



§6.2 page 340 Rational Functions

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§6.5 page 363 Improper Integrals

$$\int_a^{+\infty} f(x) dx, \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx, \int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx$$

Integraler av rationella funktioner. Inversa variabelbyte.

En samling av exempel från Adams som presenteras på föreläsningen den 2018.11.11 + 2020/11/12

Rationell funktion är funktion på formen

$$R(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$$

där P och Q är två polynom.**EXAMPLE 1** Evaluate $\int \frac{x^3 + 3x^2}{x^2 + 1} dx$.**Solution** The numerator has degree 3 and the denominator has degree 2 so we need to divide. We use long division:

$$\begin{array}{r} x + 3 \\ x^2 + 1 \overline{) x^3 + 3x^2} \\ \underline{x^3 } + x \\ 3x^2 - x \\ \underline{3x^2 + 3} \\ -x - 3 \end{array}$$

Thus,

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

$$= \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 3x - \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + 1) - 3 \tan^{-1} x + C.$$

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = S(x) + \frac{r(x)}{Q(x)}$$

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

Important

$$\int \frac{x}{x^2 + 1} dx \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} u = x^2 + 1 \\ du = 2x dx \end{array} \right.$$

$$\int \frac{1}{u} du = \ln|u| + C = \ln|x^2 + 1| = \ln(x^2 + 1)$$

$$\ln(x^2 + 1) > 0$$

Huvudproblemet är att beräkna integral av rationell funktion $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ där P 's grad är mindre än Q 's grad.

Några elementära obestämda integraler of rationella funktioner

Tabellintegraler:

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \quad \begin{array}{l} \partial P = 0 \\ \partial Q = 1 \end{array} \longrightarrow \int \frac{c}{ax + b} dx = \frac{1}{a} c \ln \left| \frac{1}{a} (b + ax) \right| + C$$

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \quad \begin{array}{l} \partial P = 0 \\ \partial Q = 2 \end{array} \longrightarrow \int \frac{1}{x^2 + a^2} dx = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) + C \quad \leftarrow \text{typo}$$

$$\int \frac{x}{x^2 + a^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + a^2) + C \quad \ln(x^2 + a^2) > 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\left| \frac{1}{a} (b + ax) \right| = \frac{1}{a} (b + ax) \quad \text{if} \quad \frac{1}{a} (b + ax) > 0 \quad \forall x \in D_f$$

Case $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ $\partial P = 0 \therefore P \equiv \text{constant}$
 $\partial Q = 2$, 2 real roots.

$$Q(x) = x^2 + bx + c = (x - \alpha_1)(x - \alpha_2)$$

Exempel. Primitiv funktion av en enkel rationell funktion med nämnaren som har två olika reella rötter.

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

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

$$\begin{cases} A + B = 0 \\ Aa - Ba = 1 \\ A = \frac{1}{2a}; B = -\frac{1}{2a} \end{cases}$$

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

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

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

properties of $\ln$.

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$R(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$. Partial Fractions

$$Q(x) = (x-a_1)(x-a_2) \dots (x-a_n)$$

$\partial Q = n = \text{degree of } Q$.
 $a_i \neq a_j \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n$. (distinct)

If $\partial P < \partial Q$, then

$$\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{A_1}{(x-a_1)} + \frac{A_2}{(x-a_2)} + \frac{A_3}{(x-a_3)} + \dots + \frac{A_n}{(x-a_n)}$$

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Exempel 3.

$$P(x) = x+4 \quad \partial P = 1$$

$$Q(x) = x^2 - 5x + 6 \quad \partial Q = 2$$

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate $\int \frac{(x+4)}{x^2 - 5x + 6} dx$.

Solution The partial fraction decomposition takes the form

$$\frac{x+4}{x^2 - 5x + 6} = \frac{x+4}{(x-2)(x-3)} = \frac{A}{x-2} + \frac{B}{x-3} \quad (*)$$

We calculate A and B by both of the methods suggested above.

METHOD I. Add the partial fractions

$$\frac{x+4}{x^2 - 5x + 6} = \frac{Ax - 3A + Bx - 2B}{(x-2)(x-3)}$$

To compute A, B by solving a system, obtained by comparing both sides of $(*)$

$$B = \frac{(x+4)}{(x-2)} \Big|_{x=3}$$

and equate the coefficient of x and the constant terms in the numerators on both sides to obtain

$$A + B = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad -3A - 2B = 4$$

$$\frac{x+4}{(x-2)(x-3)} = \frac{A}{x-2} + \frac{B}{x-3} \Big|_{x=3}$$

and equate the coefficient of x and the constant terms in the numerators on both sides to obtain

$$A + B = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad -3A - 2B = 4.$$

Solve these equations to get $A = -6$ and $B = 7$.

