

SUMMER SCHOOL

2025

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Substitution Rule

Recall FTC-1

If f is cont. on $[a, b]$, and $g(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ on $[a, b]$

Then g is also cont. on $[a, b]$, diff'able on (a, b)
and $g'(x) = f(x)$

i.e. any cont. function has antideriv.

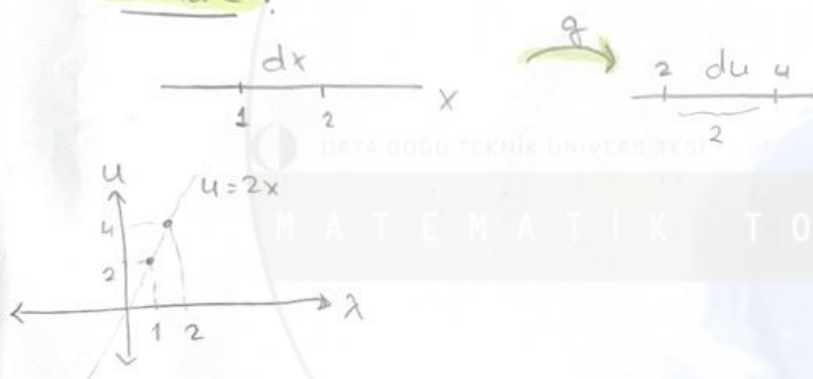
SA for Indefinite Integrals

Suppose $u = g(x)$ is cont, diff'able whose range is contained in an interval I and f is cont. on I

Then

$$\int \underbrace{f(g(x))}_u \cdot \underbrace{g'(x) dx}_{du} = \int f(u) du$$

remark:



eg: $u = g(x) = 2x$ $du = 2 dx$
 $\Downarrow$
 $g'(x) = 2$

proof Let $F' = f$ that is, let F be an antideriv. of f on I
(existence of F is guaranteed by FTC(1))

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Left-hand side} &= \int F'(g(x)) g'(x) dx \stackrel{\text{by chain rule}}{=} \int \frac{d}{dx} (F(g(x))) dx \stackrel{\text{FTC-1}}{=} F(g(x)) + C \\ &= F(u) + C \stackrel{\text{FTC}}{=} \int f(u) du = \text{right hand side} \end{aligned}$$

SR for Definite Integrals

Suppose $u = g(x)$ is cont. diffable function whose range is an interval I , and $f(x)$ is cont. on I . Assume $[a, b] \subset I$

$$\text{Then } \underbrace{\int_a^b f(g(x)) g'(x) dx}_{\text{LHS}} = \underbrace{\int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du}_{\text{RHS}}$$

proof

Let F be an antiderivative of f on I (so, $F' = f$ on I)

Then

$$\text{RHS} \stackrel{\text{FTC-2}}{=} F(g(b)) - F(g(a)) = (F \circ g)(b) - (F \circ g)(a) = F(g(x)) \Big|_a^b$$

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

observe
FTC-1

$$\int_a^b f(g(x)) g'(x) dx = \text{LHS}$$

Examples

compute each

① $I = \int x^2 (x^3 + 5)^{114} dx$

Soln: Let $u = x^3 + 5 \Rightarrow du = 3x^2 dx \Rightarrow I = \int \frac{1}{3} u^{114} du = \frac{1}{3} \frac{u^{115}}{115} + C \stackrel{\text{back substitution}}{=} \frac{1}{345} (x^3 + 5)^{115} + C$

② $I = \int \frac{\ln^2 x}{x} dx$

Solution: Let $u = \ln x \Rightarrow du = \frac{dx}{x} \Rightarrow I = \int u^2 du = \frac{u^3}{3} + C \stackrel{\text{back subst.}}{\Rightarrow} \frac{\ln^3(x)}{3} + C$

③ $I = \int_0^{13} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{1+2x}} dx$

Solution: Let $u = 1+2x \Rightarrow du = 2dx \Rightarrow I = \frac{1}{2} \int_{x=0}^{x=13} u^{-2/3} du \left(\begin{array}{l} x=13 \\ u=1+(2 \cdot 13) \\ x=0 \\ u=1+(2 \cdot 0) \end{array} \right) \Rightarrow I = u^{-1/3} \Big|_1^{27} = 3$

④ $I = \int \frac{1}{a^2 + x^2} dx$ where $a \neq 0$ fixed constant.

Solution

observe $I = \int \frac{dx}{a^2 \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{a^2}\right)} = \frac{1}{a^2} \int \frac{1}{1 + \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2} dx$ Let $u = \frac{x}{a}$
 $du = \frac{1}{a} dx$
 some constant

then $I = \frac{1}{a} \int \frac{\frac{1}{a} dx}{1 + \left(\frac{x}{a}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{a} \int \frac{du}{1 + u^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1}(u) + C \stackrel{\text{back subst}}{=} \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$

⑤ $I = \int \frac{dx}{e^x + e^{-x}}$

Soln

observe $I = \int \frac{dx}{e^{-x}(e^{2x} + 1)} = \int \frac{e^x}{e^{2x} + 1} dx$ Let $u = e^x$
 $du = e^x dx \Rightarrow I = \int \frac{du}{u^2 + 1}$
 $= \tan^{-1}(u) + C = \tan^{-1}(e^x) + C$

⑥ $I = \int \frac{dx}{(e^x + 1)}$

Soln Let $e^x = \frac{1}{t}$ $\Rightarrow I = \int \frac{-\frac{1}{t} dt}{\left(\frac{1}{t} + 1\right)} = - \int \frac{1}{t+1} dt$ say $t+1 = u$
 $dt = du \Rightarrow - \int \frac{du}{u} = -\ln|u| + C$
 $\frac{1}{t} \leftarrow e^x dx = -t^{-2} dt \Rightarrow dx = -t^{-1} dt$
 $-\ln|u| + C = -\ln|t+1| + C = -\ln|1 + e^{-x}| + C$

⑦ $I = \int \frac{\sin(\cos x)}{u} \cdot \cos(\cos x) \sin x dx}{-du}$

Soln

Let $u = \sin(\cos x)$
 $du = \cos(\cos x) \cdot (-\sin x) dx$
 $\Rightarrow I = - \int u du = \frac{-u^2}{2} + C = \frac{-\sin^2(\cos x)}{2} + C$

$$\textcircled{8} I = \int \tan x dx$$

Soln:

observe $I = \int \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} dx$ let $u = \cos x$
 $du = -\sin x dx \Rightarrow I = \int \frac{-du}{u} = -\ln|u| + C$

(back subst.) $= -\ln|\cos x| + C$

$$\textcircled{9} I = \int \sec w dw$$

Solution

$$I = \int \frac{\sec w (\sec w + \tan w)}{(\sec w + \tan w)} dw = \int \frac{\overbrace{(\sec^2 w + \sec w \tan w)}^{du}}{\underbrace{\sec w + \tan w}_u} dw$$

Let $\sec w + \tan w = u$
 $(\sec w \tan w + \sec^2 w) dw = du \Rightarrow I = \int \frac{du}{u} = \ln|u| + C = \ln|\sec w + \tan w| + C$

