

# Outline

## Section 7: Techniques of Integration

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## 7.1 Integration by Parts

The product rule

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = f(x)g'(x) + f'(x)g(x)$$

implies

$$\int f(x)g'(x)dx + \int f'(x)g(x)dx = f(x)g(x)$$

In other terms,

$$\int f(x)g'(x)dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x)dx$$

## Example

Find  $\int x \sin x \, dx$ .

For  $f(x) = x$  and  $g'(x) = \sin x$  we have  $f'(x) = 1$  and  $g(x) = -\cos x$ , so

$$\begin{aligned}\int x \sin x \, dx &= f(x)g(x) - \int g(x)f'(x) \, dx \\ &= x(-\cos x) - \int (-\cos x) \, dx \\ &= -x \cos x + \int \cos x \, dx \\ &= -x \cos x + \sin x + C\end{aligned}$$

For  $u = f(x)$  and  $v = g(x)$  one has  $du = f'(x) dx$   
 $dv = g'(x) dx$ , so the formula for integration by parts becomes

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

## Example

$$\begin{aligned} u &= x & dv &= \sin x dx \\ du &= dx & v &= -\cos x \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int x \sin x dx &= \int \overbrace{x}^u \overbrace{\sin x dx}^{dv} = \overbrace{x}^u \overbrace{(-\cos x)}^v - \int \overbrace{(-\cos x)}^v \overbrace{dx}^{du} \\ &= -x \cos x + \int \cos x dx \\ &= -x \cos x + \sin x + C \end{aligned}$$

## Example

Find  $\int \ln x \, dx$ . For this let

$$\begin{aligned}u &= \ln x & dv &= dx \\du &= \frac{1}{x} dx & v &= x\end{aligned}$$

One has

$$\begin{aligned}\int \ln x \, dx &= uv - \int v \, du \\&= x \ln x - \int x \frac{dx}{x} \\&= x \ln x - \int dx \\&= x \ln x - x + C\end{aligned}$$

## Example

Find  $\int t^2 e^t dt$ . For this let

$$\begin{aligned} u &= t^2 & dv &= e^t dt \\ du &= 2t dt & v &= e^t, \quad \text{hence} \end{aligned}$$

$$\int t^2 e^t dt = uv - \int v du = t^2 e^t - 2 \int te^t dt$$

Apply integration by parts again with

$$\begin{aligned} u &= t & dv &= e^t dt \\ du &= dt & v &= e^t, \quad \text{so} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \int t^2 e^t dt &= uv - \int v du = t^2 e^t - 2 \int te^t dt \\ &= t^2 e^t - 2(te^t - e^t + C) \\ &= t^2 e^t - 2te^t + 2e^t + C_1 \end{aligned}$$

## Example

Compute  $\int e^x \sin x \, dx$ . Let  $u = e^x$  and  $dv = \sin x \, dx$ . Then  $du = e^x \, dx$  and  $v = -\cos x$ . We apply integration by parts twice:

$$\begin{aligned}\int e^x \sin x \, dx &= -e^x \cos x + \int e^x \cos x \, dx \\ &= -e^x \cos x + e^x \sin x - \int e^x \sin x \, dx\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$2 \int e^x \sin x \, dx = -e^x \cos x + e^x \sin x + C$$

and

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

Integration by parts also applies to definite integrals:

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

### Example

Calculate  $\int_0^1 \tan^{-1} x dx$ . Let  $u = \tan^{-1} x$ ,  $dv = dx$ . Then  $du = \frac{dx}{1+x^2}$  and  $v = x$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 \tan^{-1} x dx &= x \tan^{-1} x \Big|_0^1 - \int_0^1 \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx \\ &= 1 \cdot \tan^{-1} 1 - 0 \cdot \tan^{-1} 0 - \int_0^1 \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx \\ &= \frac{\pi}{4} - \int_0^1 \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx \end{aligned}$$



To evaluate the last integral we use substitution  $t = 1 + x^2$ , which implies

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_1^2 \frac{dt}{t} = \frac{1}{2} \ln |t| \Big|_1^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\ln 2 - \ln 1) = \frac{1}{2} \ln 2\end{aligned}$$

Putting all together,

$$\int_0^1 \tan^{-1} x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\ln 2}{2}$$

