Calculus II

Philippe Rukimbira

Department of Mathematics Florida International University

5.4. Sigma notation; The definition of area as limit

Assignment: page 350, #11-15, 27, 29, 37, 38, 48.

1	+	2	+	3	=	6
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How about

$$1 + 2 + ... + 100 = ?$$

In Sigma notation



Notice

$$\sum_{i=1}^{100} = 100 + 99 + \ldots + 1$$

So

$$2\sum_{i=1}^{100} = (100+1) + (99+2) + ... + (1+100) = 101 \times 100$$

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Therefore

$$\sum_{i=1}^{100} = \frac{101 \times 100}{2}$$

In general, we have the following formulas:

$$\sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{(n+1)n}{2}$$

Also:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^{2} = \frac{(2n+1)(n+1)n}{6}$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} i^{3} = \left(\frac{(n+1)n}{2}\right)^{2}$$

Given the graph of a positive function

$$y = f(x)$$

compute the area under the graph, above the x-interval [a,b]. Solution: Subdivide the interval [a,b] by markings

$$x_0 = a, x_1 = x_0 + \Delta x_1, ..., x_i = x_{i-1} + \Delta x_i, ..., x_n = b$$

The area of the region above $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ is approximately the area of a rectangle with base $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ and height $f(c_i)$ where c_i is some number satisfying

$$x_{i-1} \leq c_i \leq x_i$$
.

Ultimately, the area *A* of the region mentioned at the beginning is approximately

$$A_n = \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i$$

In the end, the actual area is obtained by taking the limit of A_n when $n \to \infty$.

$$A = \lim_{n \to \infty} A_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \Delta x_i.$$

Assignment: page 360, #14-17.

For an arbitrary function f(x), not necessarily positive, one still has the summations

$$\mathbf{A}_n = \sum_{1}^n f(\mathbf{c}_i) \Delta x_i$$

but they are not approximate areas anymore, we call them just Riemann sums of f(x), the limit, if it exists, is called the Riemann integral of f over the interval [a, b]. The standard notation is

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

The above is also known as the Definite integral of f over the interval [a, b].

Theorem

If a function f is continuous on [a, b], then f is Riemann integrable on [a, b], that is, the definite integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ exists.

- $\int_a^b C \, dx = C(b-a)$ for any constant C
- $\int_a^b Cf(x)dx = C \int_a^b f(x)dx$
- $\int_a^b [f(x) + g(x)] dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b g(x) dx$

• For *a* < *c* < *b*,

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

• If $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all $a \leq x \leq b$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx \le \int_a^b g(x)dx$$

• If $m \le f(x) \le M$ for all $a \le x \le b$, then

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$$

The Mean Value Theorem for integrals

Suppose f(x) is continuous on the interval [a, b]If $m \le f(x) \le M$ for all $a \le x \le b$, then

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$$

and

$$m \leq rac{1}{(b-a)}\int_a^b f(x)dx \leq M$$

so, by the intermediate value Theorem (Calculus I), there exists a \bar{x} , $a \leq \bar{x} \leq b$ such that

$$f(\bar{x})=\frac{1}{(b-a)}\int_a^b f(x)dx.$$

Assignment: page 373, #20-25, 32, 34, 60-64.

Part I

Let *f* be continuous on an open interval *I* and let $a \in I$. If *F* is defined by

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

at all $x \in I$, then

F'(x)=f(x)

at each $x \in I$.

Proof

$$F'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h}$$

=
$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} \left[\int_{a}^{x+h} f(t) dt - \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt \right]$$

=
$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{h} \int_{x}^{x+h} f(t) dt$$

=
$$\lim_{h \to 0} f(\overline{t}), \ x \le \overline{t} \le x+h$$

=
$$f(x)$$

where $x \leq \overline{t} \leq x + h$ is provided by the mean value Theorem for integral.

Part II

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

for any antiderivative G(x) of f(x).

Proof

From Part I, an antiderivative of f(x) is given by

$$A(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt$$

Suppose G(x) is any other antiderivative of f(x). Then

$$A(x)=G(x)+C$$

for some constant *C*. Also, notice that A(a) = 0, therefore, C = -G(a) and $A(b) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$.

