

① Express $\sin(4x)$ in terms of powers of $\sin(x)$ and $\cos(x)$.

$$\begin{aligned}\sin(4x) &= 2 \sin(2x) \cos(2x) \\ &= 2 (2 \sin(x) \cos(x)) (1 - 2 \sin^2(x)) \\ &= 4 \sin(x) \cos(x) - 8 \sin^3(x) \cos(x)\end{aligned}$$

recall:

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

② $\frac{1}{4} \int \sin(4x) dx = ?$

← hint: don't use ①

$$\begin{cases} u = 4x \\ du = 4 dx \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned}&= \frac{1}{4} \int \sin(u) du = -\frac{1}{4} \cos u + C \\ &= -\frac{1}{4} \cos(4x) + C\end{aligned}$$

③ $\int \sin(x) \sin(4x) dx = ?$

← hint: use ①

$$\begin{aligned}&= \int \sin(x) (4 \sin(x) \cos(x) - 8 \sin^3(x) \cos(x)) dx \\ &= \int (4 \sin^2(x) \cos(x) - 8 \sin^4(x) \cos(x)) dx \\ &= \int (4 \sin^2(x) - 8 \sin^4(x)) \cos(x) dx \\ &= \int (4u^2 - 8u^4) du \\ &= \frac{4}{3} u^3 - \frac{8}{5} u^5 + C \\ &= \frac{4}{3} \sin^3(x) - \frac{8}{5} \sin^5(x) + C\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{cases} u = \sin(x) \\ du = \cos(x) dx \end{cases}$$

7.5 EXERCISES

Stewart - page 523

1-82 Evaluate the integral.

1. $\int \frac{\cos x}{1 - \sin x} dx$

3. $\int_1^4 \sqrt{y} \ln y dy$

5. $\int \frac{t}{t^4 + 2} dt$

7. $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{e^{\arctan y}}{1 + y^2} dy$

9. $\int_2^4 \frac{x + 2}{x^2 + 3x - 4} dx$

2. $\int_0^1 (3x + 1)^{\sqrt{2}} dx$

4. $\int \frac{\sin^3 x}{\cos x} dx$

6. $\int_0^1 \frac{x}{(2x + 1)^3} dx$

8. $\int t \sin t \cos t dt$

10. $\int \frac{\cos(1/x)}{x^3} dx$

11. $\int \frac{1}{x^3 \sqrt{x^2 - 1}} dx$

13. $\int \sin^5 t \cos^4 t dt$

15. $\int x \sec x \tan x dx$

17. $\int_0^\pi t \cos^2 t dt$

19. $\int e^{x+e^x} dx$

21. $\int \arctan \sqrt{x} dx$

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

14. $\int \ln(1 + x^2) dx$

16. $\int_0^{\sqrt{2}/2} \frac{x^2}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} dx$

18. $\int_1^4 \frac{e^{\sqrt{t}}}{\sqrt{t}} dt$

20. $\int e^2 dx$

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

23. $\int_0^1 (1 + \sqrt{x})^8 dx$

25. $\int_0^1 \frac{1 + 12t}{1 + 3t} dt$

27. $\int \frac{dx}{1 + e^x}$

29. $\int \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 - 1}) dx$

31. $\int \sqrt{\frac{1+x}{1-x}} dx$

33. $\int \sqrt{3 - 2x - x^2} dx$

35. $\int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \frac{x}{1 + \cos^2 x} dx$

37. $\int_0^{\pi/4} \tan^3 \theta \sec^2 \theta d\theta$

39. $\int \frac{\sec \theta \tan \theta}{\sec^2 \theta - \sec \theta} d\theta$

41. $\int \theta \tan^2 \theta d\theta$

43. $\int \frac{\sqrt{x}}{1 + x^3} dx$

45. $\int x^5 e^{-x^3} dx$

47. $\int x^3 (x - 1)^{-4} dx$

24. $\int (1 + \tan x)^2 \sec x dx$

26. $\int_0^1 \frac{3x^2 + 1}{x^3 + x^2 + x + 1} dx$

28. $\int \sin \sqrt{at} dt$

30. $\int_{-1}^2 |e^x - 1| dx$

32. $\int_1^3 \frac{e^{3/x}}{x^2} dx$

34. $\int_{\pi/4}^{\pi/2} \frac{1 + 4 \cot x}{4 - \cot x} dx$

36. $\int \frac{1 + \sin x}{1 + \cos x} dx$

38. $\int_{\pi/6}^{\pi/3} \frac{\sin \theta \cot \theta}{\sec \theta} d\theta$

40. $\int_0^\pi \sin 6x \cos 3x dx$

42. $\int \frac{\tan^{-1} x}{x^2} dx$

44. $\int \sqrt{1 + e^x} dx$

46. $\int \frac{(x - 1)e^x}{x^2} dx$

48. $\int_0^1 x \sqrt{2 - \sqrt{1 - x^2}} dx$

Color Key:

 \equiv See 4/14 class notes

 \equiv rational functions (only #25 is not proper)

 \equiv trig substitution

 \equiv rework to get a rational function.

A quadratic polynomial has the form

$$P(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$$

Some quadratics can be factored as a product

$$ax^2 + bx + c = (a_1x + b_1)(a_2x + b_2)$$

of two linear terms. When does this happen?

answer: It happens when the equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$

\otimes has a (real number) solution. The quadratic formula says the roots of $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ are

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

so $ax^2 + bx + c$ can be factored into two linear terms whenever the discriminant $b^2 - 4ac$ is ≥ 0 .

When $b^2 - 4ac < 0$ we say that the quadratic $ax^2 + bx + c$ is irreducible.

\otimes If $ax^2 + bx + c$ factors as $(a_1x + b_1)(a_2x + b_2)$ then $x = -b_1/a_1$ and $x = -b_2/a_2$ are solutions to the equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$. (But note that $-b_1/a_1$ and $-b_2/a_2$ will be 'repeated' roots if $-b_1/a_1 = -b_2/a_2$.)

$f(x) = P(x)/Q(x)$ where $P(x)$, $Q(x)$ are polynomials.

$f(x)$ is proper when $\text{degree}(P) < \text{degree}(Q)$

Integrating Rational Functions (section 7.4)

- ① There is a family of special rational functions known as "partial fractions".
- ② Every proper rational function can be expressed as a sum of partial fractions.
- ③ Previous integration techniques can be used to integrate any partial fraction.

So in practice there are three points to discuss:

- ① What is a partial fraction?
- ② Given $P(x)/Q(x)$ with $\text{degree}(P) < \text{degree}(Q)$ how can we write it as a sum of partial fractions?
- ③ How do you integrate a partial fraction?

Comment: The hardest point is ②!

So we'll discuss that last.

Also Need to circle back to non-proper rational functions.

Additional Comment:

While the approach outlined in Section 7.4 gives a technique for integrating any rational function, in a specific example there may be a simpler way to calculate the integral.

So, before starting on a long process to work it's a good idea to ask yourself if there ^{might} be an easier way to solve the problem.

Example $\int \frac{8x^3 + 3x^2 - 2}{(2x^4 + x^3 - 2x - 1)^2} dx = ?$

We can work this quickly by substituting

$$\begin{cases} u = 2x^4 + x^3 - 2x - 1 \\ du = (8x^3 + 3x^2 - 2) dx \end{cases} \quad \text{to get}$$

$$\int \frac{1}{u^2} du = -u^{-1} + C = \frac{1}{2x^4 + x^3 - 2x - 1} + C$$

This is much, much easier than discovering the partial fractions decomposition:

$$\frac{8x^3 + 3x^2 - 2}{(2x^4 + x^3 - 2x - 1)^2} = \frac{1/9}{(x-1)^2} - \frac{16/9}{(2x+1)^2} + \frac{-\frac{1}{3}x - \frac{2}{3}}{(x^2+x+1)^2} + \frac{1/3}{x^2+x+1}$$

A partial fraction is a rational function having one of the forms:

$$\frac{A}{(ax+b)^i} \quad \leftarrow \text{"linear form"}$$

or

$$\frac{Ax+B}{(ax^2+bx+c)^i} \quad \leftarrow \text{"quadratic form"}$$

where A, B, a, b, c, i are constants for which i is a positive integer and ax^2+bx+c is an irreducible quadratic.

Theorem Every proper rational function $f(x)$ can be expressed in one and only one way as a sum of partial fractions.

example

$$\frac{1/3}{x^2+x+1}$$

is a partial fraction of quadratic form.