METHOD II. To find A , cancel $x - 2$ from the denominator of the expression $P(x)/Q(x)$ and evaluate the result at $x = 2$. Obtain B similarly.

$$A = \left. \frac{x+4}{x-3} \right|_{x=2} = -6 \quad \text{and} \quad B = \left. \frac{x+4}{x-2} \right|_{x=3} = 7.$$

In either case we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{(x+4)}{x^2-5x+6} dx &= -6 \int \frac{1}{x-2} dx + 7 \int \frac{1}{x-3} dx \\ &= -6 \ln|x-2| + 7 \ln|x-3| + C. \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{x+4}{(x-2)(x-3)} = \frac{A}{(x-2)} + \frac{B}{(x-3)} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} x=3 \\ x=2 \end{array} \right.$$

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

$$\left(\frac{(x+4)(x-3)}{(x-2)(x-3)} \right) = \left(\frac{A(x-3)}{(x-2)} + \frac{B(x-2)}{(x-3)} \right) \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} x=2 \\ x=3 \end{array} \right.$$

$$\left. \frac{x+4}{x-3} \right|_{x=2} = A$$

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Exempel 5.

En av termer i nämnarens faktorisering är på formen $x^2 + a^2$ (saknar reella rötter)

EXAMPLE 5 Evaluate $\int \frac{2+3x+x^2}{x(x^2+1)} dx$. $2Q = 3$

Solution Note that the numerator has degree 2 and the denominator degree 3, so no division is necessary. If we decompose the integrand as a sum of two simpler fractions, we want one with denominator x and one with denominator $x^2 + 1$. The appropriate form of the decomposition turns out to be

Method 2

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

$$\frac{Ax^2 + A + Bx^2 + Cx}{(A+B)x^2 + Cx + A}$$

Note that corresponding to the quadratic (degree 2) denominator we use a linear (degree 1) numerator. Equating coefficients in the two numerators, we obtain

$$\begin{cases} A + B = 1 & \text{(coefficient of } x^2) \\ C = 3 & \text{(coefficient of } x) \\ A = 2 & \text{(constant term).} \end{cases}$$

Hence $A = 2$, $B = -1$, and $C = 3$. We have, therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{2+3x+x^2}{x(x^2+1)} dx &= 2 \int \frac{1}{x} dx - \int \frac{x}{x^2+1} dx + 3 \int \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx \\ &= 2 \ln|x| - \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2+1) + 3 \tan^{-1} x + C. \end{aligned} \quad \left. \vphantom{\int} \right\} \text{ * by the Integration table}$$

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Denominators with Repeated Factors

We require one final refinement of the method of partial fractions. If any of the linear or quadratic factors of $Q(x)$ is repeated (say, m times), then the partial fraction decomposition of $P(x)/Q(x)$ requires m distinct fractions corresponding to that factor. The denominators of these fractions have exponents increasing from 1 to m , and the numerators are all constants where the repeated factor is linear or linear where the repeated factor is quadratic. (See Theorem 1 below.)

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EXAMPLE 7 Evaluate $\int \frac{1}{x(x-1)^2} dx$.

$m=2$

$2Q=3$

Method

Solution The appropriate partial fraction decomposition here is

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

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

Equating coefficients of x^2 , x , and 1 in the numerators of both sides, we get

$$\begin{aligned} A + B &= 0 & (\text{coefficient of } x^2) \\ -2A - B + C &= 0 & (\text{coefficient of } x) \\ A &= 1 & (\text{constant term}). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $A = 1$, $B = -1$, $C = 1$, and

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

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

$$= \ln\left|\frac{x}{x-1}\right| - \frac{1}{x-1} + C$$

Des:

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

original

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

$$\frac{A(x-1)^2 + Bx(x-1) + Cx}{x(x-1)^2} =$$

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

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

$$0x^2 + 0x + 1$$

$$\boxed{A=1}$$

$$A+B=0 \Rightarrow B=-A=-1$$

$$\boxed{B=-1}$$

$$-2A-B+C=0 \Rightarrow C=2A+B=2(1)-1=1$$

$$\boxed{C=1}$$

page 347 Case: Quadratic repeating factor

EXAMPLE 8

Evaluate $I = \int \frac{x^2+2}{4x^5+4x^3+x} dx$.

