

# Math 1010 Week 10

Taylor Series, Indefinite Integrals, Integration by Substitution, Integration by Parts

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## 10.1 Shortcuts for Computing Taylor Series

**Theorem 10.1.** Let  $S(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k(x - a)^k$  be a power series which converges on an open interval of the form  $(a - r, a + r)$ ,  $r > 0$ , then the function  $S(x)$  is differentiable on  $(a - r, a + r)$ , with

$$\begin{aligned} S'(x) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k a_k (x - a)^{k-1} \\ &= a_1 + 2a_2(x - a) + 3a_3(x - a)^2 + \cdots + k a_k (x - a)^{k-1} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

for all  $x \in (a - r, a + r)$ .

Applying this theorem repeatedly, it may be shown that  $S(x)$  is in fact infinitely differentiable on  $(a - r, a + r)$ , and its Taylor series at  $x = a$  is itself. That is:

$$\frac{S^{(k)}(a)}{k!} = a_k, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Put differently:

**Corollary 10.2.** Let  $f$  be a function. If there is a sequence  $\{a_k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  such that:

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x - a)^k$$

for all  $x$  in some open interval centered at  $a$ , then  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k (x - a)^k$  is the Taylor series of  $f$  at  $x = a$ , with  $a_k = \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}$ .

**Corollary 10.3.** If:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k(x-a)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k(x-a)^k$$

for all  $x$  in some open interval centered at  $a$ , then  $a_k = b_k$  for all  $k$ .

**Exercise 10.4.** Find the Taylor series of  $f$  at the given point  $a$ .

$f(x)$	$a$
$\sin(5x)$	0
$x^3 \cos x$	0
$\sin(x - \pi)$	$\pi$
$\ln x$	1
$\frac{1}{2-x}$	0
$\frac{1}{1+x}$	0
$\frac{1}{1+x^2}$	0
$\frac{x+1}{x^2+x+1}$	0

$f(x)$	$a$	Series
$\sin(5x)$	0	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k 5^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!} x^{2k+1}$
$x^3 \cos x$	0	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k)!} x^{2k+3}$
$\sin(x - \pi)$	$\pi$	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k+1)!} (x - \pi)^{2k+1}$
$\ln x$	1	$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} (x - 1)^k$
$\frac{1}{x}$	1	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k (x - 1)^k$
$\frac{1}{1+x}$	0	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k x^k$
$\frac{1}{2-x} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + \left(-\frac{x}{2}\right)}$	0	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} x^k$
$\frac{1}{1+x^2}$	0	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k x^{2k}$
$\frac{1}{(1+x)^2} = -\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{1+x} \right)$	0	$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{k+1} k x^{k-1}$
$\frac{x+1}{x^2+x+1}$	0	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (x^{3k} - x^{3k+2})$
$\frac{1}{(1+x)(2-x)} = \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1+x} + \frac{1}{2-x} \right)$	0	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3} \left( (-1)^k + \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} \right) x^k$
$\arctan x$	0	$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{2k+1} x^{2k+1}$

## 10.2 WeBWorK

1. WeBWorK
2. WeBWorK
3. WeBWorK
4. WeBWorK

It is sometimes useful to use Taylor series to find limits which involve indeterminate forms.

**Example 10.5.**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x - x - x^3}{x^3}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x - x \cos x}{x \sin^2 x}$$

## 10.3 WeBWorK

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## 10.4 Indefinite Integrals

**Definition 10.6.** If  $F' = f$ , we say that  $F$  is an **antiderivative** of  $f$ .

If two functions  $F$  and  $G$  are both antiderivatives of  $f$  over  $(a, b)$ , then  $F' = G' = f$ , hence:

$$(F - G)' = F' - G' = 0.$$

By a corollary of the mean value theorem, this implies that  $F - G$  is a constant function on  $(a, b)$ . That is, there exists  $C \in \mathbb{R}$ , such that  $(F - G)(x) = C$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ .

Put differently, if  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$  over  $(a, b)$ , then any antiderivative of  $f$  over  $(a, b)$  has the form  $F + C$  for some constant function  $C$ .

