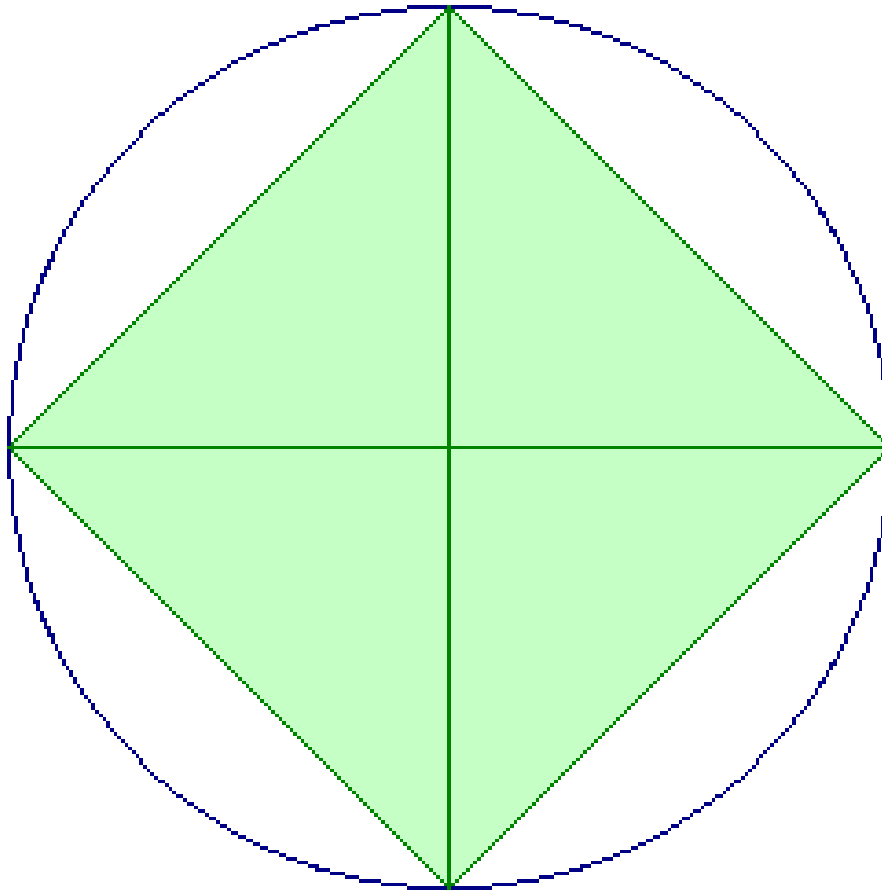


Mathematics B2: Newton

Area of circle as limit of triangle areas



Mathematics B2: Newton

-Contents-

- Integrals
- Calculation techniques for integrals
- Power and Taylor series

- First order ODEs
- Complex numbers
- Second order ODEs

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 $f(u) = \frac{1}{u + 1}$

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

Substitution Method

Another example:

sometimes a useful substitution is more difficult ...

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

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

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

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:

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

Also:

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

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:

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

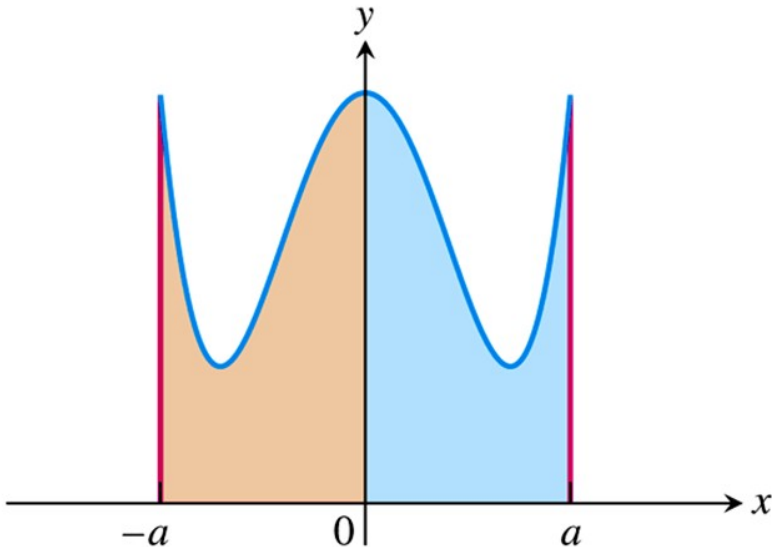
Even and odd functions

Odd and even functions

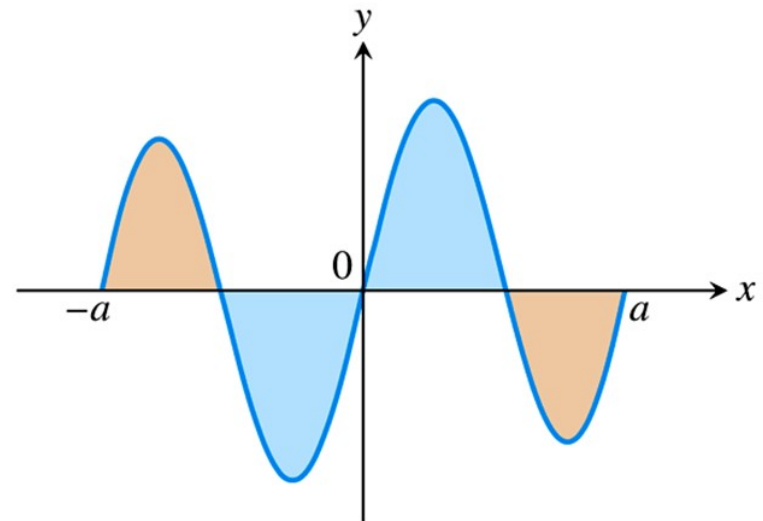
THEOREM 8 Let f be continuous on the symmetric interval $[-a, a]$.

