海外优秀数学类教材系列丛书

THOMSON

影印版

Calculus (Fifth Edition)

微积分（第5版）

（下册）

James Stewart

高等教育出版社
Higher Education Press

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图字 01-2003-6454 号

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Calculus: Early Transcendentals, fifth Edition.

ISBN:0-534-39321-7

981-254-456-9

图书在版编目（CIP）数据

微积分．下册 = Calculus：第5版 /（加）史迪沃特（Stewart，J.）编著．—影印本．—北京：高等教育出版社，2004.7
（海外优秀数学类教材系列丛书）
ISBN 7-04-014004-7

Ⅰ.微… Ⅱ.史… Ⅲ.微积分-高等学校-教材-英文 Ⅳ.O172

中国版本图书馆 CIP 数据核字（2004）第 036110 号

出版发行	高等教育出版社	购书热线	010-64054588
社　　址	北京市西城区德外大街4号	免费咨询	800-810-0598
邮政编码	100011	网　　址	http://www.hep.edu.cn
总　　机	010-82028899		http://www.hep.com.cn
经　　销	新华书店北京发行所		
印　　刷	北京中科印刷有限公司		
开　　本	889×1194　1/16	版　　次	2004年7月第1版
印　　张	38.75	印　　次	2004年7月第1次印刷
字　　数	810 000	定　　价	43.80元

出版者的话

在我国已经加入 WTO、经济全球化的今天，为适应当前我国高校各类创新人才培养的需要，大力推进教育部倡导的双语教学，配合教育部实施的“高等学校教学质量与教学改革工程”和“精品课程”建设的需要，高等教育出版社有计划、大规模地开展了海外优秀数学类系列教材的引进工作。

高等教育出版社和 Pearson Education，John Wiley & Sons，McGraw-Hill，Thomson Learning 等国外出版公司进行了广泛接触，经国外出版公司的推荐并在国内专家的协助下，提交引进版权总数 100 余种。收到样书后，我们聘请了国内高校一线教师、专家、学者参与这些原版教材的评介工作，并参考国内相关专业的课程设置和教学实际情况，从中遴选出了这套优秀教材组织出版。

这批教材普遍具有以下特点：(1) 基本上是近 3 年出版的，在国际上被广泛使用，在同类教材中具有相当的权威性；(2) 高版次，历经多年教学实践检验，内容翔实准确、反映时代要求；(3) 各种教学资源配套整齐，为师生提供了极大的便利；(4) 插图精美、丰富，图文并茂，与正文相辅相成；(5) 语言简练、流畅、可读性强，比较适合非英语国家的学生阅读。

本系列丛书中，有 Finney、Weir 等编的《托马斯微积分》(第 10 版，Pearson)，其特色可用“呈传统特色、富革新精神”概括，本书自 20 世纪 50 年代第 1 版以来，平均每四五年就有一个新版面世，长在 50 余年始终盛行于西方教坛，作者既有相当高的学术水平，又热爱教学，长期工作在教学第一线，其中，年近 90 的 G.B.Thomas 教授长年在 MIT 工作，具有丰富的教学经验；Finney 教授也在 MIT 工作达 10 年；Weir 是美国数学建模竞赛委员会主任。Stewart 编的立体化教材《微积分》(第 5 版，Thomson Learning) 配备了丰富的教学资源，是国际上最畅销的微积分原版教材，2003 年全球销量约 40 余万册，在美国，占据了约 50%~60%的微积分教材市场，其用户包括耶鲁等名牌院校及众多一般院校 600 余所。本系列丛书还包括 Anton 编的经典教材《线性代数及其应用》(第 8 版，Wiley)；Jay L. Devore 编的优秀教材《概率论与数理统计》(第 5 版，Thomson Learning) 等。在努力降低引进教材售价方面，高等教育出版社做了大量和细致的工作，这套引进的教材体现了一定的权威性、系统性、先进性和经济性等特点。