- exercise -

compute $\int \csc x$

try-1- $\int \frac{\sin x}{\sin^2 x} dx = I$ let $u = \cos x$
 $du = -\sin x dx \Rightarrow I = \int \frac{-du}{1-u^2} = -\frac{1}{2} \int \left(\frac{1}{1-u} + \frac{1}{1+u} \right) du$

$$\ln \frac{1+\cos x}{1-\cos x} = -\frac{1}{2} (-\ln|1-u| + \ln|1+u|) + C$$

$$= -\frac{1}{2} (\ln|1-\cos x| + \ln|1+\cos x|) + C$$

try-2- method in the prev. example

$I = \int \frac{\csc x (\cot x - \csc x)}{\cot x - \csc x} dx$ let $u = \cot x - \csc x$
 $du = -\csc^2 x + (-\csc x \cot x) dx$

$$\Rightarrow I = \int \frac{du}{u} = \ln|u| + C = \ln|\cot x - \csc x| + C$$

Thm = (Integrals of Symmetric Functions)

Suppose f is cont. on $[-a, a]$

Then

(i) if f is odd $\Rightarrow \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0$

(ii) if f is even $\Rightarrow \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx$

Proof of ii

Let $u = -x \Rightarrow \begin{cases} du = -dx \\ x = -a \Rightarrow u = a \\ x = a \Rightarrow u = 0 \end{cases}$

Now observe,

$$\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = - \int_a^0 f(-u) du = - \int_a^0 f(u) du = \int_0^a f(u) du$$

since integral variables are dummy $\equiv \int_0^a f(x) dx$

$$\text{So, } \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = \underbrace{\int_{-a}^0 f(x) dx}_{\int_0^a f(x) dx} + \int_0^a f(x) dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx$$

example:

Compute $\int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \left(\frac{x^2 + \sin x}{1+x^6} + \frac{114}{\pi} \right) dx$

Soln: Observe $\frac{x^2 + \sin x}{1+x^6}$ is odd. (Verify by showing $f(x) = -f(-x)$)

So, last thm implies (addition property of integrals)

$$I = \underbrace{\int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \frac{x^2 + \sin x}{1+x^6} dx}_0 + \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \frac{114}{\pi} dx = \frac{114}{\pi} (x) \Big|_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} = \frac{114}{\pi} \pi = 114$$

Techniques of Integration

Integration By Parts (IP)

Recall: The product rule for differentiation:

$$[f(x) \cdot g(x)]' = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$$

So, by integrating both sides gives

$$\begin{aligned}\int [f(x)g(x)]' dx &= \int [f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)] dx \\ &= \int f'(x)g(x) dx + \int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x)\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x) dx \quad \text{"the IP formula"}$$

By letting $u=f(x)$, $v=g(x)$ we get a form which is easier to remember:

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du \quad \text{IP for indefinite integrals formulae.}$$

$$\text{Similarly } \int_a^b u dv = uv \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b v du \quad \text{IP formula for definite int.}$$

Strategy for IP: If $\int u dv$ is very hard (or impossible) to compute, then compute $\int v du$ and use above IP formula.

Example Evaluate the given integral.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad I = \int \frac{x}{u} \frac{\sin x dx}{dv}$$

Soln

$$\begin{aligned}u &= x \\ dv &= \sin x dx \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} du &= dx \\ v &= -\cos x \end{aligned} \Rightarrow I \stackrel{(\text{by IP})}{=} -x \cos x - \int -\cos x dx = -x \cos x + \sin x + C\end{aligned}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad I = \int x \sec^2 x dx$$

Soln

$$\begin{aligned}u &= x \\ dv &= \sec^2 x dx \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} du &= dx \\ v &= \tan x \end{aligned} \Rightarrow I \stackrel{(\text{by IP})}{=} x \tan x - \int \tan x dx = x \tan x - (-\ln |\cos x|) + C \\ &= x \tan x + \ln |\cos x| + C\end{aligned}$$

exercise: take the deriv. of this

$$(3) I = \int_1^e x^3 \ln x dx$$

Soln

$$u = \ln x$$

$$dv = x^3 dx$$

$$\Rightarrow du = \frac{dx}{x}$$

$$v = \frac{x^4}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \left(\frac{\ln x \cdot x^4}{4} \right) \Big|_{x=1}^{x=e} - \int_{x=1}^{x=e} \frac{x^4}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \frac{\ln x \cdot x^4}{4} \Big|_{x=1}^{x=e} - \frac{x^4}{16} \Big|_{x=1}^{x=e} = \frac{e^4}{4} - \frac{e^4}{16} - \frac{1}{16}$$

$$(4) I = \int \frac{\ln(x)}{u} \frac{dx}{dv}$$

Solution

$$u = \ln x$$

$$\Rightarrow du = dx \cdot \frac{1}{x}$$

$$dv = dx$$

$$v = x$$

$\Rightarrow$ (by IP)

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

$$(5) I = \int t^2 e^{-3t} dt$$

Solution

$$u = t^2$$

$$du = 2t dt$$

$$v = e^{-3t} \Rightarrow dv = -\frac{1}{3} e^{-3t} dt$$

$\Rightarrow$ by IP

$$I = t^2 \cdot \frac{1}{3} e^{-3t} - \int \frac{1}{3} e^{-3t} \cdot 2t dt$$

$\otimes$

$$\otimes \frac{2}{3} \int e^{-3t} 2t dt \quad \text{let } u = t \quad du = dt \quad dv = e^{-3t} \Rightarrow v = \frac{1}{-3} e^{-3t} \quad \text{by IP } \otimes = t \cdot \frac{1}{-3} e^{-3t} - \int \frac{1}{-3} e^{-3t} dt = \frac{-t e^{-3t}}{3} - \frac{e^{-3t}}{-9} + C_0$$

$$\text{So, } I = \frac{-t^2 \cdot e^{-3t}}{3} + \left(\frac{-t \cdot e^{-3t}}{3} \right) + \frac{e^{-3t}}{9} + C \quad (C = \frac{2}{3} C_0)$$

Recall

Integration by Parts (IP)

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

$$\int_{x=a}^{x=b} u dv = uv \Big|_{x=a}^{x=b} - \int_{x=a}^{x=b} v du$$

example: $I = \int \underbrace{e^x}_u \underbrace{\sin x dx}_{dv}$

solution

Let $u = e^x \Rightarrow du = e^x dx$

$dv = \sin x dx \Rightarrow v = -\cos x$

Then by IP $I = e^x(-\cos x) - \int (-\cos x) e^x dx = -e^x \cos x + \underbrace{\int e^x \cos x dx}_{\tilde{J}}$ (*)

for $\tilde{J}$: let $\left. \begin{array}{l} u_1 = e^x \\ dv_1 = \cos x dx \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{l} du_1 = e^x dx \\ v_1 = \sin x \end{array}$

(by IP) $\tilde{J} = e^x \sin x - \underbrace{\int \sin x e^x dx}_I \Rightarrow \tilde{J} = e^x \sin x - I$

$\Rightarrow -e^x \cos x + e^x \sin x - I = I \Rightarrow I = \frac{e^x \sin x - \cos x}{2} + C$ (*)

exercise Compute $\int e^{ax} \sin(bx) dx$ where $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ any constants.