Here $A=0, B=1/3, a=1, b=1, c=1, i=1$ and discriminant of x^2+x+1 is $-3 < 0$
 $\Rightarrow x^2+x+1$ is irreducible

examples of quadratics:

① $4x^2 - 8x - 5$ has discriminant $(-8)^2 - 4(4)(-5) = 144 > 0$

$\Rightarrow 4x^2 - 8x - 5$ is a reducible quadratic

\Rightarrow it can be factored into linear pieces

In fact, $4x^2 - 8x - 5 = (2x+1)(2x-5)$

② $4x^2 - 8x + 5$ has discriminant $(-8)^2 - 4(4)(5) = -16 < 0$

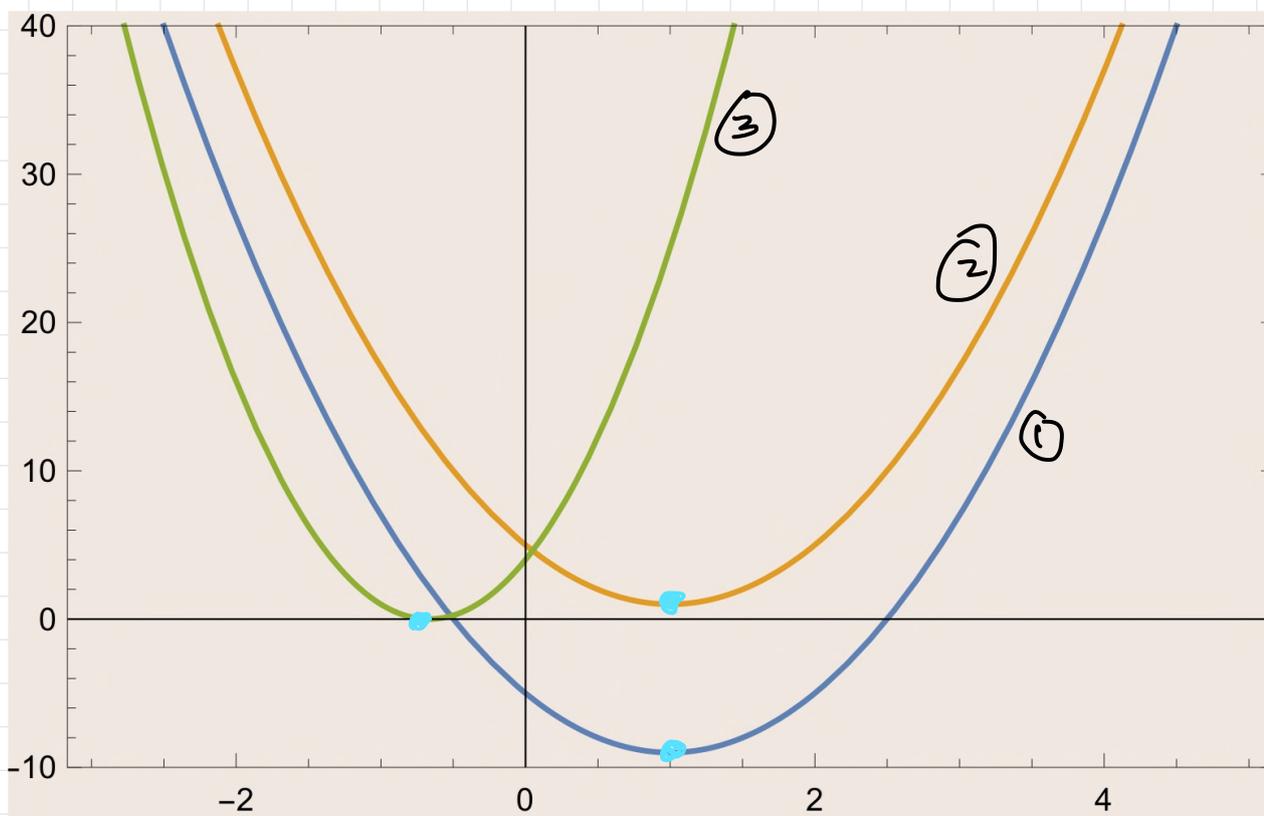
$\Rightarrow 4x^2 - 8x + 5$ is an irreducible quadratic.