通过影印、翻译、编译这批优秀教材，我们一方面要不断地分析、学习、消化吸收国外优秀教材的长处，吸取国外出版公司的制作经验，提升我们自编教材的立体化配套标准，使我国高校教材建设水平上一个新的台阶；与此同时，我们还将尝试组织海外作者和国内作者合编外文版基础课数学教材，并约请国内专家改编部分国外优秀教材，以适应我国实际教学环境。

这套教材出版后，我们将结合各高校的双语教学计划，开展大规模的宣传、培训工作，及时地将本套丛书推荐给高校使用。在使用过程中，我们衷心希望广大高校教师和同学提出宝贵的意见和建议，如有好的教材值得引进，请与高等教育出版社高等理科分社联系。

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高等教育出版社
2004 年 4 月 20 日

ABOUT THE COVER

The art on the cover was created by Bill Ralph, a mathematician who uses modern mathematics to produce visual representations of "dynamical systems." Examples of dynamical systems in nature include the weather, blood pressure, the motions of the planets, and other phenomena that involve continual change. Such systems, which tend to be unpredictable and even chaotic at times, are modeled mathematically using the concepts of composition and iteration of functions. The process of creating the cover art starts with a photograph of a violin. The color values at each point on the photograph are then converted into numbers and a particular function is evaluated at each of those numbers giving a new number at each point of the photograph. The same function is then evaluated at each of these new numbers. Repeating this process produces a sequence of numbers called *iterates* of the function. The original photograph is then "repainted" using colors determined by certain properties of this sequence of iterates and the mathematical concept of "dimension." The final image is the result of mingling photographic reality with the complex behavior of a dynamical system.

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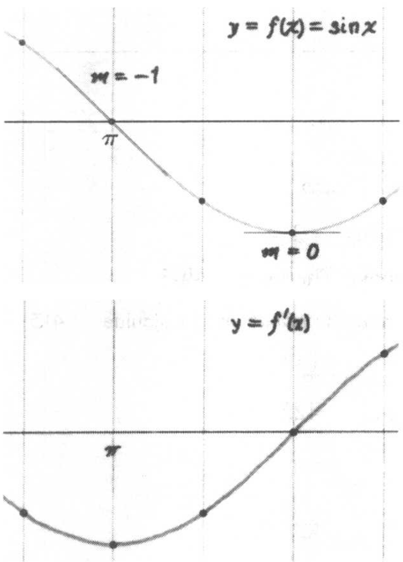
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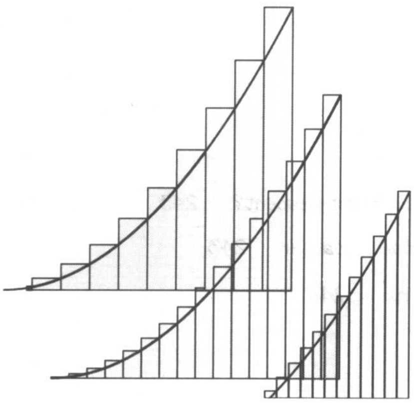

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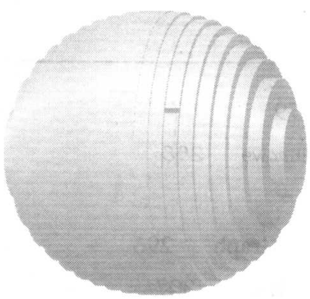

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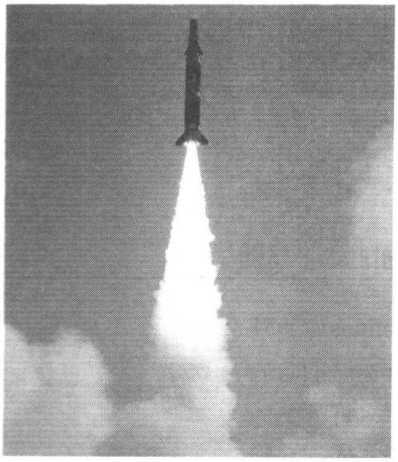