TRIGONOMETRIC INTEGRALS

$(m, n \in \mathbb{Z}^+)$

• Strategy for $\int \sin^m x \cos^n x dx$

(a) n is odd

(we'll reserve 1 cos to use it in the substitution step)

- * save 1 cosine
- * use $\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$
- * let $u = \sin x$

(b) m is odd

- * save 1 sine
- * use $\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$
- * let $u = \cos x$

(c) m, n are even

use half angle identities

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

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

$$\sin x \cos x = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x$$

example: compute $I = \int \sin^6 x \cos^3 x dx$

solution: Here $m=6$, $n=3$ (odd). So, (a) implies

$$I = \int \sin^6 x \underbrace{\cos^2 x}_{1 - \sin^2 x} \cos x dx, \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Let } u = \sin x \\ du = \cos x dx \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \int u^6 (1 - u^2) du = \int (u^6 - u^8) du = \frac{u^7}{7} - \frac{u^9}{9} + C$$

back subst. ($u = \sin x$)

$$\boxed{\frac{\sin^7(x)}{7} - \frac{\sin^9(x)}{9} + C}$$

exercise

compute $\int \sin^2 x \cos^2 x dx$ (Apply (c))

• Strategy for $\int \tan^m x \sec^n x dx$

(a) n is even $\Rightarrow$ $\begin{cases} * \text{ save one } \sec^2 x \text{ factor} \\ * \text{ use } \sec^2 x = 1 + \tan^2 x \\ * \text{ let } u = \tan x \end{cases}$

(b) m is odd $\begin{cases} * \text{ save one } \sec x \tan x \text{ factor} \\ * \text{ use } \tan^2 x = \sec^2 x - 1 \\ * \text{ let } u = \sec x \end{cases}$

(c) otherwise We are all alone...

- * manipulations
- * reduction techniques
- * IP
- ... might be useful.

example compute $I = \int \frac{\tan^3 x}{\cos^5 x} dx$

soln: $I = \int \tan^3 x \sec^5 x dx$

Here $m=3$, odd. (b) applies.

$I = \int \tan^2 x \sec^4 x \tan x \sec x dx$ let $u = \sec x$
 $du = \tan x \sec x dx$

then $I = \int (\sec^2 x - 1) \sec^4 x \tan x \sec x dx = \int (u^2 - 1) u^4 du = \int (u^6 - u^4) du = \frac{u^7}{7} - \frac{u^5}{5} + C$

$u = \sec x \Rightarrow I = \frac{\sec^7 x}{7} - \frac{\sec^5 x}{5} + C$

• Strategy for $\int \sin(mx) \cos(nx) dx$ or $\int \sin(mx) \sin(nx) dx$
or $\int \cos(mx) \cos(nx) dx$

Use the following identities:

a) $\sin \alpha \cdot \cos \beta = \frac{1}{2} [\sin(\alpha - \beta) + \sin(\alpha + \beta)]$

b) $\sin \alpha \cdot \sin \beta = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(\alpha - \beta) - \cos(\alpha + \beta)]$

c) $\cos \alpha \cdot \cos \beta = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(\alpha - \beta) + \cos(\alpha + \beta)]$

example: Compute $I = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi/6} \sin(4x) \sin(5x) dx$

solution Use (b) with $\alpha = 4x$ $\beta = 5x$

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi/6} (\cos(4x - 5x) - \cos(4x + 5x)) dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi/6} (\cos(-x) - \cos(9x)) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sin(x) - \frac{1}{9} \sin(9x) \right) \Big|_{-\pi}^{\pi/6} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{9} \sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right) \right) - \left(0 - \frac{1}{9} (0) \right) \right] \end{aligned}$$

example Compute $I = \int \frac{\sin x}{\sin 2x} dx = \frac{11}{36}$

sol $I = \int \frac{\sin x}{2 \sin x \cos x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \sec x dx$ (as before) $= \frac{1}{2} (\ln |\sec x + \tan x|) + C$

example Compute $I = \int_{\pi/3}^{\pi} \frac{dx}{\cos x - 1}$

soln

Use the identity
 $\cos x = 1 - 2 \sin^2(x/2)$

$$I = \int_{\pi/3}^{\pi} \frac{dx}{1 - 2 \sin^2(x/2) - 1} = -\frac{1}{2} \int_{\pi/3}^{\pi} \csc^2(x/2) dx$$

let $u = \cot(x/2)$
 $du = -\csc^2(x/2) \cdot \frac{1}{2}$

$$I = \int_{x=\pi/3}^{x=\pi} du = u \Big|_{x=\pi/3}^{x=\pi}$$

$$I = \cot(x/2) \Big|_{\pi/3}^{\pi} = \cot(\pi/2) - \cot(\pi/6)$$

$$= 0 - \sqrt{3} = -\sqrt{3}$$

REDUCTION FORMULAS

$$(1) \int \sin^n x dx = -\frac{1}{n} \sin^{n-1} x \cos x + \frac{n-1}{n} \int \sin^{n-2} x dx \quad (n \in \mathbb{Z}^+)$$

$$(2) \int \tan^n x dx = \frac{1}{n-1} \tan^{n-1} x - \int \tan^{n-2} x dx$$

$$(3) \int \sec^n x dx = \frac{1}{n-1} \sec^{n-2} x \tan x + \frac{n-2}{n-1} \int \sec^{n-2} x dx$$

Similarly, $\cos$, $\cot$, $\csc$... (do the pf's as exercise)

proof of (1)

We apply Integration by Parts.

$$\text{Let } u = \sin^{n-1} x$$

$$du = (n-1) \sin^{n-2} x \cos x dx$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$v = -\cos x$$

$$\text{So, } I = \int \sin^n x dx = -\sin^{n-1} x \cos x - \int -\cos x (n-1) \sin^{n-2} x \cos x dx$$

MATEMATİK TOPLULUĞU

$$-\cos^2 x = -1 + \sin^2 x$$

$$\text{thus } I = -\sin^{n-1} x \cos x - (n-1) \int (\sin^2 x - 1) \sin^{n-2} x dx$$

$$\int (\sin^n x - \sin^{n-2} x) dx$$

$$I = -\sin^{n-1} x \cos x - (n-1) \int \sin^n x dx + (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x dx$$

$$I(1+n-1) = -\cos x \sin^{n-1} x - (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x dx$$

$\therefore$ dividing both sides with n gives the required formulas.

INTEGRALS OF RATIONAL FUNCTIONS

Goal: Given two polynomials

$$P(x) = \underset{\neq 0}{a_n} x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$$

$$Q(x) = \underset{\neq 0}{b_m} x^m + b_{m-1} x^{m-1} + \dots + b_1 x + b_0$$

We want to compute $\int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx$.

Remark: $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ is called a rational function.

This can be done by using long division (if necessary) and then applying the partial fraction method.

~Steps~

I If $n = \deg(P) \geq \deg(Q) = m$

then first divide $P(x)$ by $Q(x)$ using the long division.

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \underbrace{S(x)}_{\substack{\downarrow \\ \text{resulting} \\ \text{polyn.}}} + \underbrace{\frac{R(x)}{Q(x)}}_{\substack{\text{remainder} \\ \text{polyn.}}}$$

* this division should continue until $\deg(R) < \deg(Q)$

$$\text{II} \quad \int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} dx = \int S(x) dx + \underbrace{\int \frac{R(x)}{Q(x)} dx}_{\text{part. frac. method}}$$

III Rules for partial fractions

* Factor $Q(x)$ as much as possible

* Use the following table to determine partial fractions needed

(continued next page)

factor of $Q(x)$

corresponding partial fraction contribution

linear factor

$$(ax+b)^r$$

$$\frac{A_1}{ax+b} + \frac{A_2}{(ax+b)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_r}{(ax+b)^r}$$

irreducible factor

$$(ax^2+bx+c)^r$$

$$\frac{A_1(x)+B_1}{ax^2+bx+c} + \frac{A_2(x)+B_2}{(ax^2+bx+c)^2} + \dots + \frac{A_r(x)+B_r}{(ax^2+bx+c)^r}$$

$$\Delta = b^2 - 4ac < 0$$

(r: multiplicity)

• Once all unknowns $A_1, \dots, A_r, B_1, \dots, B_r$ are determined we can easily compute

$$\int \frac{R(x)}{Q(x)} dx$$

examples Compute each integral.

