

Ch 01: Improper Integrals of 1st and 2nd Kinds

Course Title: Real Analysis II

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We discussed Riemann-Stieltjes's integrals of the form $\int_a^b f d\alpha$ under the restrictions that both f and α are defined and bounded on a finite interval $[a, b]$. The integral of the form $\int_a^b f d\alpha$ are called definite integrals. To extend the concept, we shall relax some condition on definite integral like f on finite interval or boundedness of f on finite interval.

➤ Definition

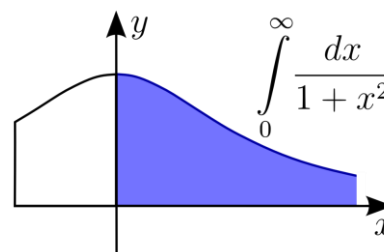
The integral $\int_a^b f d\alpha$ is called an improper integral of first kind if $a = -\infty$ or $b = +\infty$ or both i.e. one or both integration limits is infinite.

➤ Definition

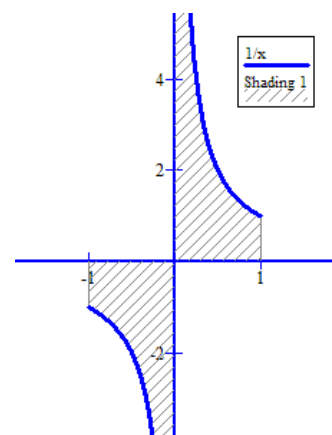
The integral $\int_a^b f d\alpha$ is called an improper integral of second kind if $f(x)$ is unbounded at one or more points of $a \leq x \leq b$. Such points are called singularities of $f(x)$.

➤ Examples

- $\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$, $\int_{-\infty}^1 \frac{1}{x-2} dx$ and $\int_{-\infty}^\infty (x^2+1) dx$ are examples of improper integrals of first kind.



- $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{x} dx$ and $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{2x-1} dx$ are examples of improper integrals of second kind.



➤ Notations

We shall denote the set of all functions f such that $f \in R(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$ by $R(\alpha; a, b)$. When $\alpha(x) = x$, we shall simply write $R(a, b)$ for this set. The notation $\alpha \uparrow$ on $[a, \infty)$ will mean that α is monotonically increasing on $[a, \infty)$.

IMPROPER INTEGRAL OF THE FIRST KIND

➤ **Definition**

Assume that $f \in R(\alpha; a, b)$ for every $b \geq a$. Keep a, α and f fixed and define a function I on $[a, \infty)$ as follows:

$$I(b) = \int_a^b f(x) d\alpha(x) \quad \text{if } b \geq a.$$

The integral $\int_a^\infty f(x) d\alpha(x)$ is said to converge if the $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} I(b)$ exists (finite).

Otherwise, $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ is said to diverge.

If the $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} I(b)$ exists and equals A , the number A is called the value of the integral and we write $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha = A$.

➤ **Remark**

If $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ is convergent (divergent), then $\int_c^\infty f d\alpha$ is convergent (divergent) for $c > a$.

If $\int_c^\infty f d\alpha$ is convergent (divergent), then $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ is convergent (divergent) for $a < c$ if f is bounded in $[a, c]$.

➤ **Example**

Consider the integral $\int_1^\infty x^{-p} dx$, where p is any real number. Discuss its convergence or divergence.

Solution

Let $I(b) = \int_1^b x^{-p} dx$ where $b \geq 1$.

$$\text{Then } I(b) = \int_1^b x^{-p} dx = \left. \frac{x^{1-p}}{1-p} \right|_1^b = \frac{1-b^{1-p}}{p-1} \quad \text{if } p \neq 1.$$

If $b \rightarrow \infty$, then $b^{1-p} \rightarrow 0$ for $p > 1$ and $b^{1-p} \rightarrow \infty$ for $p < 1$.

Therefore we have

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} I(b) = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1-b^{1-p}}{p-1} = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } p < 1, \\ \frac{1}{p-1} & \text{if } p > 1. \end{cases}$$

Now if $p = 1$, we get $\int_1^b x^{-1} dx = \log b \rightarrow \infty$ as $b \rightarrow \infty$.

Hence we concluded: $\int_1^{\infty} x^{-p} dx = \begin{cases} \text{diverges} & \text{if } p \leq 1, \\ \frac{1}{p-1} & \text{if } p > 1. \end{cases}$

➤ **Example**

Is the integral $\int_0^{\infty} \sin 2\pi x dx$ converges or diverges?

Solution:

Consider $I(b) = \int_0^b \sin 2\pi x dx$, where $b \geq 0$.

We have $\int_0^b \sin 2\pi x dx = \frac{-\cos 2\pi x}{2\pi} \Big|_0^b = \frac{1 - \cos 2\pi b}{2\pi}$.

Also $\cos 2\pi b \rightarrow l$ as $b \rightarrow \infty$, where l has values between -1 and 1 , that is, limit is not unique.

Therefore the integral $\int_0^{\infty} \sin 2\pi x dx$ diverges.

➤ **Note**

If $\int_{-\infty}^a f d\alpha$ and $\int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$ are both convergent for some value of a , we say that the integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f d\alpha$ is convergent and its value is defined to be the sum

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f d\alpha = \int_{-\infty}^a f d\alpha + \int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$$

The choice of the point a is clearly immaterial.

If the integral $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f d\alpha$ converges, its value is equal to the limit: $\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{-b}^b f d\alpha$.