(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

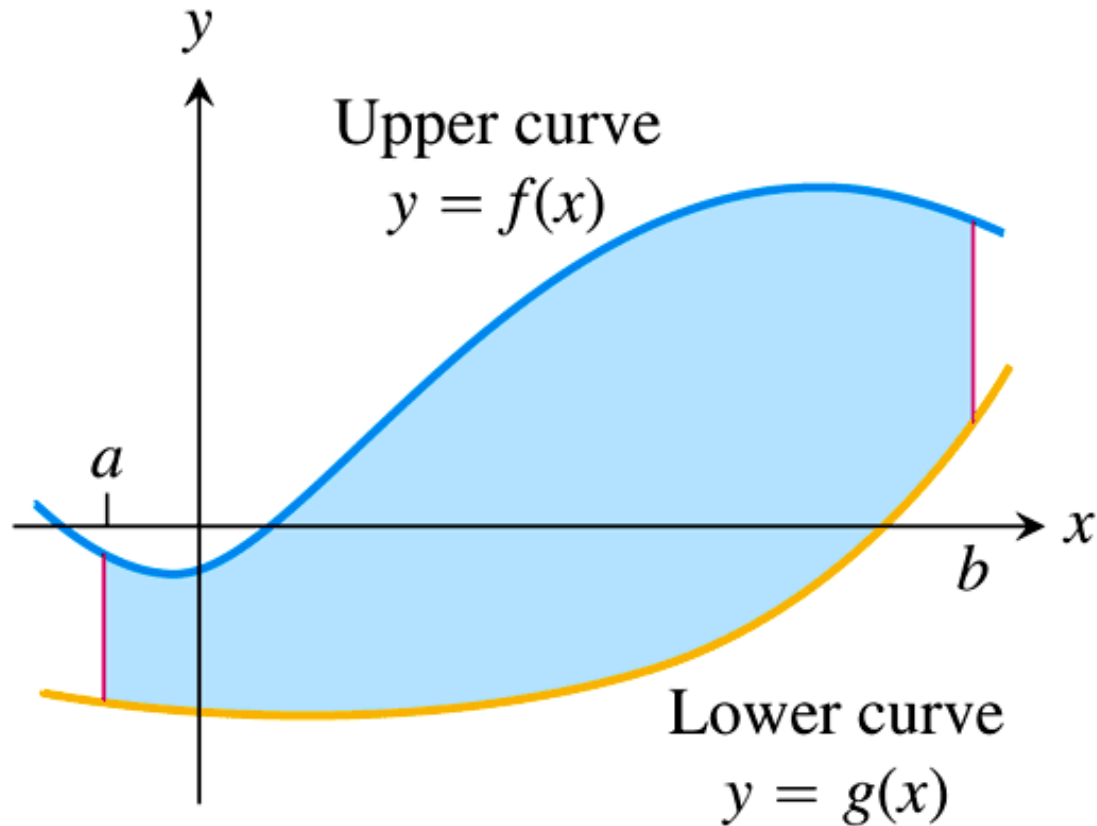


FIGURE 5.25 The region between the curves $y = f(x)$ and $y = g(x)$ and the lines $x = a$ and $x = b$.

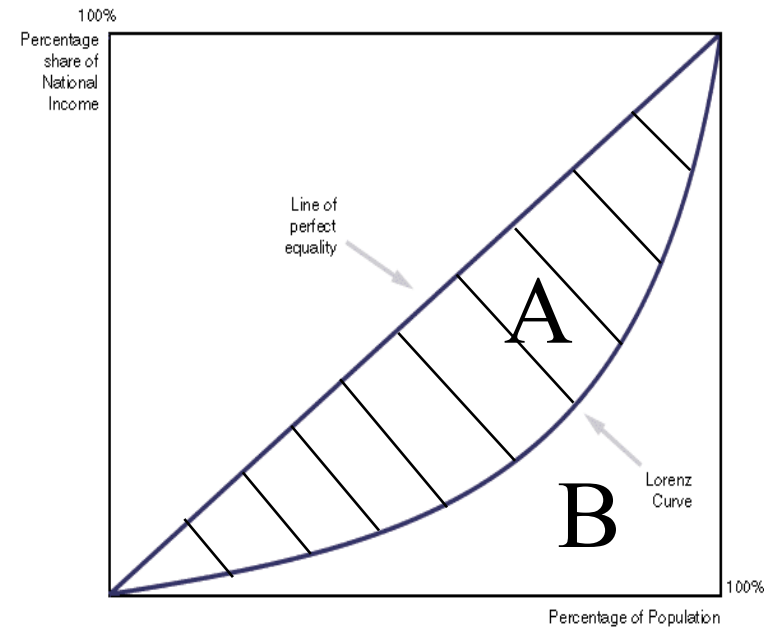
Area between curves

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

By definition of integral and derivative

$$f(x)g(x) = \int \frac{d}{dx} \left(f(x)g(x) \right) dx$$

... and by the product rule

$$= \int \left(f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x) \right) dx$$

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

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 $v = e^x$

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 $v = e^x$

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

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

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:

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

Integration by parts $\int u \cdot dv = uv - \int v \cdot du$

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

Solution:

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

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

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*.

Consider the infinite region S that lies:

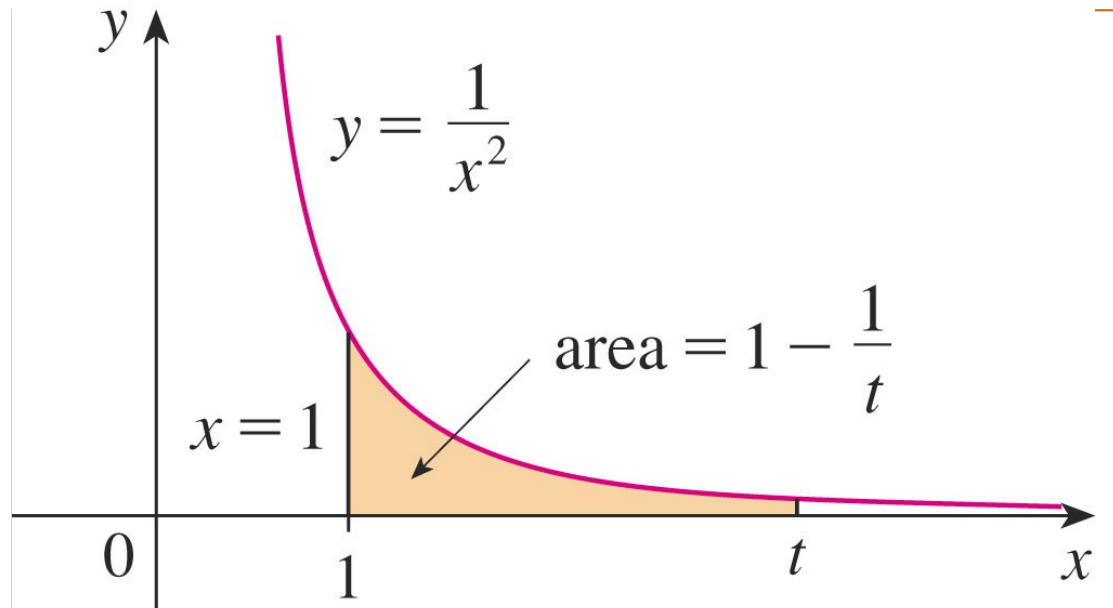
- Under the curve $y = 1/x^2$
- Above the x -axis
- To the right of the line $x = 1$

