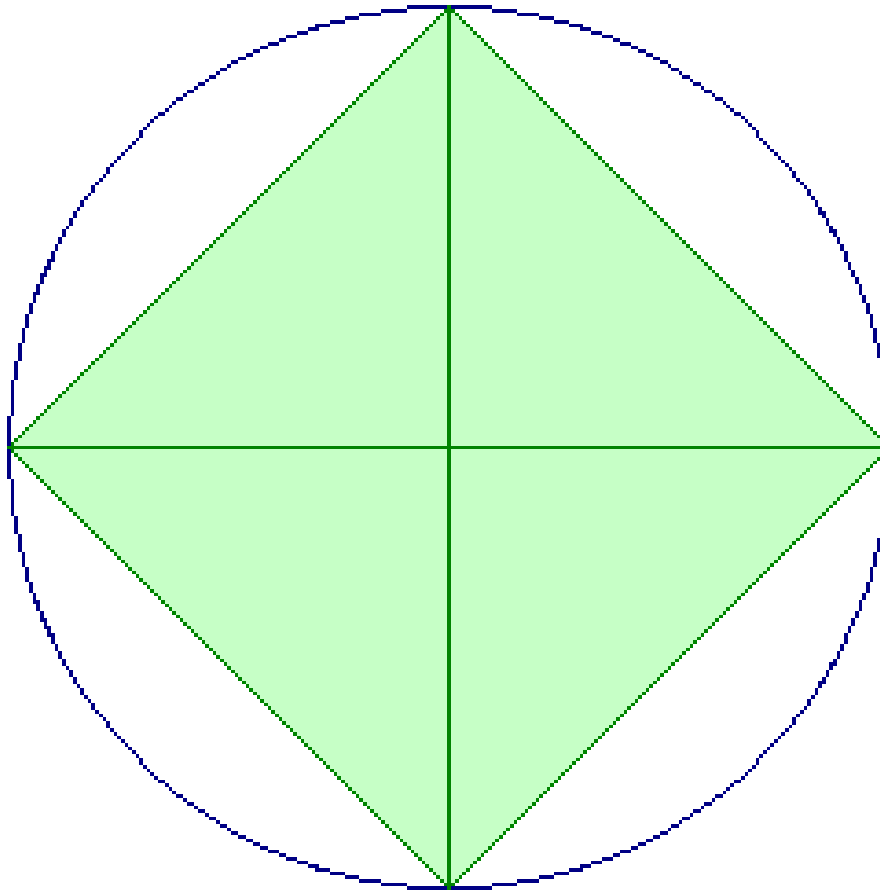


# Mathematics B2: Newton

**Area of circle as limit of triangle areas**



# Mathematics B2: Newton

## -Contents-

- ☑ Limits and continuity

- ☑ Derivatives and applications

- ☑ Functions of 2 variables

- ☑ Integrals

- ☑ Calculation techniques for integrals

- ☐ Power and Taylor series

# MIT INTEGRATION BEE

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HHAHiEgtyT8>  
integration bee

$$\int \frac{x^4}{1-x^2} dx$$

<http://math.mit.edu/~sswatson/integrationbee.html>

# GRAND INTEGRATOR HAT



# Mathematics B2: Newton

- ✓ Substitution method
- Integration by parts
- Improper integrals



*Isaac Newton*

## 5.5

### Indefinite Integrals and the substitution method

# Introduction Substitution Method

## Example:

Find:  $\int \frac{\cos x}{\sin x} dx$

- We first show how the substitution  $\sin(x) = u$  works here.
- Then we prove that it is mathematically correct
- Finally we explain how we found this substitution.

If we substitute  $\sin(x) = u$ , what to do with  $\cos(x)$  and  $dx$ ??

We try to find out by “calculating”  $du$ .

We have:

$$u = \sin x \quad \text{so} \quad \frac{du}{dx} = \cos x \quad \text{and} \quad du = \cos x dx$$

This suggests to replace “ $\cos x dx$ ” by “ $du$ ” !

$\sin(x) = u$  and  $\cos x dx = du$  leads to

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{\cos x}{\sin x} dx &= \int \frac{1}{\sin x} \cos x dx = \int \frac{1}{u} du = \ln|u| + C \\ &= \ln|\sin x| + C \end{aligned}$$

Check by differentiation:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln|\sin x| + C) = \frac{1}{\sin x} \cdot \cos x = \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$$

# Substitution Method

**THEOREM 6—The Substitution Rule** If  $u = g(x)$  is a differentiable function whose range is an interval  $I$ , and  $f$  is continuous on  $I$ , then

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du.$$

$$[ = F(u) + C = F(g(x)) + C ]$$

Check by differentiation:

$$(F(g(x)) + C)' = F'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) = f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

# Substitution Method

**Strategy:** replace the expression you don't like by “ $u$ ”:

- $u = e$ -power
- $u =$  (square) root
- $u = \sin/\cos/(\tan)$
- $du = u'(x)dx$

Can lead to a simpler function in  $u$ ...

# Substitution Method

$$\int f(g(x))g'(x) dx = \int f(u) du.$$

## Example:

Find:  $\int \frac{e^x}{e^x + 1} dx$

## Solution:

We want to get rid of  $e^x$ .

Hence  $u = g(x) = e^x$ ;  $du = e^x dx$ ; moreover  $f(u) = \frac{1}{u + 1}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So: } \int \frac{e^x}{e^x + 1} dx &= \int \frac{1}{u + 1} du = \ln|u + 1| + C \\ &= \ln|e^x + 1| + C = \ln(e^x + 1) + C \end{aligned}$$

# Substitution Method

## Another example:

sometimes a useful substitution is more difficult ...

Find:  $\int x^3 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx$

Solution: Just try the substitution:  $u = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$

Then:  $\frac{du}{dx} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}$  or:  $dx = \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}{x} du$

Substituting gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \int x^3 \sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx &= \int x^3 u \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}{x} du = \int x^2 u \sqrt{x^2 + 1} du \\ &= \int x^2 u \cdot u du = \int x^2 u^2 du \end{aligned}$$

Solution (continued):

**In**  $\int x^2 u^2 du$  **we have to express  $x$  in  $u$  !!**

Now:  $u = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$  so  $u^2 = x^2 + 1$  so  $x^2 = u^2 - 1$

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

$$= \frac{1}{5}u^5 - \frac{1}{3}u^3 + C = \frac{1}{5}(\sqrt{x^2 + 1})^5 - \frac{1}{3}(\sqrt{x^2 + 1})^3 + C$$

You can check the result by differentiation.

# 5.6

## Substitution Method (Definite integrals)

# Substitution Method

The substitution method for definite integrals is:

$$\int_a^b f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du$$

## Proof:

According to the substitution method for indefinite integrals:

$$\int_a^b f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = [F(g(x))]_{x=a}^{x=b} = F(g(b)) - F(g(a))$$

Also:

$$\int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du = [F(u)]_{u=g(a)}^{u=g(b)} = F(g(b)) - F(g(a))$$

# Substitution Method

$$\int_a^b f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du$$

So there are three changes:

1. The integrand changes (*via*  $u = g(x)$ )
2. The differential  $dx$  changes ( $dx = du/g'(x)$ )
3. The limits of integration change

# Substitution Method

$$\int_a^b f(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) dx = \int_{g(a)}^{g(b)} f(u) du$$

**Example:** calculate  $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \tan x dx$

**Solution** Because  $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$  we substitute  $u = \cos(x)$

So  $du = -\sin(x) dx$ , and hence  $\sin(x) dx = -du$

So:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \tan x dx &= \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} dx = \int_{\cos 0}^{\cos(\frac{\pi}{4})} -\frac{du}{u} = \int_1^{\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}} -\frac{1}{u} du = \\ &= \left[ -\ln |u| \right]_{u=1}^{u=\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}} = -\ln \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} + \ln 1 = -\ln \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \ln 2 \end{aligned}$$

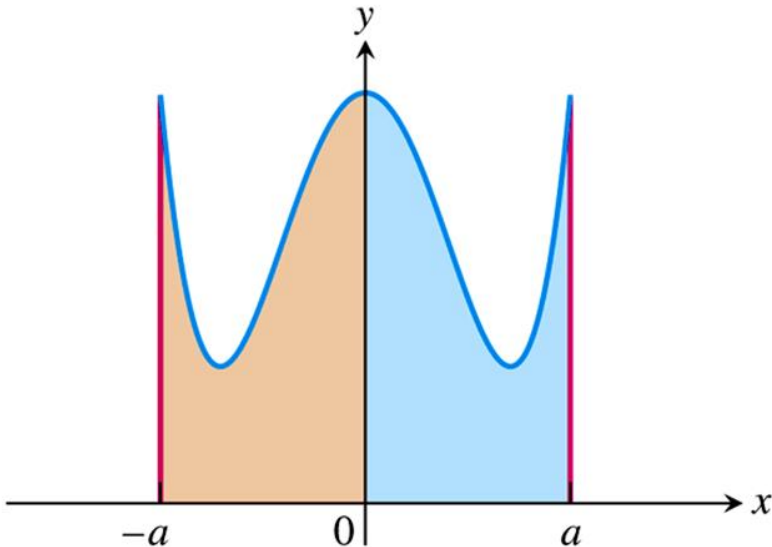
# Even and odd functions

# Odd and even functions

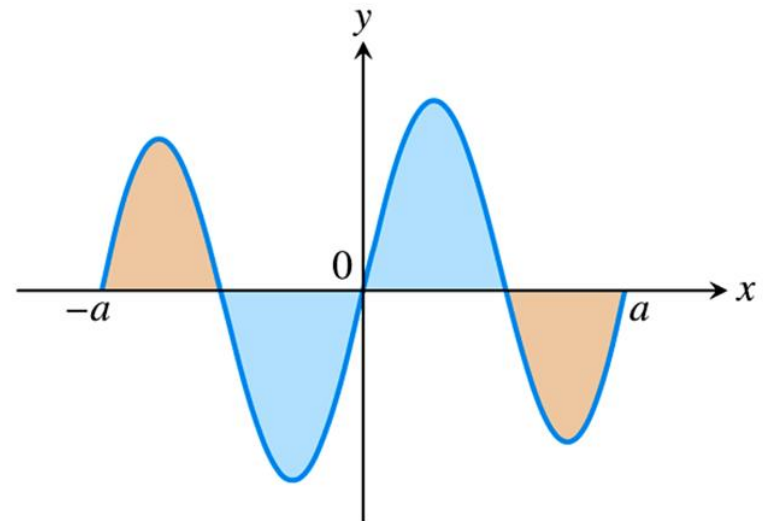
**THEOREM 8** Let  $f$  be continuous on the symmetric interval  $[-a, a]$ .