## Example

Prove the reduction formula for an integer  $n \geq 2$

$$\int \sin^n x \, dx = -\frac{1}{n} \cos x \sin^{n-1} x + \frac{n-1}{n} \int \sin^{n-2} x \, dx$$

Let  $u = \sin^{n-1} x$ ,  $dv = \sin x \, dx$ . Then  $v = -\cos x$  and  $du = (n-1) \sin^{n-2} x \cos x \, dx$ . Using  $\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$  implies

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin^n x \, dx &= -\cos x \sin^{n-1} x + (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x \cos^2 x \, dx \\ &= -\cos x \sin^{n-1} x + (n-1) \int \sin^{n-2} x \, dx \\ &\quad - (n-1) \int \sin^n x \, dx \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

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

## 7.2 Trigonometric Integrals

Strategy for taking integrals of the form  $\int \sin^m x \cos^{2k+1} x \, dx$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\int \sin^m x \cos^{2k+1} x \, dx &= \int \sin^m x (\cos^2 x)^k \cos x \, dx \\ &= \int \sin^m x (1 - \sin^2 x)^k \cos x \, dx\end{aligned}$$

and then substitute  $u = \sin x$ .

### Example

$$\begin{aligned}\int \cos^3 x \, dx &= \int \cos^2 x \cos x \, dx = \int (1 - \sin^2 x) \cos x \, dx \\ &= \int (1 - u^2) du = u - \frac{1}{3}u^3 + C \\ &= \sin x - \frac{1}{3}\sin^3 x + C\end{aligned}$$

Strategy for taking integrals of the form  $\int \sin^{2k+1} x \cos^n x \, dx$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\int \sin^{2k+1} x \cos^n x \, dx &= \int (\sin^2 x)^k \cos^n x \sin x \, dx \\ &= \int (1 - \cos^2 x)^k \cos^n x \sin x \, dx\end{aligned}$$

and then substitute  $u = \cos x$ .

### Example

$$\begin{aligned}\int \sin^5 x \cos^2 x \, dx &= \int (\sin^2 x)^2 \cos^2 x \sin x \, dx \\ &= \int (1 - \cos^2 x)^2 \cos^2 x \sin x \, dx \\ &= - \int (1 - u^2)^2 u^2 \, du = - \int (u^2 - 2u^4 + u^6) \, du \\ &= - \left( \frac{u^3}{3} - 2\frac{u^5}{5} + \frac{u^7}{7} \right) + C, \quad u = \cos x\end{aligned}$$

Strategy for taking integrals of the form  $\int \sin^{2m} x \cos^{2n} x dx$ :  
use half-angle identities  $\sin x \cos x = \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x$  and

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

### Example

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi} \sin^2 x dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} (1 - \cos 2x) dx \\ &= \left[ \frac{1}{2} \left( x - \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x \right) \right]_0^{\pi} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \pi - \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\pi \right) - \frac{1}{2} \left( 0 - \frac{1}{2} \sin 0 \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Strategy for taking integrals of the form  $\int \tan^m x \sec^{2k} x dx$ : If  $k \geq 2$  use  $\sec^2 x = 1 + \tan^2 x$  to rewrite  $\int$  in terms of  $\tan x$ .

### Example

$$\begin{aligned}\int \tan^6 x \sec^4 x dx &= \int \tan^6 x \sec^2 x \sec^2 x dx \\ &= \int \tan^6 x (1 + \tan^2 x) \sec^2 x dx \\ &= \int u^6 (1 + u^2) du \quad (u = \tan x) \\ &= \int (u^6 + u^8) du = \frac{u^7}{7} + \frac{u^9}{9} + C \\ &= \frac{1}{7} \tan^7 x + \frac{1}{9} \tan^9 x + C\end{aligned}$$

Strategy for taking integrals of the form  $\int \tan^{2k+1} x \sec^n x dx$ :  
use  $\tan^2 x = \sec^2 x - 1$  to rewrite  $\int$  in terms of  $\sec x$ .

