

Math 107H
Topics for the first exam

Integration

Basic list:

$$\begin{aligned} \int x^n dx &= \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C \quad (\text{provided } n \neq -1) & \int 1/x dx &= \ln|x| + C \\ \int \sin(kx) dx &= \frac{-\cos(kx)}{k} + C & \int \cos(kx) dx &= \frac{\sin(kx)}{k} + C \\ \int \sec^2 x dx &= \tan x + C & \int \csc^2 x dx &= -\cot x + C \\ \int \sec x \tan x dx &= \sec x + C & \int \csc x \cot x dx &= -\csc x + C \\ \int \tan x dx &= \ln|\sec x| + C & \int \sec x dx &= \ln|\sec x + \tan x| + C \\ \int \cot x dx &= \ln|\sin x| + C & \int \csc x dx &= -\ln|\csc x + \cot x| + C \\ \int e^x dx &= e^x + C & \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{a^2-x^2}} &= \text{Arcsin}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + c \\ \int \frac{dx}{x^2+a^2} &= \frac{1}{a} \text{Arctan}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + c & \int \frac{dx}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-a^2}} &= \frac{1}{a} \text{Arcsec}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + c \end{aligned}$$

Basic integration rules: for $k=\text{constant}$,

$$\int k \cdot f(x) dx = k \int f(x) dx \qquad \int (f(x) \pm g(x)) dx = \int f(x) dx \pm \int g(x) dx$$

The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$\int_a^x f(t) dt = F(x)$ is a function of x . $F(x)$ = the area under graph of f , from a to x .

FTC 2: If f is cts, then $F'(x) = f(x)$ (F is an antideriv of f !)

Since any two antiderivatives differ by a constant, and $F(b) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$, we get

FTC 1: If f is cts, and F is an antideriv of f , then $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) = F(x) \Big|_a^b$

Integration by substitution. The idea: reverse the chain rule!

$g(x) = u$, then $\frac{d}{dx} f(g(x)) = \frac{d}{dx} f(u) = f'(u) \frac{du}{dx}$, so $\int f'(u) \frac{du}{dx} dx = \int f'(u) du = f(u) + c$

$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx$; set $u = g(x)$, then $du = g'(x) dx$,
so $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du$, where $u = g(x)$

Example: $\int x(x^2 - 3)^4 dx$; set $u = x^2 - 3$, so $du = 2x dx$. Then

$$\int x(x^2 - 3)^4 dx = \frac{1}{2} \int (x^2 - 3)^4 2x dx = \frac{1}{2} \int u^4 du \Big|_{u=x^2-3} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{u^5}{5} + c \Big|_{u=x^2-3} = \frac{(x^2-3)^5}{10} + c$$

The three most important points:

1. Make sure that you calculate (and then set aside) your du before doing step 2!
2. Make sure everything gets changed from x 's to u 's
3. **Don't** push x 's through the integral sign! They're not constants!

We can use u -substitution directly with a definite integral, provided we remember that

$\int_a^b f(x) dx$ really means $\int_{x=a}^{x=b} f(x) dx$, and we remember to change all x 's to u 's!

Ex: $\int_1^2 x(1+x^2)^6 dx$; set $u = 1+x^2$, $du = 2x dx$. when $x = 1$, $u = 2$; when $x = 2$, $u = 5$;

$$\text{so } \int_1^2 x(1+x^2)^6 dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_2^5 u^6 du = \dots$$

Basic integration formulas (AKA dirty tricks)

complete the square

$$ax^2 + bx + c = a(x^2 + rx) + c = a(x + r/2)^2 + (c - (r/2)^2)$$

$$\text{Ex: } \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 2x + 2} dx = \int \frac{1}{(x+1)^2 + 1} dx$$

use trig identities

$$\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1, \tan^2 x + 1 = \sec^2 x, \sin(2x) = 2 \sin x \cos x, \frac{\tan x}{\sec x} = \sin x, \text{ etc.}$$

$$\text{Ex: } \int \frac{\sin^2 x}{\cos x} dx = \int \frac{1 - \cos^2 x}{\cos x} dx = \dots$$

pull fractions apart; put fractions together!

$$\text{Ex: } \int \frac{x+1}{x^3} dx = \int x^{-2} + x^{-3} dx = \dots$$

do polynomial long division

$$\text{Ex: } \int \frac{x^3}{x^2 - 1} dx = \int x + \frac{x}{x^2 - 1} dx = \dots$$

add zero, multiply by one

$$\text{Ex: } \int \sec x dx = \int \frac{\sec x (\tan x + \sec x)}{\sec x + \tan x} dx = \dots$$