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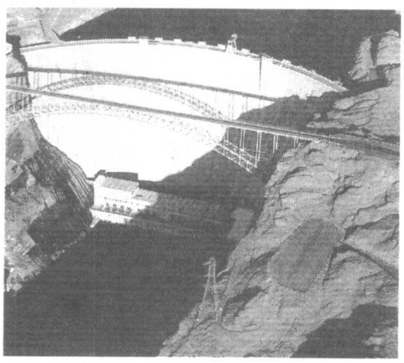

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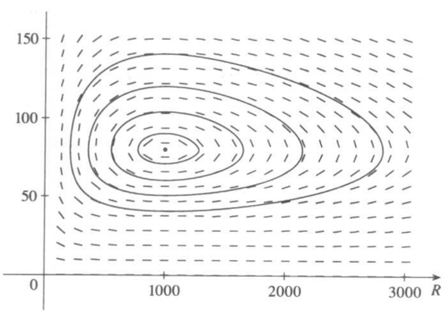

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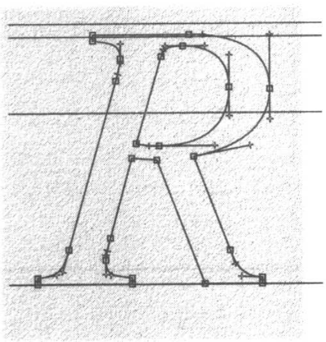

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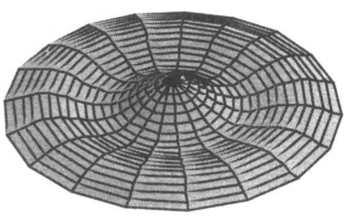

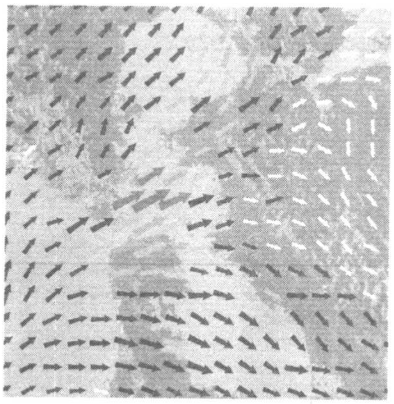

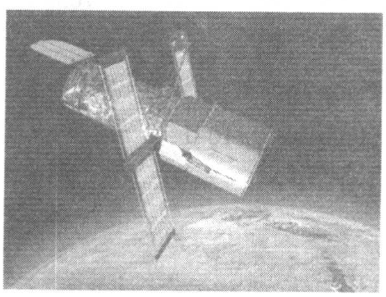

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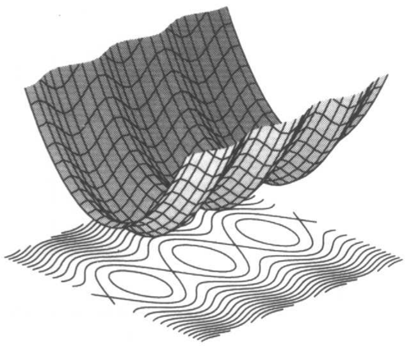

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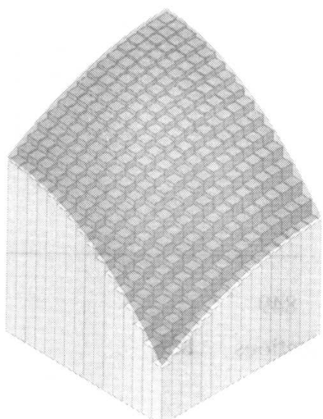

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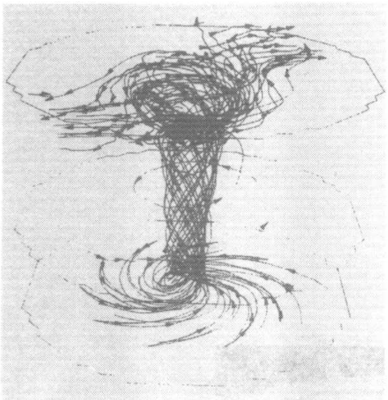