### Example

$$\begin{aligned}\int \tan^5 x \sec^7 x dx &= \int \tan^4 x \sec^6 x \sec x \tan x dx \\ &= \int (\sec^2 x - 1)^2 \sec^6 x \sec x \tan x dx \\ &= \int (u^2 - 1)^2 u^6 du \quad (u = \sec x) \\ &= \int (u^{10} - 2u^8 + u^6) du \\ &= \frac{u^{11}}{11} - 2\frac{u^9}{9} + \frac{u^7}{7} + C \quad (u = \sec x)\end{aligned}$$

In other cases there are no general methods. But it is helpful to know:

$$\int \tan x \, dx = \ln |\sec x| + C$$

$$\int \sec x \, dx = \ln |\sec x + \tan x| + C$$

### Example

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



## Example

With  $u = \sec x$  and  $dv = \sec^2 x dx$  one has  $du = \sec x \tan x dx$  and  $v = \tan x$ . Integration by parts provides:

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

Finally,

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

For taking integrals  $\int \sin mx \cos nx \, dx$ ,  $\int \sin mx \sin nx \, dx$  or  $\int \cos mx \cos nx \, dx$  use identities:

- ▶  $\sin A \cos B = \frac{1}{2} [\sin(A - B) + \sin(A + B)]$
- ▶  $\sin A \sin B = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(A - B) - \cos(A + B)]$
- ▶  $\cos A \cos B = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(A - B) + \cos(A + B)]$

### Example

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin 4x \cos 5x \, dx &= \int \frac{1}{2} [\sin(-x) + \sin 9x] \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int (-\sin x + \sin 9x) \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \cos x - \frac{1}{9} \cos 9x \right) + C \end{aligned}$$

## 7.3 Trigonometric Substitution

The regular substitution rule can be reversed as follows:

$$\int f(x) dx = \int f(g(t))g'(t) dt$$

Here is a set of helpful trig substitutions

Expression	Substitution	Identity
$\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$	$x = a \sin \theta, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$	$1 - \sin^2 \theta = \cos^2 \theta$
$\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$	$x = a \tan \theta, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} < \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$	$1 + \tan^2 \theta = \sec^2 \theta$
$\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}$	$x = a \sec \theta, \quad 0 \leq \theta < \frac{\pi}{2}$ or $\pi \leq \theta < \frac{3\pi}{2}$	$\sec^2 \theta - 1 = \tan^2 \theta$

For example, the expression  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$  becomes then

$$\sqrt{a^2 - x^2} = \sqrt{a^2 - a^2 \sin^2 \theta} = \sqrt{a^2(1 - \sin^2 \theta)} = a|\cos \theta|$$

## Example

Evaluate  $\int \frac{\sqrt{9-x^2}}{x^2} dx$ . Let  $x = 3 \sin \theta$ . Then  $dx = 3 \cos \theta d\theta$ , so  $\sqrt{9-x^2} = \sqrt{9-9\sin^2 \theta} = \sqrt{9\cos^2 \theta} = 3|\cos \theta| = 3 \cos \theta$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{\sqrt{9-x^2}}{x^2} dx &= \int \frac{3 \cos \theta}{9 \sin^2 \theta} 3 \cos \theta d\theta \\ &= \int \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{\sin^2 \theta} d\theta = \int \cot^2 \theta d\theta \\ &= \int (\csc^2 \theta - 1) d\theta \\ &= -\cot \theta - \theta + C\end{aligned}$$

Since  $\sin \theta = x/3$ ,  $\theta = \sin^{-1}(x/3)$  and  $\cot \theta = \frac{\sqrt{9-x^2}}{x}$ . Hence,

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

## Example

Find the area enclosed by the ellipse  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ . Solving the equation for  $y$  for  $x \geq 0$  and  $y \geq 0$  results  $y = \frac{b}{a}\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ , so

$$A = 4 \int_0^a \frac{b}{a} \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx. \text{ Substitute } x = a \sin \theta,$$

$dx = a \cos \theta d\theta$ , so  $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2} = a \cos \theta$  and

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{4b}{a} \int_0^a \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx = \frac{4b}{a} \int_0^{\pi/2} a \cos \theta \cdot a \cos \theta d\theta \\ &= 4ab \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2 \theta d\theta = 4ab \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{2}(1 + \cos 2\theta) d\theta \\ &= 2ab \left[ \theta + \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\theta \right]_0^{\pi/2} = 2ab \left( \frac{\pi}{2} + 0 - 0 \right) = \pi ab \end{aligned}$$

