x}, \quad x \neq 0$$

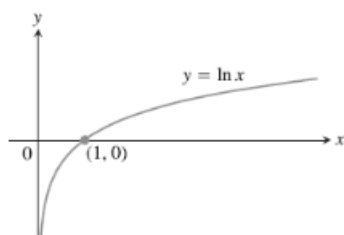
**THEOREM -Algebraic Properties of the Natural Logarithm:** For any numbers  $b > 0$  and  $x > 0$ , the natural logarithm satisfies the following rules:

1. *Product Rule:*  $\ln bx = \ln b + \ln x$
2. *Quotient Rule:*  $\ln \frac{b}{x} = \ln b - \ln x$
3. *Reciprocal Rule:*  $\ln \frac{1}{x} = -\ln x$
4. *Power Rule:*  $\ln x^r = r \ln x$

**EXAMPLE:**

- (a)  $\ln 4 + \ln \sin x = \ln (4 \sin x)$
- (b)  $\ln \frac{x+1}{2x-3} = \ln(x+1) - \ln(2x-3)$
- (c)  $\ln \frac{1}{8} = -\ln 8$   
 $= -\ln 2^3 = -3 \ln 2$

**Graph  $\ln x$**



**DEFINITION:** If  $u$  is a differentiable function that is never zero,  $\int \frac{1}{u} du = \ln |u| + C$ .

In general  $\int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx = \ln |f(x)| + C$

**EXAMPLE**  $\int_0^2 \frac{2x}{x^2-5} dx = \int_{-5}^{-1} \frac{du}{u} = \ln |u| \Big|_{-5}^{-1}$   $u = x^2 - 5, \quad du = 2x dx,$   
 $u(0) = -5, \quad u(2) = -1$

$$= \ln |-1| - \ln |-5| = \ln 1 - \ln 5 = -\ln 5$$

**The Integrals of  $\tan x$ ,  $\cot x$ ,  $\sec x$ , and  $\csc x$**

1-  $\int \tan x dx = \int \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} dx = \int \frac{-du}{u}$   $u = \cos x > 0$  on  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2),$   
 $du = -\sin x dx$

$$= -\ln |u| + C = -\ln |\cos x| + C$$

$$= \ln \frac{1}{|\cos x|} + C = \ln |\sec x| + C. \quad \text{Reciprocal Rule}$$

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

$$= \ln |u| + C = \ln |\sin x| + C = -\ln |\csc x| + C.$$

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

$$= \int \frac{du}{u} = \ln |u| + C = \ln |\sec x + \tan x| + C$$
 $u = \sec x + \tan x$   
 $du = (\sec x \tan x + \sec^2 x) dx$

$$4- \int \csc x \, dx = \int \csc x \frac{(\csc x + \cot x)}{(\csc x + \cot x)} dx = \int \frac{\csc^2 x + \csc x \cot x}{\csc x + \cot x} dx$$

$$= \int \frac{-du}{u} = -\ln |u| + C = -\ln |\csc x + \cot x| + C \quad \begin{array}{l} u = \csc x + \cot x \\ du = (-\csc x \cot x - \csc^2 x) dx \end{array}$$

Integrals of the tangent, cotangent, secant, and cosecant functions

$$\int \tan u \, du = \ln |\sec u| + C \quad \int \sec u \, du = \ln |\sec u + \tan u| + C$$

$$\int \cot u \, du = \ln |\sin u| + C \quad \int \csc u \, du = -\ln |\csc u + \cot u| + C$$

**EXAMEL:**  $\int_0^{\pi/6} \tan 2x \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/3} \tan u \cdot \frac{du}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/3} \tan u \, du$  Substitute  $u = 2x$ ,  
 $dx = du/2$ ,  
 $u(0) = 0$ ,  
 $u(\pi/6) = \pi/3$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \ln |\sec u| \Big|_0^{\pi/3} = \frac{1}{2} (\ln 2 - \ln 1) = \frac{1}{2} \ln 2$$

### Logarithmic Differentiation:

**EXAMPLE 1:** Find  $dy/dx$  if  $y = \frac{(x^2 + 1)(x + 3)^{1/2}}{x - 1}, \quad x > 1.$

**Solution:** We take the natural logarithm of both sides and simplify the result with the properties of logarithms:

$$\ln y = \ln \frac{(x^2 + 1)(x + 3)^{1/2}}{x - 1}$$

$$= \ln ((x^2 + 1)(x + 3)^{1/2}) - \ln (x - 1)$$

$$= \ln (x^2 + 1) + \ln (x + 3)^{1/2} - \ln (x - 1)$$

$$= \ln (x^2 + 1) + \frac{1}{2} \ln (x + 3) - \ln (x - 1).$$

$$\frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} \cdot 2x + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{x + 3} - \frac{1}{x - 1}.$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y \left( \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{1}{2x + 6} - \frac{1}{x - 1} \right).$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{(x^2 + 1)(x + 3)^{1/2}}{x - 1} \left( \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{1}{2x + 6} - \frac{1}{x - 1} \right).$$

## 6) The Exponential Functions

**DEFINITION:** For every real number  $x$ , we define the **natural** exponential function to be

$$e^x = \exp x$$

Inverse Equations for  $e^x$  and  $\ln x$

$$e^{\ln x} = x \quad (\text{all } x > 0)$$

$$\ln (e^x) = x \quad (\text{all } x)$$

**EXAMPLE 1:** Solve the equation  $e^{2x-6} = 4$  for  $x$ .

**Solution:** We take the natural logarithm of both sides of the equation and use the second inverse equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\ln(e^{2x-6}) &= \ln 4 \\ 2x - 6 &= \ln 4 \\ 2x &= 6 + \ln 4 \\ x &= 3 + \frac{1}{2} \ln 4 = 3 + \ln 4^{1/2} \\ x &= 3 + \ln 2\end{aligned}$$

### The Derivative and Integral of $e^x$

$$\begin{aligned}\ln(e^x) &= x \\ \frac{d}{dx} \ln(e^x) &= 1 \\ \frac{1}{e^x} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(e^x) &= 1\end{aligned}$$

If  $u$  is a function of  $x$ , then

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^u = e^u \frac{du}{dx}.$$

**EXAMPLE 2:** We find derivatives of the exponential

$$\begin{aligned}\text{(a)} \quad \frac{d}{dx}(5e^x) &= 5 \frac{d}{dx} e^x = 5e^x \\ \text{(b)} \quad \frac{d}{dx} e^{-x} &= e^{-x} \frac{d}{dx}(-x) = e^{-x}(-1) = -e^{-x} && \text{Eq. (2) with } u = -x \\ \text{(c)} \quad \frac{d}{dx} e^{\sin x} &= e^{\sin x} \frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = e^{\sin x} \cdot \cos x && \text{Eq. (2) with } u = \sin x \\ \text{(d)} \quad \frac{d}{dx}(e^{\sqrt{3x+1}}) &= e^{\sqrt{3x+1}} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(\sqrt{3x+1}) && \text{Eq. (2) with } u = \sqrt{3x+1} \\ &= e^{\sqrt{3x+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{2}(3x+1)^{-1/2} \cdot 3 = \frac{3}{2\sqrt{3x+1}} e^{\sqrt{3x+1}}\end{aligned}$$

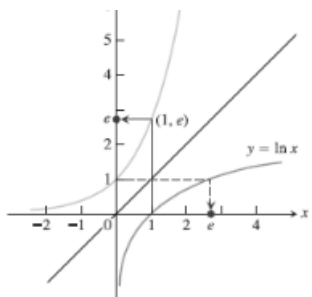
### The general antiderivative of the exponential function

$$\int e^u du = e^u + C$$

**EXAMPLE 3:**

$$\begin{aligned}\text{(a)} \quad \int_0^{\ln 2} e^{3x} dx &= \int_0^{\ln 2} e^u \cdot \frac{1}{3} du && u = 3x, \quad \frac{1}{3} du = dx, \quad u(0) = 0, \\ & && u(\ln 2) = 3 \ln 2 = \ln 2^3 = \ln 8 \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \int_0^{\ln 8} e^u du \\ &= \frac{1}{3} e^u \Big|_0^{\ln 8} \\ &= \frac{1}{3} (8 - 1) = \frac{7}{3} \\ \text{(b)} \quad \int_0^{\pi/2} e^{\sin x} \cos x dx &= e^{\sin x} \Big|_0^{\pi/2} && \text{Antiderivative from Example 2c} \\ &= e^1 - e^0 = e - 1\end{aligned}$$

## Graph $e^x$



## Laws of Exponents:

1.  $e^{x_1} \cdot e^{x_2} = e^{x_1+x_2}$
2.  $e^{-x} = \frac{1}{e^x}$
3.  $\frac{e^{x_1}}{e^{x_2}} = e^{x_1-x_2}$
4.  $(e^{x_1})^r = e^{rx_1}$ , if  $r$  is rational

**Proof of Law 1** Let  $y_1 = e^{x_1}$  and  $y_2 = e^{x_2}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 = \ln y_1 \quad \text{and} \quad x_2 = \ln y_2 & \quad \text{Inverse equations} \\
 x_1 + x_2 = \ln y_1 + \ln y_2 & \\
 = \ln y_1 y_2 & \quad \text{Product Rule for logarithms} \\
 e^{x_1+x_2} = e^{\ln y_1 y_2} & \quad \text{Exponentiate.} \\
 = y_1 y_2 & \quad e^{\ln u} = u \\
 = e^{x_1} e^{x_2}. & \quad \blacksquare
 \end{aligned}$$

**Proof of Law 4** Let  $y = (e^{x_1})^r$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \ln y &= \ln (e^{x_1})^r \\
 &= r \ln (e^{x_1}) & \text{Power Rule for logarithms, rational } r \\
 &= rx_1 & \ln e^u = u \text{ with } u = x_1
 \end{aligned}$$

## The General Exponential Function $a^x$

Since  $a = e^{\ln a}$  then  $a^x = (e^{\ln a})^x = e^{x \ln a}$

**DEFINITION:** For any numbers  $a > 0$  and  $x$ , the exponential function with base  $a$  is  $a^x = e^{x \ln a}$

## Power Rule (General Version)

**DEFINITION:** For any  $x > 0$  and for any real number  $n$ ,  $x^n = e^{n \ln x}$ .

### **General Power Rule for Derivatives**

For all  $x$  and any real number  $n$ ,  $\frac{d}{dx} x^n = nx^{n-1}$ .