It follows that

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = A(b) = G(b) + C = G(b) - G(a).$$

Examples: Compute $\int_{1}^{2} x^{2} + 1 \, dx$, $\int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{3}} \sin 3x \, dx$, $\int_{4}^{8} \frac{1}{x} \, dx$, $\int_{6}^{11} \frac{1}{x-1} \, dx$.

Compute the average value of the cross sectional area of a disc of radius 1.

Answer: $\bar{A} = \frac{1}{1-0} \int_0^1 A(x) dx$ where A(x) is the cross sectional disc at radial distance *x* from the center.

Assignment: page 383, #14-16, 34-36, 41, 43.

Finding position and velocity.

D(t): the position; V(t) = D'(t): the velocity and A(t) = V'(t) represents the acceleration.

s(t) will represent the distance traveled, not the same as the displacement. s'(t) = v(t) where v(t) = |V(t)| is the speed.

Equivalent integral formula:

$$D(t) = \int V(t)dt; V(t) = \int A(t)dt; s(t) = \int v(t)dt.$$

Suppose that a particle moves on a coordinate line so that its velocity at time *t* is $V(t) = t^2 - 2t$ m/s.

- a) Find the displacement of the particle during the time interval $0 \le t \le 5$
- b) Find the distance traveled by the particle during the time interval $0 \le t \le 5$.

answer:

a)

$$D(5) - D(0) = \int_0^5 V(t) dt = \frac{50}{3}$$

b)

$$s(5) - s(0) = \int_0^5 v(t) dt = \int_0^2 -t(t-2) dt + \int_2^5 t(t-2) dt = \frac{58}{3}.$$

A(t) = A is constant.

Let $D_0 = D(0), V_0 = V(0)$. Then

$$V(t) = \int A(t)dt = At + C$$

 $V_0 = C$ implies that

$$V(t) = At + V_0$$

$$D(t) = \int V(t)dt = A\frac{t^2}{2} + V_0t + K$$

 $D_0 = K$ implies that

$$D(t) = \frac{A}{2}t^2 + V_0t + D_0.$$

A = -g where g is the gravitational constant (9.8 m/sec^2 or $32ft/sec^2$).

A projectile is fired vertically upward from ground level with initial velocity v_0 of 16 ft/s.

- a) How long will it take for the projectile to hit the ground?
- b) How long will the projectile be moving upward?

Answer: a) t=1

b) V(t) = 0 when $t = \frac{1}{2}$.

Assignment: page 394, #10-15, 35-40.

Use both ways to evaluate the following integrals:

$$\int_{-3}^{0} x\sqrt{1-x} dx, \quad \int_{0}^{\frac{\pi}{6}} 2\cos 3x dx, \quad \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{x^{2} dx}{\sqrt{x^{3}+9}},$$
$$\int_{\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} 6\sin x (\cos x+1)^{5} dx.$$
$$\int_{-1}^{1} \frac{x^{2} dx}{\sqrt{x^{3}+9}}$$
$$\int_{\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} 6\sin x (\cos x+1)^{5} dx$$

5.10. Logarithmic functions from the integral point of view

Assignment: page 406, #3, 4, 7, 11, 12.

Starting point: Define ln *x* so that ln 1 = 0 and $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$.

Definition

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

Geometrically, ln x is the signed area to the right of x = 1, under the graph of $y = \frac{1}{x}$.

The graph of $y = \ln x$.

Notice $\lim_{x\to+\infty} \ln x = +\infty$ and $\lim_{x\to 0} \ln x = -\infty$.

The number e

Since $\ln' x > 0$, $\ln x = 1$ has a unique solution, this solution is denoted by *e* and is approximated by *e* $\simeq 2.71828...$, it is irrational!.

•
$$\ln(xy) = \ln x + \ln y$$
, for $x, y > 0$
• $\ln(\frac{1}{x}) = -\ln x$
• $\ln(\frac{x}{y}) = \ln x - \ln y$
• $\ln(x^{r}) = r \ln x$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(xy) = \frac{y}{xy} = \frac{1}{x} = \frac{d}{dx}\ln x \text{ so } \ln(xy) - \ln x = c \text{ a constant}$$
independent of *x*.