(a) If  $f$  is even, then  $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 2 \int_0^a f(x) dx$ .

(b) If  $f$  is odd, then  $\int_{-a}^a f(x) dx = 0$ .



$f$  is even

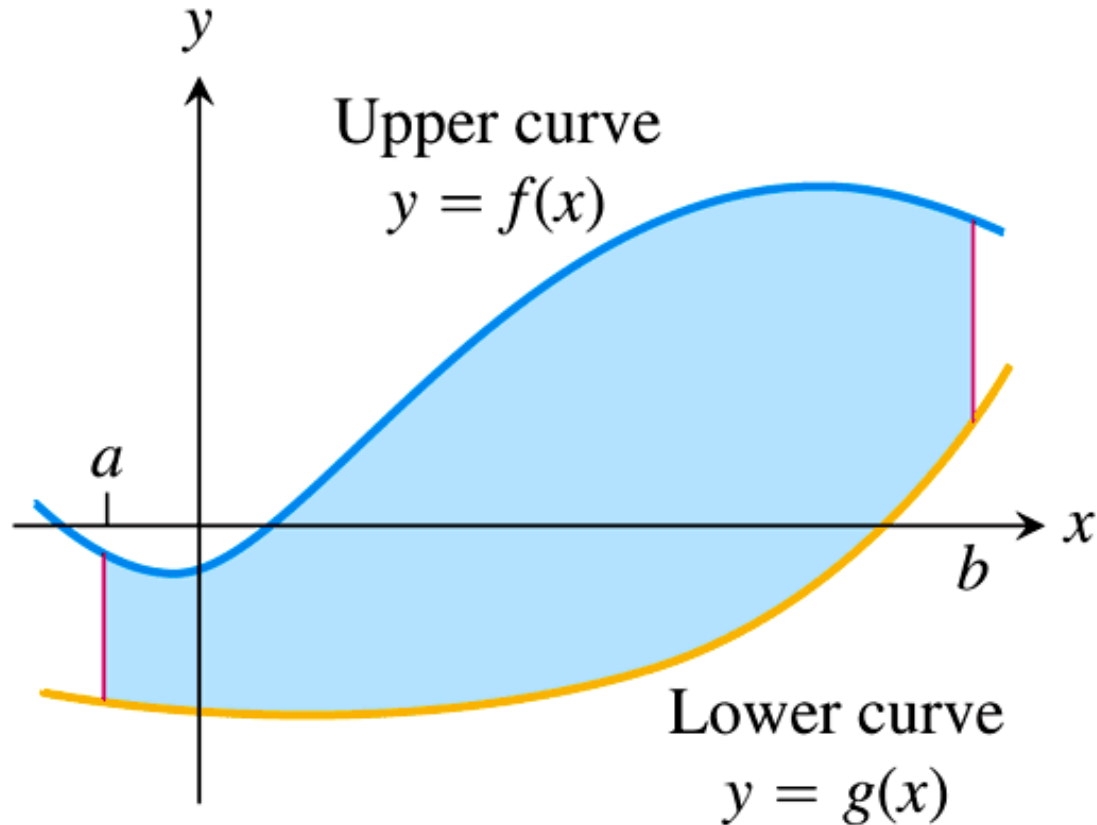


$f$  is odd

# 5.6

## Area between curves

# Area between curves



**FIGURE 5.25** The region between the curves  $y = f(x)$  and  $y = g(x)$  and the lines  $x = a$  and  $x = b$ .

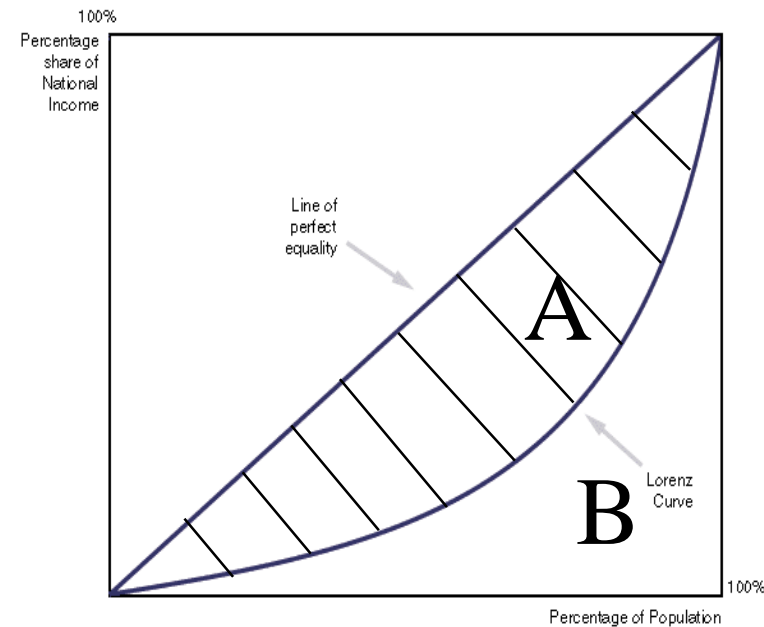
# Area between curves

**DEFINITION** If  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous with  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  throughout  $[a, b]$ , then the **area of the region between the curves  $y = f(x)$  and  $y = g(x)$  from  $a$  to  $b$**  is the integral of  $(f - g)$  from  $a$  to  $b$ :

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

**Example:** Gini index

$$G = 2 \int_0^1 (x - L(x)) dx$$



# Mathematics B2: Newton

- ✓ Substitution method
- ✓ Integration by parts
- Improper integrals



*Isaac Newton*

# 8.1

## Integration by Parts

# Integration by parts

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x) dx \quad (1)$$

## Integration by Parts Formula

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du \quad (2)$$

## Integration by Parts Formula for Definite Integrals

$$\int_a^b f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b f'(x)g(x) dx \quad (3)$$

# Integration by parts

**Remark:** In integration by parts

$$\int f(x)g'(x) dx = f(x)g(x) - \int f'(x)g(x) dx \quad (1)$$

we recognize the differentiation product rule

# Integration by parts

## Example:

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

## Solution:

We try:  $u = x^2$  and  $dv = e^x dx$  (then  $du$  is simpler than  $u$ )

So:  $du = 2x dx$  en  $v = e^x$

$$\text{Hence: } \int x^2 e^x dx = x^2 e^x - \int 2x e^x dx$$

$$\int x^2 e^x dx = x^2 e^x - \int 2x e^x dx$$

### Solution (continued):

Now take:  $u = 2x$  and  $dv = e^x dx$   
(note that  $du$  again gets simpler)

Then:  $du = 2 dx$  en  $v = e^x$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So: } x^2 e^x - \int 2x e^x dx &= x^2 e^x - \left( 2x e^x - \int 2e^x dx \right) \\ &= x^2 e^x - 2x e^x + 2e^x + C \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Finally: } \int x^2 e^x dx = x^2 e^x - 2x e^x + 2e^x + C$$

# Integration by parts

**Example:** evaluate

$$\int x \sin x dx$$

**Solution:**

Take  $u = x$  and  $dv = \sin(x)dx$

Then  $du = dx$  and  $v = -\cos(x)$

We conclude:

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

**Find:**  $\int \ln x dx$

**Solution:**

Use partial integration with  $u = \ln(x)$  and  $dv = 1 dx$ .

Then  $du = 1/x dx$  and  $v = x$ .

We conclude:

$$\begin{aligned}\int \ln x dx &= x \ln x - \int x \cdot \frac{1}{x} dx \\ &= x \ln x - x + C\end{aligned}$$

**Example:** Find  $\int x^2 \ln x \, dx$

**Solution:**

$$u = \ln(x) \quad \text{and} \quad dv = x^2 dx$$

$$\text{Then:} \quad du = 1/x \, dx \quad \text{en} \quad v = 1/3 x^3$$

And:

$$\begin{aligned} \int x^2 \ln x \, dx &= \frac{1}{3} x^3 \ln x - \int \frac{1}{3} x^3 \cdot \frac{1}{x} \, dx = \frac{1}{3} x^3 \ln x - \int \frac{1}{3} x^2 \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{3} x^3 \ln x - \frac{1}{9} x^3 + C \end{aligned}$$

# Break

**JUST**

$$\int du$$

**IT**

# 8.7

## Improper Integrals

# Improper integrals

In this section, we extend the concept of a definite integral to the cases where:

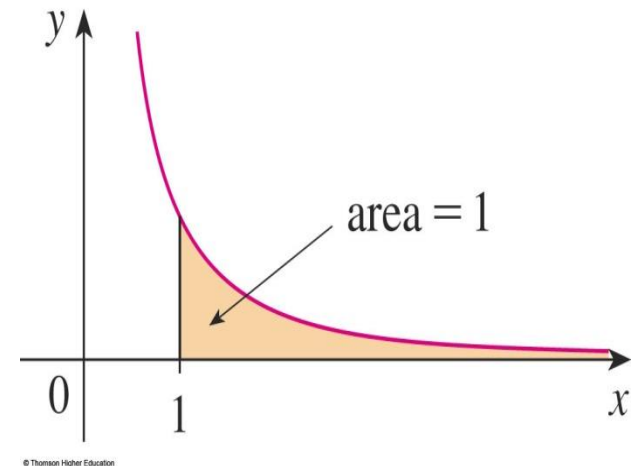
- the interval is infinite , thus  $[a, \infty)$  or  $(-\infty, b]$ .
- $f$  has a vertical asymptote in  $[a, b]$ .