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

solution $\deg(P) = 3 > \deg(Q) = 2$. So, start with long division

$$\begin{array}{r|l} x^3+2x^2-2x+1 & x^2-1 \\ -x^3+x & x+2 \\ \hline 2x^2-x+1 & \\ -2x^2+2 & \\ \hline -x+3 & \rightarrow \deg < 2 \end{array}$$

So, $\frac{x^3+2x^2-2x+1}{x^2-1} = x+2 + \frac{3-x}{x^2-1}$

Now, $Q(x) = (x-1)(x+1) = x^2-1$

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

$$\Rightarrow A(x)+A+B(x)-B = 3-x$$

$$\begin{aligned} A+B &= -1 \\ A-B &= 3 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \underline{A=1, B=-2}$$

So, $\frac{3-x}{x^2-1} = \frac{1}{x-1} + \frac{-2}{x+1}$

Hence I becomes $I = \int \left(x+2 + \frac{1}{x-1} + \frac{-2}{x+1} \right) dx$

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

$$\textcircled{2} \quad I = \int \frac{-12x}{4x^2 - 4x + 1} dx$$

Soln $\deg P < 2$. No long division needed.

$Q(x) = 4x^2 - 4x + 1 = (2x-1)^2$ we have 1 distinct factor with multiplicity $r=2$

$$\frac{-12x}{(2x-1)^2} = \frac{A}{(2x-1)} + \frac{B}{(2x-1)^2} \Rightarrow 2Ax - A + B = -12x \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} B &= 4 \\ 2A &= -12 \\ A &= -6 = B \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{So, } \frac{-12x}{(2x-1)^2} = \frac{-6}{2x-1} - \frac{6}{(2x-1)^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Hence } I &= -6 \int \left(\frac{1}{2x-1} + \frac{1}{(2x-1)^2} \right) dx = -6 \left(\frac{\ln|2x-1|}{2} - \frac{(2x-1)^{-1}}{2} \right) + C \\ &= -3 \ln|2x-1| + \frac{3}{(2x-1)} + C \end{aligned}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad I = \int \frac{x^4 + 81}{x(x^2+9)^2} dx$$

$\deg(P) = 4 < \deg(Q) = 5$ no long division needed.

$Q(x) = x \cdot (x^2+9)^2$ 2 distinct factors. $\rightarrow x$ mult. = 1 (linear factor)
 $\rightarrow (x^2+9)$ mult. = 2 (irreducible $\Delta < 0$)
 $(a=1 \ b=0 \ c=9)$

$$\frac{x^4 + 81}{x(x^2+9)^2} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B_1(x) + C_1}{x^2+9} + \frac{B_2(x) + C_2}{(x^2+9)^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{A}x^4 + 18x^2A + 81A + \underline{B_1}x^4 + C_1x^3 + 9B_1x^2 + 9C_1x + B_2x^2 + C_2x$$

$$A + B_1 = 1 \Rightarrow B_1 = 0$$

$$x^2(18A + 9B_1 + B_2) = 0$$

$$x \left(\frac{9C_1 + C_2}{0} \right) = 0$$

$$B_2 = -18$$

$$\frac{x^4 + 81}{x(x^2+9)^2} = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{-18x}{(x^2+9)^2}$$

$$I = \int \frac{1}{x} dx + \int \frac{-18x}{(x^2+9)^2} dx$$

Let $x^2+9 = u$
 $2x dx = du$
 so this integral becomes
 $\int \frac{-9 du}{u^2} = -9u^{-1} + C$
 $= 9(x^2+9)^{-1} + C$

overall, $I = \ln|x| + 9(x^2+9)^{-1} + C$

INVERSE TRIGONOMETRIC SUBSTITUTIONS

Strategy

expression appeared
in the integral

corresponding
substitution (suggested)

$$a^2 - x^2$$

$$x = a \sin \theta$$

$$x^2 - a^2$$

$$x = a \sec \theta$$

$$a^2 + x^2$$

$$x = a \tan \theta$$

Example Compute each integral

① $I = \int \frac{x dx}{\sqrt{9-x^2}}$

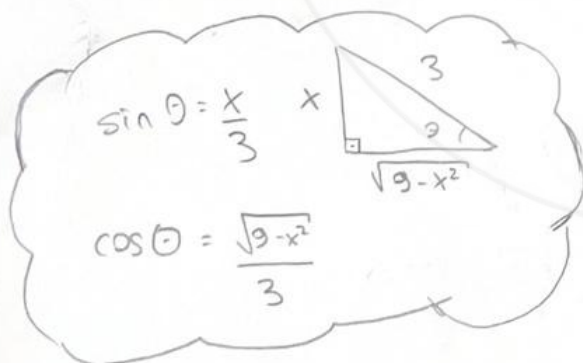
• instead of this new technique basic u subst. still applies here

let $u = 9-x^2$ $\Rightarrow I = \int \frac{-\frac{1}{2} du}{\sqrt{u}} = -\frac{1}{2} 2u^{\frac{1}{2}} = -\sqrt{u} = -\sqrt{9-x^2} + C$
 $du = -2x dx$

• using the new idea

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

back subst. $= -3 \frac{\sqrt{9-x^2}}{3} + C = -\sqrt{9-x^2} + C$



$$2 \quad I = \int \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 49}}{x} dx$$

let $x = 7 \sec \theta$

$dx = 7 \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta$

$$I = \int \frac{\sqrt{49(\sec^2 \theta - 1)}}{7 \sec \theta} \cancel{7 \sec \theta} \tan \theta d\theta$$

(consider $\tan \theta > 0$)

$$= \int 7 \tan \theta \tan \theta d\theta = 7 \int \tan^2 \theta d\theta = 7 \int (\sec^2 \theta - 1) d\theta$$

$$= 7 \tan \theta + \theta + C$$

$\sec \theta = \frac{x}{7}$

$\cos \theta = \frac{7}{x}$



back
subst.

$$= \frac{7 \sqrt{x^2 - 49}}{7} + 7 \arccos\left(\frac{7}{x}\right) + C$$



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example

Compute $I = \int \frac{8}{(4x^2+1)^2} dx$

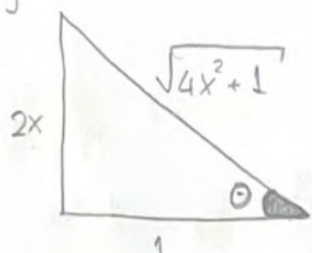
soln: let $2x = \tan \theta$

$$dx = \frac{1}{2} \sec^2 \theta d\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \int \frac{8}{\underbrace{(\tan^2 \theta + 1)^2}_{\sec^2 \theta}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \sec^2 \theta d\theta$$

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

$$\int 4 \cos^2 \theta d\theta = 4 \int \frac{1}{2} (\cos 2\theta + 1) d\theta = 2 \int (\cos 2\theta + 1) d\theta \quad (*)$$



$$\Rightarrow \sin \theta = \frac{2x}{\sqrt{4x^2+1}}$$

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

$$(*) = 2 \int (\cos 2\theta + 1) d\theta = 2 \cdot \left[\frac{1}{2} (\sin 2\theta) + \theta \right] + C$$

back

substitution

$$= 2 \left[\frac{2x}{\sqrt{4x^2+1}} + \tan^{-1}(2x) \right] + C$$

$\tan\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$ substitution

This is useful when we integrate rational expressions involving trigonometric functions.

idea: By letting $t = \tan\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$ we can easily compute $dx, \sin x, \cos x, \sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right), \cos\left(\frac{x}{2}\right), \sin(2x), \cos(2x) \dots$

more importantly this substitution transforms the given integral into the integral of a rational function in the new t variable.