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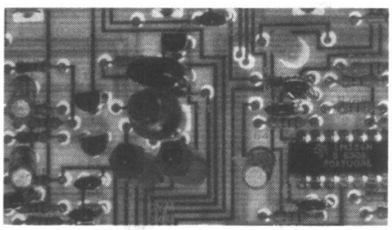

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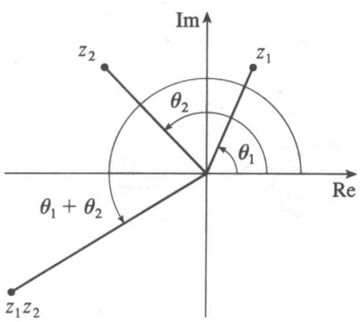

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Infinite sequences and series were introduced briefly in *A Preview of Calculus* in connection with Zeno's paradoxes and the decimal representation of numbers. Their importance in calculus stems from Newton's idea of representing functions as sums of infinite series. For instance, in finding areas he often integrated a function by first expressing it as a series and then integrating each term of the series. We will pursue his idea in Section 11.10 in order to integrate such functions as e^{-x^2}. (Recall that we have previously been unable to do this.) Many of the functions that arise in mathematical physics and chemistry, such as Bessel functions, are defined as sums of series, so it is important to be familiar with the basic concepts of convergence of infinite sequences and series.

Physicists also use series in another way, as we will see in Section 11.12. In studying fields as diverse as optics, special relativity, and electromagnetism, they analyze phenomena by replacing a function with the first few terms in the series that represents it.

11.1 Sequences

A **sequence** can be thought of as a list of numbers written in a definite order:

$$a_1,\ a_2,\ a_3,\ a_4,\ \ldots,\ a_n,\ \ldots$$

The number a_1 is called the *first term*, a_2 is the *second term*, and in general a_n is the *nth term*. We will deal exclusively with infinite sequences and so each term a_n will have a successor a_{n+1}.

Notice that for every positive integer n there is a corresponding number a_n and so a sequence can be defined as a function whose domain is the set of positive integers. But we usually write a_n instead of the function notation $f(n)$ for the value of the function at the number n.

NOTATION ▫ The sequence $\{a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots\}$ is also denoted by

$$\{a_n\} \qquad \text{or} \qquad \{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$$

EXAMPLE 1 Some sequences can be defined by giving a formula for the nth term. In the following examples we give three descriptions of the sequence: one by using the preceding notation, another by using the defining formula, and a third by writing out the terms of the sequence. Notice that n doesn't have to start at 1.

(a) $\left\{\dfrac{n}{n+1}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ $\qquad a_n = \dfrac{n}{n+1}$ $\qquad \left\{\dfrac{1}{2}, \dfrac{2}{3}, \dfrac{3}{4}, \dfrac{4}{5}, \ldots, \dfrac{n}{n+1}, \ldots\right\}$

(b) $\left\{\dfrac{(-1)^n(n+1)}{3^n}\right\}$ $\qquad a_n = \dfrac{(-1)^n(n+1)}{3^n}$ $\qquad \left\{-\dfrac{2}{3}, \dfrac{3}{9}, -\dfrac{4}{27}, \dfrac{5}{81}, \ldots, \dfrac{(-1)^n(n+1)}{3^n}, \ldots\right\}$

(c) $\{\sqrt{n-3}\}_{n=3}^{\infty}$ $\quad a_n = \sqrt{n-3},\ n \geqslant 3$ $\quad \{0, 1, \sqrt{2}, \sqrt{3}, \ldots, \sqrt{n-3}, \ldots\}$

(d) $\left\{\cos\dfrac{n\pi}{6}\right\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$ $\quad a_n = \cos\dfrac{n\pi}{6},\ n \geqslant 0$ $\quad \left\{1, \dfrac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \dfrac{1}{2}, 0, \ldots, \cos\dfrac{n\pi}{6}, \ldots\right\}$

EXAMPLE 2 Find a formula for the general term a_n of the sequence

$$\left\{\frac{3}{5}, -\frac{4}{25}, \frac{5}{125}, -\frac{6}{625}, \frac{7}{3125}, \ldots\right\}$$

assuming that the pattern of the first few terms continues.