INFINITE INTERVALS

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

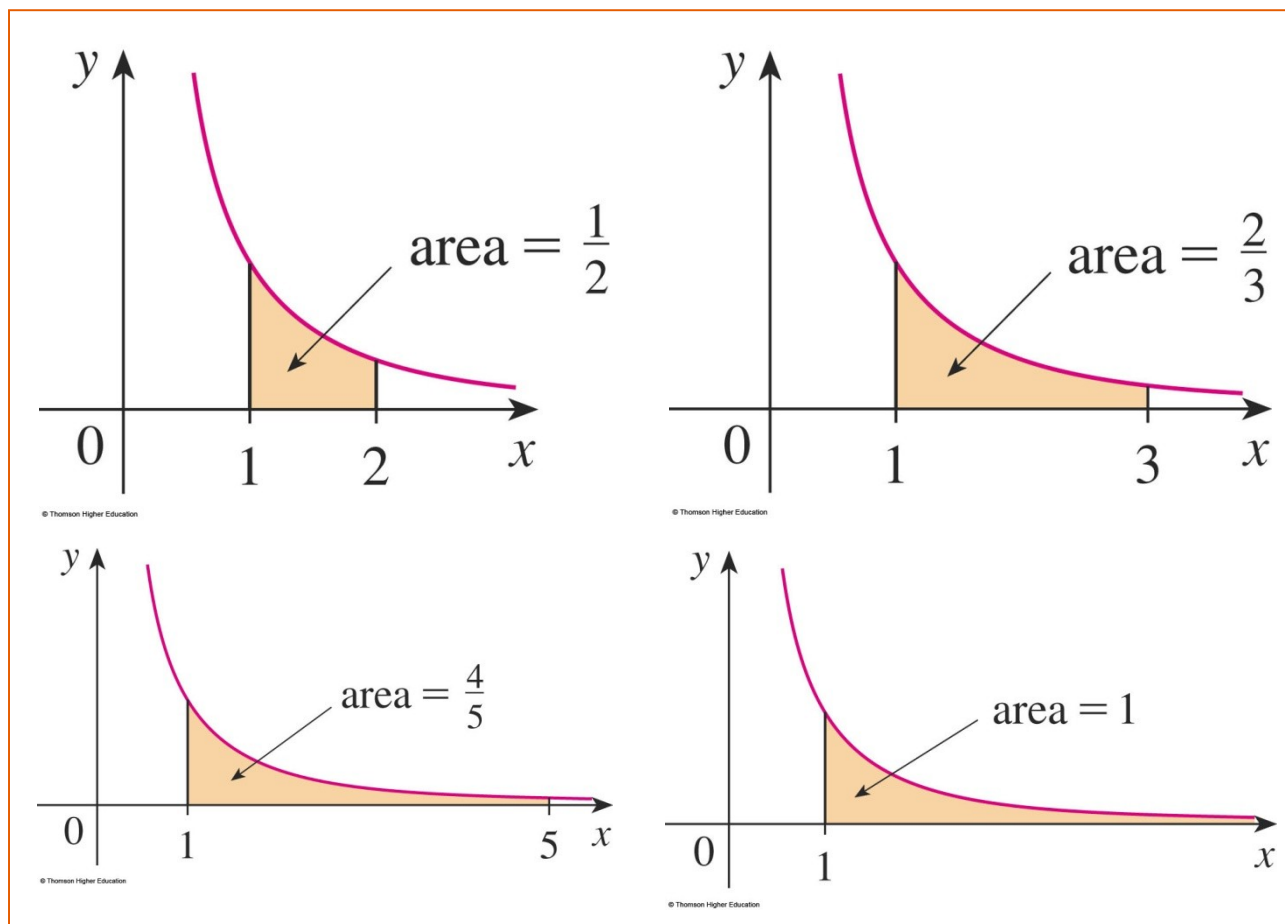
$$A(t) = \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^2} dx = -\left. \frac{1}{x} \right|_1^t = 1 - \frac{1}{t}$$

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



INFINITE INTERVALS

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



INFINITE INTERVALS

We observe that:

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

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

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

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).

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

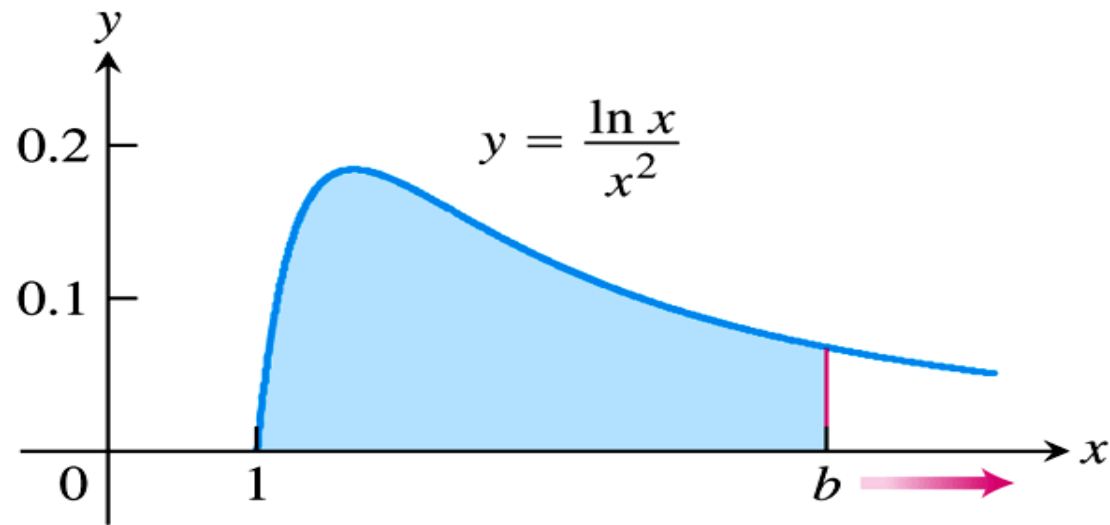


FIGURE 8.14 The area under this curve is an improper integral (Example 1).

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

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

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.

Example:

Determine whether the integral

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

is convergent or divergent.

Convergent and divergent

Example:

According to the definition,

we have:

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

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

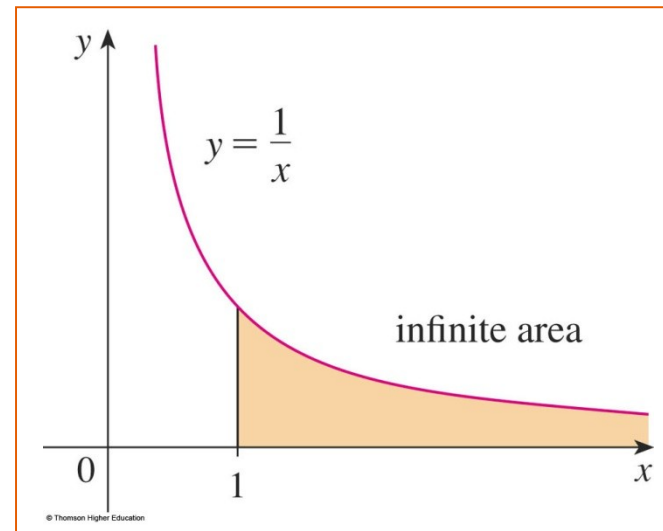
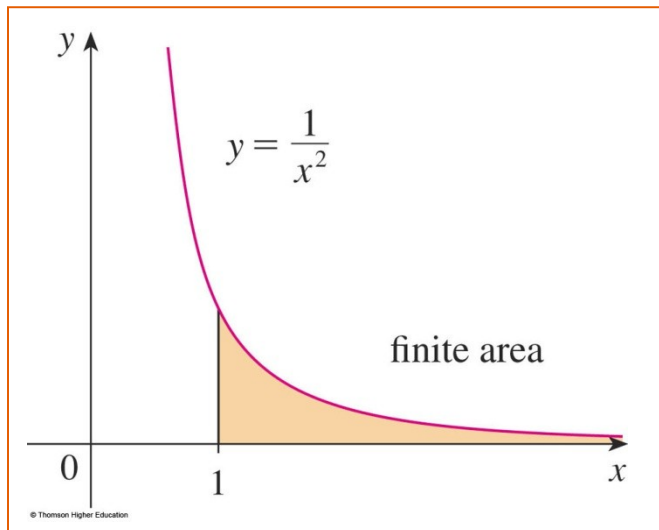
Convergent and divergent