Put x = 1 and observe that $\ln y - 0 = c$ so that

$$\ln(xy) - \ln x = \ln y$$

Equivalently

$$\ln(xy) = \ln x + \ln y.$$

 $\frac{d}{dx}\ln(\frac{1}{x}) = x(-\frac{1}{x^2}) = -\frac{1}{x} = -\frac{d}{dx}\ln x$. So $\ln(\frac{1}{x}) + \ln x = c$ a constant independent of *x*.

Put x = 1 and observe that 0 + 0 = c, thus

$$\ln(\frac{1}{x}) = -\ln x.$$

Next law:

$$\ln(\frac{x}{y}) = \ln(x.\frac{1}{y}) = \ln x - \ln y.$$

Next:

 $\frac{d}{dx}(x^r) = rx^{r-1}.$ $\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x^r) = \frac{rx^{r-1}}{x^r} = \frac{r}{x} = \frac{d}{dx}(r \ln x). \text{ Hence, } \ln x^r - r \ln x = c, \text{ a constant independent of } x. \text{ Put } x = 1 \text{ and observe that } 0 - 0 = c, \text{ so } \ln x^r - r \ln x = 0 \text{ or equivalently:}$

 $\ln x^r = r \ln x.$

In x is strictly increasing for x > 0, so it has an inverse function e^x defined by:

$$x = \ln y \iff y = e^x$$
.

One has the identities $\ln(e^x) = x$ for all x and $e^{\ln x} = x$ for all x > 0. Some other facts about e^x are:

$$e^0 = 1$$
, $\lim_{x \to +\infty} e^x = +\infty$, $\lim_{x \to -\infty} e^x = 0$.

Laws of exponents

•
$$e^{x}e^{y} = e^{x+y}$$

• $e^{-x} = \frac{1}{e^{x}}$

• $(e^{x})^{r} = e^{rx}$.

$$\ln(e^{x}e^{y}) = \ln e^{x} + \ln e^{y} = x + y = \ln(e^{(x+y)}).$$

Since ln *x* is one-to-one, one concludes that $e^{x}e^{y} = e^{x+y}$.

For any positive number $a \neq 1$, one has

$$a^u = (e^{\ln a})^u = e^{u\ln a}.$$

So,

$$\frac{d}{dx}(a^{u(x)}) = \frac{d}{dx}e^{u(x)\ln a} = e^{u\ln a}.\ln au'(x) = (\ln a)a^u\frac{du}{dx}.$$

$$\int a^{x} dx = \int e^{x \ln a} dx = \frac{e^{x \ln a}}{\ln a} + C.$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}(3^{x^3}) = 3^{x^3} \cdot \ln 3 \cdot 3x^2 = 3 \ln 3x^2 \cdot 3x^3.$$

$$\int x \cdot 10^{x^2} dx = \int x e^{\ln 10x^2} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2 \ln 10} \int e^u du = \frac{1}{2 \ln 10} e^{\ln 10x^2} + C$$

$$= \frac{10^{x^2}}{2 \ln 10} + C$$

where $u = \ln 10x^2$, $du = 2 \ln 10x dx$. (Integration by substitution).

Assignment: page 419, #3,4,6,8,10,17.

Assumptions: $f(x) \ge g(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$

R denotes the region between the graphs of y = f(x) and y = g(x).

The area *A* of the region *R* is given by

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

1. Find the area of the region enclosed by the following curves:

$$y = x^2$$
 and $y = 4x$.