Solution The denominator factors to $x(2x^2+1)^2$, so the appropriate partial fraction decomposition is

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

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

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} 4A + 2B &= 0 & (\text{coefficient of } x^4) \\ 2C &= 0 & (\text{coefficient of } x^3) \\ 4A + B + D &= 1 & (\text{coefficient of } x^2) \\ C + E &= 0 & (\text{coefficient of } x) \\ A &= 2 & (\text{constant term}). \end{aligned}$$

Solving these equations, we get $A = 2$, $B = -4$, $C = 0$, $D = -3$, and $E = 0$.

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

Let $u = 2x^2 + 1$.

$$4x^5 + 4x^3 + x = x(4x^4 + 4x^2 + 1)$$

$$y = x^2$$

$$x(4y^2 + 4y + 1)$$

$$x^3 + ax^2 + bx + c = 0$$

$$\begin{array}{r} x^3 \\ \underline{+} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} x^3 \\ \underline{+} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$A = 2$ (constant term).
 Solving these equations, we get $A = 2$, $B = -4$, $C = 0$, $D = -3$, and $E = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= 2 \int \frac{dx}{x} - 4 \int \frac{x dx}{2x^2 + 1} - 3 \int \frac{4x dx}{(2x^2 + 1)^2} \\
 &= 2 \ln|x| - \int \frac{du}{u} - \frac{3}{4} \int \frac{du}{u^2} \quad \text{Let } u = 2x^2 + 1, \\
 &= 2 \ln|x| - \ln|u| + \frac{3}{4u} + C \\
 &= \ln\left(\frac{x^2}{2x^2 + 1}\right) + \frac{3}{4(2x^2 + 1)} + C.
 \end{aligned}$$

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

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

The Inverse Trigonometric Substitutions

Three very useful inverse substitutions are:

$$\underbrace{x = a \sin \theta}, \quad \underbrace{x = a \tan \theta}, \quad \text{and} \quad \underbrace{x = a \sec \theta}.$$

These correspond to the direct substitutions:

$$\theta = \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a}, \quad \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{a}, \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = \sec^{-1} \frac{x}{a} = \cos^{-1} \frac{a}{x}.$$

The inverse sine substitution

→ Integrals involving $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ (where $a > 0$) can frequently be reduced to a simpler form by means of the substitution

$$\boxed{x = a \sin \theta} \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad \theta = \sin^{-1} \frac{x}{a}.$$

Observe that $\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}$ makes sense only if $-a \leq x \leq a$, which corresponds to $-\pi/2 \leq \theta \leq \pi/2$. Since $\cos \theta \geq 0$ for such θ , we have

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

(If $\cos \theta$ were not nonnegative, we would have obtained $a|\cos \theta|$ instead.) If needed, the other trigonometric functions of θ can be recovered in terms of x by examining a right-angled triangle labelled to correspond to the substitution. (See Figure 6.1.)

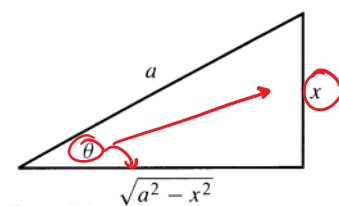


Figure 6.1

$$\begin{aligned} x &= a \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta &= \frac{x}{a} \\ \cos \theta &= \frac{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}}{a} \\ \tan \theta &= \frac{x}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} \end{aligned}$$

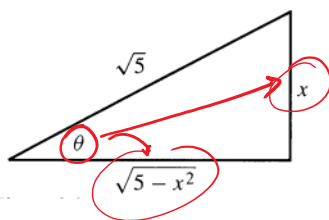
Solution Refer to Figure 6.2.

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{1}{(5-x^2)^{3/2}} dx & \quad \text{Let } x = \sqrt{5} \sin \theta, \\ & \quad dx = \sqrt{5} \cos \theta d\theta \\ &= \int \frac{\sqrt{5} \cos \theta d\theta}{5^{3/2} \cos^3 \theta} \\ &= \frac{1}{5} \int \sec^2 \theta d\theta = \frac{1}{5} \tan \theta + C = \frac{1}{5} \frac{x}{\sqrt{5-x^2}} + C \end{aligned}$$

$$\sec \theta = \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$$

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

EXAMPLE 1 Evaluate $\int \frac{1}{(5-x^2)^{3/2}} dx$.