Integration by parts

Product rule: $d(uv) = (du)v + u(dv)$

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

Ex: $\int x \cos x dx$: set $u=x$, $dv=\cos x dx$ $du=dx$, $v = \sin x$ (or any other antiderivative)

So: $\int x \cos x = x \sin x - \int \sin x dx = \dots$

special case: $\int f(x) dx$; $u = f(x)$, $dv=dx$ $\int f(x) dx = xf(x) - \int xf'(x) dx$

$$\text{Ex: } \int \text{Arcsin } x dx = x \text{Arcsin } x - \int \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \dots$$

The basic idea: integrate part of the function (a part that you can), differentiate the rest.

Goal: reach an integral that is "nicer".

$$\text{Ex: } \int x^3 \ln x dx = (x^4/4) \ln x - \int (x^4/4)(1/x) dx = \dots$$

Trig substitution

Idea: get rid of square roots, by turning the stuff inside into a perfect square!

$$\sqrt{a^2 - x^2} : \text{ set } x = a \sin u . \quad dx = a \cos u du, \quad \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} = a \cos u$$

$$\text{Ex: } \int \frac{1}{x^2 \sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \int \frac{\cos u}{\sin^2 u \cos u} du \Big|_{x=\sin u} = \dots$$

$$\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} : \text{ set } x = a \tan u . \quad dx = a \sec^2 u du, \quad \sqrt{a^2 + x^2} = a \sec u$$

$$\text{Ex: } \int \frac{1}{(x^2 + 4)^{3/2}} dx = \int \frac{2 \sec^2 u}{(2 \sec u)^3} du \Big|_{x=2 \tan u} = \dots$$

$$\sqrt{x^2 - a^2} : \text{ set } x = a \sec u . \quad dx = a \sec u \tan u du, \quad \sqrt{x^2 - a^2} = a \tan u$$

$$\text{Ex: } \int \frac{1}{x^2 \sqrt{x^2 - 1}} dx = \int \frac{\sec u \tan u}{\sec^2 u \tan u} du \Big|_{x=\sec u} = \dots$$

Undoing the “ u -substitution”: use right triangles! (Draw a right triangle!)

Ex: $x = a \sin u$, then angle u has opposite = x , hypotenuse = a , so adjacent = $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$.
So $\cos u = (\sqrt{a^2 - x^2})/a$, $\tan u = x/\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$, etc.

Trig integrals: What trig substitution usually leads to!

$$\int \sin^n x \cos^m x dx$$

If n is odd, keep one $\sin x$ and turn the others, in pairs, into $\cos x$
(using $\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$), then do a u -substitution $u = \cos x$.

If m is odd, reverse the roles of $\sin x$ and $\cos x$.

If both are even, turn the $\sin x$ into $\cos x$ (in pairs) and use the double angle formula

$$\cos^2 x = \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos(2x))$$

This will convert $\cos^m x$ into a bunch of *lower powers* of $\cos(2x)$;
odd powers can be dealt with by substitution, even powers by another application of the angle doubling formula!

$$\int \sec^n x \tan^m x dx = \int \frac{\sin^m x}{\cos^{n+m} x} dx$$

If n is *even*, set two of them aside and convert the rest to $\tan x$
using $\sec^2 x = \tan^2 x + 1$, and use $u = \tan x$.

If m is *odd*, set one each of $\sec x$, $\tan x$ aside, convert the rest of the $\tan x$ to $\sec x$
using $\tan^2 x = \sec^2 x - 1$, and use $u = \sec x$.

If n is odd and m is even, convert all of the $\tan x$ to $\sec x$ (in pairs),
leaving a bunch of powers of $\sec x$. Then use the *reduction formula*:

$$\int \sec^n x dx = \frac{1}{n-1} \sec^{n-2} x \tan x + \frac{n-2}{n-1} \int \sec^{n-2} x dx$$

At the end, reach $\int \sec^2 x dx = \tan x + C$ or $\int \sec x dx = \ln |\sec x + \tan x| + C$

A little “trick” worth knowing:

the substitution $u = \frac{\pi}{2} - x$, since $\sin(\frac{\pi}{2} - x) = \cos x$ and $\cos(\frac{\pi}{2} - x) = \sin x$,
will *reverse* the roles of $\sin x$ and $\cos x$,
so will turn $\cot x$ into $\tan u$ and $\csc x$ into $\sec u$. So, for example, the integral

$$\int \frac{\cos^4 x}{\sin^7 x} dx = \int \csc^3 x \cot^4 x dx, \text{ which our techniques don't cover,}$$

becomes $\int \sec^3 u \tan^4 u du$, which our techniques do cover.