More precisely: Let $t = \tan\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$ (where $-\pi < x < \pi$)

$$dt = \sec^2\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{2} dx$$

example

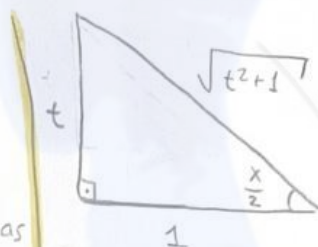
Find $I = \int \frac{1}{\sin x} dx$

soln
Let $t = \tan\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$ Then by the formulas we have

$$I = \int \frac{1}{\frac{2t}{1+t^2}} \cdot \frac{1}{1+t^2} dt = \int \frac{dt}{t}$$

$$= \ln|t| + C$$

back subst. = $\ln\left|\tan\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)\right| + C$



$$\Rightarrow \cos\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+t^2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) = \frac{t}{\sqrt{1+t^2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sec^2\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{\cos^2\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)} = 1+t^2$$

$$\Rightarrow dt = (1+t^2) \cdot \frac{1}{2} dx \Rightarrow dx = \frac{2 dt}{1+t^2}$$

Also, $\sin(x) = 2 \sin\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$

$$\Rightarrow \sin(x) = \frac{2t}{1+t^2}$$

Similarly, $\cos(x), \sin(2x), \cos(2x) \dots$ can be calculated.

example: Compute $I = \int \frac{dx}{\sin x - \cos x}$

Solution Let $t = \tan(\frac{x}{2})$

by previous
formulas

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

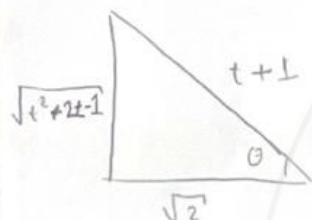
$$\text{Let } t+1 = \sqrt{2} \sec \theta \Rightarrow dt = \sec \theta \tan \theta \sqrt{2} d\theta$$

$$I = \int \frac{2}{2 \sec^2 \theta - 2} \sqrt{2} \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta = \int \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\cos \theta} \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta} d\theta = \sqrt{2} \int \csc \theta d\theta$$

earlier
result

$$= -\ln |\csc \theta + \cot \theta| \cdot \sqrt{2} + C$$

back subst



$$= -\sqrt{2} \ln \left| \frac{\frac{t+1}{\sqrt{t^2+2t+1}} + \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{t^2+2t+1}}}{\sqrt{t^2+2t+1}} \right| + C$$

$$= -\sqrt{2} \ln \left| \frac{\tan(\frac{x}{2}) + 1 + \sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{1 + \tan^2(\frac{x}{2}) + 2 \tan(\frac{x}{2}) - 1}} \right| + C$$

Some other substitutions

① Compute $I = \int \frac{1}{1+\sqrt{2x}} dx$

soln
Let $\sqrt{2x} = u$

$$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{2x}} \cdot 2 dx = du \Rightarrow dx = u du$$

$$\Rightarrow I = \int \frac{u}{1+u} du = \int \frac{u+1-1}{u+1} du = \int \left(1 - \frac{1}{u+1}\right) du = u - \ln|u+1| + C$$

back
subst

$$= \sqrt{2x} - \ln|\sqrt{2x} + 1| + C$$

2) Compute $I = \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}(1+x^{1/3})} dx$

Solution

Let $x = u^6$ ($u > 0$) (equivalently we have $\sqrt[6]{x} = u$)

$\Rightarrow dx = 6u^5 du$

$$\Rightarrow I = 6 \int \frac{u^5 du}{u^3(1+u^2)} = 6 \int \frac{u^2 du}{1+u^2} = 6 \int \frac{u^2+1-1}{u^2+1} du = 6 \int \left(1 - \frac{1}{u^2+1}\right) du$$

$$= 6(u + \tan^{-1}(u)) + C$$

back substitution $= 6[\sqrt[6]{x} - \tan^{-1}(\sqrt[6]{x})] + C$

Improper Integrals

So far we have seen only proper definite integrals.

(that is the integrals whose integrands are bounded continuous functions and whose integration regions are finite closed intervals)

Now, we would like to study some other type of definite integrals. (which we call "improper" definite integrals) by weakening the above conditions of proper integrals. They will arise as certain limits of proper definite integrals.

Defⁿ: A definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is called "improper integral" if

★ either $a = \pm \infty$ or $b = \pm \infty$ (Type-1)

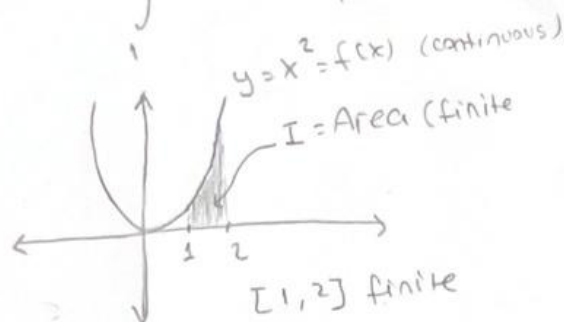
or

★ $f(x)$ has some infinite discontinuity (Type-2) at some points in the finite interval $[a, b]$.

If both happen we call it mixed type improper integral

example:

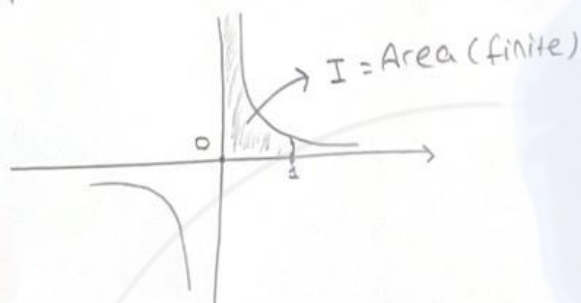
$$I = \int_1^2 x^2 dx \text{ is proper.}$$



$$I = \int_1^{\infty} x^2 dx \text{ is improper}$$



$$I = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx \text{ is improper (type-2)}$$



Defⁿ (Type-I Improper Integrals)

$$(i) \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx \stackrel{\text{defn}}{=} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^t f(x) dx \quad (\text{provided limit exists})$$

$$(ii) \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx \stackrel{\text{defn}}{=} \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \int_t^b f(x) dx \quad (\text{provided limit exists})$$

$$(iii) \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ \& } \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx \text{ are called } \text{convergent} \text{ if the corresponding}$$

limit exist. Otherwise we simply say they are divergent.

(or they do not exist (DNE))

$$(iv) \text{ If } \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ and } \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx \text{ are both convergent, then we define}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx \stackrel{\text{defn}}{=} \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx + \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ which is also convergent.}$$

Defⁿ (Type-II Improper Integrals)

(i) Suppose f is cont. on $[a, b]$ and has ∞ -discontinuity at b

$$\text{Then } \int_a^b f(x) dx \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lim_{t \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^t f(x) dx \quad (\text{provided limit exists})$$

(ii) Suppose f is cont. on $[a, b]$ and has ∞ -discont. at a

$$\text{then } \int_a^b f(x) dx \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lim_{t \rightarrow a^+} \int_t^b f(x) dx \quad (\text{provided limit exists})$$

(iii) The improper integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is called convergent if the defining limit exist. Otherwise, it is called divergent.