$$\sin \theta = \frac{x}{\sqrt{5}} \quad x = \sqrt{5} \sin \theta$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\sqrt{5-x^2}}{\sqrt{5}}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{x}{\sqrt{5-x^2}}$$

$$\int \frac{1}{(\sqrt{5-x^2})^3} dx$$

$$5^{3/2} = (\sqrt{5})^3$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{5}}{(\sqrt{5})^3} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \right)^2$$

The inverse tangent substitution

Integrals involving $\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$ or $\frac{1}{x^2 + a^2}$ (where $a > 0$) are often simplified by the substitution

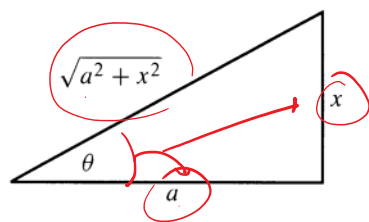
$$x = a \tan \theta \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad \theta = \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{a} \quad \leftarrow$$

Since x can take any real value, we have $-\pi/2 < \theta < \pi/2$, so $\sec \theta > 0$ and

$$\sqrt{a^2 + x^2} = a\sqrt{1 + \tan^2 \theta} = a \sec \theta.$$

Other trigonometric functions of θ can be expressed in terms of x by referring to a right-angled triangle with legs a and x and hypotenuse $\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}$ (see Figure 6.4):

Fig 6.4



$$x^2 + a^2 = \text{Hip}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{x}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} \quad \leftarrow$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{a}{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}} \quad \leftarrow$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{x}{a}$$

EXAMPLE 3 Evaluate (a) $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{4+x^2}} dx$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(a)} \quad & \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{4+x^2}} dx && \text{Let } x = 2 \tan \theta, && \leftarrow \\
 & && dx = 2 \sec^2 \theta d\theta && \leftarrow \\
 & = \int \frac{2 \sec^2 \theta}{2 \sec \theta} d\theta \\
 & = \int \sec \theta d\theta && \underline{\underline{x}} && \text{ } \\
 & = \ln |\sec \theta + \tan \theta| + C = \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{4+x^2}}{2} + \frac{x}{2} \right| + C \\
 & = \ln(\sqrt{4+x^2} + x) + C_1, && \text{where } C_1 = C - \ln 2.
 \end{aligned}$$

(Note that $\sqrt{4+x^2} + x > 0$ for all x , so we do not need an absolute value on it.)

The $\tan(\theta/2)$ Substitution

There is a certain special substitution that can transform an integral whose integrand is a rational function of $\sin \theta$ and $\cos \theta$ (i.e., a quotient of polynomials in $\sin \theta$ and $\cos \theta$) into a rational function of x . The substitution is

$$x = \tan \frac{\theta}{2} \quad \text{or, equivalently,} \quad \theta = 2 \tan^{-1} x.$$

Observe that

$$\cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{1}{\sec^2 \frac{\theta}{2}} = \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2 \frac{\theta}{2}} = \frac{1}{1 + x^2},$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} \cos \theta &= 2 \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} - 1 = \frac{2}{1 + x^2} - 1 = \frac{1 - x^2}{1 + x^2} \\ \sin \theta &= 2 \sin \frac{\theta}{2} \cos \frac{\theta}{2} = 2 \tan \frac{\theta}{2} \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{2x}{1 + x^2}. \end{aligned}$$

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

$$d\theta = 2 \cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} dx = \frac{2 dx}{1 + x^2}.$$

The $\tan(\theta/2)$ substitution

If $x = \tan(\theta/2)$, then

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1 - x^2}{1 + x^2}, \quad \sin \theta = \frac{2x}{1 + x^2}, \quad \text{and} \quad d\theta = \frac{2 dx}{1 + x^2}.$$

Note that $\cos \theta$, $\sin \theta$, and $d\theta$ all involve only rational functions of x . We examined general techniques for integrating rational functions of x in Section 6.2.

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{1}{2 + \cos \theta} d\theta & \quad \text{Let } x = \tan(\theta/2), \text{ so} \\ & \quad \cos \theta = \frac{1 - x^2}{1 + x^2}, \\ & \quad d\theta = \frac{2 dx}{1 + x^2} \\ & = \int \frac{\frac{2 dx}{1 + x^2}}{2 + \frac{1 - x^2}{1 + x^2}} = 2 \int \frac{1}{3 + x^2} dx \\ & = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \tan^{-1} \frac{x}{\sqrt{3}} + C \\ & = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \tan \frac{\theta}{2} \right) + C. \end{aligned}$$