*Proof:* for  $x > 0$

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{d}{dx}x^n &= \frac{d}{dx}e^{n \ln x} && \text{Definition of } x^n, x > 0 \\
&= e^{n \ln x} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(n \ln x) && \text{Chain Rule for } e^u, \text{ Eq. (2)} \\
&= x^n \cdot \frac{n}{x} && \text{Definition and derivative of } \ln x \\
&= nx^{n-1}, && x^n \cdot x^{-1} = x^{n-1}
\end{aligned}$$

for  $x < 0$

if  $y = x^n, y'$ , and  $x^{n-1}$  all exist, then

$$\ln|y| = \ln|x|^n = n \ln|x|.$$

$$\frac{y'}{y} = \frac{n}{x}.$$

$$y' = n \frac{y}{x} = n \frac{x^n}{x} = nx^{n-1}.$$

It can be shown directly from the definition of the derivative that the derivative equals 0 when  $x = 0$ .

**EXAMPLE 4:** Differentiate  $f(x) = x^x, x > 0$ .

**Solution:**  $f(x) = x^x = e^{x \ln x}, \quad f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}(e^{x \ln x})$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= e^{x \ln x} \frac{d}{dx}(x \ln x) \\
&= e^{x \ln x} \left( \ln x + x \cdot \frac{1}{x} \right) \\
&= x^x (\ln x + 1).
\end{aligned}$$

### The Number e Expressed as a Limit

**Theorem:** The number e can be calculated as the limit  $e = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + x)^{1/x}$ .

**Proof** If  $f(x) = \ln x$ , then  $f'(x) = 1/x$ , so  $f'(1) = 1$ . But, by the definition of derivative,

$$\begin{aligned}
f'(1) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h) - f(1)}{h} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+x) - f(1)}{x} \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(1+x) - \ln 1}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \ln(1+x) \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ln(1+x)^{1/x} = \ln \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} \right]
\end{aligned}$$

Because  $f'(1) = 1$ , we have

$$\ln \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} \right] = 1$$

Therefore, exponentiating both sides we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e.$$



## The Derivative of $a^x$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx} a^x &= \frac{d}{dx} e^{x \ln a} = e^{x \ln a} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} (x \ln a) \\ &= a^x \ln a.\end{aligned}$$

If  $a = e$  then  $\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x \ln e = e^x$ .

In general  $\frac{d}{dx} a^u = a^u \ln a \frac{du}{dx}$ , where  $u = f(x)$

## The integral of $a^u$

$$\int a^u du = \frac{a^u}{\ln a} + C.$$

**EXAMPLE 5:**

- (a)  $\frac{d}{dx} 3^x = 3^x \ln 3$
- (b)  $\frac{d}{dx} 3^{-x} = 3^{-x}(\ln 3) \frac{d}{dx}(-x) = -3^{-x} \ln 3$
- (c)  $\frac{d}{dx} 3^{\sin x} = 3^{\sin x}(\ln 3) \frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = 3^{\sin x}(\ln 3) \cos x$
- (d)  $\int 2^x dx = \frac{2^x}{\ln 2} + C$
- (e)  $\int 2^{\sin x} \cos x dx = \int 2^u du = \frac{2^u}{\ln 2} + C$   
 $= \frac{2^{\sin x}}{\ln 2} + C$

## Logarithms with Base a

For any positive number  $a \neq 1$ ,  $\log_a x$  is the inverse function of  $a^x$ .

$$\begin{aligned}a^{\log_a x} &= x \quad (x > 0) \\ \log_a(a^x) &= x \quad (\text{all } x)\end{aligned}$$

**Property:**  $\log_a x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln a}$ .

Proof:  $y = \log_a x$  then  $a^y = x$  hence  $y \ln a = \ln x$ . therefore  $\log_a x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln a}$ .

- Rules:**
1. *Product Rule:*  
 $\log_a xy = \log_a x + \log_a y$
  2. *Quotient Rule:*  
 $\log_a \frac{x}{y} = \log_a x - \log_a y$
  3. *Reciprocal Rule:*  
 $\log_a \frac{1}{y} = -\log_a y$
  4. *Power Rule:*  
 $\log_a x^y = y \log_a x$

## Derivative and Integral

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\log_a u) = \frac{1}{\ln a} \cdot \frac{1}{u} \frac{du}{dx}$$

### Example:

$$(a) \frac{d}{dx} \log_{10}(3x + 1) = \frac{1}{\ln 10} \cdot \frac{1}{3x + 1} \frac{d}{dx}(3x + 1) = \frac{3}{(\ln 10)(3x + 1)}$$

$$(b) \int \frac{\log_2 x}{x} dx = \frac{1}{\ln 2} \int \frac{\ln x}{x} dx \quad \log_2 x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln 2}$$

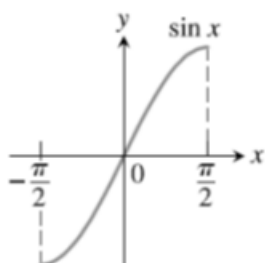
$$= \frac{1}{\ln 2} \int u du \quad u = \ln x, \quad du = \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\ln 2} \frac{u^2}{2} + C = \frac{1}{\ln 2} \frac{(\ln x)^2}{2} + C = \frac{(\ln x)^2}{2 \ln 2} + C$$

## 7) Inverse Trigonometric Functions

The six basic trigonometric functions are not one-to-one (their values repeat periodically).

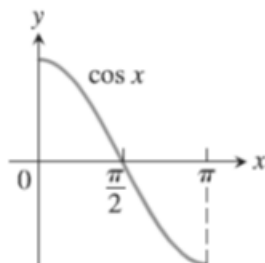
However, we can restrict their domains to intervals on which they are one-to-one.



$$y = \sin x$$

$$\text{Domain: } [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$$

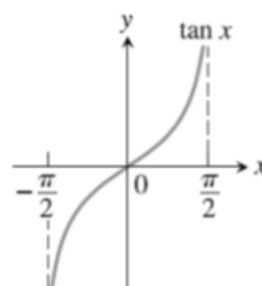
$$\text{Range: } [-1, 1]$$



$$y = \cos x$$

$$\text{Domain: } [0, \pi]$$

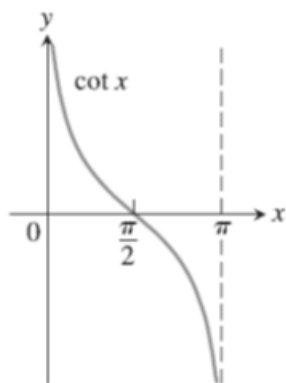
$$\text{Range: } [-1, 1]$$



$$y = \tan x$$

$$\text{Domain: } (-\pi/2, \pi/2)$$

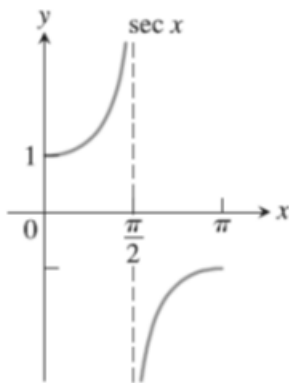
$$\text{Range: } (-\infty, \infty)$$



$$y = \cot x$$

$$\text{Domain: } (0, \pi)$$

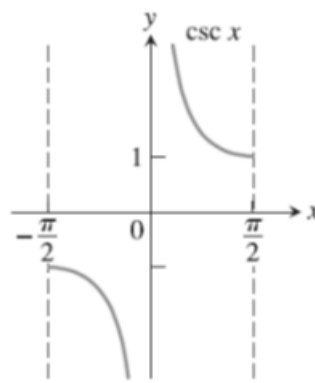
$$\text{Range: } (-\infty, \infty)$$



$$y = \sec x$$

$$\text{Domain: } [0, \pi/2) \cup (\pi/2, \pi]$$

$$\text{Range: } (-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$$



$$y = \csc x$$

$$\text{Domain: } [-\pi/2, 0) \cup (0, \pi/2]$$

$$\text{Range: } (-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$$

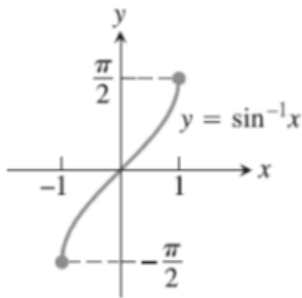
Since these restricted functions are now one-to-one, they have inverses, which we denote by

$$\begin{aligned}
 y &= \sin^{-1} x & \text{or} & & y &= \arcsin x \\
 y &= \cos^{-1} x & \text{or} & & y &= \arccos x \\
 y &= \tan^{-1} x & \text{or} & & y &= \arctan x \\
 y &= \cot^{-1} x & \text{or} & & y &= \operatorname{arccot} x \\
 y &= \sec^{-1} x & \text{or} & & y &= \operatorname{arcsec} x \\
 y &= \csc^{-1} x & \text{or} & & y &= \operatorname{arccsc} x
 \end{aligned}$$