(iv) If f has ∞ -discont. at c where $a < c < b$ and if f is cont. on $[a, c) \cup (c, b]$, and both $\int_a^c f(x) dx$ and $\int_c^b f(x) dx$ are convergent,

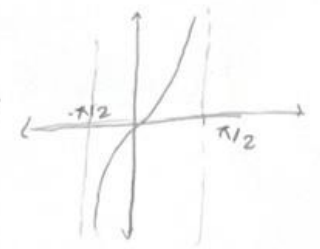
$$\text{Then } \int_a^b f(x) dx \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx, \text{ which is also } \underline{\text{convergent}}.$$

If $\int_a^c f(x) dx$ or $\int_c^b f(x) dx$ is divergent, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is divergent.

example Evaluate each integral if it exists.

① $I = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx$ (type-I)

Soln

$$I = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx$$


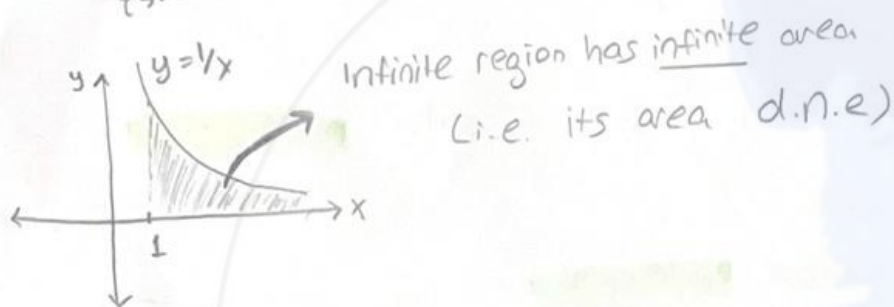
$$I = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \tan^{-1}(x) \Big|_0^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} [\tan^{-1}(t) - 0] = \frac{\pi}{2} \therefore I \text{ is convergent}$$

② $I = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx$

Soln

$$I = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \ln|x| \Big|_1^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} [\ln t - 0] = \infty \quad \text{(DNE)}$$

$\therefore I$ is divergent

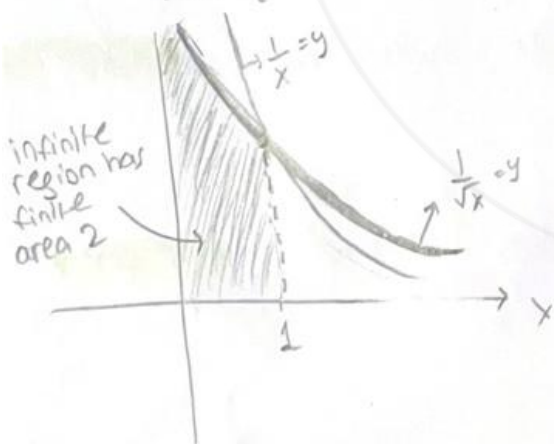


③ $I = \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x}}$ (type-II)

Soln

$$I = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_t^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} 2\sqrt{x} \Big|_t^1 = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} 2(1 - \sqrt{t}) = 2 \therefore I \text{ is conv.}$$

$\therefore I$ converges to 2.



~ exercise ~

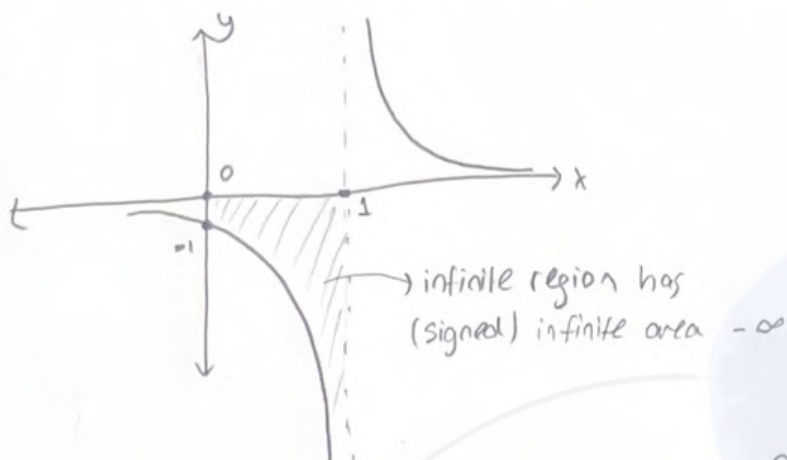
$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x} dx = \infty \text{ (DNE) divergent}$$

$$\text{try-1 } \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln|1| - \ln|t|}{0 - \infty} \Rightarrow \text{dne}$$

(4) $I = \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x-1}$ (Type-II)

Soln.

$$I = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} \ln|x-1| \Big|_0^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} [\ln|\frac{t-1}{1}| - 0] = -\infty \text{ d.n.e}$$



example: Determine if $I = \int_0^{\infty} \sin x \cdot e^{-x} dx$ is convergent.

Soln. This is Type-I

We know $0 \leq$ - This is ACT example. I stopped writing. It's on the next pages



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example Evaluate if it exists.

① $I = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$ (mixed type)

Soln:

Let $I_1 = \int_1^2 \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$

problem occurs for $x=1$. let's start there.

$I_1 = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^+} \int_t^2 \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}} dx$

$= \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^+} \sec^{-1}(x) \Big|_t^2 = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^+} (\underbrace{\sec^{-1}(2)}_{\pi/3} - \sec^{-1}(t))$
 $= \frac{\pi}{3} \text{ (exists)}$

Let $I_2 = \int_2^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_2^t \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \sec^{-1}(x) \Big|_2^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\sec^{-1}(t) - \sec^{-1}(2))$
 $= \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{\pi}{6} \text{ (exists)}$

Hence, I exists. $I = I_1 + I_2 = \frac{\pi}{3} + \frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{\pi}{2}$

② $\int_0^2 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{|x-1|}} = I$

Soln: Let $I_1 = \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{|x-1|}}$

& $I_2 = \int_1^2 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{|x-1|}}$

$I_1 = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^t \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x}} \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} u=1-x \\ du=-dx \end{array} \right) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{-(1-x)^{1/2}}{1/2} \Big|_0^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} -2(\sqrt{1-t} - 1) = 2 = I_1$

$I_2 = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^+} \int_1^t \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x-1}} \quad \left(\begin{array}{l} u=x-1 \\ du=dx \end{array} \right) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{(x-1)^{1/2}}{1/2} \Big|_1^t = 2 = I_2$

$I = I_1 + I_2, \quad 2+2=4 = I //$

P-test for improper integrals

Suppose $a > 0$. Then

$$(i) \int_0^a \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \begin{cases} \text{convergent} & \text{if } p < 1 \\ \text{divergent} & \text{if } p \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$(ii) \int_a^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \begin{cases} \text{convergent} & \text{if } p > 1 \\ \text{divergent} & \text{if } p \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

(Proof of ii) first one is exercise

$$\int_a^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^t x^{-p} dx = \begin{cases} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \ln|x| \Big|_a^t & \text{if } p = 1 \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{-p+1}}{1-p} \Big|_a^t & \text{if } p \neq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{So } \begin{cases} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\ln t - \ln a) & \text{if } p = 1 \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} - \frac{1}{a^{p-1}} \right) & \text{if } p \neq 1 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \text{divergent} & \text{if } p \leq 1 \\ \text{convergent} & \text{if } p > 1 \end{cases}$$

if $p > 1$
0

if $p < 1$
 ∞

example

Given $I = \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/3}}$

(a) Determine convergence.

(b) Compute $J = \int_{-8}^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/3}}$ if it exists.

Soln

• By p-test (with $p = 1/3$) I is convergent.