SOLUTION We are given that

$$a_1 = \frac{3}{5} \qquad a_2 = -\frac{4}{25} \qquad a_3 = \frac{5}{125} \qquad a_4 = -\frac{6}{625} \qquad a_5 = \frac{7}{3125}$$

Notice that the numerators of these fractions start with 3 and increase by 1 whenever we go to the next term. The second term has numerator 4, the third term has numerator 5; in general, the nth term will have numerator $n + 2$. The denominators are the powers of 5, so a_n has denominator 5^n. The signs of the terms are alternately positive and negative, so we need to multiply by a power of -1. In Example 1(b) the factor $(-1)^n$ meant we started with a negative term. Here we want to start with a positive term and so we use $(-1)^{n-1}$ or $(-1)^{n+1}$. Therefore,

$$a_n = (-1)^{n-1}\frac{n+2}{5^n}$$

EXAMPLE 3 Here are some sequences that don't have a simple defining equation.

(a) The sequence $\{p_n\}$, where p_n is the population of the world as of January 1 in the year n.

(b) If we let a_n be the digit in the nth decimal place of the number e, then $\{a_n\}$ is a well-defined sequence whose first few terms are

$$\{7, 1, 8, 2, 8, 1, 8, 2, 8, 4, 5, \ldots\}$$

(c) The **Fibonacci sequence** $\{f_n\}$ is defined recursively by the conditions

$$f_1 = 1 \qquad f_2 = 1 \qquad f_n = f_{n-1} + f_{n-2} \qquad n \geqslant 3$$

Each term is the sum of the two preceding terms. The first few terms are

$$\{1, 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 13, 21, \ldots\}$$

This sequence arose when the 13th-century Italian mathematician known as Fibonacci solved a problem concerning the breeding of rabbits (see Exercise 65).

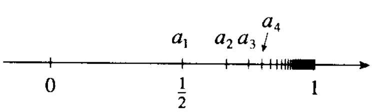

FIGURE 1

A sequence such as the one in Example 1(a), $a_n = n/(n+1)$, can be pictured either by plotting its terms on a number line as in Figure 1 or by plotting its graph as in Figure 2. Note that, since a sequence is a function whose domain is the set of positive integers, its graph consists of isolated points with coordinates

$$(1, a_1) \qquad (2, a_2) \qquad (3, a_3) \qquad \ldots \qquad (n, a_n) \qquad \ldots$$

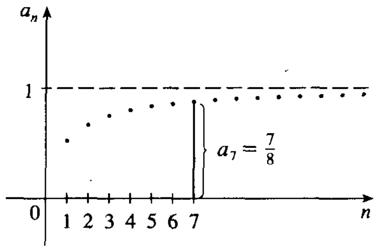

FIGURE 2

From Figure 1 or 2 it appears that the terms of the sequence $a_n = n/(n + 1)$ are approaching 1 as n becomes large. In fact, the difference

$$1 - \frac{n}{n+1} = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

can be made as small as we like by taking n sufficiently large. We indicate this by writing

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1$$

In general, the notation

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$$

means that the terms of the sequence $\{a_n\}$ approach L as n becomes large. Notice that the following definition of the limit of a sequence is very similar to the definition of a limit of a function at infinity given in Section 2.6.

1 Definition A sequence $\{a_n\}$ has the **limit** L and we write

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \qquad \text{or} \qquad a_n \to L \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

if we can make the terms a_n as close to L as we like by taking n sufficiently large. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ exists, we say the sequence **converges** (or is **convergent**). Otherwise, we say the sequence **diverges** (or is **divergent**).

Figure 3 illustrates Definition 1 by showing the graphs of two sequences that have the limit L.