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

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

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

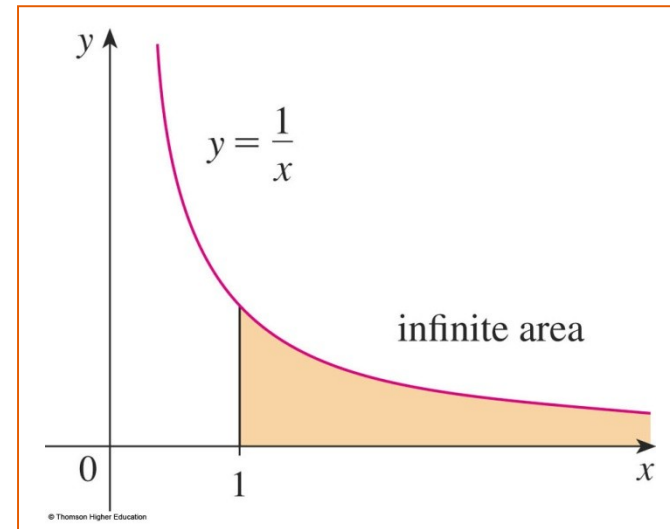
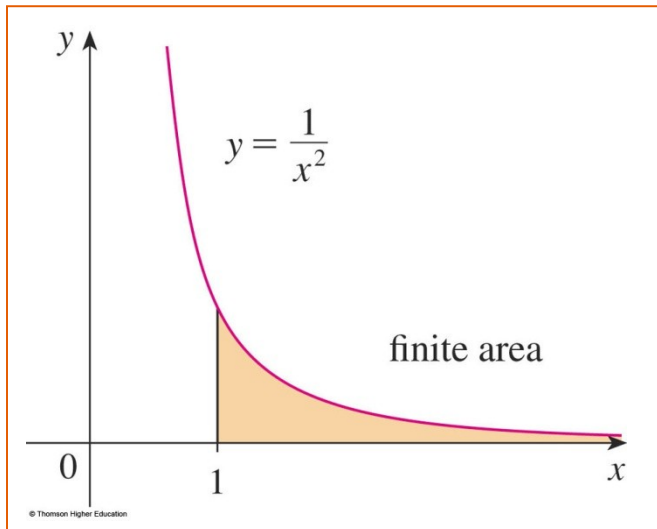
- Geometrically, this means the following.



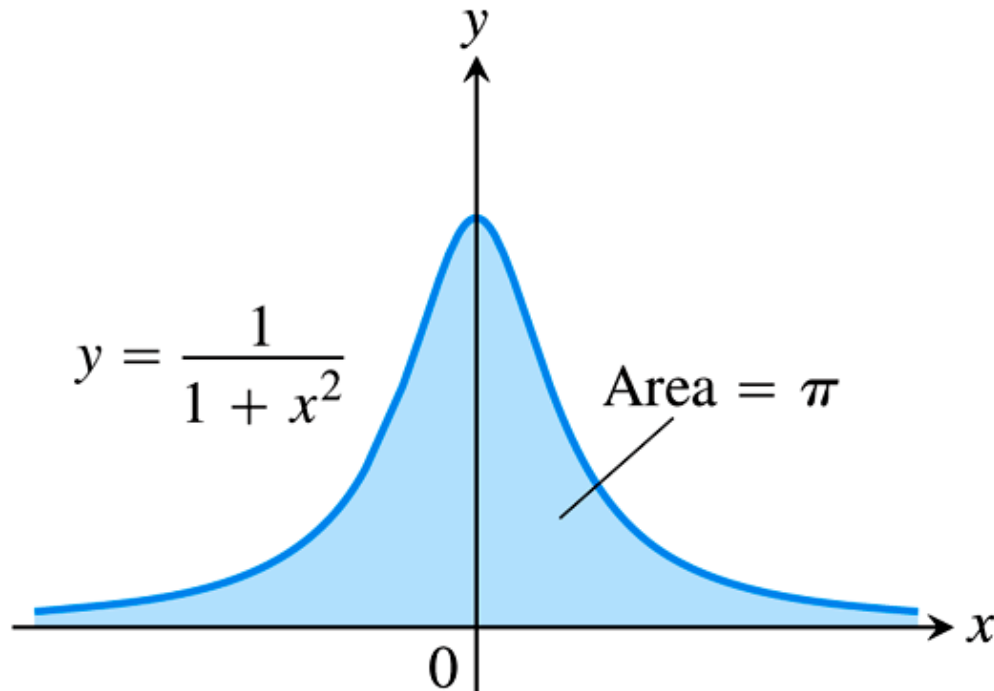
Convergent and divergent

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 function $1/x$ does not decrease fast enough for its integral to have a finite value.



Splitting integrals



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

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

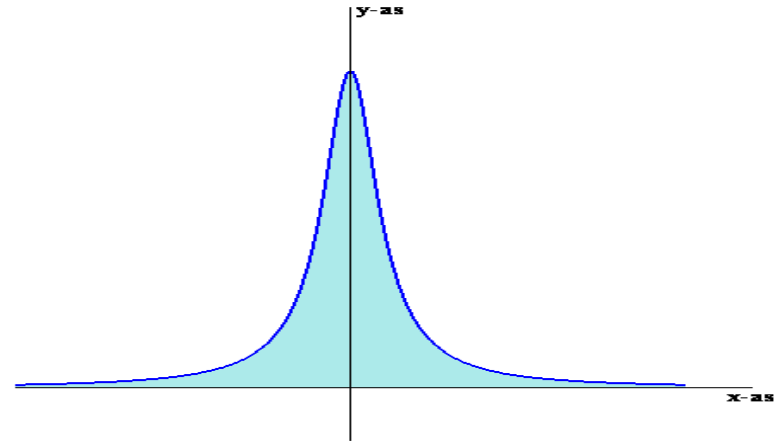
independent of the choice of c

Splitting integrals

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

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

Solution: (Split)