### Example

Find  $\int \frac{1}{x^2\sqrt{x^2+4}} dx$ . Let  $x = 2 \tan \theta$ , then  $dx = 2 \sec^2 \theta d\theta$

and  $\sqrt{x^2+4} = \sqrt{4(\tan^2 \theta + 1)} = \sqrt{4 \sec^2 \theta} = 2 \sec \theta$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{1}{x^2\sqrt{x^2+4}} dx &= \frac{1}{4} \int \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin^2 \theta} d\theta = \frac{1}{4} \int \frac{du}{u^2} \\ &= -\frac{1}{4u} + C = -\frac{1}{4 \sin \theta} + C \end{aligned}$$

(here  $u = \sin \theta$ ). Since  $\tan \theta = x/2$ ,  $\sin \theta = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+4}}$ , so

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

## Example

Find  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}}$  for  $a > 0$ . Let  $x = a \sec \theta$ , then  $dx = a \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta$  and

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

Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} &= \int \frac{a \sec \theta \tan \theta}{a \tan \theta} d\theta = \int \sec \theta d\theta \\ &= \ln |\sec \theta + \tan \theta| + C \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\sec \theta = x/a$ ,  $\tan \theta = \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}/a$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} &= \ln \left| \frac{x}{a} + \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}}{a} \right| + C \\ &= \ln |x + \sqrt{x^2 - a^2}| - \ln a + C \end{aligned}$$

## Example

Find  $\int_0^{3\sqrt{3}/2} \frac{x^3}{(4x^2 + 9)^{3/2}} dx$ . Substitute  $x = \frac{3}{2} \tan \theta$  with  $d\theta = \frac{3}{2} \sec^2 \theta d\theta$  and  $\sqrt{4x^2 + 9} = \sqrt{9 \tan^2 \theta + 9} = 3 \sec \theta$ . One has

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{3\sqrt{3}/2} \frac{x^3}{(4x^2 + 9)^{3/2}} dx &= \int_0^{\pi/3} \frac{\frac{27}{8} \tan^3 \theta \cdot \frac{3}{2} \sec^2 \theta d\theta}{27 \sec^3 \theta} \\ &= \frac{3}{16} \int_0^{\pi/3} \frac{\tan^3 \theta}{\sec \theta} d\theta \\ &= \frac{3}{16} \int_0^{\pi/3} \frac{\sin^3 \theta}{\cos^2 \theta} d\theta \\ &= \frac{3}{16} \int_0^{\pi/3} \frac{1 - \cos^2 \theta}{\cos^2 \theta} \sin \theta d\theta \end{aligned}$$



Substitute  $u = \cos \theta$ , so  $du = -\sin \theta d\theta$ . One has

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{3\sqrt{3}/2} \frac{x^3}{(4x^2 + 9)^{3/2}} dx &= -\frac{3}{16} \int_1^{1/2} \frac{1 - u^2}{u^2} du \\ &= \frac{3}{16} \int_1^{1/2} (1 - u^{-2}) du = \frac{3}{16} \left[ u + \frac{1}{u} \right]_1^{1/2} \\ &= \frac{3}{16} \left[ \left( \frac{1}{2} + 2 \right) - (1 + 1) \right] = \frac{3}{32}\end{aligned}$$

### Example

Find  $\int \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 4}} dx$ . With direct substitution  $u = x^2 + 4$   
( $du = 2x dx$ ) we get

$$\int \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 4}} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{du}{\sqrt{u}} = \sqrt{u} + C = \sqrt{x^2 + 4} + C$$

## Example

Evaluate  $\int \frac{x}{\sqrt{3-2x-x^2}} dx$ . Our approach is to complete the square under the root sign:  $3-2x-x^2 = 4-(x+1)^2$ . Then substitute  $x = u-1$ :

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

Now let  $u = 2 \sin \theta$ :  $du = 2 \cos \theta d\theta$ ,  $\sqrt{4-u^2} = 2 \cos \theta$

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{u-1}{\sqrt{4-u^2}} dx &= \int \frac{2 \sin \theta - 1}{2 \cos \theta} 2 \cos \theta d\theta \\ &= \int (2 \sin \theta - 1) d\theta = -2 \cos \theta - \theta + C \\ &= -\sqrt{4-u^2} - \sin^{-1}(u/2) + C \\ &= -\sqrt{3-2x-x^2} - \sin^{-1} \frac{x+1}{2} + C \end{aligned}$$

## 7.4 Integration of Rational Functions

Rational function is a ratio of polynomials. We express it as a sum of simpler functions, called *partial functions*, e.g.