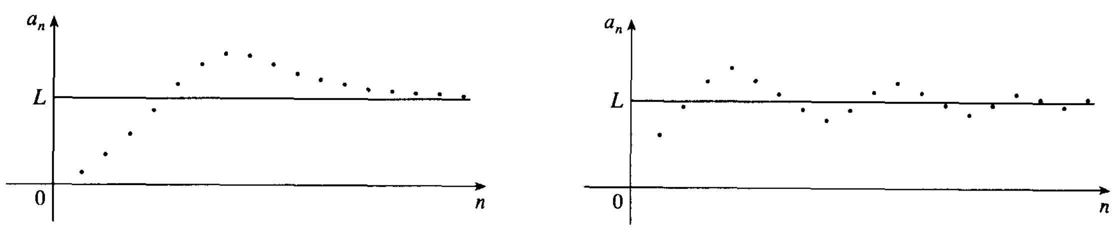

FIGURE 3
Graphs of two sequences with $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$

A more precise version of Definition 1 is as follows.

|||| Compare this definition with Definition 2.6.7.

2 Definition A sequence $\{a_n\}$ has the **limit** L and we write

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L \qquad \text{or} \qquad a_n \to L \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a corresponding integer N such that

$$|a_n - L| < \varepsilon \qquad \text{whenever } n > N$$

Definition 2 is illustrated by Figure 4, in which the terms $a_1, a_2, a_3, \ldots$ are plotted on a number line. No matter how small an interval $(L - \varepsilon, L + \varepsilon)$ is chosen, there exists an N such that all terms of the sequence from a_{N+1} onward must lie in that interval.

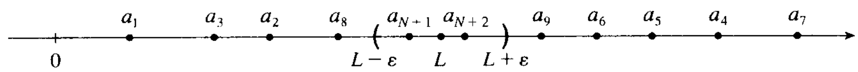

FIGURE 4

Another illustration of Definition 2 is given in Figure 5. The points on the graph of $\{a_n\}$ must lie between the horizontal lines $y = L + \varepsilon$ and $y = L - \varepsilon$ if $n > N$. This picture must be valid no matter how small ε is chosen, but usually a smaller ε requires a larger N.

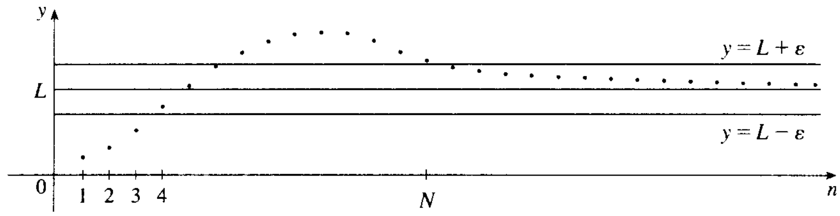

FIGURE 5

Comparison of Definition 2 and Definition 2.6.7 shows that the only difference between $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$ and $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$ is that n is required to be an integer. Thus, we have the following theorem, which is illustrated by Figure 6.

3 Theorem If $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$ and $f(n) = a_n$ when n is an integer, then $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = L$.

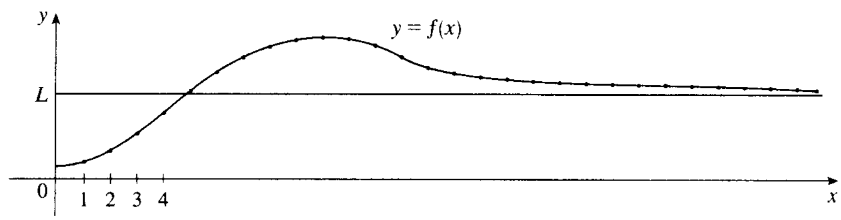

FIGURE 6

In particular, since we know that $\lim_{x\to\infty} (1/x^r) = 0$ when $r > 0$ (Theorem 2.6.5), we have

4 $$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n^r} = 0 \qquad \text{if } r > 0$$

If a_n becomes large as n becomes large, we use the notation $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \infty$. The following precise definition is similar to Definition 2.6.9.

5 Definition $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \infty$ means that for every positive number M there is an integer N such that

$$a_n > M \qquad \text{whenever } n > N$$

If $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \infty$, then the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is divergent but in a special way. We say that $\{a_n\}$ diverges to ∞.