In either case, the integral is called an *improper integral*.

# Improper integrals – infinite intervals

Consider the infinite region  $S$  that lies:

- Under the curve  $y = 1/x^2$
- Above the  $x$ -axis
- To the right of the line  $x = 1$

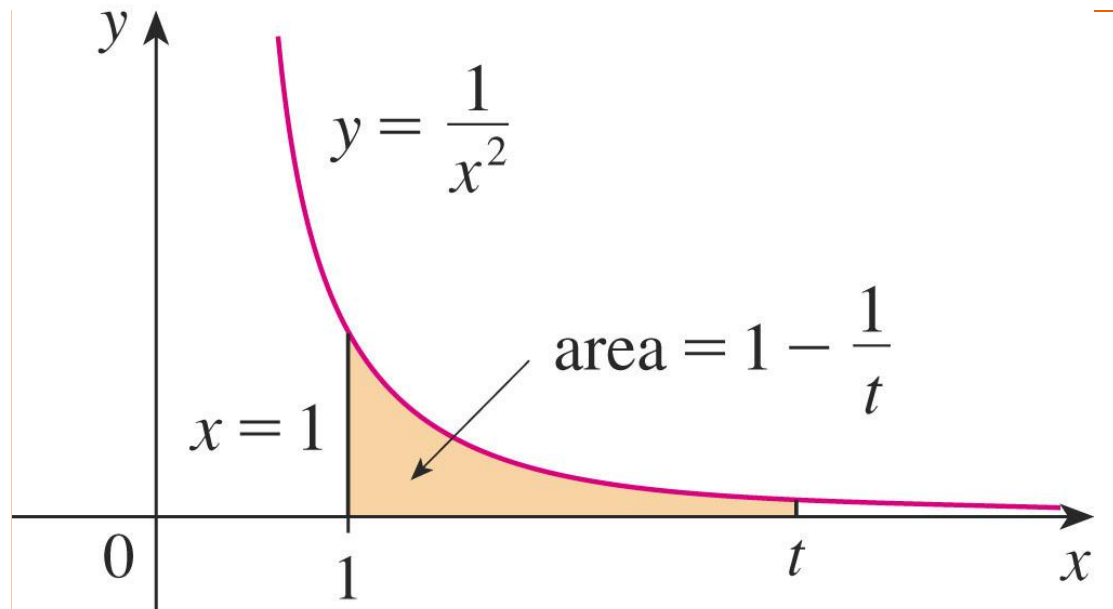


# INFINITE INTERVALS

The area of the part of  $S$  that lies to the left of the line  $x = t$  (shaded) is:

$$A(t) = \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\frac{1}{x} \Big|_1^t = 1 - \frac{1}{t}$$

- Notice that  $A(t) < 1$  no matter how large  $t$  is chosen.

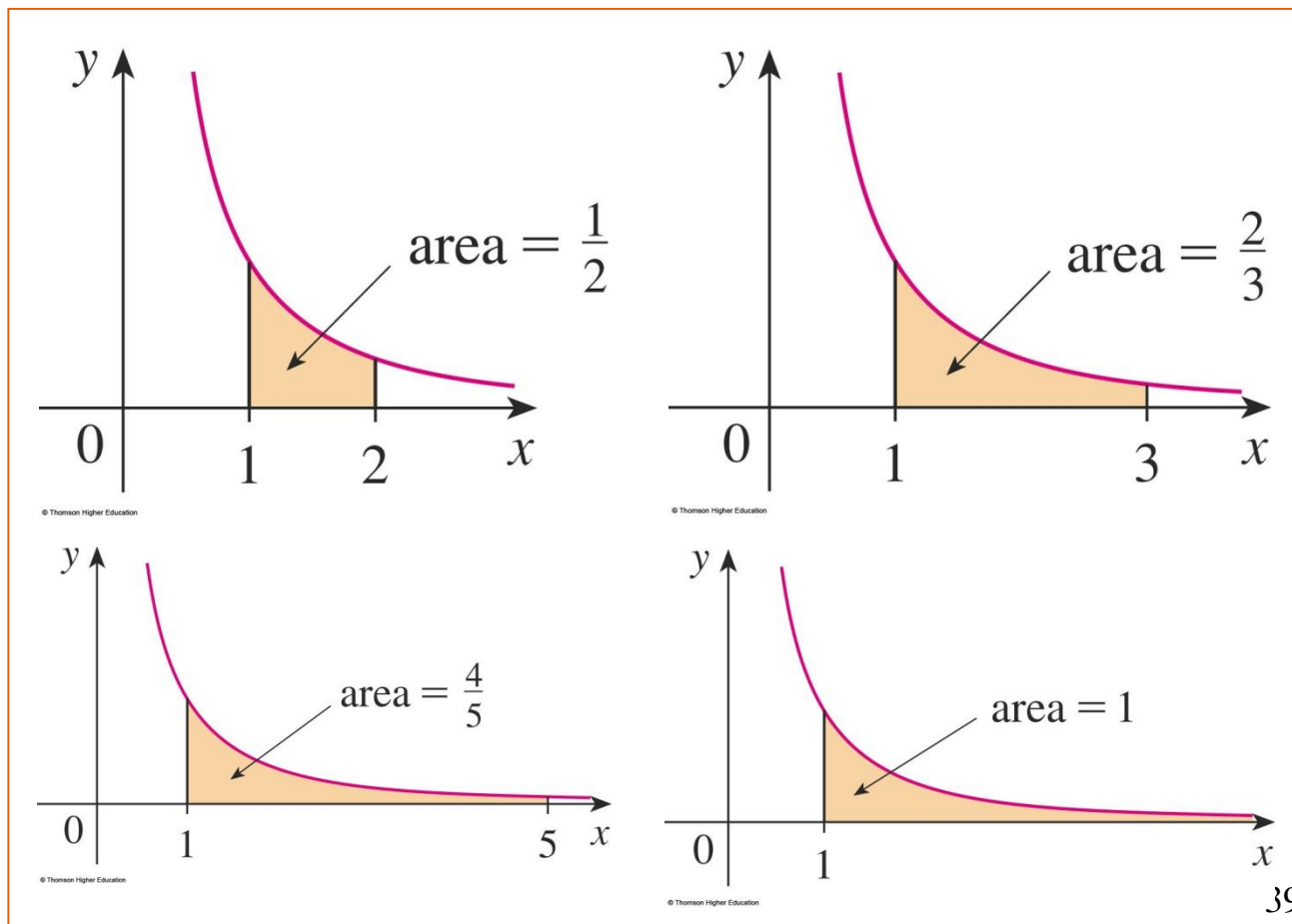


We also observe that:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} A(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{t} \right) = 1$$

# INFINITE INTERVALS

The area of the shaded region approaches 1 as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ .



# INFINITE INTERVALS

So, we say that the area of the infinite region  $S$  is equal to 1 and we write:

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 1$$

## Definition improper integral

If  $\int_a^t f(x) dx$  exists for every number  $t \geq a$ ,  
then

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

provided this limit exists (as a finite number).

## Definition improper integral

If  $\int_t^b f(x) dx$  exists for every number  $t \leq b$ ,

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

provided this limit exists (as a finite number).

# Convergent and divergent

The improper integrals  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$  and  $\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx$  are called:

- *Convergent* if the corresponding limit exists.
- *Divergent* if the limit does not exist.

# Convergent and divergent

## Example:

Determine whether the integral

$$\int_1^{\infty} (1/x) dx$$

is convergent or divergent.

# Convergent and divergent

## Example:

According to the definition,

we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \ln |x| \Big|_1^t \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (\ln t - \ln 1) \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \ln t = \infty\end{aligned}$$

- The limit does not exist as a finite number.
- So, the integral is divergent.

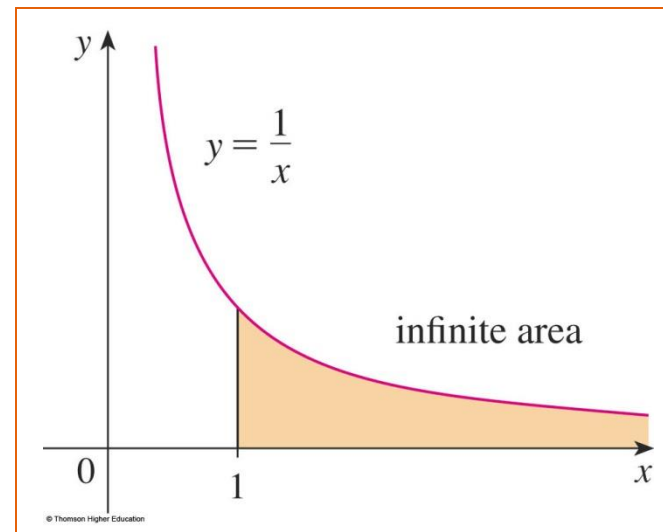
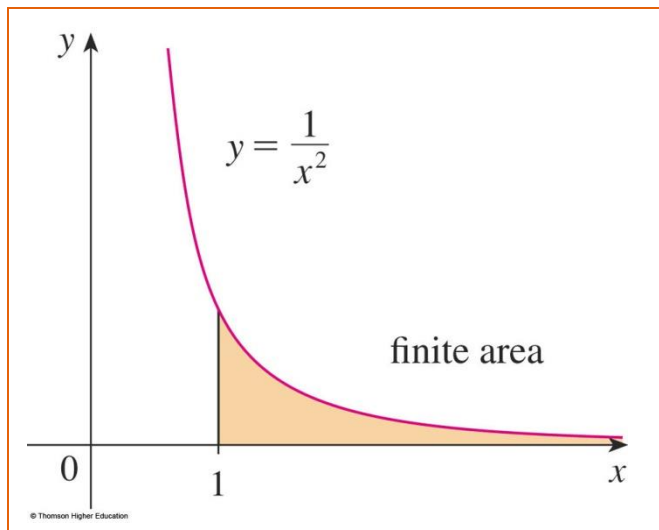
# Convergent and divergent