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

We express a rational function  $f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$  as a sum of simpler fractions provided  $\deg(P) < \deg(Q)$  (proper function). If  $f(x)$  is improper we use long division to write it as

$$f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = S(x) + \frac{R(x)}{Q(x)} \quad \text{where} \quad \deg(R) < \deg(Q).$$

For example,

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

Next step is to factor  $Q(x)$  as a product of linear polynomials and (maybe) irreducible quadratic factors (this is always possible!).

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

Third step is to express the proper rational function  $P(x)/Q(x)$  as a sum of partial functions of the form

$$\frac{A}{(ax + b)^i} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{Ax + B}{(ax^2 + bx + 1)^i}$$

Case 1:  $Q(x)$  is a product of distinct linear factors

$$Q(x) = (a_1x + b_1)(a_2x + b_2) \cdots (a_kx + b_k)$$

Then

$$\frac{R(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{A_1}{a_1x + b_1} + \frac{A_2}{a_2x + b_2} + \cdots + \frac{A_k}{a_kx + b_k}$$

## Example

Evaluate  $\int \frac{x^2 + 2x - 1}{2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x} dx$ . The denominator is

$$2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x = x(2x^2 + 3x - 2) = x(2x - 1)(x + 2)$$

So, we are looking for  $A, B, C$  such that

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

Bring both parts to a common denominator:

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

We get a system of linear equations to determine  $A, B, C$

$$\begin{array}{rclcl} 2A & + & B & + & 2C & = & 1 \\ 3A & + & 2B & - & C & = & 2 \\ -2A & & & & & = & -1 \end{array}$$

from where we get  $A = 1/2$ ,  $B = 1/5$ , and  $C = -1/10$ , so

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{x^2 + 2x - 1}{2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x} dx &= \int \left[ \frac{1}{2x} + \frac{1}{5(2x - 1)} - \frac{1}{10(x + 2)} \right] dx \\ &= \frac{\ln|x|}{2} + \frac{\ln|2x - 1|}{10} - \frac{\ln|x + 2|}{10} + C \end{aligned}$$

### Example

Find  $\int \frac{dx}{x^2 - a^2}$  for  $a \neq 0$ . By method of partial fractions:

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

Hence,

$$A(x + a) + B(x - a) = 1$$

For  $x = a$  we get  $A(2a) = 1$ , so  $A = 1/(2a)$ .

Also, for  $x = -a$  we get  $B(-2a) = 1$ , so  $B = -1/(2a)$ .

Therefore

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

## Case 2: $Q(x)$ contains a repeated linear factor

If some linear factor  $(a_1x + b_1)$  repeats  $r$  times, instead of the single term  $A_1/(a_1x + b_1)$  we use

$$\frac{A_1}{a_1x + b_1} + \frac{A_2}{(a_1x + b_1)^2} + \cdots + \frac{A_r}{(a_1x + b_1)^r}$$

For example:

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



## Example

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

The first step is to obtain a proper rational function:

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

The second step is to factorize  $Q(x)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}x^3 - x^2 - x + 1 &= (x - 1)(x^2 - 1) = (x - 1)(x - 1)(x + 1) \\ &= (x - 1)^2(x + 1)\end{aligned}$$

The fractional decomposition would be of the form

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

Multiplying it by the least common denominator  $(x - 1)^2(x + 1)$

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

This way we get a linear system to find  $A, B, C$ :

$$\begin{array}{rcccc}A & & + & C & = & 0 \\ & & & B & - & 2C & = & 4 \\-A & + & B & + & C & = & 0\end{array}$$

from where  $A = 1$ ,  $B = 2$ , and  $C = -1$  follows. Hence

$$\int \frac{x^4 - 2x^2 + 4x + 1}{x^3 - x^2 - x + 1} dx = \int \left[ x + 1 + \frac{1}{x - 1} + \frac{2}{(x - 1)^2} - \frac{1}{x + 1} \right] dx$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{x^2}{2} + x + \ln|x-1| - \frac{2}{x-1} - \ln|x+1| + C \\
 &= \frac{x^2}{2} + x + -\frac{2}{x-1} + \ln\left|\frac{x-1}{x+1}\right| + C
 \end{aligned}$$