<u>Solution</u>: The region is bounded on top by y = 4x, on bottom by $y = x^2$, on left by x = 0 and on right by x = 4. This is determined by finding all intersection point between y = 4x and $y = x^2$, as well as sketching the curves.

$$A = \int_0^4 (4x - x^2) dx = 2x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} \Big|_{x=0}^4 = \frac{32}{3}.$$

2. Find the area enclosed by $y = x^3 - 4x^2 + 3x$, y = 0, x = 0, and x = 3

<u>Solution</u>: The region is made of 2 pieces, one above the interval [0, 1] the other below [1, 3]. The area is given by

$$A = \int_0^1 (x^3 - 4x^2 + 3x) dx + \int_1^3 -(x^3 - 4x^2 + 3x) dx = 3.08$$

3.
$$y = x^3 - 2x^2$$
, $y = 2x^2 - 3x$, $x = 0$ and $x = 3$.
(0,0), (1,-1) and (3,9) are intersection points. The area is given by

$$A = \int_0^1 (x^3 - 2x^2) - (2x^2 - 3x)dx + \int_1^3 (2x^2 - 3x) - (x^3 - 2x^2)dx = 2.2$$

4. Find the area between the curve $y = \sin x$ and the line segment that joins the points (0,0) and $(\frac{5\pi}{6},\frac{1}{2})$ on the curve.

$$A=\int_0^{\frac{5\pi}{6}}(\sin x-\frac{3}{5\pi}x)dx$$

Assignment: page 429, #7,8,10,40-45.

Imagine a solid object lying along the *X* axis over the interval [*a*, *b*]. Perform a vertical uniform slicing into *n* slices, each of thickness Δx and sectional area $A(x_1)$, i = 1, 2, ..., n. As long as the slicing is fine, each slice has volume more or less given by $\Delta V_i = A(x_i)\Delta x$ and the solid itself has volume approximated by

$$V_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta V_i = \sum_{i=1}^n A(x_i) \Delta x$$

This is a Riemann sum. Let the number of slice n go to infinity and obtain the volume of the solid as

$$V = \lim_{n \to \infty} V_n = \int_a^b A(x) dx.$$

In many instances, an expression for the function A(x) can be easily determined. For example for solid of revolution, slices turn out to be **discs** or **washers**, depending on the solid being plain or hollow.

Examples

1. Compute the volume of a solid cylinder of radius *r* and height *h*.

Solution

For $0 \le x \le h$, a slice has area $A(x) = \pi r^2$, so the volume of the cylinder is

$$V = \int_0^h \pi r^2 dx = \pi r^2 x \Big|_0^h = \pi r^2 h$$

as expected and known.

2. Compute the volume of a hollow cylinder with inner radius *r* and outer radius *R* and height *h*.

Here, each slice is a washer whose area is

$$A(x)=\pi R^2-\pi r^2.$$

So the volume is

$$V = \int_0^h (\pi R^2 - \pi r^2) dx = \pi (R^2 - r^2) h.$$

In general, when a region bounded by the graph of y = f(x) for $a \le x \le b$, is revolved about the *X*-axis, the solid thus generated has volume

$$V=\int_a^b \pi f^2(x) dx.$$

For a hollow solid generated using $f(x) \ge g(x)$, the volume formula is

$$V=\pi\int_a^b(f^2(x)-g^2(x))dx.$$

3. Find the volume of the solid that results when the region enclosed by $y = \sec x$, $x = \frac{\pi}{4}$, $x = \frac{\pi}{3}$ and y = 0 is revolved about the *x*-axis.

Here $A(x) = \pi \sec^2 x$ and therefore,

$$V = \int_{\frac{\pi}{4}}^{\frac{\pi}{3}} \pi \sec^2 x \, dx = \pi \tan x \Big|_{\frac{\pi}{4}}^{\frac{\pi}{3}} = \pi (\sqrt{3} - 1)$$

4. The region bounded by $y = x^2$ and $x = y^2$ is revolved about the *x* axis. The solid thus generated has volume

$$V = \int_0^1 \pi((\sqrt{x})^2 - (x^2)^2) dx = \pi \int_0^1 (x - x^4) dx = \frac{3\pi}{10}.$$

Assignment: page 436, #1,2,8-11, 15,16,30-32.