• Consider $J_1 = \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{dx}{x^{1/3}}$ and $J_2 = \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/3}} = I$

observe that, by defⁿ. J converges if J_2 & J_1 are convergent

$J_2 = I$ is convergent

for $J_2 (= I)$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_t^1 x^{-1/3} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \left[\frac{x^{2/3}}{2/3} \right]_t^1 = \frac{3}{2} \left(1 - t^{2/3} \right)$$

$$J_2 = 3/2$$

$$\text{For } J_1 \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \int_{-8}^t x^{-1/3} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{3}{2} x^{2/3} \Big|_{-8}^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{3}{2} (t^{2/3} - (-8)^{2/3})$$

$$J_1 = -4 \cdot \frac{3}{2} = -6$$

$$J = J_1 + J_2 = 2/3 - 6 = 16/3 //$$

Exercise

$$I = \int_2^{\infty} \frac{2}{x^2-1} dx$$

(Answer: $\ln 3$)

(Direct) Comparison Test (CT)

(a : fixed constant)

Suppose $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x) \quad \forall x \in [a, \infty)$ (f, g are cont)

Then

(i) $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$ conver. $\Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$ conver.

(ii) $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$ div. $\Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$ diver

Proof of (i)

(ii) follows from (i) as being they are contrapositive of each other)

Let $F(t) = \int_a^t f(x) dx$ Then by assumption, since $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$ is convergent

$G(t) = \int_a^t g(x) dx$ $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} G(t) = \int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx = L$ (finite) exists

In order to show $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$ convergent, we need to show $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} F(t)$ exists.

Observe that, F & G are both increasing because f & g are positive.

Also, $F(t) \leq G(t) \quad \forall t \in [a, \infty)$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} F(t) \leq \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} G(t) = L \text{ (finite)} \Rightarrow F(t) \leq L, \quad \forall t \in [a, \infty)$$

Therefore, being increasing and bounded above (by L), we conclude that $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} F(t)$ exists. $\square$

Properties of Convergent Improper Integrals

Suppose $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$, $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ are both convergent,

and $c \in \mathbb{R}$ any constant. (f, g are cont.)

Then (i) $\int_a^\infty [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int_a^\infty f(x) dx + \int_a^\infty g(x) dx$

(ii) $\int_a^\infty c f(x) dx = c \int_a^\infty f(x) dx$

Proof of (ii)

By assumption, if $F(t) = \int_a^t f(x) dx$,

then $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} F(t) = L$ (exists) finite

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } \int_a^\infty c f(x) dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^t c f(x) dx = c \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^t f(x) dx = c \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} F(t) = cL \\ &= c \int_a^\infty f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

Defⁿ:

$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ is called **absolutely convergent**

if $\int_a^\infty |f(x)| dx$ is convergent

Thm: (Absolute Convergence Theorem) (ACT)

Absolutely converge $\Rightarrow$ conv.

$$\left[\text{i.e. } \int_a^\infty |f(x)| dx \text{ conv. } \Rightarrow \int_a^\infty f(x) dx \text{ conv.} \right]$$

proof By assumption $\int_a^\infty |f(x)| dx$ exists (finite)

we know $-|f(x)| \leq f(x) \leq |f(x)|$, $\forall x \in [a, \infty)$

$$\Rightarrow 0 \leq f(x) + |f(x)| \leq 2|f(x)| \quad \forall x \in [a, \infty)$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^\infty 2|f(x)| \text{ is convergent} \Rightarrow \int_a^\infty [f(x) + |f(x)|] dx \text{ is conv.}$$

Property

(CT)

Remark All defns. and results about absolute convergence, and also Comparison Test and property of convergent improper integrals can be stated and verified for Type II improper integrals as well.

for instance,

CT for Type-II Improper Integrals

Suppose $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$, $\forall x \in [a, b)$ (Here f, g are cont. on $[a, b)$, and they both have ∞ -discont. at b)

Then (i) $\int_a^b g(x) dx$ conv. $\Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx$ conv.

(ii) $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ div. $\Rightarrow \int_a^b g(x) dx$ div.

example Determine if $I = \int_a^\infty \sin x e^{-x} dx$ is convergent.

Soln: This is type-II ✓

We know $0 \leq |\sin(x)| \leq 1$ $\forall x \in [a, \infty)$

$\Rightarrow 0 \leq e^{-x} |\sin(x)| \leq e^{-x}$, $\forall x \in [a, \infty)$

$$\text{Also, } \int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t e^{-x} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} -e^{-x} \Big|_0^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} [-e^{-t} + e^0] = 0 + 1 \text{ (finite)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx \text{ conv.} \xRightarrow{\text{C.T.}} \int_0^\infty |\sin x| e^{-x} dx \text{ conv.} \xRightarrow{\text{(A.C.T.)}} I \text{ is convergent.}$$

Limit Comparison Test

Suppose $f(x) \geq 0$, $g(x) \geq 0$ on $[a, \infty)$

Consider $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ (So, $0 \leq L \leq \infty$)

then (i) $L = 0$ & $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ conv. $\Rightarrow \int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ conv.

(ii) $L = \infty$ & $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ div. $\Rightarrow \int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ div.

(iii) $0 < L < \infty$ $\Rightarrow \int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ convergent $\Leftrightarrow \int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ conv.
divergent $\Leftrightarrow$ div.

(i.e. they behave the same)

Proof of (iii)

Assume $L \neq 0$ and finite (positive finite number)

Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L \Rightarrow \exists \varepsilon > 0$ such that

$$0 < L - \varepsilon < \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} < L + \varepsilon \quad \forall x > M \quad \text{for some } M > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} &0 < (L - \varepsilon) g(x) < f(x) < (L + \varepsilon) g(x) \quad \forall x > M \\ &\quad \text{①} \quad \quad \quad \text{②} \end{aligned}$$

now observe $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ conv. $\Rightarrow (L + \varepsilon) \int_M^\infty g(x) dx$ conv. $\xRightarrow{\text{C.T.}} \int_M^\infty f(x) dx \Leftrightarrow \int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ conv.

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx \text{ conv.} \Leftrightarrow \int_M^\infty f(x) dx \text{ conv.} \xRightarrow{\text{C.T.}} (L - \varepsilon) \int_M^\infty f(x) dx \text{ conv.} \Leftrightarrow \int_a^\infty g(x) dx \text{ conv.}$$

example Determine whether given integral is convergent or not

① $I = \int_4^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}+1} dx$

Solution

Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}+1} > 0$ & $g(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} > 0$

observe $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}+1}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x}+1} \stackrel{L^R}{=} 1$ (finite)

Also, $\int_4^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx$ is divergent by p-test ($p = \frac{1}{2} \leq 1$)

$\Rightarrow I$ is also divergent

L.C.T.

(iii)

Remark: LCT has a version also for Type-II improper integrals as well

In that case, $L = \lim_{\substack{x \rightarrow b^- \\ x \rightarrow a^+}} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$

$$(2) \quad I = \int_2^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x} \ln x} dx \quad (\text{type-I})$$

Soln: Say $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x} \ln x} > 0$ $g(x) = \frac{1}{x} > 0$

observe $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{x} \ln x}}{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\ln x} \stackrel{LR}{=} \infty$

Also, $\int_2^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx$ is divergent by p-test ($p=1$)

$\Rightarrow$ I is
LCT
(ii)

$$(3) \quad I = \int_{1/2}^1 \frac{\sin x}{\ln x} dx \quad (\text{type-II})$$

Solution

consider $f(x) = \frac{-\sin x}{\ln x} > 0 \quad \forall x \in [1/2, 1)$

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

Observe $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{\frac{-\sin x}{\ln x}}{\frac{1}{1-x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{-(1-x)}{\ln x} \cdot \frac{\text{some finite number}}{\sin x}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{-(1-x)}{\ln x} \stackrel{LR}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{1/x} = 1$$

Also, $\int_{1/2}^1 \frac{1}{1-x} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} \int_{1/2}^t \frac{1}{1-x} dx \stackrel{u=1-x}{=} \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{1/2}^t \frac{1}{u} du = \int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{u} du$ which is diverges. by p-test $p=1$

$\therefore$ I is divergent by LCT

Area Between Curves

Goal: Given $y = f(x)$, $y = g(x)$ on $[a, b]$, we want to define and compute the area between the graphs of $f(x)$ and $g(x)$.