### Case 3: $Q(x)$ contains irreducible distinct quadratic factors

If the irreducible factor is  $ax^2 + bx + c$  then we get the term of the form  $(Ax + B)/(ax^2 + bx + c)$ . For example,

$$\frac{x}{(x-2)(x^2+1)(x^2+4)} = \frac{A}{x-2} + \frac{Bx+C}{x^2+1} + \frac{Dx+E}{x^2+4}$$

The quadratic terms can be integrated by completing the square (if needed) and using the formula

$$\int \frac{dx}{x^2 + a^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{a} \right) + C$$

### Example

Evaluate  $\int \frac{2x^2 - x + 4}{x^3 + 4x} dx$ . First, rewrite the function as

$$\frac{2x^2 - x + 4}{x(x^2 + 4)} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{Bx + C}{x^2 + 4}$$

Multiplying both parts by  $x(x^2 + 4)$  results in

$$2x^2 - x + 4 = A(x^2 + 4) + (Bx + C)x = (A + B)x^2 + Cx + 4A$$

which implies  $A = 1$ ,  $B = 1$ , and  $C = -1$ , so

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

To evaluate the second integral in the middle line we used substitution  $u = x^2 + 4$  with  $du = 2x dx$ .

#### Case 4: $Q(x)$ contains repeated irreducible quadratic factor

If some factor  $ax^2 + bx + c$  repeats  $r$  times we get for it the sum

$$\frac{A_1x + B_1}{ax^2 + bx + c} + \frac{A_2x + B_2}{(ax^2 + bx + c)^2} + \cdots + \frac{A_rx + B_r}{(ax^2 + bx + c)^r}$$

For example,

$$\frac{x^3 + x^2 + 1}{x(x-1)(x^2+x+1)(x^2+1)^3} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{x-1} + \frac{Cx+D}{x^2+x+1} + \frac{Ex+F}{x^2+1} + \frac{Gx+H}{(x^2+1)^2} + \frac{Ix+J}{(x^2+1)^3}$$

### Example

Find  $\int \frac{1-x+2x^2-x^3}{x(x^2+1)^2} dx$ . The partial decomposition is

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

If we equate coefficients we get the system

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

... whose solution is  $A = D = 1$ ,  $B = C = -1$ , and  $E = 0$ .

Putting all together,

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

## Rationalizing substitutions

Some non-rational functions having expression of the form  $\sqrt[n]{g(x)}$  can be rationalized by using substitution  $u = \sqrt[n]{g(x)}$ .

### Example

Find  $\int \frac{\sqrt{x+4}}{x} dx$ . Let  $u = \sqrt{x+4}$ , so  $x = u^2 - 4$ ,  $dx = 2u du$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\int \frac{\sqrt{x+4}}{x} dx &= \int \frac{u}{u^2-4} 2u du = 2 \int \frac{u^2}{u^2-4} du \\ &= 2 \int \left(1 + \frac{4}{u^2-4}\right) du = 2 \int du + 8 \int \frac{du}{u^2-4} \\ &= 2u + 8 \cdot \frac{1}{2 \cdot 2} \ln \left| \frac{u-2}{u+2} \right| + C \\ &= 2\sqrt{x+4} + 2 \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{x+4}-2}{\sqrt{x+4}+2} \right| + C\end{aligned}$$



## 7.5 Strategy for integration

There is no step-by-step procedure for taking any integral. In fact, anti-derivatives of most of elementary functions are not elementary functions.

Anyway, try the following steps:

1. Simplify the integrand, if possible
2. Look for a substitution
3. Classify the integrand in terms of sections 7.2 - 7.4
4. Try to integrate by parts
5. Try all the above again

## 7.8 Improper integrals

### Definition

If  $\int_a^t f(x) dx$  or  $\int_t^b f(x) dx$  exist  $\forall t \geq 0$ , then

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^t f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \int_t^b f(x) dx$$

provided that the limits exist, in which case the corresponding integral is called **convergent** and **divergent** otherwise.

If both limits exist, we define ( $a$  can be any)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx + \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

Those are improper integrals of **Type 1**.