**Caution** The -1 in the expressions for the inverse means "inverse." It does not mean reciprocal.

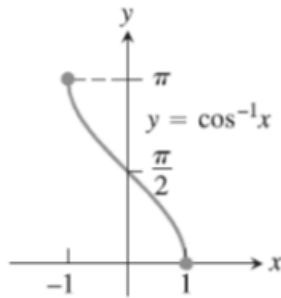
For example, the *reciprocal* of  $\sin x$  is  $(\sin x)^{-1} = 1/\sin x = \csc x$ .

Domain:  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$   
 Range:  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq y \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$



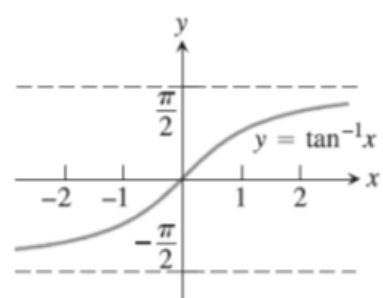
(a)

Domain:  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$   
 Range:  $0 \leq y \leq \pi$



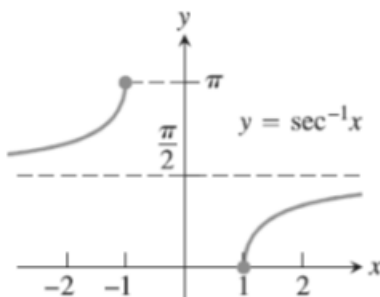
(b)

Domain:  $-\infty < x < \infty$   
 Range:  $-\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2}$



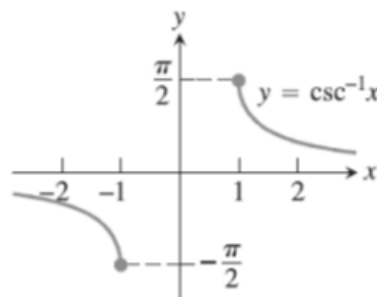
(c)

Domain:  $x \leq -1$  or  $x \geq 1$   
 Range:  $0 \leq y \leq \pi, y \neq \frac{\pi}{2}$



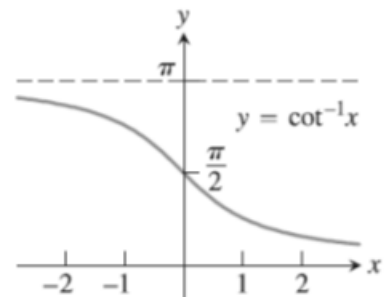
(d)

Domain:  $x \leq -1$  or  $x \geq 1$   
 Range:  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq y \leq \frac{\pi}{2}, y \neq 0$



(e)

Domain:  $-\infty < x < \infty$   
 Range:  $0 < y < \pi$



(f)

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate (a)  $\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$  and (b)  $\cos^{-1}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)$ .

**Solution**

(a) We see that

$$\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{3}$$

because  $\sin(\pi/3) = \sqrt{3}/2$  and  $\pi/3$  belongs to the range  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$  of the arcsine function. See Figure 7.18a.

(b) We have

$$\cos^{-1}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

It is easy to show

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

### The Derivative of $y = \sin^{-1} x$

$$y = \sin^{-1} x \rightarrow \sin(y) = x \rightarrow \cos y \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = 1 \rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos y} =$$

$$\frac{1}{\pm\sqrt{1-\sin^2 y}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\sin^2 y}} \quad \text{since } -\pi/2 < y < \pi/2$$

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

$$\text{Then } \frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1} u) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad |u| < 1.$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Using the Chain Rule, we calculate the derivative

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1} x^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(x^2)^2}} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^2) = \frac{2x}{\sqrt{1-x^4}}$$

### The Derivative of $y = \tan^{-1} x$

$$y = \tan^{-1} x \rightarrow \tan(y) = x \rightarrow \sec^2 y \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = 1 \rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec^2 y}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2 y} = \frac{1}{1 + x^2}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1} u) = \frac{1}{1+u^2} \frac{du}{dx}$$

### The Derivative of $y = \sec^{-1} x$

$$y = \sec^{-1} x$$

$$\sec y = x \quad \text{Inverse function relationship}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sec y) = \frac{d}{dx} x \quad \text{Differentiate both sides.}$$

$$\sec y \tan y \frac{dy}{dx} = 1 \quad \text{Chain Rule}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec y \tan y} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Since } |x| > 1, y \text{ lies in} \\ (0, \pi/2) \cup (\pi/2, \pi) \text{ and} \\ \sec y \tan y \neq 0 \end{array}$$

$$\sec y = x \quad \text{and} \quad \tan y = \pm \sqrt{\sec^2 y - 1} = \pm \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$$

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

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sec^{-1} x = \begin{cases} +\frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} & \text{if } x > 1 \\ -\frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} & \text{if } x < -1. \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sec^{-1} x = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}, \quad |x| > 1$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\sec^{-1} u) = \frac{1}{|u|\sqrt{u^2 - 1}} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad |u| > 1.$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Using the Chain Rule and derivative of the arcsecant function, we find

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \sec^{-1} (5x^4) &= \frac{1}{|5x^4|\sqrt{(5x^4)^2 - 1}} \frac{d}{dx} (5x^4) \\ &= \frac{1}{5x^4\sqrt{25x^8 - 1}} (20x^3) \quad 5x^4 > 1 > 0 \\ &= \frac{4}{x\sqrt{25x^8 - 1}}. \end{aligned}$$

#### Inverse Function–Inverse Cofunction Identities

$$\cos^{-1} x = \pi/2 - \sin^{-1} x$$

$$\cot^{-1} x = \pi/2 - \tan^{-1} x$$

$$\csc^{-1} x = \pi/2 - \sec^{-1} x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\cos^{-1} x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{\pi}{2} - \sin^{-1} x \right) = -\frac{d}{dx} (\sin^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

Then

$$\frac{d(\cot^{-1} u)}{dx} = -\frac{1}{1+u^2} \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d(\sec^{-1} u)}{dx} = \frac{1}{|u|\sqrt{u^2-1}} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad |u| > 1$$

$$\frac{d(\csc^{-1} u)}{dx} = -\frac{1}{|u|\sqrt{u^2-1}} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad |u| > 1$$

## Integration Formulas

1.  $\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{u}{a} \right) + C$  (Valid for  $u^2 < a^2$ )
2.  $\int \frac{du}{a^2 + u^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{u}{a} \right) + C$  (Valid for all  $u$ )
3.  $\int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}} = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1} \left| \frac{u}{a} \right| + C$  (Valid for  $|u| > a > 0$ )

### EXAMPLE 6

$$(a) \int_{\sqrt{2}/2}^{\sqrt{3}/2} \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \sin^{-1} x \Big|_{\sqrt{2}/2}^{\sqrt{3}/2} = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \right) - \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \right) = \frac{\pi}{3} - \frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{\pi}{12}$$

$$(b) \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{3-4x^2}} = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}} \\ = \frac{1}{2} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{u}{a} \right) + C \\ = \frac{1}{2} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{2x}{\sqrt{3}} \right) + C$$

$$(c) \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{e^{2x} - 6}} = \int \frac{du/u}{\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}} \\ = \int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{u^2 - a^2}} \\ = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1} \left| \frac{u}{a} \right| + C \\ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \sec^{-1} \left( \frac{e^x}{\sqrt{6}} \right) + C$$

### EXAMPLE 7 Evaluate

$$(a) \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4x - x^2}} \qquad (b) \int \frac{dx}{4x^2 + 4x + 2}$$

### Solution

(a) we first rewrite  $4x - x^2$  by completing the square:

$$4x - x^2 = -(x^2 - 4x) = -(x^2 - 4x + 4) + 4 = 4 - (x - 2)^2.$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4x - x^2}} = \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4 - (x - 2)^2}} \\ = \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2 - u^2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{u}{a}\right) + C \\ &= \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x-2}{2}\right) + C \end{aligned}$$

(b) We complete the square on the binomial  $4x^2 + 4x$ :

$$4x^2 + 4x + 2 = 4(x^2 + x) + 2 = 4\left(x^2 + x + \frac{1}{4}\right) + 2 - \frac{4}{4}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{dx}{4x^2 + 4x + 2} &= \int \frac{dx}{(2x+1)^2 + 1} = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{du}{u^2 + a^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{u}{a}\right) + C \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1}(2x+1) + C \end{aligned}$$