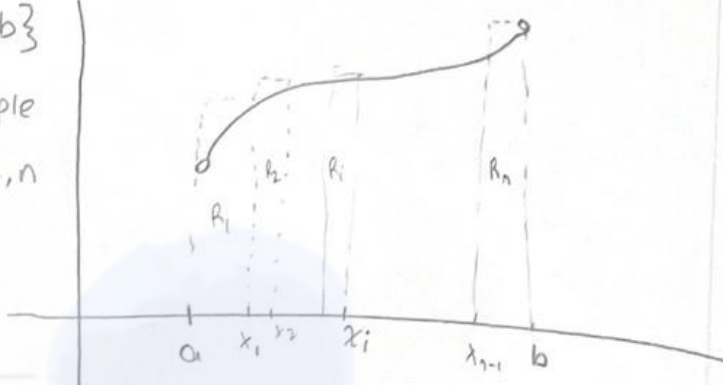
Let $P = \{x_0 = a, x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n = b\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$. Choose a sample point $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n$.

If A exists, then

$$A \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Area}(R_i)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n |f(x_i^*) - g(x_i^*)| \Delta x$$

Riemann sum of $|f(x) - g(x)|$



So, these suggest

Def: $A \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n |f(x_i^*) - g(x_i^*)| \Delta x_i = \int_a^b |f(x) - g(x)| dx$

provided limit ^{the} exists

Example

Find the area A between the graphs of the given functions.

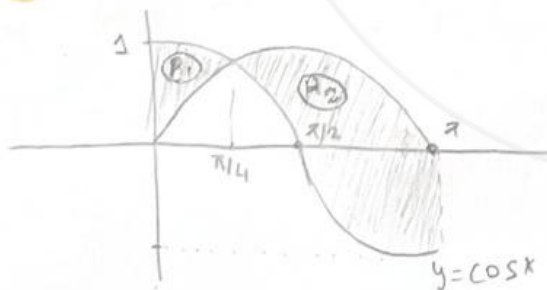
① $f(x) = \cos x$ $g(x) = \sin x$ over $[0, \pi]$

$$\cos x = \sin x \Rightarrow x = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

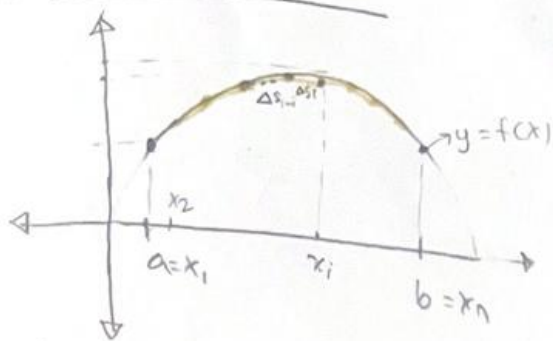
$$A = A_1 + A_2$$

$$\int_0^{\pi/4} (\cos x - \sin x) dx + \int_{\pi/4}^{\pi} (\sin x - \cos x) dx = \int_0^{\pi} |\sin(x) - \cos(x)| dx$$

$$= 2\sqrt{2}$$



proof of case-I



(use sec. lines)

Δx is always positive by definition.

$\{x_0=a, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n=b\}$ is a partition of $[a,b]$

for each $i=1, \dots, n$, $(\Delta s_i)^2 = (\Delta x_i)^2 + (\Delta y_i)^2$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta s_i = \sqrt{(\Delta x_i)^2 + (\Delta y_i)^2}$$

$$= \Delta x_i \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{\Delta y_i}{\Delta x_i}\right)^2}$$

By Mean Value Theorem, $\exists x_i^* \in (x_{i-1}, x_i)$ s.t.

$$f'(x_i^*) = \frac{\Delta y_i}{\Delta x_i}$$

So, if L exists, then

$$L \approx \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta s_i = \sum_{i=1}^n \sqrt{1 + (f'(x_i^*))^2} \Delta x_i$$

or Riemann Sum of $\sqrt{1 + (f'(x_i^*))^2}$

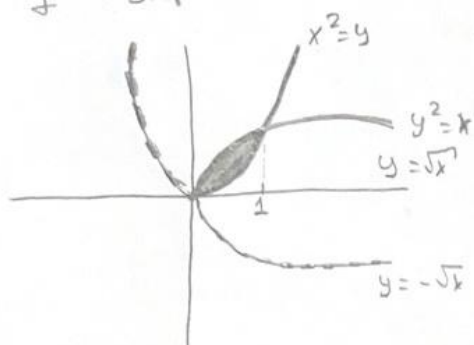
$$L \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \int_a^b \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$$

provided the limit of Riemann Sum exists.

② $y = x^2$ & $y^2 = x$

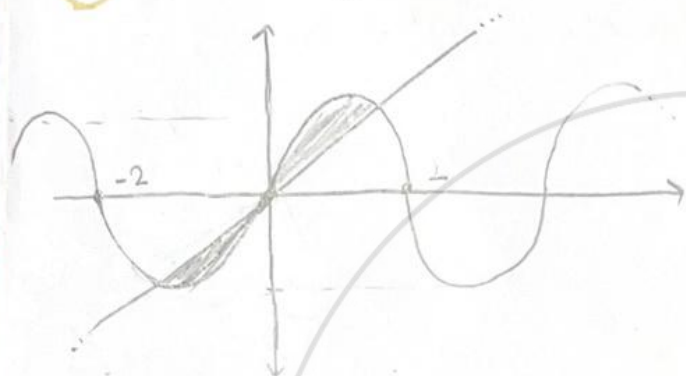
Soln

1st step is drawing a picture.



$$A = \int_0^1 (\sqrt{x} - x^2) dx = \left[\frac{x^{3/2}}{3/2} - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_0^1 = \frac{2}{3} - \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

③ $y = \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{2}\right)$ & $y = x$



$$\sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{2}\right) = x \quad x \in \left[-\frac{1}{2}, 0, 1\right]$$

By symmetry, $A = 2 \int_0^1 (\sin(\frac{\pi x}{2}) - x) dx$

$$= \frac{4}{\pi} - 1$$

(exercise) Find the area of the region enclosed by the curves $y = 8 - x^2$, $y = x^2$, $x = -3$ & $x = 3$. (Answer: $\frac{92}{3}$)

ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Arc Length

MATEMATİK TOPLULUĞU

Goal: Given a curve C in the x - y plane we want to define and compute the length L of C using a definite integral.

We have two basic cases

General curves can be decomposed into parts so that each part falls into one of these two basic cases.

Case-I

$$C: y = f(x), 0 \leq x \leq b$$

$$L = \int_0^b \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx \quad \text{where } f \text{ is cont. diff'able.}$$

Case-II

$$C: x = g(y), c \leq g(y) \leq d$$

$$L = \int_c^d \sqrt{1 + (g'(y))^2} dy \quad \text{where } g \text{ is cont. diff'able}$$