Partial fractions

rational function = quotient of polynomials

Idea: integrate by writing function as sum of simpler functions

Procedure: $f(x) = p(x)/q(x)$

(0): arrange for $\text{degree}(p) < \text{degree}(q)$; do long division if it isn't

(1): factor $q(x)$ into linear and irreducible quadratic factors

(2): group common factors together as powers

(3a): for each group $(x - a)^n$ add together: $\frac{a_1}{x - a} + \dots + \frac{a_n}{(x - a)^n}$

(3b): for each group $(ax^2 + bx + c)^n$ add together: $\frac{a_1x + b_1}{ax^2 + bx + c} + \dots + \frac{a_nx + b_n}{(ax^2 + bx + c)^n}$

(4) set $f(x) =$ sum of all sums; solve for the 'undetermined' coefficients

put sum over a common denominator ($=q(x)$); set numerators equal.

always works: multiply out, group common powers, set coeffs of the two polys equal

Ex: $x + 3 = a(x - 1) + b(x - 2) = (a + b)x + (-a - 2b)$; $1 = a + b$, $3 = -a - 2b$

linear term $(x - a)^n$: set $x = a$, will allow you to solve for a coefficient

if $n \geq 2$, take derivatives of both sides! set $x=a$, gives another coeff.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ex: } \frac{x^2}{(x-1)^2(x^2+1)} &= \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{(x-1)^2} + \frac{Cx+D}{x^2+1} \\ &= \frac{A(x-1)(x^2+1) + B(x^2+1) + (Cx+D)(x-1)^2}{(x-1)^2(x^2+1)} = \dots \end{aligned}$$

Improper integrals

Fund Thm of Calc: $\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$, where $F'(x) = f(x)$

Problems: $a = -\infty$, $b = \infty$; f blows up at a or b or somewhere in between

integral is "improper"; usual technique doesn't work. Solution to this:

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx \qquad \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

$$\text{(blow up at } a) \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{r \rightarrow a^+} \int_r^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{a+\epsilon}^b f(x) dx$$

(similarly for blowup at b (or both!))

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{s \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^s f(x) dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_a^{b-\epsilon} f(x) dx$$

$$\text{(blows up at } c \text{ (b/w } a \text{ and } b)) \int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{r \rightarrow c^-} \int_a^r f(x) dx + \lim_{s \rightarrow c^+} \int_s^b f(x) dx$$

The integral converges if (all of the) limit(s) are finite

Comparison: $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all x ;

if $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ *converges*, so does $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$

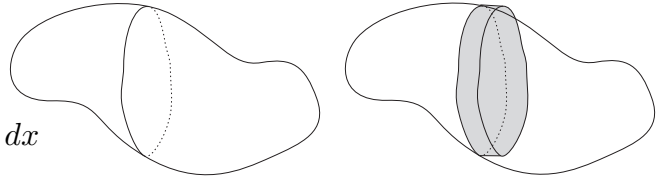
if $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ *diverges*, so does $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$

Applications of integration

Volume by slicing. To calculate volume, approximate region by objects whose volume we can calculate.

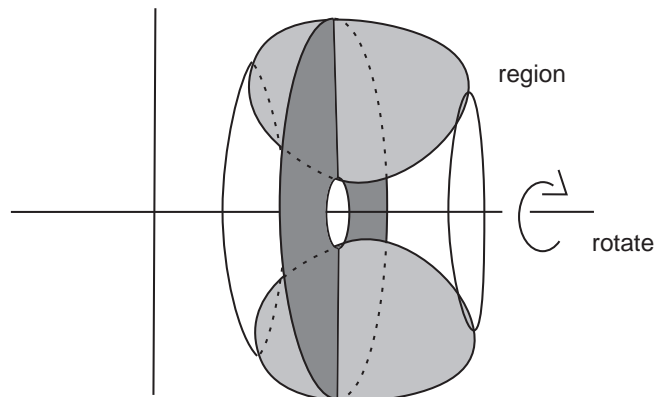
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Volume} &\approx \sum(\text{volumes of 'cylinders'}) \\ &= \sum(\text{area of base})(\text{height}) \\ &= \sum(\text{area of cross-section})\Delta x_i . \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So volume} = \int_{\text{left}}^{\text{right}} (\text{area of cross section}) dx$$



Solids of revolution: disks and washers. Solid of revolution: take a region in the plane and revolve it around an axis in the plane.