## 8) Hyperbolic Functions

The hyperbolic sine and hyperbolic cosine functions are defined by:

<b>Hyperbolic sine:</b>	<b>Hyperbolic cosine:</b>	<b>Hyperbolic tangent:</b>
$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}$	$\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$	$\tanh x = \frac{\sinh x}{\cosh x} = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$
<b>Hyperbolic cotangent:</b>	<b>Hyperbolic secant:</b>	<b>Hyperbolic cosecant:</b>
$\coth x = \frac{\cosh x}{\sinh x} = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{e^x - e^{-x}}$	$\operatorname{sech} x = \frac{1}{\cosh x} = \frac{2}{e^x + e^{-x}}$	$\operatorname{csch} x = \frac{1}{\sinh x} = \frac{2}{e^x - e^{-x}}$

### Derivatives and Integrals of Hyperbolic Functions

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\sinh u) = \cosh u \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\cosh u) = \sinh u \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tanh u) = \operatorname{sech}^2 u \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\coth u) = -\operatorname{csch}^2 u \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{sech} u) = -\operatorname{sech} u \tanh u \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{csch} u) = -\operatorname{csch} u \coth u \frac{du}{dx}$$

proof :

$$\begin{aligned} 1- \frac{d}{dx}(\sinh u) &= \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{e^u - e^{-u}}{2} \right) \\ &= \frac{e^u du/dx + e^{-u} du/dx}{2} \\ &= \cosh u \frac{du}{dx} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2- \frac{d}{dx}(\operatorname{csch} u) &= \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{\sinh u} \right) \\ &= -\frac{\cosh u du}{\sinh^2 u dx} \\ &= -\frac{1}{\sinh u} \frac{\cosh u du}{\sinh u dx} \\ &= -\operatorname{csch} u \coth u \frac{du}{dx} \end{aligned}$$

## Integrals

$$\int \sinh u \, du = \cosh u + C$$

$$\int \cosh u \, du = \sinh u + C$$

$$\int \operatorname{sech}^2 u \, du = \tanh u + C$$

$$\int \operatorname{csch}^2 u \, du = -\operatorname{coth} u + C$$

$$\int \operatorname{sech} u \tanh u \, du = -\operatorname{sech} u + C$$

$$\int \operatorname{csch} u \operatorname{coth} u \, du = -\operatorname{csch} u + C$$

### Example 1

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad \frac{d}{dt}(\tanh \sqrt{1+t^2}) &= \operatorname{sech}^2 \sqrt{1+t^2} \cdot \frac{d}{dt}(\sqrt{1+t^2}) \\ &= \frac{t}{\sqrt{1+t^2}} \operatorname{sech}^2 \sqrt{1+t^2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(b)} \quad \int \operatorname{coth} 5x \, dx &= \int \frac{\cosh 5x}{\sinh 5x} \, dx = \frac{1}{5} \int \frac{du}{u} \\ &= \frac{1}{5} \ln |u| + C = \frac{1}{5} \ln |\sinh 5x| + C \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \sinh 5x, \\ du &= 5 \cosh 5x \, dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(c)} \quad \int_0^1 \sinh^2 x \, dx &= \int_0^1 \frac{\cosh 2x - 1}{2} \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 (\cosh 2x - 1) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{\sinh 2x}{2} - x \right]_0^1 \\ &= \frac{\sinh 2}{4} - \frac{1}{2} \approx 0.40672 \end{aligned}$$

Table 7.6

Evaluate with a calculator.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(d)} \quad \int_0^{\ln 2} 4e^x \sinh x \, dx &= \int_0^{\ln 2} 4e^x \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \, dx = \int_0^{\ln 2} (2e^{2x} - 2) \, dx \\ &= [e^{2x} - 2x]_0^{\ln 2} = (e^{2 \ln 2} - 2 \ln 2) - (1 - 0) \\ &= 4 - 2 \ln 2 - 1 \approx 1.6137 \end{aligned}$$

■

## Inverse Hyperbolic Functions

Derivatives

$$\frac{d(\sinh^{-1} u)}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+u^2}} \frac{du}{dx}$$

$$\frac{d(\cosh^{-1} u)}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{u^2-1}} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad u > 1$$

$$\frac{d(\tanh^{-1} u)}{dx} = \frac{1}{1-u^2} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad |u| < 1$$

$$\frac{d(\coth^{-1} u)}{dx} = \frac{1}{1-u^2} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad |u| > 1$$

$$\frac{d(\operatorname{sech}^{-1} u)}{dx} = -\frac{1}{u\sqrt{1-u^2}} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad 0 < u < 1$$

$$\frac{d(\operatorname{csch}^{-1} u)}{dx} = -\frac{1}{|u|\sqrt{1+u^2}} \frac{du}{dx}, \quad u \neq 0$$

Integrals

1.  $\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2+u^2}} = \sinh^{-1} \left( \frac{u}{a} \right) + C, \quad a > 0$
2.  $\int \frac{du}{\sqrt{u^2-a^2}} = \cosh^{-1} \left( \frac{u}{a} \right) + C, \quad u > a > 0$
3.  $\int \frac{du}{a^2-u^2} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{a} \tanh^{-1} \left( \frac{u}{a} \right) + C, & u^2 < a^2 \\ \frac{1}{a} \coth^{-1} \left( \frac{u}{a} \right) + C, & u^2 > a^2 \end{cases}$
4.  $\int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{a^2-u^2}} = -\frac{1}{a} \operatorname{sech}^{-1} \left( \frac{u}{a} \right) + C, \quad 0 < u < a$
5.  $\int \frac{du}{u\sqrt{a^2+u^2}} = -\frac{1}{a} \operatorname{csch}^{-1} \left| \frac{u}{a} \right| + C, \quad u \neq 0 \text{ and } a > 0$

**EXAMPLE 2:** find the derivative of y

a)  $y = \cosh^{-1} 2\sqrt{x+1}$       b)  $y = \operatorname{csch}^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^\theta$       c)  $y = \sinh^{-1} (\tan x)$

sol:

a)  $y = \cosh^{-1} 2\sqrt{x+1} = \cosh^{-1} (2(x+1)^{1/2}) \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{(2)(\frac{1}{2})(x+1)^{-1/2}}{\sqrt{[2(x+1)^{1/2}]^2-1}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+1}\sqrt{4x+3}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4x^2+7x+3}}$

b)  $y = \operatorname{csch}^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^\theta \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{d\theta} = -\frac{\left[ \ln \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) \right] \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^\theta}{\left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^\theta \sqrt{1+\left[ \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^\theta \right]^2}} = -\frac{\ln(1)-\ln(2)}{\sqrt{1+\left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{2\theta}}} = \frac{\ln 2}{\sqrt{1+\left( \frac{1}{2} \right)^{2\theta}}}$

$$c) \quad y = \sinh^{-1}(\tan x) \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{\sec^2 x}{\sqrt{1 + (\tan x)^2}} = \frac{\sec^2 x}{\sqrt{\sec^2 x}} = \frac{\sec^2 x}{|\sec x|} = \frac{|\sec x| |\sec x|}{|\sec x|} = |\sec x|$$

**EXAMPLE 3: Evaluate**  $\int_{1/5}^{3/13} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{1-16x^2}}$

a)  $\int_0^1 \frac{2 dx}{\sqrt{3+4x^2}}$

b)

c)  $\int_1^e \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{1+(\ln x)^2}}$

Sol:

a) 
$$\int \frac{2 dx}{\sqrt{3+4x^2}} = \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2+u^2}} \quad u = 2x, \quad du = 2 dx, \quad a = \sqrt{3}$$

$$= \sinh^{-1}\left(\frac{u}{a}\right) + C \quad \text{Formula from Table 7.11}$$

$$= \sinh^{-1}\left(\frac{2x}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + C.$$

Therefore,

$$\int_0^1 \frac{2 dx}{\sqrt{3+4x^2}} = \left. \sinh^{-1}\left(\frac{2x}{\sqrt{3}}\right) \right|_0^1 = \sinh^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\right) - \sinh^{-1}(0)$$

$$= \sinh^{-1}\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}\right) - 0 \approx 0.98665.$$

b) 
$$\int_{1/5}^{3/13} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{1-16x^2}} = \int_{4/5}^{12/13} \frac{du}{u\sqrt{a^2-u^2}}, \text{ where } u = 4x, \quad du = 4 dx, \quad a = 1$$

$$= \left[ -\operatorname{sech}^{-1} u \right]_{4/5}^{12/13} = -\operatorname{sech}^{-1} \frac{12}{13} + \operatorname{sech}^{-1} \frac{4}{5}$$

c) 
$$\int_1^e \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{1+(\ln x)^2}} = \int_0^1 \frac{du}{\sqrt{a^2+u^2}}, \text{ where } u = \ln x, \quad du = \frac{1}{x} dx, \quad a = 1$$

$$= \left[ \sinh^{-1} u \right]_0^1 = \sinh^{-1} 1 - \sinh^{-1} 0 = \sinh^{-1} 1$$