Let's compare this result to the example at the beginning of the section:

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx \text{ converges}$$

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx \text{ diverges}$$

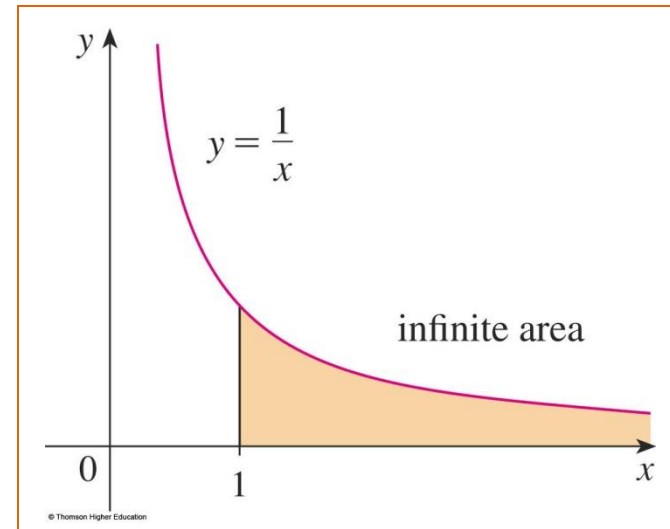
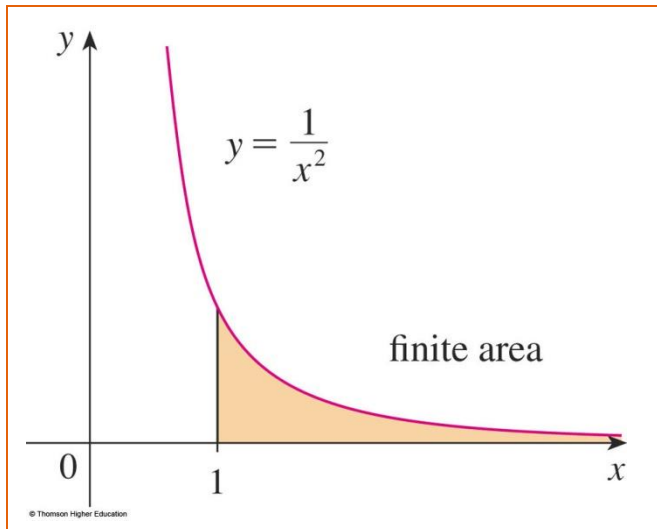
- Geometrically, this means the following.



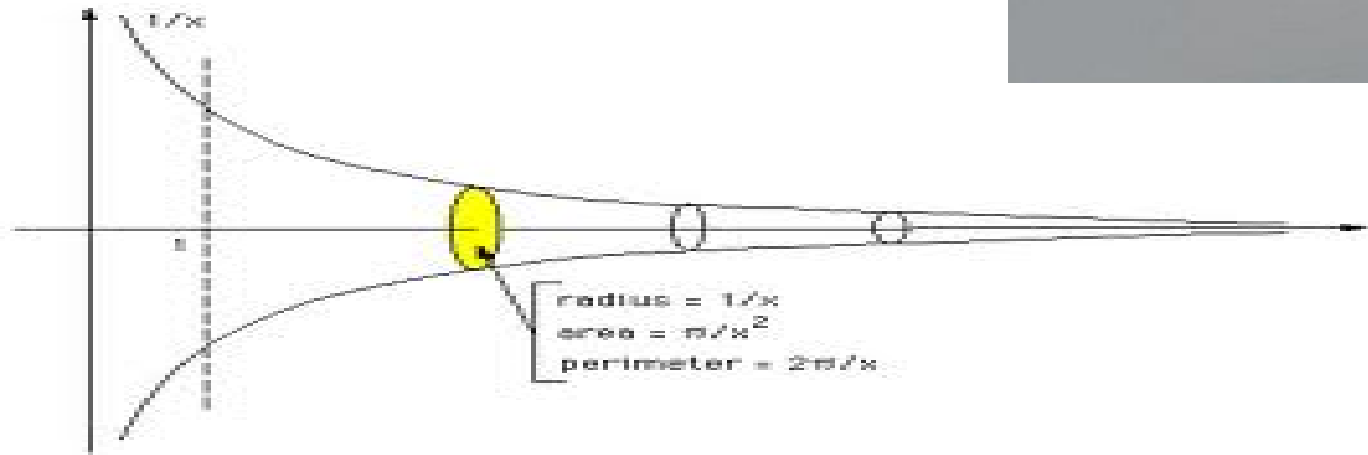
# Convergent and divergent

Note that both  $1/x^2$  and  $1/x$  approach 0 as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , but  $1/x^2$  approaches 0 faster than  $1/x$ .

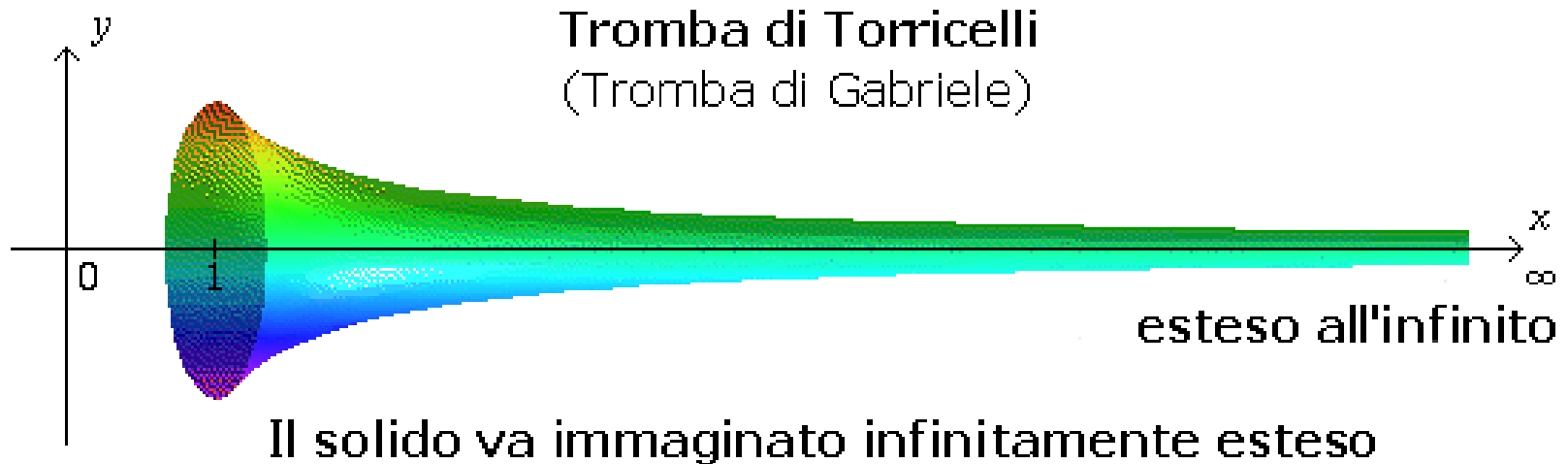
- The values of  $1/x$  does not decrease fast enough for its integral to have a finite value.



# Gabriel horn



# Tromba di Torricelli



Area della Superficie =

$$\int_1^{\infty} 2\pi y \sqrt{1+y'^2} dx =$$

$$2\pi \int_1^{\infty} y dx = 2\pi \int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x} = 2\pi [\ln x]_1^{\infty} =$$

$$2\pi [\ln \infty - 0] = \infty$$

**Area INFINITA**

Volume =

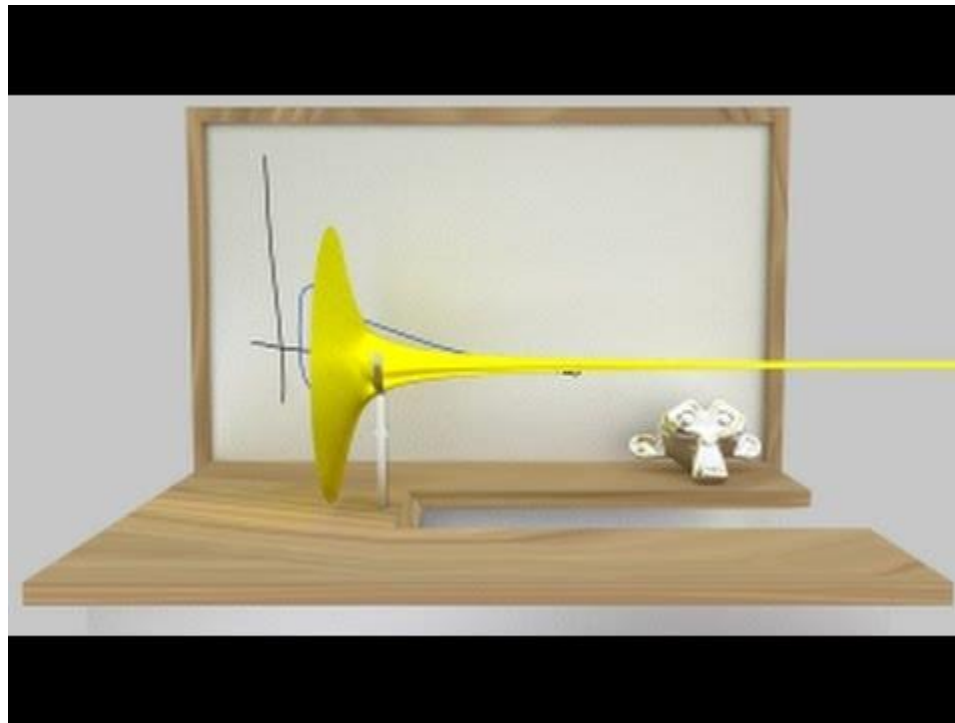
$$\int_1^{\infty} \pi y^2 dx = \pi \int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2} =$$