We perform a uniform vertical drilling into *n* cylindrical shells. Provided the drilling is fine enough, each cylindrical shell has volume approximated by

$$\Delta V_{i} = \pi r_{i}^{2} h_{i} - \pi r_{i-1}^{2} h_{i} = \pi h_{i} (r_{i} + r_{i-1}) (r_{i} - r_{i-1}) = 2\pi h_{i} (\frac{r_{i} + r_{i-1}}{2}) \Delta r$$

The volume of the solid is itself approximated by a Riemann sum

$$V \simeq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Delta V_i = \sum_{i=1}^{n} 2\pi h_i (\frac{r_i + r_{i-1}}{2}) \Delta r$$

Actual volume is obtained by taking the limit when $n \to \infty$ and it is given by the definite integral

$$V=2\pi\int_a^b rh(r) dr$$

Here, *a* and *b* are the inner and outer radius in the solid.

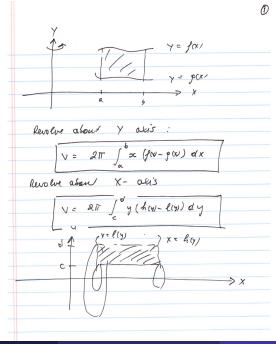
Consider the region bounded by the curves $y = \cos x^2$, x = 0, $x = \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\pi}$ and y = 0. Revolve the region about the y-axis and compute the volume of the solid thus generated.

Solution

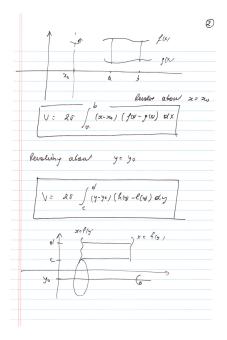
Each elementary shell has volume $2\pi \cos x^2 x \, dx$ over the interval $[0, \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}]$. So

$$V = 2\pi \int_0^{\frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}} x \cos x^2 dx = \dots = \frac{\pi \sqrt{2}}{2}.$$

Example 2 The region bounded by xy = 4, x + y = 5 is revolved about the x-axis. Compute the volume of the solid thus generated.



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6.4. Length of a plane curve

Assignment: page 441, #5-8,29-32

Elementary arc length:

$$dL = \sqrt{(dx)^2 + (dy)^2} = \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx$$

So The arc length is given by

$$L = \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^{2}} dx.$$

Or, if x is the function of y,

$$L=\int_c^d\sqrt{1+\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2}dy.$$

1. Find the arc length of the curve

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

form y = 0 to y = 1.

$$L = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)^2} dy = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + y^2(y^2 + 2)} dy = \frac{4}{3}.$$

Assignment: page 447, #2,3,7,8.

1. Revolving y = f(x) about the X axis:

The elementary surface area:

$$dS = 2\pi f(x)dL = 2\pi f(x)\sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2}dx$$

Hence, the surface area of revolution is given by:

$$S = \int_{a}^{b} 2\pi f(x) \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx.$$

2. Revolving x = g(y) about the Y axis:

$$S=\int_c^d 2\pi g(y)\sqrt{1+(g'(y))^2}dy.$$

Example

 $y = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$, $-1 \le x \le 1$, revolve the curve about the *X* axis. Find the surface area of revolution thus generated.

Assignment: page 456, #7,20-24.

The work *W* done by a force F(x) moving an object on a straight line from x = a to x = b is given by

$$W=\int_a^b F(x)dx.$$

Example: A force of 50 N moving an object from 0 to 10 m.

The work done is

$$\int_{0}^{10} 50 dx = 50 \times 10 = 500 \text{Nm}(\text{or Joules})$$

Hooke's Law: The force exerted by an elastic spring is given by



where x is the displacement beyond the natural length of the spring and k is a constant, the spring constant.

A spring has natural length of 15*in*. A 45*lb* weight stretches the spring to a length of 20*in*.

Find the spring constant *k*.

Find the work done in stretching the spring 3*in* beyond its natural length.

Find the work done in stretching the spring from 20*in* to 25*in*.

Newton's Law of gravitation:



where r is the distance from center of gravity and K is a constant.

So

$$W = \int_{R}^{R_1} \frac{K}{r^2} dr$$

is the work done by lifting an object from R to R_1 .