## 9). TECHNIQUES OF INTEGRATION

TABLE 8.1 Basic integration formulas

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1. $\int k dx = kx + C$ (any number $k$ )	12. $\int \tan x dx = \ln  \sec x  + C$
2. $\int x^n dx = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C$ ( $n \neq -1$ )	13. $\int \cot x dx = \ln  \sin x  + C$
3. $\int \frac{dx}{x} = \ln  x  + C$	14. $\int \sec x dx = \ln  \sec x + \tan x  + C$
4. $\int e^x dx = e^x + C$	15. $\int \csc x dx = -\ln  \csc x + \cot x  + C$
5. $\int a^x dx = \frac{a^x}{\ln a} + C$ ( $a > 0, a \neq 1$ )	16. $\int \sinh x dx = \cosh x + C$
6. $\int \sin x dx = -\cos x + C$	17. $\int \cosh x dx = \sinh x + C$
7. $\int \cos x dx = \sin x + C$	18. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right) + C$
8. $\int \sec^2 x dx = \tan x + C$	19. $\int \frac{dx}{a^2 + x^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right) + C$
9. $\int \csc^2 x dx = -\cot x + C$	20. $\int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1} \left  \frac{x}{a} \right  + C$
10. $\int \sec x \tan x dx = \sec x + C$	21. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} = \sinh^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right) + C$ ( $a > 0$ )
11. $\int \csc x \cot x dx = -\csc x + C$	22. $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} = \cosh^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right) + C$ ( $x > a > 0$ )

## 10) Integration by Parts

Integration by parts is a technique for simplifying integrals of the form  $\int f(x)g(x) dx$ .

### Integration by Parts Formula

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

**EXAMPLE 1** Find

$$\int x \cos x dx.$$

**Solution** We use the formula  $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$  with

$$\begin{array}{ll} u = x, & dv = \cos x dx, \\ du = dx, & v = \sin x. \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \\ \text{Simplest antiderivative of } \cos x \end{array}$$

Then

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

**EXAMPLE 2** Find

$$\int \ln x dx.$$

**Solution** Since  $\int \ln x dx$  can be written as  $\int \ln x \cdot 1 dx$ , we use the formula  $\int u dv = uv - \int v du$  with

$$\begin{array}{llll} u = \ln x & \text{Simplifies when differentiated} & dv = dx & \text{Easy to integrate} \\ du = \frac{1}{x} dx, & & v = x. & \text{Simplest antiderivative} \end{array}$$

Then

$$\int \ln x dx = x \ln x - \int x \cdot \frac{1}{x} dx = x \ln x - \int dx = x \ln x - x + C.$$

**Remark:** Sometimes we have to use integration by parts more than once as follows:

**EXAMPLE 3** Evaluate

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

**Solution** With  $u = x^2$ ,  $dv = e^x dx$ ,  $du = 2x dx$ , and  $v = e^x$ , we have

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

The new integral is less complicated than the original because the exponent on  $x$  is reduced by one. To evaluate the integral on the right, we integrate by parts again with  $u = x$ ,  $dv = e^x dx$ . Then  $du = dx$ ,  $v = e^x$ , and

$$\int x e^x dx = x e^x - \int e^x dx = x e^x - e^x + C.$$

Using this last evaluation, we then obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int x^2 e^x dx &= x^2 e^x - 2 \int x e^x dx \\ &= x^2 e^x - 2x e^x + 2e^x + C. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Evaluate

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

**Solution** Let  $u = e^x$  and  $dv = \cos x dx$ . Then  $du = e^x dx$ ,  $v = \sin x$ , and

$$\int e^x \cos x dx = e^x \sin x - \int e^x \sin x dx.$$

The second integral is like the first except that it has  $\sin x$  in place of  $\cos x$ . To evaluate it, we use integration by parts with

$$u = e^x, \quad dv = \sin x dx, \quad v = -\cos x, \quad du = e^x dx.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int e^x \cos x dx &= e^x \sin x - \left( -e^x \cos x - \int (-\cos x)(e^x dx) \right) \\ &= e^x \sin x + e^x \cos x - \int e^x \cos x dx. \end{aligned}$$

$$2 \int e^x \cos x \, dx = e^x \sin x + e^x \cos x + C_1.$$

Dividing by 2 and renaming the constant of integration give

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

### Evaluating Definite Integrals by Parts:

$$\int_a^b f(x)g'(x) \, dx = f(x)g(x) \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b f'(x)g(x) \, dx$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Find the area of the region bounded by the curve  $y = xe^{-x}$  and the  $x$ -axis from  $x = 0$  to  $x = 4$ .

**Solution** The region is shaded in Figure 8.1. Its area is

$$\int_0^4 xe^{-x} \, dx.$$

Let  $u = x$ ,  $dv = e^{-x} \, dx$ ,  $v = -e^{-x}$ , and  $du = dx$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^4 xe^{-x} \, dx &= -xe^{-x} \Big|_0^4 - \int_0^4 (-e^{-x}) \, dx \\ &= [-4e^{-4} - (0)] + \int_0^4 e^{-x} \, dx \\ &= -4e^{-4} - e^{-x} \Big|_0^4 \\ &= -4e^{-4} - e^{-4} - (-e^0) = 1 - 5e^{-4} \approx 0.91. \end{aligned}$$

■

## 11) Tabular Integration

**EXAMPLE 7** Evaluate

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

**Solution** With  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $g(x) = e^x$ , we list:

d		∫
$x^2$	(+)	$e^x$
$2x$	(-)	$e^x$
$2$	(+)	$e^x$
$0$		$e^x$



Then

$$\int x^2 e^x dx = x^2 e^x - 2x e^x + 2e^x + C.$$

**EXAMPLE 8** Evaluate

$$\int x^3 \sin x dx.$$

**Solution** With  $f(x) = x^3$  and  $g(x) = \sin x$ , we list:

$f(x)$ and its derivatives		$g(x)$ and its integrals
$x^3$	(+)	$\sin x$
$3x^2$	(-)	$-\cos x$
$6x$	(+)	$-\sin x$
$6$	(-)	$\cos x$
$0$		$\sin x$

$$\int x^3 \sin x dx = -x^3 \cos x + 3x^2 \sin x + 6x \cos x - 6 \sin x + C.$$

## 12) Trigonometric Integrals

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

### Products of Powers of Sines and Cosines

We begin with integrals of the form:  $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x dx$ ,

where  $m$  and  $n$  are nonnegative integers (positive or zero). We can divide the appropriate substitution into three cases according to  $m$  and  $n$  being odd or even.

**Case 1** If  $m$  is odd, we write  $m$  as  $2k + 1$  and use the identity  $\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$  to obtain

$$\sin^m x = \sin^{2k+1} x = (\sin^2 x)^k \sin x = (1 - \cos^2 x)^k \sin x. \quad (1)$$

Then we combine the single  $\sin x$  with  $dx$  in the integral and set  $\sin x dx$  equal to  $-d(\cos x)$ .

**Case 2** If  $m$  is even and  $n$  is odd in  $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x dx$ , we write  $n$  as  $2k + 1$  and use the identity  $\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$  to obtain

$$\cos^n x = \cos^{2k+1} x = (\cos^2 x)^k \cos x = (1 - \sin^2 x)^k \cos x.$$

We then combine the single  $\cos x$  with  $dx$  and set  $\cos x dx$  equal to  $d(\sin x)$ .

**Case 3** If both  $m$  and  $n$  are even in  $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x dx$ , we substitute

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

to reduce the integrand to one in lower powers of  $\cos 2x$ .

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate

$$\int \sin^3 x \cos^2 x dx.$$

**Solution** This is an example of Case 1.

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin^3 x \cos^2 x dx &= \int \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \sin x dx && m \text{ is odd.} \\ &= \int (1 - \cos^2 x) \cos^2 x (-d(\cos x)) && \sin x dx = -d(\cos x) \\ &= \int (1 - u^2)(u^2)(-du) && u = \cos x \\ &= \int (u^4 - u^2) du && \text{Multiply terms.} \\ &= \frac{u^5}{5} - \frac{u^3}{3} + C = \frac{\cos^5 x}{5} - \frac{\cos^3 x}{3} + C. \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Evaluate

$$\int \cos^5 x \, dx.$$

**Solution** This is an example of Case 2, where  $m = 0$  is even and  $n = 5$  is odd.

$$\begin{aligned}\int \cos^5 x \, dx &= \int \cos^4 x \cos x \, dx = \int (1 - \sin^2 x)^2 d(\sin x) && \cos x \, dx = d(\sin x) \\ &= \int (1 - u^2)^2 du && u = \sin x \\ &= \int (1 - 2u^2 + u^4) du && \text{Square } 1 - u^2. \\ &= u - \frac{2}{3}u^3 + \frac{1}{5}u^5 + C = \sin x - \frac{2}{3}\sin^3 x + \frac{1}{5}\sin^5 x + C. \quad \blacksquare\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Evaluate

$$\int \sin^2 x \cos^4 x \, dx.$$

**Solution** This is an example of Case 3.

$$\begin{aligned}\int \sin^2 x \cos^4 x \, dx &= \int \left(\frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1 + \cos 2x}{2}\right)^2 dx && m \text{ and } n \text{ both even} \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \int (1 - \cos 2x)(1 + 2\cos 2x + \cos^2 2x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \int (1 + \cos 2x - \cos^2 2x - \cos^3 2x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{8} \left[ x + \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x - \int (\cos^2 2x + \cos^3 2x) dx \right].\end{aligned}$$

For the term involving  $\cos^2 2x$ , we use

$$\begin{aligned}\int \cos^2 2x \, dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int (1 + \cos 4x) \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( x + \frac{1}{4} \sin 4x \right).\end{aligned}$$

Omitting the constant of integration until the final result

For the  $\cos^3 2x$  term, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int \cos^3 2x \, dx &= \int (1 - \sin^2 2x) \cos 2x \, dx && u = \sin 2x, \\ & && du = 2 \cos 2x \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int (1 - u^2) \, du = \frac{1}{2} \left( \sin 2x - \frac{1}{3} \sin^3 2x \right). && \text{Again} \\ & && \text{omitting } C \end{aligned}$$

Combining everything and simplifying, we get

$$\int \sin^2 x \cos^4 x \, dx = \frac{1}{16} \left( x - \frac{1}{4} \sin 4x + \frac{1}{3} \sin^3 2x \right) + C. \quad \blacksquare$$

## Eliminating Square Roots

In the next example, we use the identity  $\cos^2 \theta = (1 + \cos 2\theta)/2$  to eliminate a square root.