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

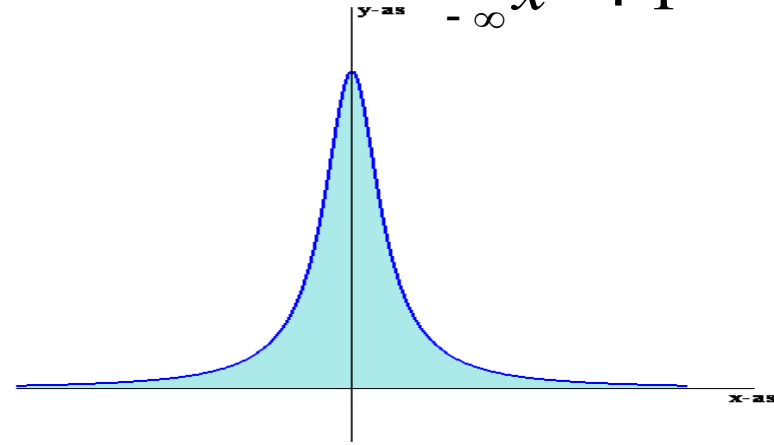
Splitting integrals

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

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

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

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

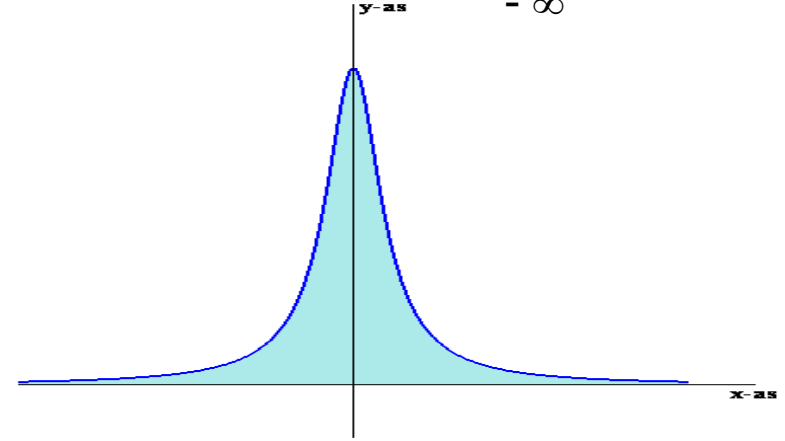


$$\int_0^t \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left[\tan^{-1} x \right]_{x=0}^{x=t}$$

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

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

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' behavior

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 in which the integrand has, e.g., a **singularity**

Functions with 'bad' behavior

Example: Evaluate

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

- 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:

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

Functions with 'bad' behavior

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' behavior

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' behavior

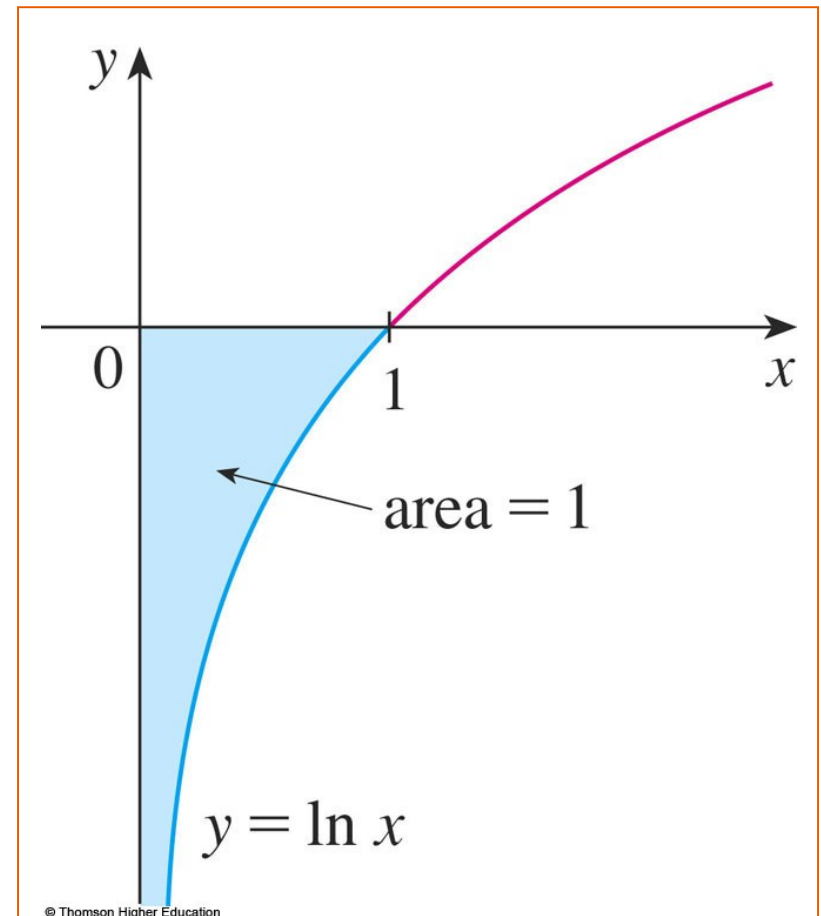
Therefore,

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

Functions with 'bad' behavior

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' behavior

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

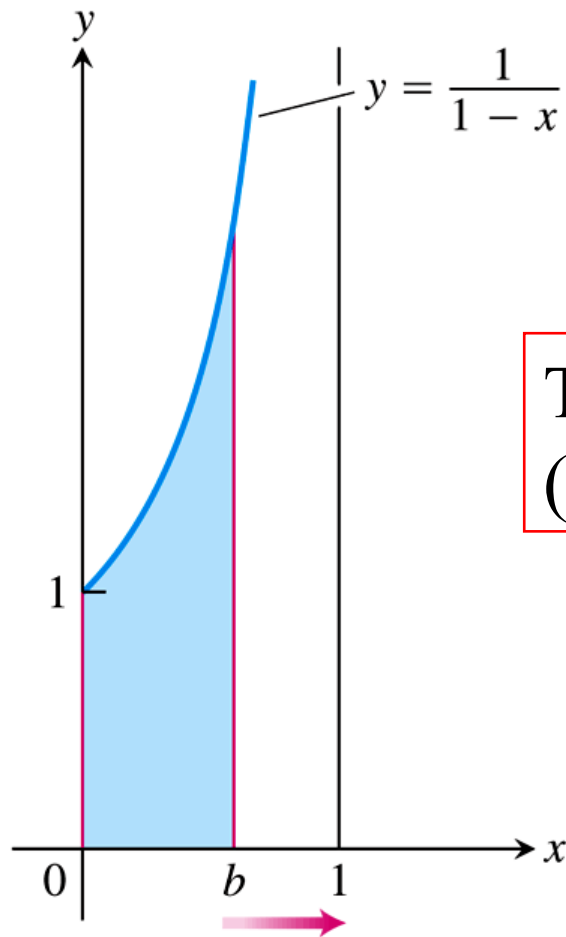
Terminology

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***.

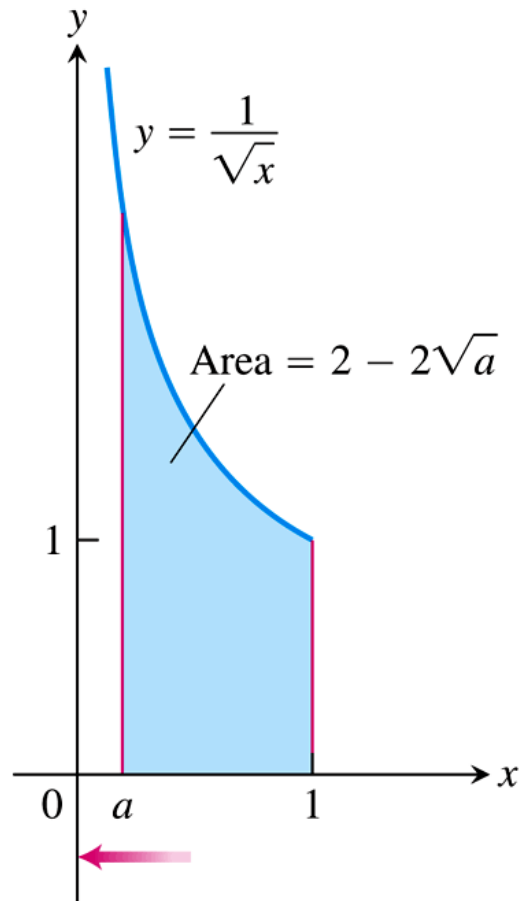
If (one of) the limit(s) that define(s) the integral does not exist (or is infinite), then the integral is called ***divergent***.