**Definition 10.7.** The collection of all antiderivatives of a function  $f$  is called the **indefinite integral** of  $f$ , denoted by:

$$\int f(x) dx.$$

We call  $f(x)$  the **integrand** of  $\int f(x) dx$ .

If  $F' = f$ , we write:

$$\int f(x)dx = F + C,$$

where  $C$  denotes some arbitrary constant.

**Example 10.8.** Since  $\frac{d}{dx} x^2 = 2x$ , we write:

$$\int 2x dx = x^2 + C.$$

Note that  $x^2 + 17$  is also an antiderivative of  $2x$ , hence it is equally valid to write:

$$\int 2x dx = x^2 + 17 + C.$$

## 10.5 Some Properties of Indefinite Integrals

- $\int 0 dx = C$ , where  $C$  is some constant.
- For  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $\int k dx = kx + C$ . In particular,

$$\int dx = \int 1 dx = x + C.$$

- For  $k \neq -1$ , we have:

$$\int x^k dx = \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} + C.$$

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

(This identity is not quite true. Will explain later.)

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

- $\int \sec^2 x \, dx = \tan x + C.$
  - $\int \sec x \tan x \, dx = \sec x + C.$
  - $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} \, dx = \arctan x + C.$
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- For any functions  $f, g$  with antiderivatives  $F, G$ , respectively, we have:

$$\int (f(x) + g(x)) \, dx = F(x) + G(x) + C.$$

- For  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ , and any function  $f$  with antiderivative  $F$ , we have:  $\int kf(x) \, dx = kF(x) + C.$

Observe that for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , and differentiable function  $F$ , by the chain rule we have:

$$\frac{d}{dx} F(ax + b) = aF'(ax + b)$$

Hence, in general we have:

$$\int f(ax + b) \, dx = \frac{1}{a} F(ax + b) + C,$$

where  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$ , and  $C$  is some constant.

### Example 10.9.

$$\int \sin(5x + \pi/4) \, dx = -\frac{1}{5} \cos(5x + \pi/4) + C.$$

### Example 10.10.

$$\begin{aligned} \int \left( x^3 + \frac{4}{x^{1/3}} + (x+7)^9 + e^{2x+1} \right) \, dx \\ = \frac{1}{4} x^4 + 4 \left( \frac{3}{2} \right) x^{2/3} + \frac{1}{10} (x+7)^{10} + \frac{1}{2} e^{2x+1} + C. \end{aligned}$$

**Example 10.11.**

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

Similarly, it may be shown that:

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

## 10.6 Integration by Substitution

**Theorem 10.12.** If  $F' = f$ , and  $g$  is a differentiable function, then:  $\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = F(g(x)) + C$ .

*Proof.* This is just the Chain Rule in reverse, since:

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

□

In Leibniz Notation, the theorem may be formulated as follows: Let  $u = g(x)$ , then  $\frac{du}{dx} = g'(x)$ , and:

$$\begin{aligned}
\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx &= \int f(u) \frac{du}{dx} dx \\
&= \int f(u) du = F(u) + C = F(g(x)) + C.
\end{aligned}$$

**Example 10.13.** Evaluate:

- $\int x^2 e^{x^3+4} dx$
- $\int \frac{t}{\sqrt{t+2}} dt$
- $\int \tan x dx$
- $\int \frac{x^5 + x^3 + x}{x^2 + 1} dx$

## 10.7 WeBWorK

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## 10.8 Integration by Parts

Let  $u, v$  be differentiable functions. Recall the Product Rule:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(uv) = v \frac{du}{dx} + u \frac{dv}{dx}$$

Taking the indefinite integral (with respect to  $x$ ) of both sides of the above equation, we have:

$$\int \frac{d}{dx}(uv) dx = \int v \frac{du}{dx} dx + \int u \frac{dv}{dx} dx,$$

which implies that:

$$\int d(uv) = \int v du + \int u dv.$$

$$\text{Hence, } \int u dv = (uv) - \int v du$$

**Example 10.14.** Evaluate:

$$\bullet \int xe^{3x} dx$$

$$\bullet \int x^2 e^x dx$$

$$\bullet \int x^5 e^x dx$$

- $\int x^5 \sin x \, dx$
- $\int \ln x \, dx$
- $\int e^x \sin x \, dx$

## 10.9 WeBWorK

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