**EXAMPLE 4** Evaluate

$$\int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{1 + \cos 4x} \, dx.$$

**Solution** To eliminate the square root, we use the identity

$$\cos^2 \theta = \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad 1 + \cos 2\theta = 2 \cos^2 \theta.$$

With  $\theta = 2x$ , this becomes

$$1 + \cos 4x = 2 \cos^2 2x.$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{1 + \cos 4x} \, dx &= \int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{2 \cos^2 2x} \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{2} \sqrt{\cos^2 2x} \, dx \\ &= \sqrt{2} \int_0^{\pi/4} |\cos 2x| \, dx = \sqrt{2} \int_0^{\pi/4} \cos 2x \, dx && \cos 2x \geq 0 \\ & && \text{on } [0, \pi/4] \\ &= \sqrt{2} \left[ \frac{\sin 2x}{2} \right]_0^{\pi/4} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} [1 - 0] = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}. && \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

## Integrals of Powers of $\tan x$ and $\sec x$

We use  $\tan^2 x = \sec^2 x - 1$  and  $\sec^2 x = \tan^2 x + 1$

**EXAMPLE 5** Evaluate

$$\int \tan^4 x \, dx.$$

**Solution**

$$\begin{aligned}\int \tan^4 x \, dx &= \int \tan^2 x \cdot \tan^2 x \, dx = \int \tan^2 x \cdot (\sec^2 x - 1) \, dx \\ &= \int \tan^2 x \sec^2 x \, dx - \int \tan^2 x \, dx \\ &= \int \tan^2 x \sec^2 x \, dx - \int (\sec^2 x - 1) \, dx \\ &= \int \tan^2 x \sec^2 x \, dx - \int \sec^2 x \, dx + \int dx.\end{aligned}$$

In the first integral, we let

$$u = \tan x, \quad du = \sec^2 x \, dx$$

and have

$$\int u^2 \, du = \frac{1}{3}u^3 + C_1.$$

The remaining integrals are standard forms, so

$$\int \tan^4 x \, dx = \frac{1}{3}\tan^3 x - \tan x + x + C.$$

**EXAMPLE 6** Evaluate

$$\int \sec^3 x \, dx.$$

**Solution** We integrate by parts using

$$u = \sec x, \quad dv = \sec^2 x \, dx, \quad v = \tan x, \quad du = \sec x \tan x \, dx.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned}\int \sec^3 x \, dx &= \sec x \tan x - \int (\tan x)(\sec x \tan x \, dx) \\ &= \sec x \tan x - \int (\sec^2 x - 1) \sec x \, dx && \tan^2 x = \sec^2 x - 1 \\ &= \sec x \tan x + \int \sec x \, dx - \int \sec^3 x \, dx.\end{aligned}$$

Combining the two secant-cubed integrals gives

$$2 \int \sec^3 x \, dx = \sec x \tan x + \int \sec x \, dx$$

and

$$\int \sec^3 x \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \sec x \tan x + \frac{1}{2} \ln |\sec x + \tan x| + C.$$

## Products of Sines and Cosines

The integrals

$$\int \sin mx \sin nx \, dx, \quad \int \sin mx \cos nx \, dx, \quad \text{and} \quad \int \cos mx \cos nx \, dx$$

$$\sin mx \sin nx = \frac{1}{2} [\cos (m - n)x - \cos (m + n)x],$$

$$\sin mx \cos nx = \frac{1}{2} [\sin (m - n)x + \sin (m + n)x],$$

$$\cos mx \cos nx = \frac{1}{2} [\cos (m - n)x + \cos (m + n)x].$$

**EXAMPLE 7** Evaluate

$$\int \sin 3x \cos 5x \, dx.$$

**Solution** From Equation (4) with  $m = 3$  and  $n = 5$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin 3x \cos 5x \, dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int [\sin (-2x) + \sin 8x] \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int (\sin 8x - \sin 2x) \, dx \\ &= -\frac{\cos 8x}{16} + \frac{\cos 2x}{4} + C. \end{aligned}$$

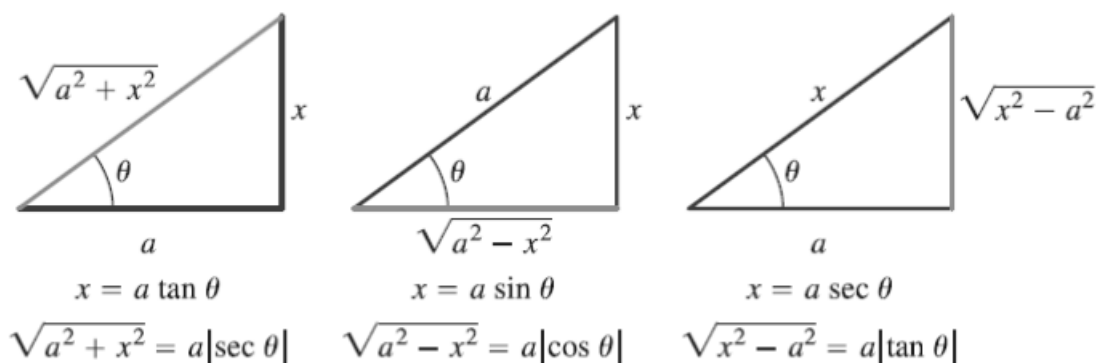
## 15) Trigonometric Substitutions

Trigonometric substitutions occur when we replace the variable of integration by a trigonometric function. The most common substitutions are:

If  $\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$  then we use  $x = a \tan \theta$ ,  $a^2 + x^2 = a^2 + a^2 \tan^2 \theta = a^2(1 + \tan^2 \theta) = a^2 \sec^2 \theta$ .

If  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ , then we use  $x = a \sin \theta$ .  $a^2 - x^2 = a^2 - a^2 \sin^2 \theta = a^2(1 - \sin^2 \theta) = a^2 \cos^2 \theta$

If  $\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$  then we use  $x = a \sec \theta$   $x^2 - a^2 = a^2 \sec^2 \theta - a^2 = a^2(\sec^2 \theta - 1) = a^2 \tan^2 \theta$



**Remark :** In order to get  $\theta$  we use the invers of trigonometric functions then we suppose that:

$$x = a \tan \theta, \quad \text{with} \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2},$$

$$x = a \sin \theta \quad \text{with} \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2},$$

$$x = a \sec \theta \quad \text{with} \quad \begin{cases} 0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2} & \text{if } \frac{x}{a} \geq 1, \\ \frac{\pi}{2} < \theta \leq \pi & \text{if } \frac{x}{a} \leq -1. \end{cases}$$

**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4 + x^2}}.$$

**Solution** We set

$$x = 2 \tan \theta, \quad dx = 2 \sec^2 \theta d\theta, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2},$$

$$4 + x^2 = 4 + 4 \tan^2 \theta = 4(1 + \tan^2 \theta) = 4 \sec^2 \theta.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{4 + x^2}} &= \int \frac{2 \sec^2 \theta d\theta}{\sqrt{4 \sec^2 \theta}} = \int \frac{\sec^2 \theta d\theta}{|\sec \theta|} && \sqrt{\sec^2 \theta} = |\sec \theta| \\ &= \int \sec \theta d\theta && \sec \theta > 0 \text{ for } -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2} \\ &= \ln |\sec \theta + \tan \theta| + C \\ &= \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{4 + x^2}}{2} + \frac{x}{2} \right| + C. && \text{From Fig. 8.4} \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Evaluate

$$\int \frac{x^2 dx}{\sqrt{9-x^2}}.$$

**Solution** We set

$$x = 3 \sin \theta, \quad dx = 3 \cos \theta d\theta, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$9 - x^2 = 9 - 9 \sin^2 \theta = 9(1 - \sin^2 \theta) = 9 \cos^2 \theta.$$