Compute the work required to lift a 1000*lb* weight from an orbit 1000*mi* above the earth's surface to one 2000*mi* above.

First find the constant K.

$$1000 = \frac{K}{(4000)^2}$$

so $K = (4000)^2.1000 = 16.10^9$ in $mi^2.lb$

$$W = \int_{5000}^{6000} \frac{16.10^9}{r^2} dr$$

$$W = 16.10^9 \left(\frac{-1}{6000} + \frac{1}{5000} \right)$$

A rectangular (6 m by 4 m) cone shaped vat (3 m high), contains water to 2 m deep. Find the work required to pump all the water to the top of the vat. The weight density of water is $9810N/m^3$.

Lifting a slice of water at height $x \in [0, 2]$ to the top requires an elementary work

$$dw = (3-x)9810Adx$$

where A(x) is the vat's cross sectional area at height *x*. This cross sectional rectangle has dimension 2r by 6m where

$$\frac{r}{x} = \frac{2}{3}$$

So
$$r = \frac{2x}{3}$$
 and $A(x) = 12 \times \frac{2x}{3} = 8x$.

 $dw = (3 - x)9810 \times 8xdx$ and the work required is

$$W = \int_0^2 (3-x)9810(8x) dx \ Nm \ (or \ joules).$$

Filling one layer at a time!

An elementary volume of a slice:

$$dv = A(y)dy$$

The elementary work required to lift the slice at hight *y*: $dw = y \rho A(y) dy$

The total work required to fill the tank:

$$W = \int_{a}^{b} \rho y A(y) dy$$

Find the work required to fill up a cylindrical tank, radius 5 ft, height 10 ft, with water from ground level.

$$W = \int_0^{10} 62.4y\pi 25 dy = 25 \times 62.4\pi \times 50$$
/b.ft

Assignment: page 472, #5,6,8,10.

The pressure $p = \rho h$ where *h* is the fluid height, ρ is the weight density of the fluid.

The elementary force exerted on either side of a submersed plate

$$dF = \rho(c - y)L(y)dy$$

where L(y) is the horizontal cross sectional length of the plate at location *y*. The measure *c* is the length of fluid column.

The total force exerted on either side of the plate is

$$F = \int_{a}^{b} \rho(c - y) L(y) dy$$

7.2. Integration by parts

Let u, v be two differentiable functions. The product rule for differentiation tells us that

d(uv) = udv + vdu

So:

$$uv = \int d(uv) = \int udv + \int vdu$$

Or, equivalently:

$$uv = \int uv' dx + \int vu' dx$$

The more useful form of this formula is

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

(Integration by Parts formula)

Compute $\int xe^{3x} dx$.

Look at this as $\int xd(\frac{1}{3}e^{3x}) = \int udv$ where u = x and $v = \frac{1}{3}e^{3x}$. Then apply the IPF:

$$\int xe^{3x} dx = \int u dv = uv - \int v du = x\frac{1}{3}e^{3x} - \int \frac{1}{3}e^{3x} dx$$
$$= \frac{1}{3}xe^{3x} - \frac{1}{9}e^{3x} + C.$$

Compute:

$$\int_{1}^{2} x \sec^{-1} x dx$$

$$\int x \sec^{-1} x dx = \int \sec^{-1} x d(\frac{x^2}{2}) = \int u dv = uv - \int v du$$
$$= \frac{x^2}{2} \sec^{-1} x - \int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$$

$$=\frac{x^2}{2}\sec^{-1}x - \frac{1}{4}\int\frac{2xdx}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$$

So

$$\int_{1}^{2} x \sec^{-1} x dx = \left(\frac{x^{2}}{2} \sec^{-1} x - \frac{1}{2}(x^{2} - 1)^{\frac{1}{2}}\right)_{1}^{2} = 2\frac{\pi}{3} - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$

Compute $\int \sin^{-1} x dx$

$$\int \sin^{-1} x dx = x \sin^{-1} x - \int x d(\sin^{-1} x)$$
$$= x \sin^{-1} x - \int \frac{x}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} dx = x \sin^{-1} x - \sqrt{1 - x^2} + c.$$

Similarly, $\int \cos^{-1} x dx$ can be computed!