$$\pi \left[ -\frac{1}{x} \right]_1^{\infty} = \pi [0 - (-1)] = \pi$$

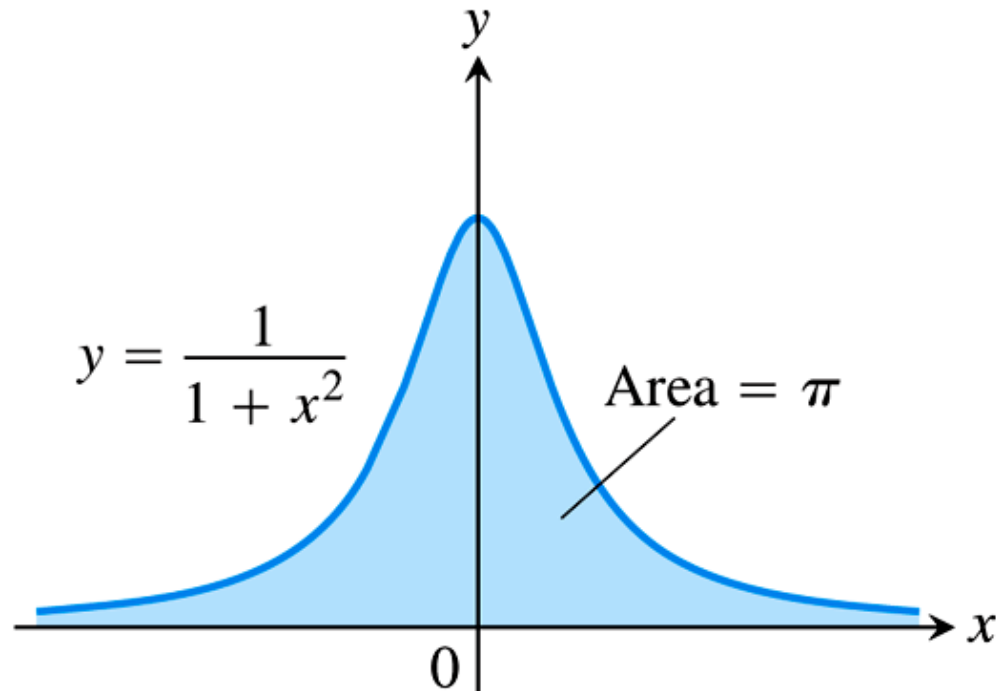
**Volume FINITO !!!**

# Torricelli trumpet

[https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MK\\_7mAwnSsc](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MK_7mAwnSsc)



# Splitting integrals



If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^c f(x) dx + \int_c^{\infty} f(x) dx,$$

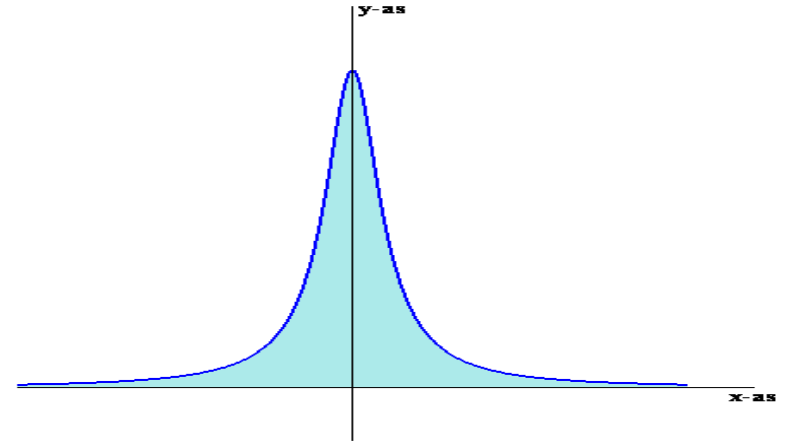
independent of the choice of  $c$

# Splitting integrals

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

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

**Solution:** (Split)



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

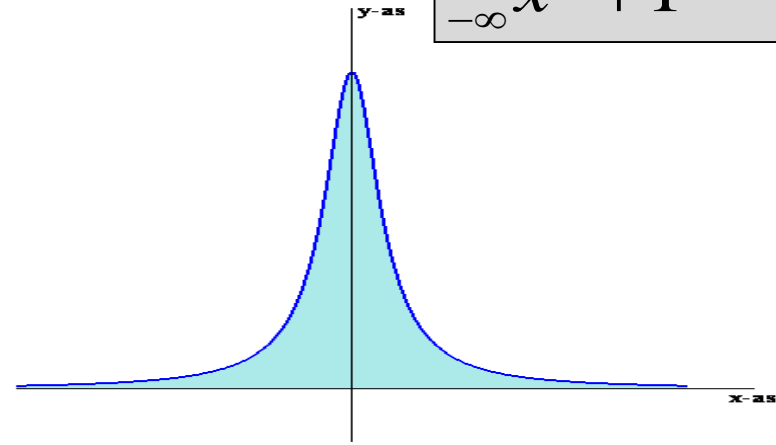
# Splitting integrals

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

$$\int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \int_t^0 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx$$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \left[ \tan^{-1} x \right]_{x=t}^{x=0}$$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow -\infty} \left( \tan^{-1} 0 - \tan^{-1} t \right) = 0 - \left( -\frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

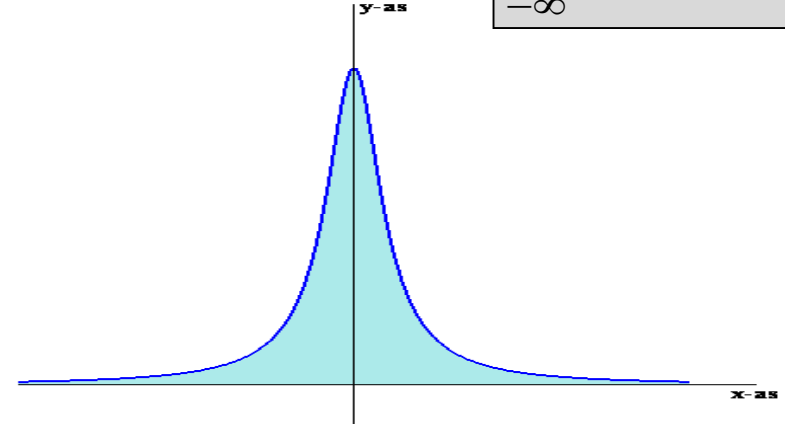


$$\int_0^t \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \tan^{-1} x \right]_{x=0}^{x=t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left( \tan^{-1} t - \tan^{-1} 0 \right) = \frac{\pi}{2} - 0 = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

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

## Conclusion:



$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx &= \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2} = \pi \end{aligned}$$

**DEFINITION** Integrals with infinite limits of integration are **improper integrals of Type I**.

1. If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, \infty)$ , then

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

2. If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(-\infty, b]$ , then

$$\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

3. If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^c f(x) dx + \int_c^{\infty} f(x) dx,$$

where  $c$  is any real number.

In each case, if the limit is finite we say that the improper integral **converges** and that the limit is the **value** of the improper integral. If the limit fails to exist, the improper integral **diverges**.

# Functions with 'bad' behaviour

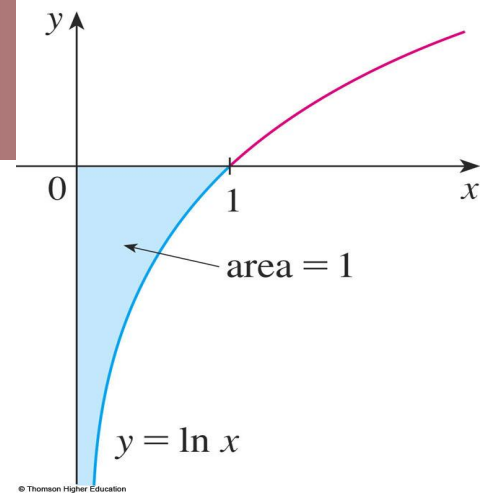
Whenever you see the symbol  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ , you must decide, by looking at the function  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ , whether it is either:

- An ordinary definite integral
- An improper integral

# Functions with 'bad' behaviour

**Example:** Evaluate

$$\int_0^1 \ln x \, dx$$



- We know that the function  $f(x) = \ln x$  has a vertical asymptote at 0 since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln x = -\infty$$

- Thus, the given integral is improper, and we have:

$$\int_0^1 \ln x \, dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \int_t^1 \ln x \, dx$$

## Functions with 'bad' behaviour

Now, we integrate by parts with  $u = \ln x$ ,  
 $dv = dx$ ,  $du = dx/x$ , and  $v = x$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\int_t^1 \ln x \, dx &= x \ln x \Big|_t^1 - \int_t^1 dx \\ &= 1 \ln 1 - t \ln t - (1 - t) \\ &= -t \ln t - 1 + t\end{aligned}$$

# Functions with 'bad' behaviour

To find the limit of the first term,  
we use l'Hospital's Rule:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} t \ln t &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln t}{1/t} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1/t}{-1/t^2} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} (-t) \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