Then

$$\int \frac{x^2 dx}{\sqrt{9-x^2}} = \int \frac{9 \sin^2 \theta \cdot 3 \cos \theta d\theta}{|3 \cos \theta|}$$

$$= 9 \int \sin^2 \theta d\theta$$

$$\cos \theta > 0 \text{ for } -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$= 9 \int \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2} d\theta$$

$$= \frac{9}{2} \left( \theta - \frac{\sin 2\theta}{2} \right) + C$$

$$= \frac{9}{2} (\theta - \sin \theta \cos \theta) + C$$

$$\sin 2\theta = 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta$$

$$= \frac{9}{2} \left( \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{3} - \frac{x}{3} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{9-x^2}}{3} \right) + C$$

Fig. 8.5

$$= \frac{9}{2} \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{3} - \frac{x}{2} \sqrt{9-x^2} + C. \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Evaluate

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{25x^2-4}}, \quad x > \frac{2}{5}.$$

**Solution** We first rewrite the radical as

$$\sqrt{25x^2-4} = \sqrt{25\left(x^2 - \frac{4}{25}\right)}$$

$$= 5\sqrt{x^2 - \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^2}$$



to put the radicand in the form  $x^2 - a^2$ . We then substitute

$$x = \frac{2}{5} \sec \theta, \quad dx = \frac{2}{5} \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta, \quad 0 < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$x^2 - \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^2 = \frac{4}{25} \sec^2 \theta - \frac{4}{25}$$

$$= \frac{4}{25} (\sec^2 \theta - 1) = \frac{4}{25} \tan^2 \theta$$

$$\sqrt{x^2 - \left(\frac{2}{5}\right)^2} = \frac{2}{5} |\tan \theta| = \frac{2}{5} \tan \theta. \quad \begin{array}{l} \tan \theta > 0 \text{ for} \\ 0 < \theta < \pi/2 \end{array}$$

With these substitutions, we have

$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{25x^2 - 4}} = \int \frac{dx}{5\sqrt{x^2 - (4/25)}} = \int \frac{(2/5) \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta}{5 \cdot (2/5) \tan \theta}$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} \int \sec \theta d\theta = \frac{1}{5} \ln |\sec \theta + \tan \theta| + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{5} \ln \left| \frac{5x}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{25x^2 - 4}}{2} \right| + C.$$

Fig:

## 16) Integration of Rational Functions by Partial Fractions

This section shows how to express a rational function (a quotient of polynomials) as a sum of simpler fractions, called partial fractions, which are easily integrated.

Writing a rational function  $f(x)/g(x)$  as a sum of partial fractions depends on two things:

- *The degree of  $f(x)$  must be less than the degree of  $g(x)$ .* That is, the fraction must be proper. If it isn't, divide  $f(x)$  by  $g(x)$  and work with the remainder term.
- We must know the factors of  $g(x)$ . In theory, any polynomial with real coefficients can be written as a product of real linear factors and real quadratic factors.

$$\frac{5x - 3}{x^2 - 2x - 3} = \frac{A}{x + 1} + \frac{B}{x - 3}. \quad (1)$$

To find  $A$  and  $B$ , we first clear Equation (1) of fractions and regroup in powers of  $x$ , obtaining

$$\frac{5x - 3}{x^2 - 2x - 3} = \frac{2}{x + 1} + \frac{3}{x - 3}.$$

$$\int \frac{5x - 3}{(x + 1)(x - 3)} dx = \int \frac{2}{x + 1} dx + \int \frac{3}{x - 3} dx$$

$$= 2 \ln |x + 1| + 3 \ln |x - 3| + C.$$

$$5x - 3 = A(x - 3) + B(x + 1) = (A + B)x - 3A + B.$$

$$A + B = 5, \quad -3A + B = -3.$$

Solving these equations simultaneously gives  $A = 2$  and  $B = 3$ .

### Method of Partial Fractions ( $f(x)/g(x)$ Proper)

1. Let  $x - r$  be a linear factor of  $g(x)$ . Suppose that  $(x - r)^m$  is the highest power of  $x - r$  that divides  $g(x)$ . Then, to this factor, assign the sum of the  $m$  partial fractions:

$$\frac{A_1}{(x - r)} + \frac{A_2}{(x - r)^2} + \cdots + \frac{A_m}{(x - r)^m}.$$

Do this for each distinct linear factor of  $g(x)$ .

2. Let  $x^2 + px + q$  be an irreducible quadratic factor of  $g(x)$  so that  $x^2 + px + q$  has no real roots. Suppose that  $(x^2 + px + q)^n$  is the highest power of this factor that divides  $g(x)$ . Then, to this factor, assign the sum of the  $n$  partial fractions:

$$\frac{B_1x + C_1}{(x^2 + px + q)} + \frac{B_2x + C_2}{(x^2 + px + q)^2} + \cdots + \frac{B_nx + C_n}{(x^2 + px + q)^n}.$$

Do this for each distinct quadratic factor of  $g(x)$ .

3. Set the original fraction  $f(x)/g(x)$  equal to the sum of all these partial fractions. Clear the resulting equation of fractions and arrange the terms in decreasing powers of  $x$ .
4. Equate the coefficients of corresponding powers of  $x$  and solve the resulting equations for the undetermined coefficients.

**EXAMPLE 1** Use partial fractions to evaluate

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

**Solution** The partial fraction decomposition has the form

$$\frac{x^2 + 4x + 1}{(x - 1)(x + 1)(x + 3)} = \frac{A}{x - 1} + \frac{B}{x + 1} + \frac{C}{x + 3}.$$

To find the values of the undetermined coefficients  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ , we clear fractions and get

$$\begin{aligned} x^2 + 4x + 1 &= A(x + 1)(x + 3) + B(x - 1)(x + 3) + C(x - 1)(x + 1) \\ &= A(x^2 + 4x + 3) + B(x^2 + 2x - 3) + C(x^2 - 1) \\ &= (A + B + C)x^2 + (4A + 2B)x + (3A - 3B - C). \end{aligned}$$

The polynomials on both sides of the above equation are identical, so we equate coefficients of like powers of  $x$ , obtaining

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Coefficient of } x^2: & \quad A + B + C = 1 \\ \text{Coefficient of } x^1: & \quad 4A + 2B = 4 \\ \text{Coefficient of } x^0: & \quad 3A - 3B - C = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{x^2 + 4x + 1}{(x - 1)(x + 1)(x + 3)} dx &= \int \left[ \frac{3}{4} \frac{1}{x - 1} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{x + 1} - \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{x + 3} \right] dx \\ &= \frac{3}{4} \ln |x - 1| + \frac{1}{2} \ln |x + 1| - \frac{1}{4} \ln |x + 3| + K, \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 2** Use partial fractions to evaluate

$$\int \frac{6x + 7}{(x + 2)^2} dx.$$

**Solution** First we express the integrand as a sum of partial fractions with undetermined coefficients.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{6x + 7}{(x + 2)^2} &= \frac{A}{x + 2} + \frac{B}{(x + 2)^2} \\ 6x + 7 &= A(x + 2) + B && \text{Multiply both sides by } (x + 2)^2. \\ &= Ax + (2A + B)\end{aligned}$$

Equating coefficients of corresponding powers of  $x$  gives

$$A = 6 \quad \text{and} \quad 2A + B = 12 + B = 7, \quad \text{or} \quad A = 6 \quad \text{and} \quad B = -5.$$

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{6x + 7}{(x + 2)^2} dx &= \int \left( \frac{6}{x + 2} - \frac{5}{(x + 2)^2} \right) dx \\ &= 6 \int \frac{dx}{x + 2} - 5 \int (x + 2)^{-2} dx \\ &= 6 \ln |x + 2| + 5(x + 2)^{-1} + C.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 3** Use partial fractions to evaluate

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

**Solution** First we divide the denominator into the numerator to get a polynomial plus a proper fraction.

$$\begin{array}{r} 2x \\ x^2 - 2x - 3 \overline{) 2x^3 - 4x^2 - x - 3} \\ \underline{2x^3 - 4x^2 - 6x} \phantom{- 3} \\ 5x - 3 \end{array}$$

Then we write the improper fraction as a polynomial plus a proper fraction.

$$\frac{2x^3 - 4x^2 - x - 3}{x^2 - 2x - 3} = 2x + \frac{5x - 3}{x^2 - 2x - 3}$$

We found the partial fraction decomposition of the fraction on the right in the opening example, so

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{2x^3 - 4x^2 - x - 3}{x^2 - 2x - 3} dx &= \int 2x dx + \int \frac{5x - 3}{x^2 - 2x - 3} dx \\ &= \int 2x dx + \int \frac{2}{x + 1} dx + \int \frac{3}{x - 3} dx \\ &= x^2 + 2 \ln |x + 1| + 3 \ln |x - 3| + C.\end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 4** Use partial fractions to evaluate

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

**Solution** The denominator has an irreducible quadratic factor as well as a repeated linear factor, so we write

$$\frac{-2x + 4}{(x^2 + 1)(x - 1)^2} = \frac{Ax + B}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{C}{x - 1} + \frac{D}{(x - 1)^2}. \quad (2)$$

Clearing the equation of fractions gives

$$\begin{aligned} -2x + 4 &= (Ax + B)(x - 1)^2 + C(x - 1)(x^2 + 1) + D(x^2 + 1) \\ &= (A + C)x^3 + (-2A + B - C + D)x^2 \\ &\quad + (A - 2B + C)x + (B - C + D). \end{aligned}$$