$$\rightarrow -\ln(1-x)$$

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



$$\rightarrow 2\sqrt{x}$$

The integral is convergent (the area is finite)

Normal distributions

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

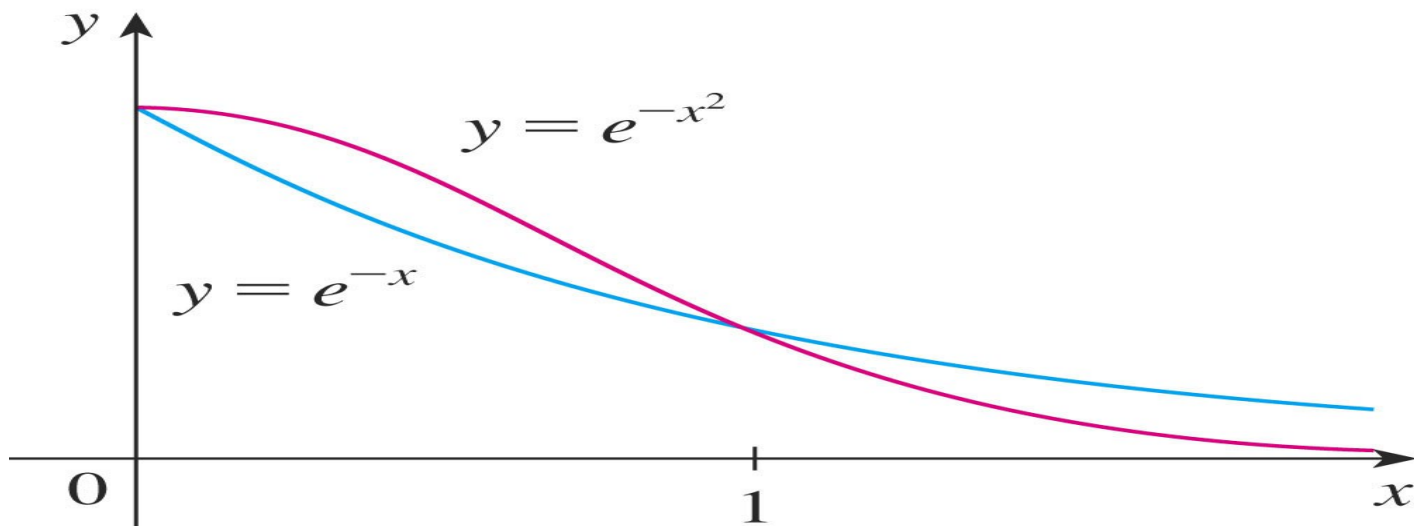
We write:
$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx + \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$$

- 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:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t e^{-x} dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (e^{-1} - e^{-t}) \\ &= e^{-1}\end{aligned}$$

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

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

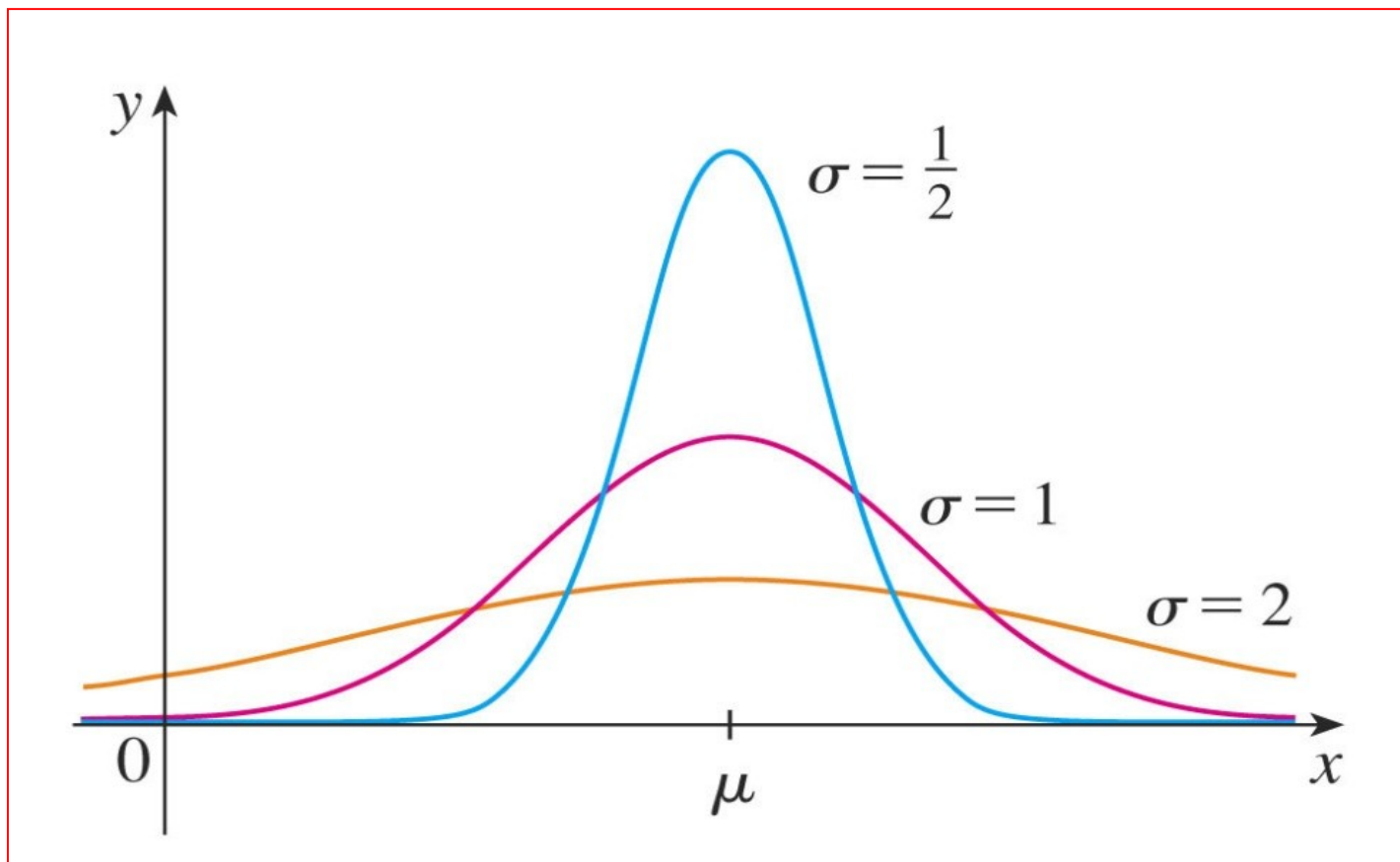
The factor $1/(\sigma\sqrt{2\pi})$ is needed to make f a probability density function:

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

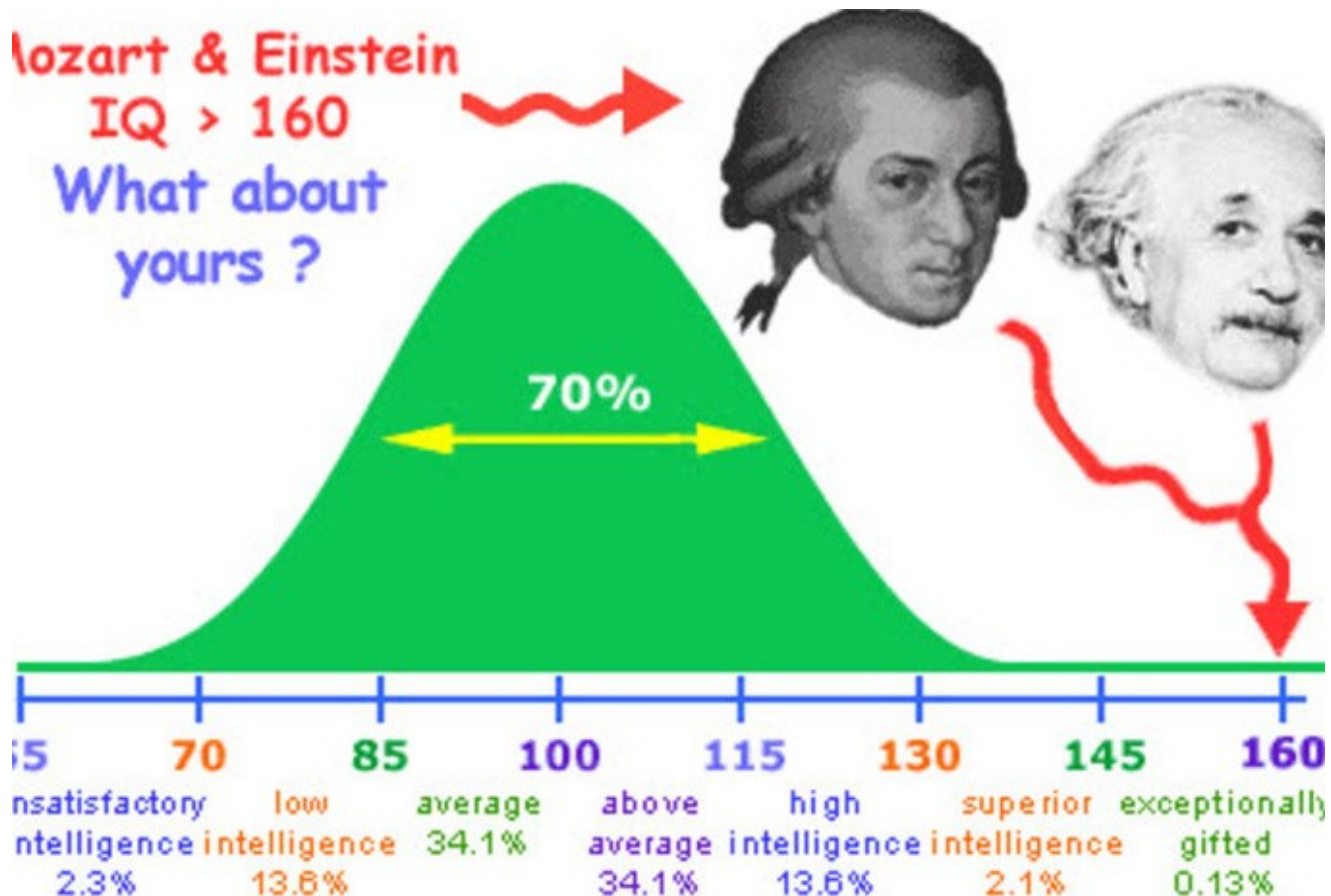
Normal distributions

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

- For small values of σ , the values of X are clustered about the mean μ .
- For larger values of σ , the values of X are more spread out.