# Functions with 'bad' behaviour

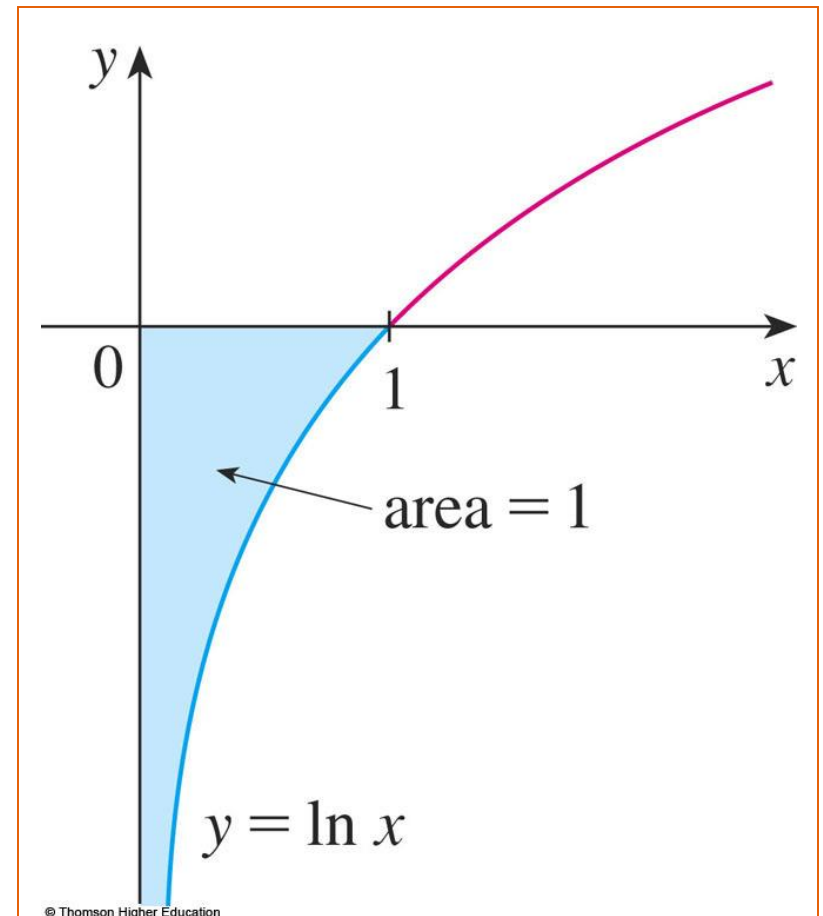
Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^1 \ln x \, dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} (-t \ln t - 1 + t) \\ &= -0 - 1 + 0 \\ &= -1\end{aligned}$$

# Functions with 'bad' behaviour

The geometric interpretation of the result is shown.

- The area of the shaded region above  $y = \ln x$  and below the  $x$ -axis is 1.



# Functions with 'bad' behaviour

## DEFINITION Type II Improper Integrals

Integrals of functions that become infinite at a point within the interval of integration are **improper integrals of Type II**.

1. If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(a, b]$  and is discontinuous at  $a$  then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow a^+} \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

2. If  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[a, b)$  and is discontinuous at  $b$ , then

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

3. If  $f(x)$  is discontinuous at  $c$ , where  $a < c < b$ , and continuous on  $[a, c) \cup (c, b]$ , then

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

In each case, if the limit is finite we say the improper integral **converges** and that the limit is the **value** of the improper integral. If the limit does not exist, the integral **diverges**.

# 8.7

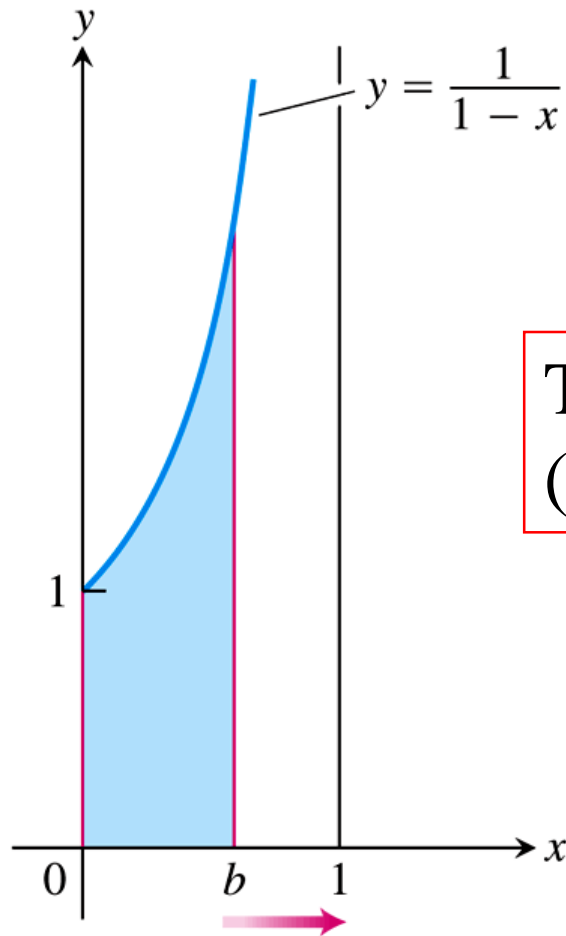
## Terminology

# Terminology

**Definition** for improper integrals of Type 1 or Type 2 :

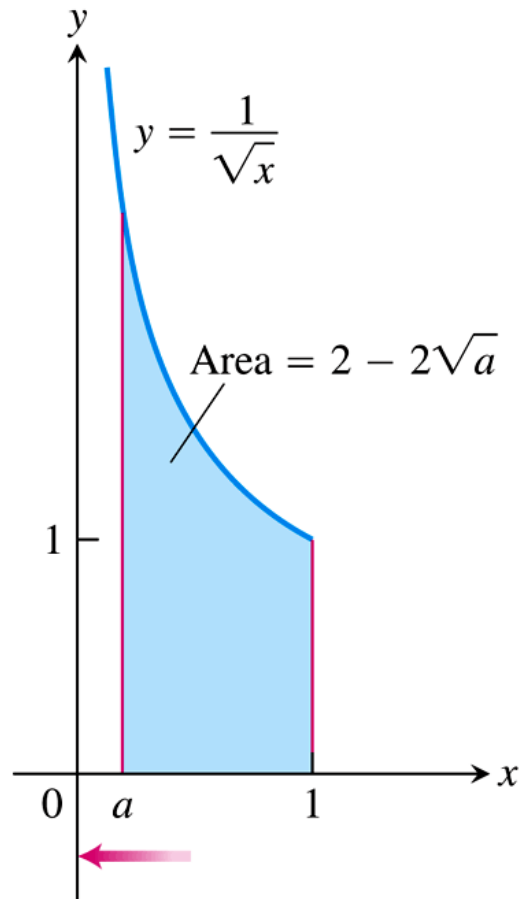
If the limit(s) that define(s) the integral exist(s) (and are finite), then the integral is called **convergent**.

If (one of) the limit(s) that define(s) the integral does not exist (or is infinite), then the integral is called **divergent**.



The integral is *divergent*.  
(the area is infinite)

**FIGURE 8.17** The area beneath the curve and above the  $x$ -axis for  $[0, 1)$  is not a real number



The integral is convergent (the area is finite)

# Normal distributions

# Estimating convergence/divergence of integrals

Show that  $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$  is convergent.

- We can't evaluate the integral directly.
- The antiderivative of  $e^{-x^2}$  is not an elementary function.

# Estimating convergence/divergence of integrals

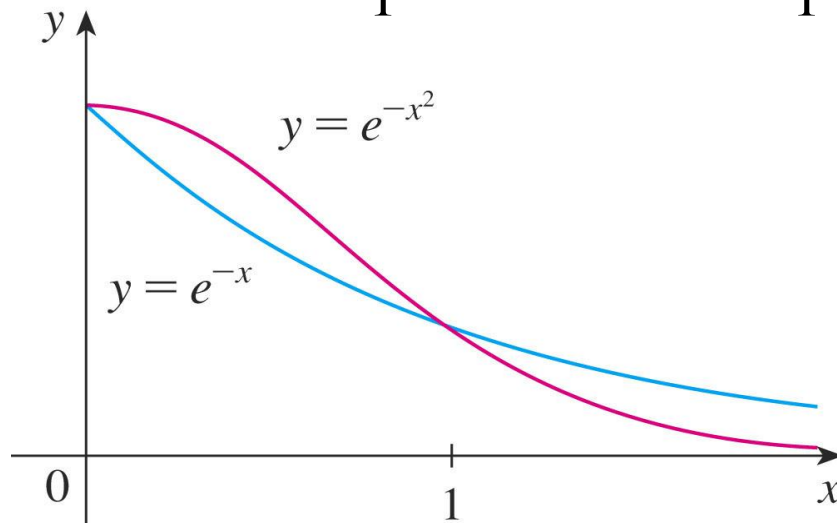
We write: 
$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx + \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$$

- We observe that the first integral on the right-hand side is just an ordinary definite integral.

# Estimating convergence/divergence of integrals

- In the second integral, we use the fact that, for  $x \geq 1$ , we have  $x^2 \geq x$ .
- So,  $-x^2 \leq -x$  and, therefore,  $e^{-x^2} \leq e^{-x}$ .
- This also holds for the integrals

$$0 \leq \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \leq \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} dx$$



# Estimating convergence/divergence of integrals

The integral of  $e^{-x}$  is easy to evaluate:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t e^{-x} dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (e^{-1} - e^{-t}) \\ &= e^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

It follows that  $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$  is convergent.

# Estimating convergence/divergence of integrals

We showed that  $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$

is convergent without computing its value.

- In probability theory, it is important to know the exact value of this improper integral.
- It can be shown that the exact value is  $\sqrt{\pi} / 2$ .
  - this is not a subject of this course

# Normal distributions

Many important random phenomena are modeled by a normal distribution.