We can write $4x^2 - 8x + 5 = 4(x^2 - 2x + 1) - 4 + 5 = 4(x-1)^2 + 1$

③ $9x^2 + 12x + 4$ has discriminant $12^2 - 4(9)(4) = 0$

$\Rightarrow 9x^2 + 12x + 4$ is a reducible quadratic

In fact, it is a perfect square $9x^2 + 12x + 4 = (3x+2)^2$



For $a > 0$ the graph of $y = ax^2 + bx + c$ is an upward opening parabola, and its vertex is

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{below the } x\text{-axis when } b^2 - 4ac > 0 \Rightarrow 2 \text{ } x\text{-intercepts} \\ \text{on the } x\text{-axis when } b^2 - 4ac = 0 \Rightarrow 1 \text{ } x\text{-intercept} \\ \text{above the } x\text{-axis when } b^2 - 4ac < 0 \Rightarrow \text{No } x\text{-intercept} \end{array} \right.$

For $a < 0$, it's a downward opening parabola....

From the examples ax^2+bx+c on previous page, is $\frac{1}{ax^2+bx+c}$ a partial fraction? and $\int \frac{1}{ax^2+bx+c} dx = ?$

① $\frac{1}{4x^2-8x-5}$ No (see next page)

② $\frac{1}{4x^2-8x+5} = \frac{1}{4(x-1)^2+1}$ Yes

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{2} \theta + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \arctan(2x-1) + C$$

← make trig sub

$$\begin{cases} x-1 = \frac{1}{2} \tan \theta \\ dx = \frac{1}{2} \sec^2 \theta d\theta \\ (x-1)^2 + (\frac{1}{2})^2 = \frac{1}{4} \sec^2 \theta \end{cases}$$

③ $\frac{1}{9x^2+12x+4} = \frac{1}{(3x+2)^2}$ Yes $i=2$
 $ax+tb = 3x+2$

$$\frac{1}{3} \int \frac{1}{(3x+2)^2} \cdot 3 dx \leftarrow \begin{cases} u=3x+2 \\ du=3dx \end{cases}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \int \frac{1}{u^2} du = -\frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{3x+2} + C$$

Conclude: Partial Fractions with linear form (as in ③) are generally easier to integrate than those with quadratic form (as in ②).

Integrating a partial fraction may involve 'completing the square' and/or making a trig substitution $x-b = a \tan \theta$.

① $\frac{1}{4x^2 - 8x - 5}$ ← This is not a partial fraction but it can be written as a sum of partial fractions. How?

Step 1 Factor the denominator:

$$4x^2 - 8x - 5 = (2x + 1)(2x - 5)$$

Step 2 That determines the form of the decomposition:

$$\frac{1}{4x^2 - 8x - 5} = \frac{A}{2x + 1} + \frac{B}{2x - 5}$$

Step 3 Solve for constants (A and B here)

$$\frac{1 + 0x}{4x^2 - 8x - 5} = \frac{A(2x - 5) + B(2x + 1)}{(2x + 1)(2x - 5)} = \frac{(-5A + B) + (2A + 2B)x}{(2x + 1)(2x - 5)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} -5A + B = 1 & \textcircled{i} \\ 2A + 2B = 0 & \textcircled{ii} \end{cases} \Rightarrow B = -A \text{ by } \textcircled{ii} \Rightarrow -6A = 1 \text{ by } \textcircled{i}$$

So $A = -1/6$, $B = 1/6$ and

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{4x^2 - 8x - 5} = \frac{-1/6}{2x + 1} + \frac{1/6}{2x - 5}}$$

Step 4 Ready to integrate

$$\int \frac{1}{4x^2 - 8x - 5} dx = -\frac{1}{6} \int \frac{1}{2x + 1} dx + \frac{1}{6} \int \frac{1}{2x - 5} dx$$

$$= -\frac{1}{12} \ln|2x + 1| + \frac{1}{12} \ln|2x - 5| + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{12} \ln \left| \frac{2x - 5}{2x + 1} \right| + C \quad (\text{if you want})$$

Fact Every irreducible quadratic can be written in the form $C((x+b)^2 + a^2)$.

example

$\frac{3-2x}{(x+1)^2}$ is not a partial fraction but

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

$\frac{-2}{x+1}$ and $\frac{5}{(x+1)^2}$ are partial fractions.

example

$\frac{3-2x}{(x^2+1)^2}$ is a partial fraction.