## Example

Evaluate  $\int_{-\infty}^0 xe^x dx$ . We integrate by parts,  $u = x$ ,  
 $dv = e^x dx$ , so  $du = dx$ ,  $v = e^x$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-\infty}^0 xe^x dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \int_t^0 xe^x dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} xe^x \Big|_t^0 - \int_t^0 e^x dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} (-te^t - 1 + e^t) = -0 - 1 + 0 = -1\end{aligned}$$

## Example

Evaluate  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$ . With  $a = 0$  we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

We work out the integrals separately.

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \tan^{-1} x \Big|_0^t \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\tan^{-1} t - \tan^{-1} 0) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \tan^{-1} t = \frac{\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \int_t^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \tan^{-1} x \Big|_t^0 \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} (\tan^{-1} 0 - \tan^{-1} t) \\ &= 0 - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{2}\end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2} = \pi$

## Example

For what values of  $p$  is the integral  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  convergent?

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left. \frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \right]_1^t \quad (p \neq 1) \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1-p} \left[ \frac{1}{t^{p-1}} - 1 \right]\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Hence, } \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p-1}, & \text{if } p > 1 \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} t^{1-p} \rightarrow \infty, & \text{if } p < 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\text{For } p = 1 \text{ it holds: } \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left. \ln |x| \right]_1^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \ln t = \infty.$$

Therefore, the integral  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  is convergent for  $p > 1$ .

## Type 2: Discontinuous Integrals

### Definition

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b)$  and is discontinuous at  $b$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^t f(x) dx$$

If  $f$  is continuous on  $(a, b]$  and is discontinuous at  $a$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow a^+} \int_t^b f(x) dx$$

provided that the limits exist, in which case the corresponding integral is called **convergent** and **divergent** otherwise.

If  $f$  has discontinuity at  $c$ ,  $a < c < b$ , and **both** limits exist, then

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

## Example

$$\begin{aligned}\int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} \int_t^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} \left. 2\sqrt{x-2} \right]_t^5 \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} 2(\sqrt{3} - \sqrt{t-2}) = 2\sqrt{3}\end{aligned}$$

## Example

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \ln x dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_t^1 \ln x dx \quad (u = \ln x, dv = dx) \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \left. x \ln x \right]_t^1 - \int_t^1 dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} (1 \ln 1 - t \ln t - (1 - t)) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} (-t \ln t - 1 + t) \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln t}{1/t} - 1 = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1/t}{-1/t^2} - 1 = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} (-t) - 1 = -1\end{aligned}$$

## Example

$$\int_0^3 \frac{dx}{x-1} = \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x-1} + \int_1^3 \frac{dx}{x-1}$$

However,

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x-1} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^t \frac{dx}{x-1} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} \ln|x-1| = -\infty$$

So, we do not need to evaluate the second integral and the original one is divergent.

## Erroneous calculation

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x-1} = \ln|x-1| \Big|_1^2 = \ln 2 - \ln 1 = \ln 2$$

because the integral is improper and **must** be split into two integrals.



## Example

$$\begin{aligned}\int_{-1}^0 \frac{e^{1/x}}{x^3} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \int_{-1}^t \frac{e^{1/x}}{x^3} dx \\ &= - \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \int_{-1}^t \frac{e^{1/x}}{x} d(1/x) \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-t}^{-1} ue^u d(u) \quad (u = 1/x) \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left( ue^u \Big|_{-t}^{-1} - \int_{-t}^{-1} e^u du \right) \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} e^u(u-1) \Big|_{-t}^{-1} \\ &= -\frac{2}{e} + \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (t+1)e^{-t} \\ &= -\frac{2}{e}\end{aligned}$$

# Comparison Theorem

## Theorem

Suppose  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous and  $f(x) \geq g(x) \geq 0$  for  $x \geq a$ .

- ▶ If  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$  is convergent, then so it is  $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$
- ▶ If  $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$  is divergent, then so it is  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$

## Example

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx + \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$$

The first integral is ordinary. The second one is convergent since  $e^{-x} \geq e^{-x^2}$  for  $x \geq 1$  and  $\int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} dx$  is convergent.

## Example

The integral  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1 + e^{-x}}{x} dx$  is divergent because

$$\frac{1 + e^{-x}}{x} \geq \frac{1}{x} \quad \text{for } x \geq 1$$

and  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx$  is divergent.