Examples are:

- Test scores on aptitude tests
- Heights and weights of individuals from a homogeneous population
- Annual rainfall in a given location

# Normal distributions

This means that the probability density function of the random variable  $X$  is a member of the family of functions

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$$

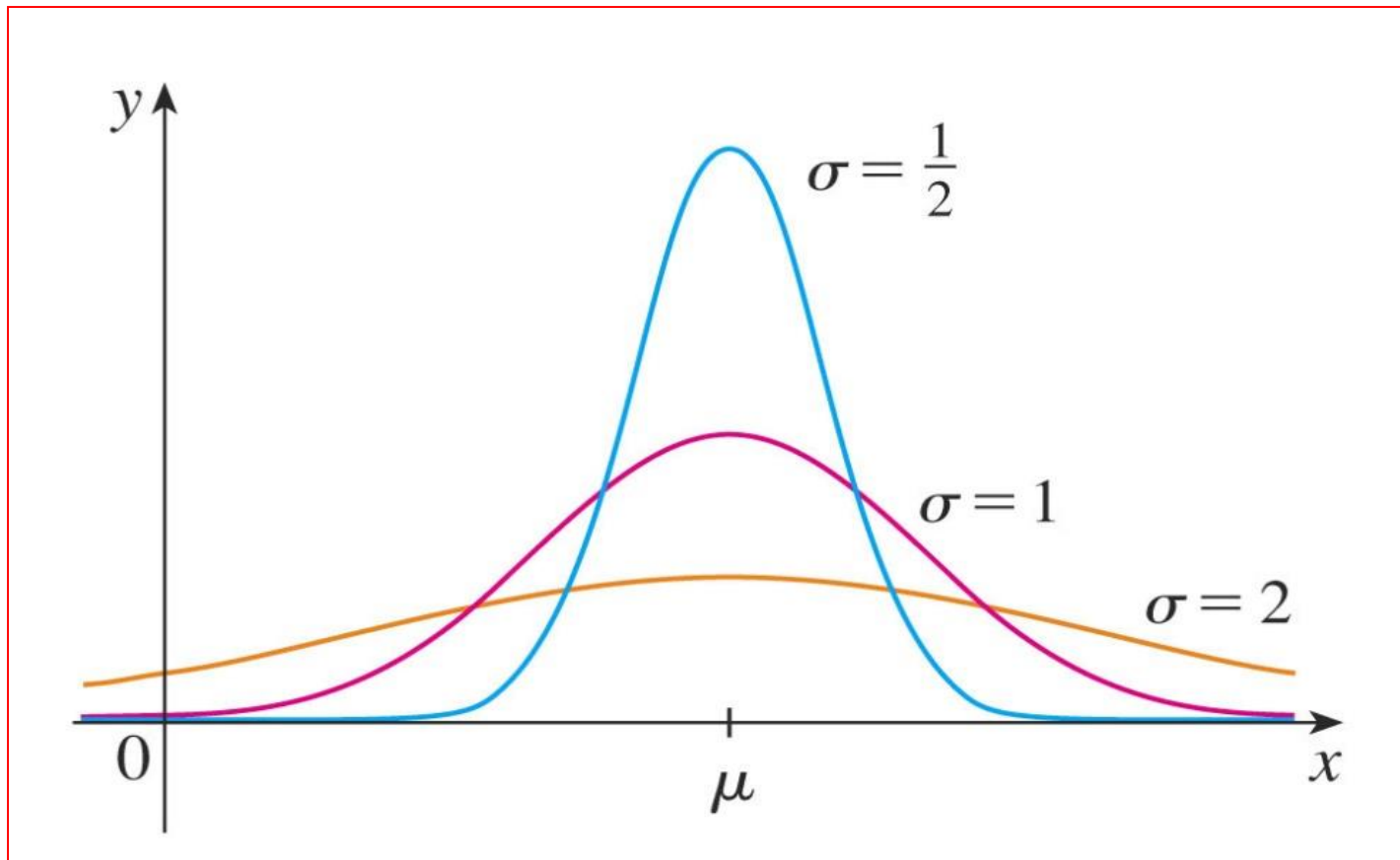
The factor  $1/(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})$  is needed to make  $f$  a probability density function:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)} dx = 1$$

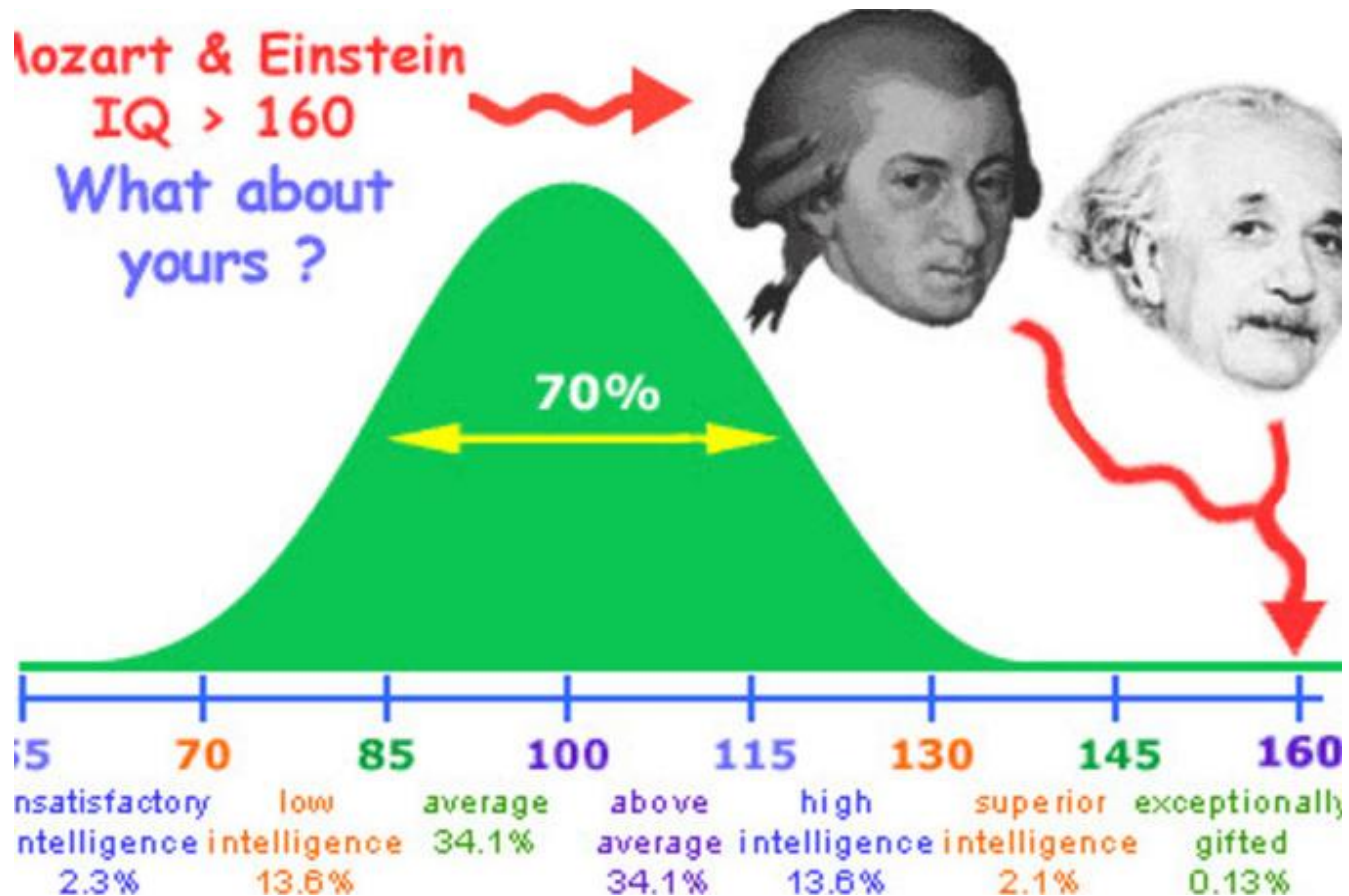
# Normal distributions

From graphs of members of the family, we see that:

- For small values of  $\sigma$ , the values of  $X$  are clustered about the mean  $\mu$ .
- For larger values of  $\sigma$ , the values of  $X$  are more spread out.