take cross-sections perpendicular to
axis of revolution;
cross-section = disk (area= πr^2)
or washer (area= $\pi R^2 - \pi r^2$)
rotate around x -axis: write r
(and R) as functions of x ,
integrate dx
rotate around y -axis: write r
(and R) as functions of y ,
integrate dy

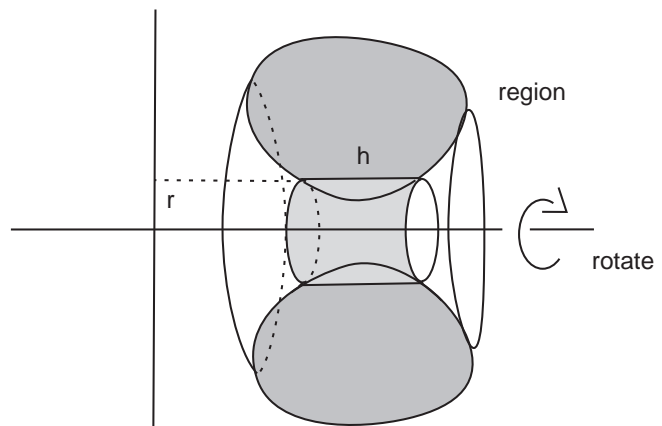


$$\text{Otherwise, everything is as before: volume} = \int_{\text{left}}^{\text{right}} A(x) dx \text{ or volume} = \int_{\text{bottom}}^{\text{top}} A(y) dy$$

The same is true if axis is parallel to x - or y -axis; r and R just change
(we add a constant).

Cylindrical shells. Different picture, same volume! Solid of revolution; use cylinders centered on the axis of revolution. The intersection is a cylinder, with area = (circumference)(height) = $2\pi rh$

$$\text{volume} = \int_{\text{left}}^{\text{right}} (\text{area of cylinder}) dx \quad \text{or} \quad \int_{\text{bottom}}^{\text{top}} (\text{area of cylinder}) dy!$$

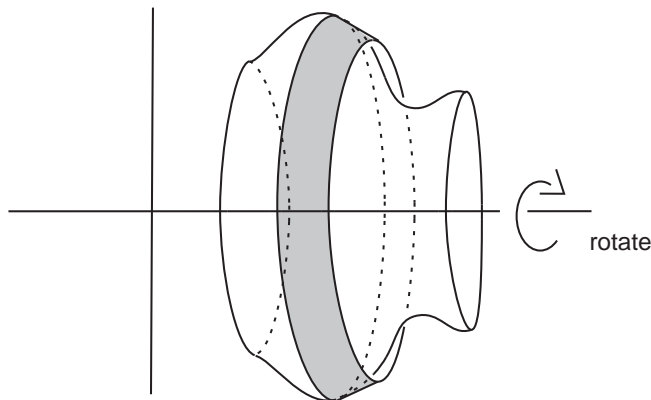


revolve around vertical line:
integrate dx
revolve around horizontal line:
integrate dy

Ex: region in plane between $y = 4x$, $y = x^2$, revolved around y -axis

left=0, right=4, $r = x$, $h = (4x - x^2)$ volume = $\int_0^4 2\pi x(4x - x^2) dx$

Arclength and surface area



Arclength. Idea: approximate a curve by lots of short line segments; length of curve \approx sum of lengths of line segments.

Line segment between $(c_i, f(c_i))$ and $(c_{i+1}, f(c_{i+1}))$:

$$\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{f(c_{i+1}) - f(c_i)}{c_{i+1} - c_i}\right)^2} \cdot (c_{i+1} - c_i) \approx \sqrt{1 + (f'(c_i))^2} \cdot \Delta x_i$$

So length of curve = $\int_{left}^{right} \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$

The problem: integrating $\sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2}$! Sometimes, $1 + (f'(x))^2$ turns out to be a perfect square.....

Surface area. Idea: find the area of a surface (of revolution) by approximating the surface by things whose area we can figure out. Frustum of a cone!

area of frustum = $\pi \cdot (f(c_{i+1}) + f(c_i)) \cdot \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{f(c_{i+1}) - f(c_i)}{c_{i+1} - c_i}\right)^2} \cdot (c_{i+1} - c_i)$

$\approx 2\pi f(c_i) \cdot \sqrt{1 + (f'(c_i))^2} \cdot \Delta x_i$. So area of surface = $\int_{left}^{right} 2\pi f(x) \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$

The problem: same problem! But sometimes it's possible to do.... Ex: for $f(x) = \sqrt{r^2 - x^2}$, the thing to integrate simplifies to: $2\pi r$!