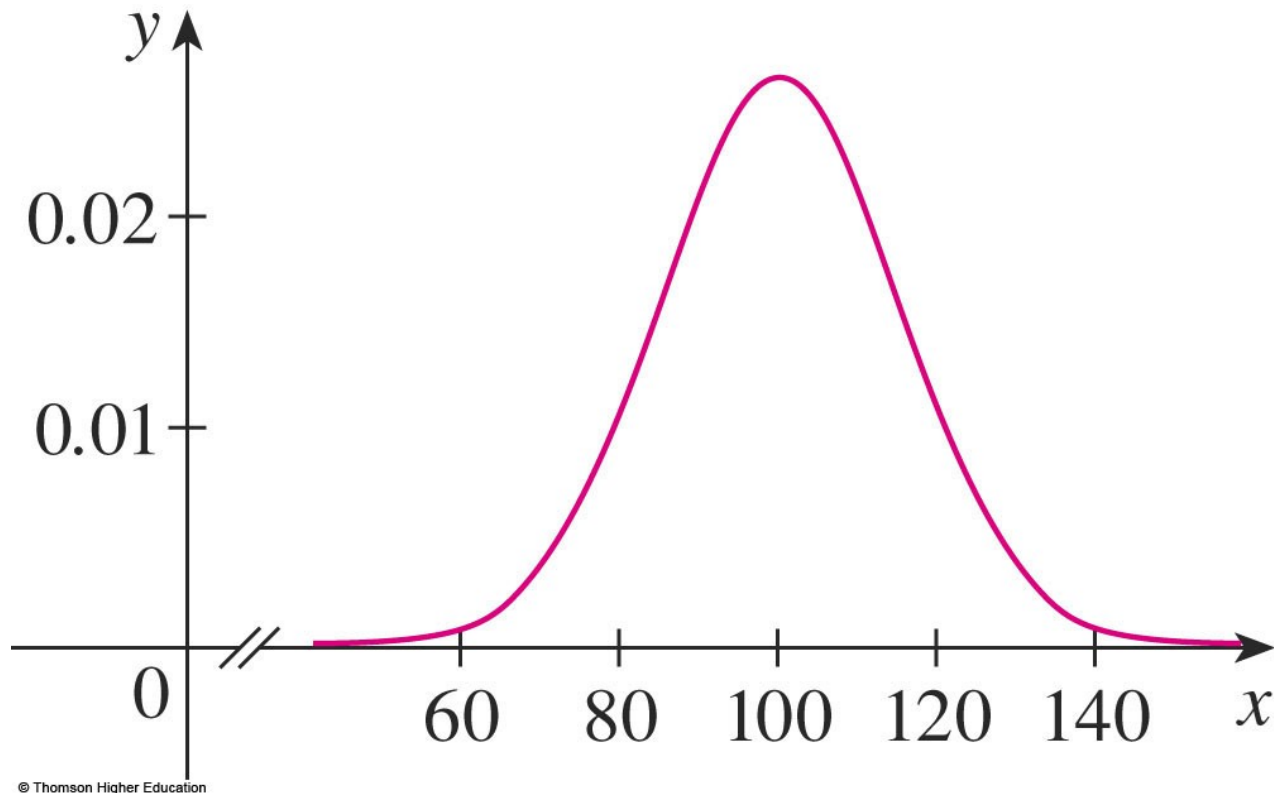
Intelligence Quotient



Intelligence Quotient

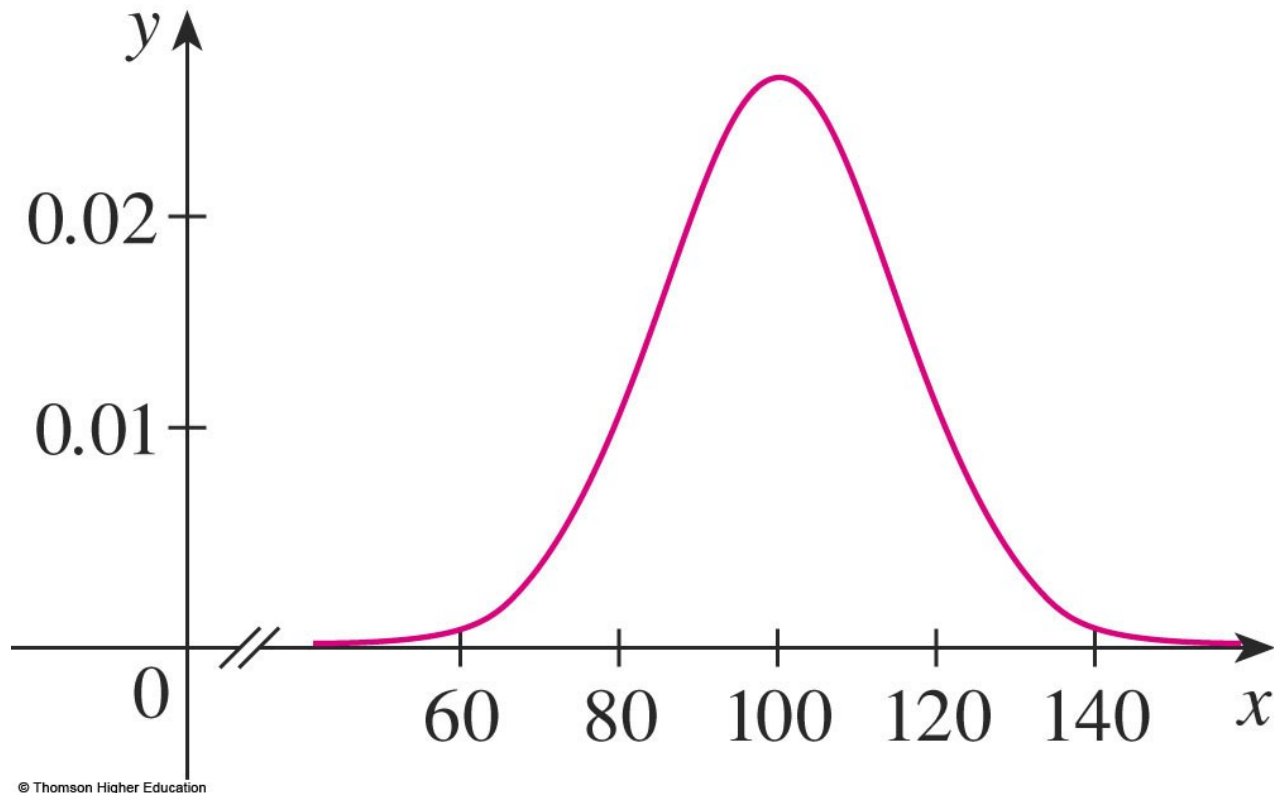
Intelligence Quotient (IQ) scores are distributed normally with mean 100 and standard deviation 15.

- 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 $\sigma = 15$:

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

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:

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

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

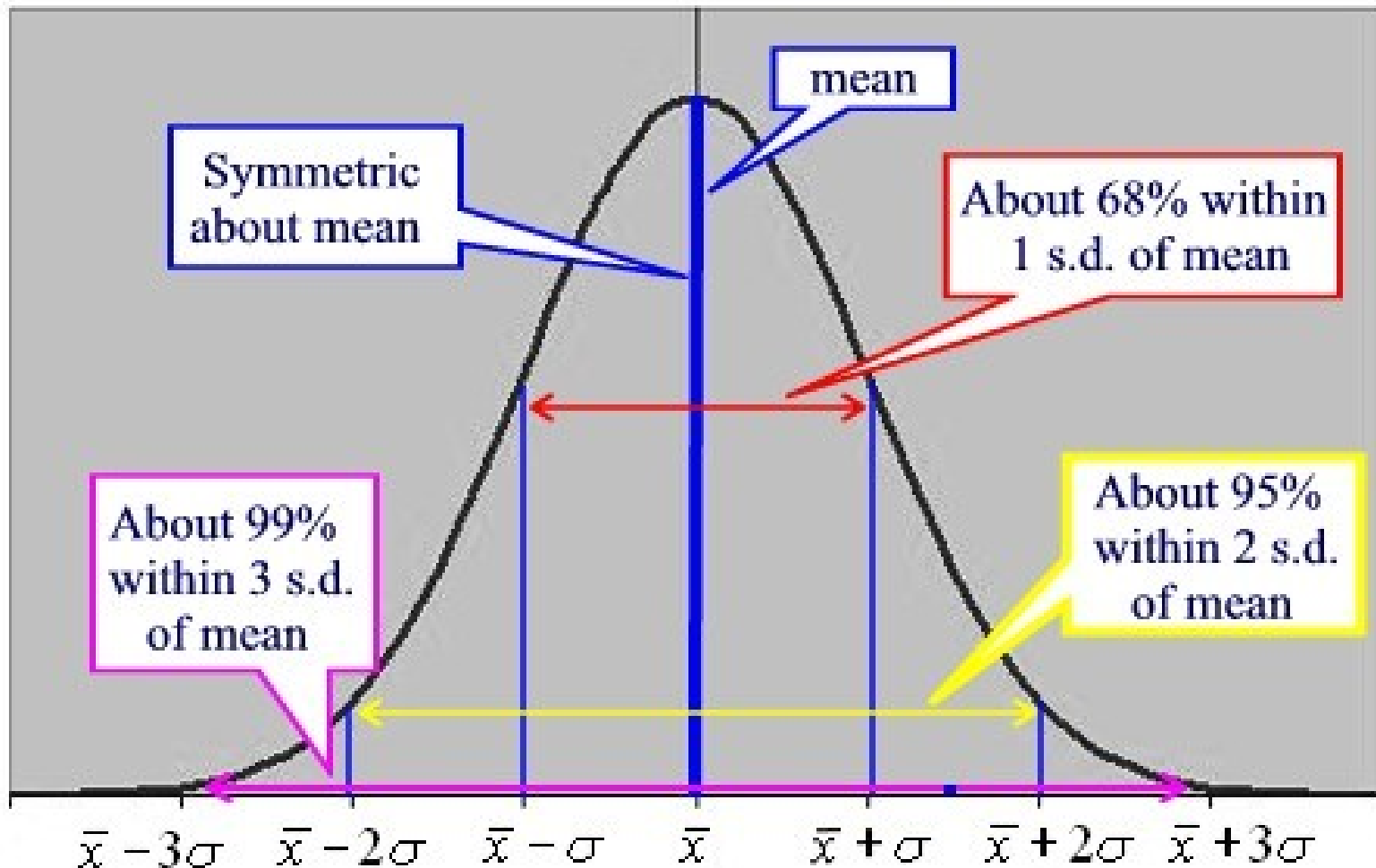
Then,

$$P(X > 140) \approx \int_{40}^{200} \frac{1}{15\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{- (x-100)^2 / 450} dx$$
$$\approx 0.0038$$

- 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-

- Integrals
- Calculation techniques for integrals
- Power and Taylor series

- First order ODEs
- Complex numbers
- Second order ODEs