Equating coefficients of like terms gives

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Coefficients of } x^3: & \quad 0 = A + C \\ \text{Coefficients of } x^2: & \quad 0 = -2A + B - C + D \\ \text{Coefficients of } x^1: & \quad -2 = A - 2B + C \\ \text{Coefficients of } x^0: & \quad 4 = B - C + D \end{aligned}$$

We solve these equations simultaneously to find the values of  $A$ ,  $B$ ,  $C$ , and  $D$ :

$$\begin{aligned} -4 &= -2A, & A &= 2 & \text{Subtract fourth equation from second.} \\ C &= -A = -2 & & & \text{From the first equation} \\ B &= (A + C + 2)/2 = 1 & & & \text{From the third equation and } C = -A \\ D &= 4 - B + C = 1. & & & \text{From the fourth equation} \end{aligned}$$

We substitute these values into Equation (2), obtaining

$$\frac{-2x + 4}{(x^2 + 1)(x - 1)^2} = \frac{2x + 1}{x^2 + 1} - \frac{2}{x - 1} + \frac{1}{(x - 1)^2}.$$

Finally, using the expansion above we can integrate:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{-2x + 4}{(x^2 + 1)(x - 1)^2} dx &= \int \left( \frac{2x + 1}{x^2 + 1} - \frac{2}{x - 1} + \frac{1}{(x - 1)^2} \right) dx \\ &= \int \left( \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} - \frac{2}{x - 1} + \frac{1}{(x - 1)^2} \right) dx \\ &= \ln(x^2 + 1) + \tan^{-1} x - 2 \ln|x - 1| - \frac{1}{x - 1} + C. \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5** Use partial fractions to evaluate

$$\int \frac{dx}{x(x^2 + 1)^2}.$$

**Solution** The form of the partial fraction decomposition is

$$\frac{1}{x(x^2 + 1)^2} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{Bx + C}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{Dx + E}{(x^2 + 1)^2}$$

Multiplying by  $x(x^2 + 1)^2$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= A(x^2 + 1)^2 + (Bx + C)x(x^2 + 1) + (Dx + E)x \\ &= A(x^4 + 2x^2 + 1) + B(x^4 + x^2) + C(x^3 + x) + Dx^2 + Ex \\ &= (A + B)x^4 + Cx^3 + (2A + B + D)x^2 + (C + E)x + A \end{aligned}$$

If we equate coefficients, we get the system

$$A + B = 0, \quad C = 0, \quad 2A + B + D = 0, \quad C + E = 0, \quad A = 1.$$

Solving this system gives  $A = 1$ ,  $B = -1$ ,  $C = 0$ ,  $D = -1$ , and  $E = 0$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{dx}{x(x^2 + 1)^2} &= \int \left[ \frac{1}{x} + \frac{-x}{x^2 + 1} + \frac{-x}{(x^2 + 1)^2} \right] dx \\ &= \int \frac{dx}{x} - \int \frac{x dx}{x^2 + 1} - \int \frac{x dx}{(x^2 + 1)^2} \\ &= \int \frac{dx}{x} - \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{du}{u} - \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{du}{u^2} && \begin{array}{l} u = x^2 + 1, \\ du = 2x dx \end{array} \\ &= \ln |x| - \frac{1}{2} \ln |u| + \frac{1}{2u} + K \\ &= \ln |x| - \frac{1}{2} \ln (x^2 + 1) + \frac{1}{2(x^2 + 1)} + K \\ &= \ln \frac{|x|}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} + \frac{1}{2(x^2 + 1)} + K. \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

## The Heaviside "Cover-up" Method for Linear Factors

When the degree of the polynomial  $f(x)$  is less than the degree of  $g(x)$  and

$$g(x) = (x - r_1)(x - r_2) \cdots (x - r_n)$$

there is a quick way to expand  $f(x)/g(x)$  by partial fractions.

**EXAMPLE 6** Find  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  in the partial fraction expansion

$$\frac{x^2 + 1}{(x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)} = \frac{A}{x - 1} + \frac{B}{x - 2} + \frac{C}{x - 3}. \quad (3)$$

**Solution** If we multiply both sides of Equation (3) by  $(x - 1)$  to get

$$\frac{x^2 + 1}{(x - 2)(x - 3)} = A + \frac{B(x - 1)}{x - 2} + \frac{C(x - 1)}{x - 3}$$

and set  $x = 1$ , the resulting equation gives the value of  $A$ :

$$\frac{(1)^2 + 1}{(1 - 2)(1 - 3)} = A + 0 + 0,$$
$$A = 1.$$

Thus, the value of  $A$  is the number we would have obtained if we had covered the factor  $(x - 1)$  in the denominator of the original fraction

$$\frac{x^2 + 1}{(x - 1)(x - 2)(x - 3)} \quad (4)$$

and evaluated the rest at  $x = 1$ :

$$A = \frac{(1)^2 + 1}{\boxed{(x - 1)} (1 - 2)(1 - 3)} = \frac{2}{(-1)(-2)} = 1.$$

↑  
Cover

Similarly, we find the value of  $B$  in Equation (3) by covering the factor  $(x - 2)$  in Expression (4) and evaluating the rest at  $x = 2$ :

$$B = \frac{(2)^2 + 1}{(2 - 1) \boxed{(x - 2)} (2 - 3)} = \frac{5}{(1)(-1)} = -5.$$

↑  
Cover

Finally,  $C$  is found by covering the  $(x - 3)$  in Expression (4) and evaluating the rest at  $x = 3$ :

$$C = \frac{(3)^2 + 1}{(3 - 1)(3 - 2) \boxed{(x - 3)}} = \frac{10}{(2)(1)} = 5. \quad \blacksquare$$

$\uparrow$   
 Cover

**EXAMPLE 7** Use the Heaviside Method to evaluate

$$\int \frac{x + 4}{x^3 + 3x^2 - 10x} dx.$$

**Solution** The degree of  $f(x) = x + 4$  is less than the degree of the cubic polynomial  $g(x) = x^3 + 3x^2 - 10x$ , and, with  $g(x)$  factored,

$$\frac{x + 4}{x^3 + 3x^2 - 10x} = \frac{x + 4}{x(x - 2)(x + 5)}.$$

The roots of  $g(x)$  are  $r_1 = 0$ ,  $r_2 = 2$ , and  $r_3 = -5$ . We find

$$A_1 = \frac{0 + 4}{\boxed{x} (0 - 2)(0 + 5)} = \frac{4}{(-2)(5)} = -\frac{2}{5}$$

$\uparrow$   
 Cover

$$A_2 = \frac{2 + 4}{2 \boxed{(x - 2)} (2 + 5)} = \frac{6}{(2)(7)} = \frac{3}{7}$$

$\uparrow$   
 Cover

$$A_3 = \frac{-5 + 4}{(-5)(-5 - 2) \boxed{(x + 5)}} = \frac{-1}{(-5)(-7)} = -\frac{1}{35}$$

$\uparrow$   
 Cover

Therefore,

$$\frac{x + 4}{x(x - 2)(x + 5)} = -\frac{2}{5x} + \frac{3}{7(x - 2)} - \frac{1}{35(x + 5)},$$

and

$$\int \frac{x + 4}{x(x - 2)(x + 5)} dx = -\frac{2}{5} \ln |x| + \frac{3}{7} \ln |x - 2| - \frac{1}{35} \ln |x + 5| + C.$$



## Other Ways to Determine the Coefficients

**EXAMPLE 8** Find  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  in the equation

$$\frac{x-1}{(x+1)^3} = \frac{A}{x+1} + \frac{B}{(x+1)^2} + \frac{C}{(x+1)^3}$$

by clearing fractions, differentiating the result, and substituting  $x = -1$ .

**Solution** We first clear fractions:

$$x-1 = A(x+1)^2 + B(x+1) + C.$$

Substituting  $x = -1$  shows  $C = -2$ . We then differentiate both sides with respect to  $x$ , obtaining

$$1 = 2A(x+1) + B.$$

Substituting  $x = -1$  shows  $B = 1$ . We differentiate again to get  $0 = 2A$ , which shows  $A = 0$ . Hence,

$$\frac{x-1}{(x+1)^3} = \frac{1}{(x+1)^2} - \frac{2}{(x+1)^3}. \quad \blacksquare$$

**EXAMPLE 9** Find  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$  in the expression

$$\frac{x^2+1}{(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{x-2} + \frac{C}{x-3}$$

**Solution** Clear fractions to get

$$x^2+1 = A(x-2)(x-3) + B(x-1)(x-3) + C(x-1)(x-2).$$

Then let  $x = 1, 2, 3$  successively to find  $A, B$ , and  $C$ :

$$x = 1: \quad (1)^2 + 1 = A(-1)(-2) + B(0) + C(0)$$

$$2 = 2A$$

$$A = 1$$

$$x = 2: \quad (2)^2 + 1 = A(0) + B(1)(-1) + C(0)$$

$$5 = -B$$

$$B = -5$$

$$x = 3: \quad (3)^2 + 1 = A(0) + B(0) + C(2)(1)$$

$$10 = 2C$$

$$C = 5.$$

$$\frac{x^2+1}{(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)} = \frac{1}{x-1} - \frac{5}{x-2} + \frac{5}{x-3}.$$