 $\int \tan^{-1} x dx = x \tan^{-1} x - \int x d(\tan^{-1} x) = x \tan^{-1} x - \int \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx = x \tan^{-1} x - \frac{1}{2} \ln(1+x^2) + C.$

7.3. Trigonometric Integrals

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

So
$$\int \sin^{n} x dx = \int \sin^{n-1} x d(-\cos x) = \int u dv$$

$$= uv - \int v du$$

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

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

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

$$-(n-1) \int \sin^{n} x dx$$

Therefore

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

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

In the same manner

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

Example:

Compute $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \sin^4 dx$

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

$$= -\frac{1}{4}\cos x \sin^3 x - \frac{3}{8}\cos x \sin x + \frac{3}{8}x + c$$

and

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \sin^4 x dx = -\frac{1}{4} + \frac{3\pi}{32}.$$

Integrals of powers of sine and cosine

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

- If both exponents are even, then using the identity $\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$ reduces the integrand to a sum of even powers of $\cos x$ or $\sin x$.
- If not, the integrand can be reduced to sums of one of the following:

$$\sin^m x \cos x$$

or

$\cos^n x \sin x$

Then use the substitution method to compute the integral.

PR (FIU)

$$\int \sin^{2k} x \cos^{2l} x dx = \int \sin^{2k} x (1 - \sin^2 x)^l dx$$

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

Making the substitution $u = \sin x$, the integral becomes:

$$\int u^m (1-u^2)^k du$$

Similarly, with the substitution $u = \cos x$, the integral

$$\int \sin^{2l+1} x \cos^n x dx$$

becomes

$$-\int (1-u^2)^l u^n du$$

 $\int \tan^m x \sec^n x dx$

- If both *m* and *n* are odd, then the substitution $u = \sec x$ will work.
- If at least one of *m* and *n* is even, then use the identity $\sec^2 x = 1 + \tan^2 x$ to change into powers of $\sec x$ or $\tan x$ only.

$$\int \tan^{2k+1} x \sec^{2l+1} x dx = \int (\sec^2 x - 1)^k \sec^{2l} \tan x \sec x dx$$
$$= \int (u^2 - 1)^k u^{2l} du$$

where $u = \sec x$.

•
$$\int \tan^m x \sec^{2l} x dx = \int \tan^m x (1 + \tan^2 x)^l dx$$

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

$$\int \sec x dx = \int \sec x \frac{\sec x + \tan x}{\sec x + \tan x} dx$$
$$= \int \frac{\sec^2 x + \sec x \tan x}{\sec x + \tan x} dx$$
$$= \int \frac{du}{u} \quad \text{where } u = \sec x + \tan x$$
$$= \ln |\sec x + \tan x| + c$$

$$\int \sec^{n} x dx = \int \sec^{n-2} x \sec^{2} x dx$$

$$= \int \sec^{n-2} x d(\tan x) \text{ Integration by parts follows}$$

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

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

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

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

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$$\int \tan x dx = \int \frac{u}{1+u^2} du \quad \text{where } u = \tan x$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{dv}{v} \quad \text{where } v = 1+u^2$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \ln|1+\tan^2 x| + c$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \ln|\sec^2 x| + c$$
$$\int \tan x dx = \ln|\sec x| + c$$

$$\int \tan^m x dx = \int \tan^{m-2} x \tan^2 x dx$$
$$= \int \tan^{m-2} x (\sec^2 x - 1) dx$$
$$= \int \tan^{m-2} x \sec^2 x dx - \int \tan^{m-2} dx$$
$$\int \tan^m x dx = \frac{\tan^{m-1} x}{m-1} - \int \tan^{m-2} x dx \text{ for } m \neq 1.$$

Compute

$$\int \tan^4 \theta \sec^4 \theta d\theta$$
$$\int x \tan^2(x^2) \sec^2(x^2) dx$$
$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{6}} \sec^3 \theta \tan \theta d\theta$$