# Intelligence Quotient



## IQ test

**complete, find the fifth term**

**1    2    6    24    .**

## IQ test

complete, find the fifth term

**1    2    6    24    .**

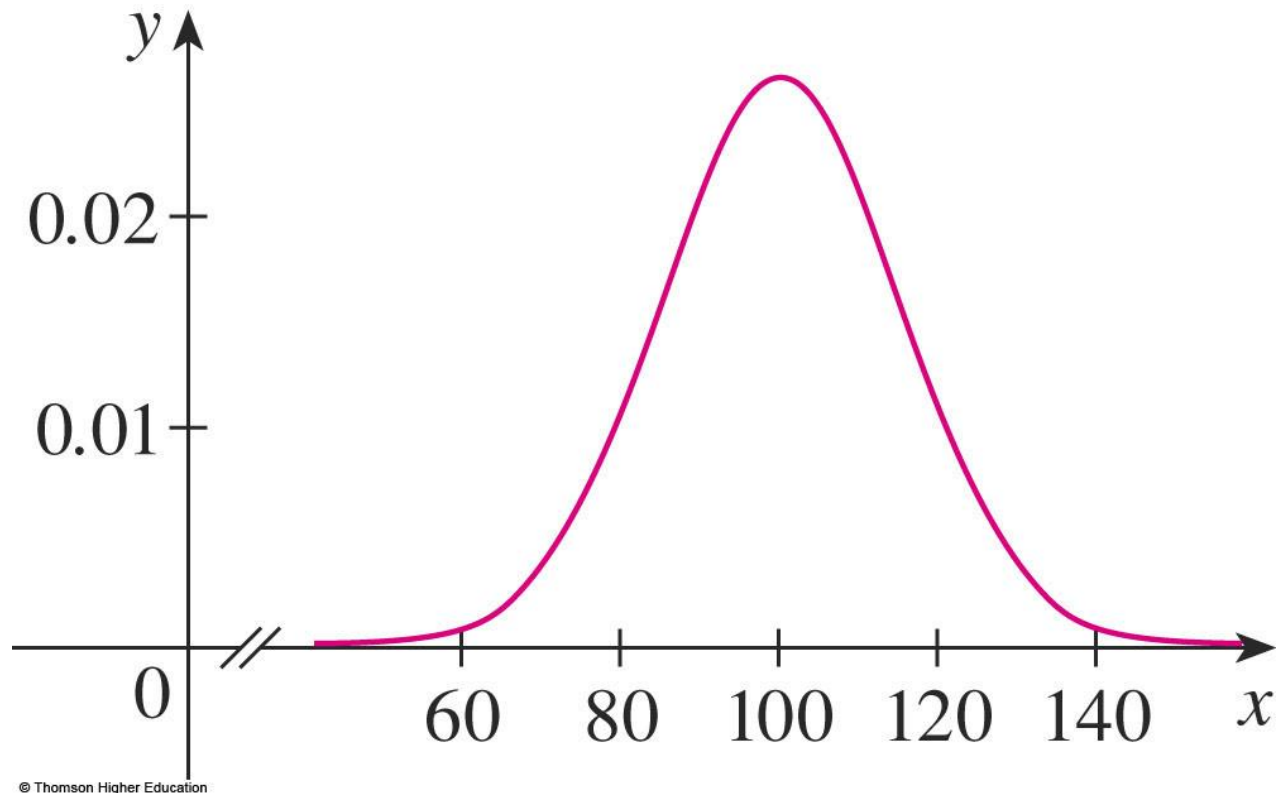
**79**

$$\mathbf{17/6 (n-1)(n-2)(n-3) + 1/2 (n-1)(n-2) + n}$$

# Intelligence Quotient

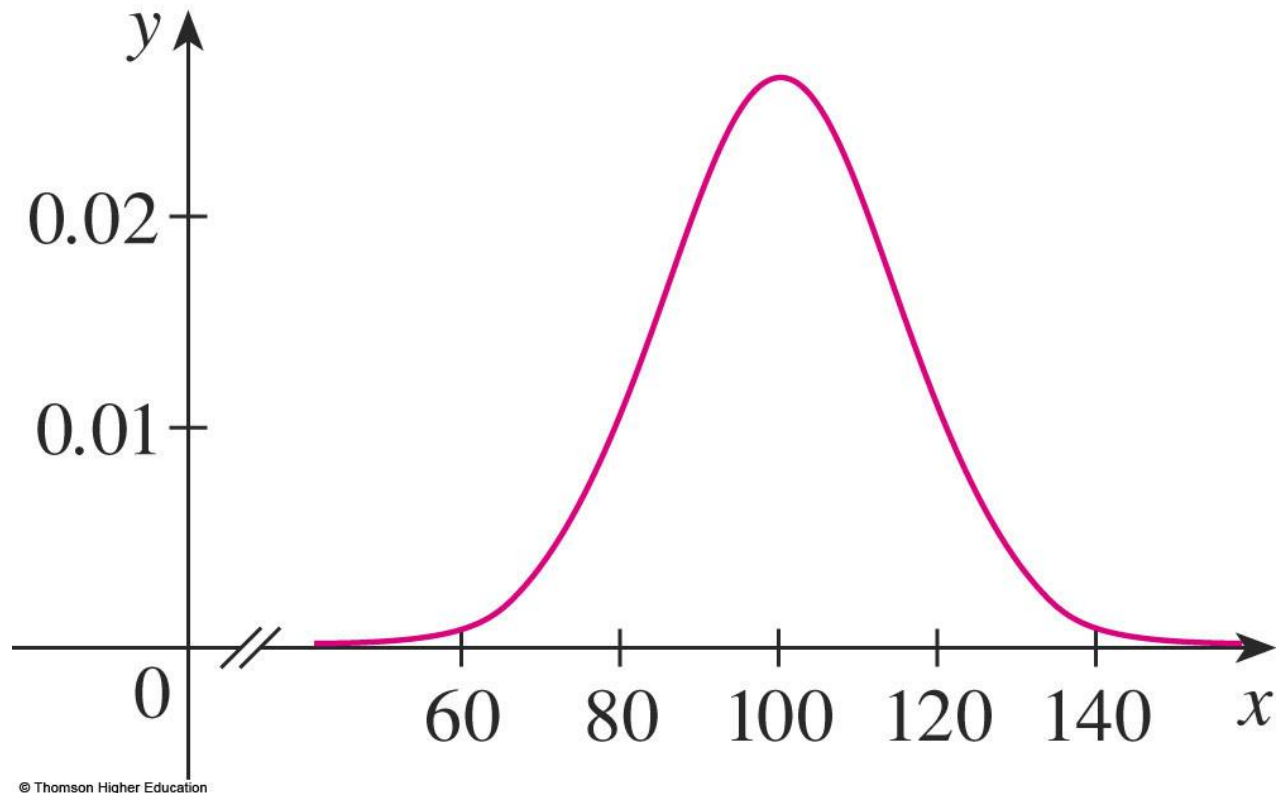
Intelligence Quotient (IQ) scores are distributed normally with mean 100 and standard deviation 15.

- The figure shows the corresponding probability density function.



# Intelligence Quotient

- a. What percentage of the population has an IQ score between 85 and 115?
- b. What percentage has an IQ above 140?



# Intelligence Quotient

As IQ scores are normally distributed, we use the probability density function given by Equation 3 with  $\mu = 100$  and  $\sigma = 15$ :

$$P(85 \leq X \leq 115) \\ = \int_{85}^{115} \frac{1}{15\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-100)^2/450} dx$$

# Intelligence Quotient

Recall that the function  $y = e^{-x^2}$  doesn't have an elementary antiderivative.

- So, we can't evaluate the integral exactly.

However, we can use the numerical integration capability of a calculator or computer (or the Midpoint Rule) to estimate the integral.

# Intelligence Quotient

Doing so, we find that:

$$P(85 \leq X \leq 115) \approx 0.68$$

About 68% of the population has an IQ between 85 and 115—that is, within one standard deviation of the mean.

# Intelligence Quotient

The probability that the IQ score of a person chosen at random is more than 140 is:

$$P(X > 140) = \int_{140}^{\infty} \frac{1}{15\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-100)^2/450} dx$$

To avoid the improper integral, we could approximate it by the integral from 140 to 200.

- It's quite safe to say that people with an IQ over 200 are extremely rare.

# Normal distributions

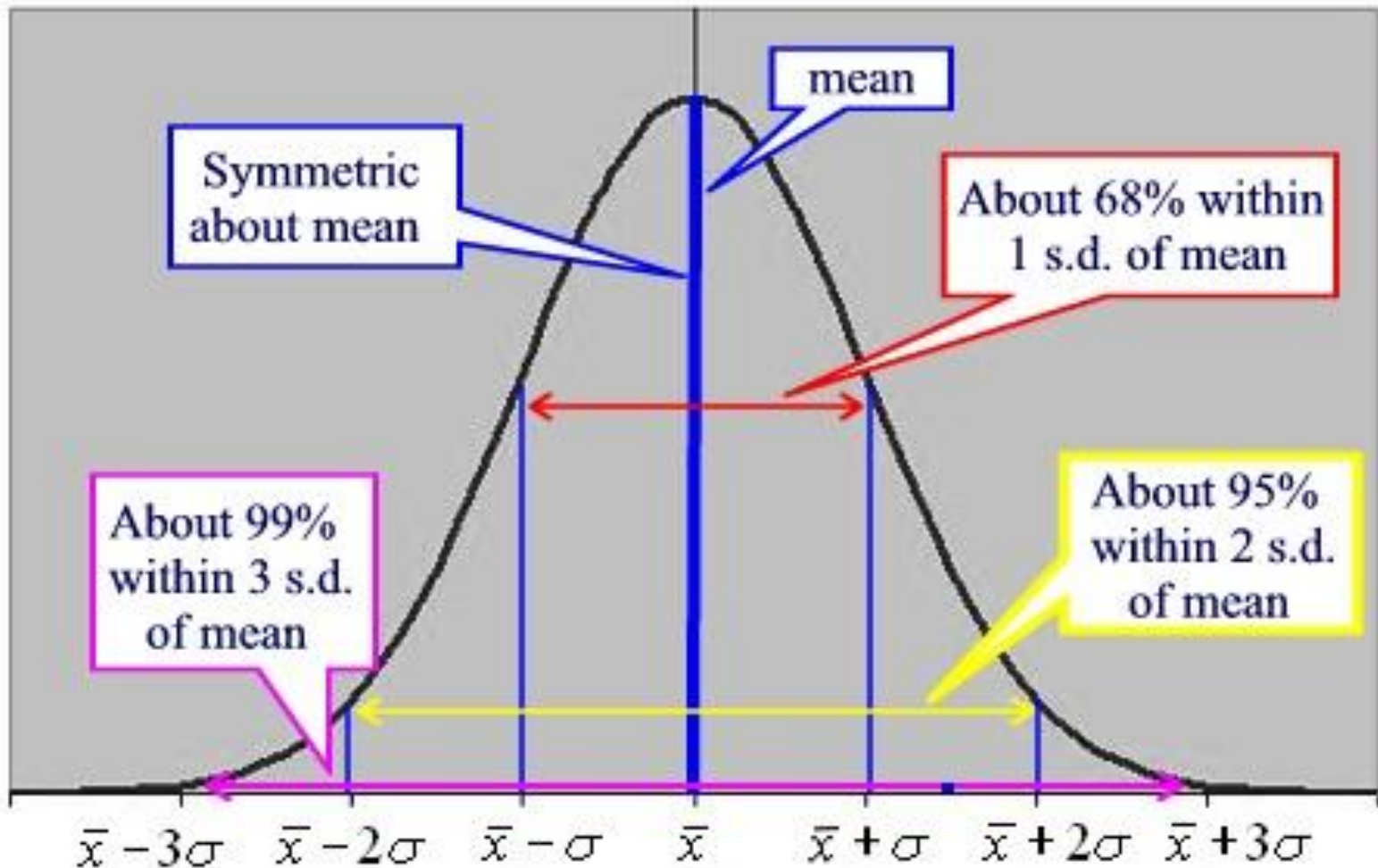
Then,

$$\begin{aligned}P(X > 140) &\approx \int_{140}^{200} \frac{1}{15\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(x-100)^2/450} dx \\ &\approx 0.0038\end{aligned}$$

- About 0.4% of the population has an IQ over 140.

# Normal distributions

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$



# Mathematics B2 Newton

- ❑ Substitution method
- ❑ Integration by parts
- ❑ Improper integrals



*Isaac Newton*

# Summarizing Exercise

a. Compute  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x}{(1+x^2)^2} dx$

b. Compute  $\int x \ln^2(x) dx$

Hint: apply partial integration twice

# Mathematics B2: Newton

## -Contents-

- ✓ Limits and continuity

- ✓ Derivatives and applications

- ✓ Functions of 2 variables

- ✓ Integrals

- ✓ Calculation techniques for integrals

- Power and Taylor series



HAPPY NEW YEAR  
2017