➤ **Review:**

- A function f is said to be increasing, if for all $x_1, x_2 \in D_f$ (domain of f) and $x_1 \leq x_2$ implies $f(x_1) \leq f(x_2)$.
- A function f is said to be bounded if there exist some positive number μ such that $|f(t)| \leq \mu$ for all $t \in D_f$.
- If f is define on $[a, +\infty)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ exists then f is bounded on $[a, +\infty)$.
- If $f \in R(\alpha; a, b)$ and $c \in [a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_a^c f d\alpha + \int_c^b f d\alpha$.
- If $f \in R(\alpha; a, b)$ and $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f d\alpha \geq 0$.

- If f is monotonically increasing and bounded on $[a, +\infty)$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \sup_{x \in [a, \infty)} f(x).$$

➤ Theorem

Assume that α is monotonically increasing on $[a, +\infty)$ and suppose that $f \in R(\alpha; a, b)$ for every $b \geq a$. Assume that $f(x) \geq 0$ for each $x \geq a$. Then $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ converges if, and only if, there exists a constant $M > 0$ such that

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha \leq M \text{ for every } b \geq a.$$

Proof

Let $I(b) = \int_a^b f d\alpha$ for $b \geq a$.

First suppose that $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ is convergent, then $\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} I(b)$ exists, that is, $I(b)$ is bounded on $[a, +\infty)$.

So there exists a constant $M > 0$ such that

$$|I(b)| < M \text{ for every } b \geq a.$$

As $f(x) \geq 0$ for each $x \geq a$, therefore $\int_a^b f d\alpha \geq 0$.

This gives $I(b) = \int_a^b f d\alpha \leq M$ for every $b \geq a$.

Conversely, suppose that there exists a constant $M > 0$ such that $\int_a^b f d\alpha \leq M$ for every $b \geq a$. This gives $|I(b)| \leq M$ for every $b \geq a$.

That is, I is bounded on $[a, +\infty)$.

Now for $b_2 \geq b_1 > a$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} I(b_2) &= \int_a^{b_2} f d\alpha = \int_a^{b_1} f d\alpha + \int_{b_1}^{b_2} f d\alpha \\ &\geq \int_a^{b_1} f d\alpha = I(b_1), \quad \because \int_{b_1}^{b_2} f d\alpha \geq 0 \text{ as } f(x) \geq 0 \text{ for all } x \geq a. \end{aligned}$$

This gives I is monotonically increasing on $[a, +\infty)$.

As I is monotonically increasing and bounded on $[a, +\infty)$, therefore $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} I(b)$ exists,

that is, $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ converges.

➤ **Theorem: (Comparison Test)**

Assume that α is monotonically increasing on $[a, +\infty)$ and $f \in R(\alpha; a, b)$ for every $b \geq a$. If $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$ for every $x \geq a$ and $\int_a^\infty g d\alpha$ converges, then $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ converges and we have

$$\int_a^\infty f d\alpha \leq \int_a^\infty g d\alpha.$$

Proof

$$\text{Let } I_1(b) = \int_a^b f d\alpha \quad \text{and} \quad I_2(b) = \int_a^b g d\alpha, \quad b \geq a.$$

Since $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$ for every $x \geq a$,
therefore

$$I_1(b) \leq I_2(b) \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

Since $\int_a^\infty g d\alpha$ converges, there exists a constant $M > 0$ such that

$$\int_a^b g d\alpha \leq M, \quad b \geq a \dots\dots\dots (ii)$$

From (i) and (ii) we have $I_1(b) \leq M$ for every $b \geq a$.

This implies $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} I_1(b)$ exists and is finite, that is, $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ converges.

$$\text{Also } \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} I_1(b) \leq \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} I_2(b) \leq M,$$

$$\text{this gives } \int_a^\infty f d\alpha \leq \int_a^\infty g d\alpha.$$

➤ **Example**

Is the improper integral $\int_1^\infty \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx$ convergent or divergent?

Solution:

Since $\sin^2 x \leq 1$ for all $x \in [1, +\infty)$, therefore $\frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} \leq \frac{1}{x^2}$ for all $x \in [1, +\infty)$.

$$\text{This gives } \int_1^\infty \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx \leq \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx.$$

Now $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ is convergent, therefore $\int_1^\infty \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx$ is convergent.

➤ **Review:**

- For all $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, $|a - b| < c \Leftrightarrow c - b < a < c + b$ or $c - a < b < c + a$.
- If $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = m$, then for all real $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $N > 0$ such that

$$|f(x) - m| < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } |x| > N.$$

- If $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ converges(diverges), then $\int_N^\infty f d\alpha$ converges(diverges) if $N > a$.
- If $\int_N^\infty f d\alpha$ is convergent (divergent), then $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ is convergent (divergent) for $a < N$ if f is bounded in $[a, N]$.

➤ **Theorem (Limit Comparison Test)**

Assume that α is monotonically increasing on $[a, +\infty)$. Suppose that $f \in R(\alpha; a, b)$ and that $g \in R(\alpha; a, b)$ for every $b \geq a$, where $f(x) \geq 0$ and $g(x) \geq 0$ for $x \geq a$. If

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 1,$$

then $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ and $\int_a^\infty g d\alpha$ both converge or both diverge.

Proof

Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 1$, then for all real $\varepsilon > 0$, we can find some $N > 0$, such that

$$\left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - 1 \right| < \varepsilon \quad \forall \ x > N \geq a.$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - \varepsilon < \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} < 1 + \varepsilon \quad \forall \ x > N \geq a.$$

If we choose $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$, then we have

$$\frac{1}{2} < \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} < \frac{3}{2} \quad \forall \ x > N \geq a.$$

This implies $g(x) < 2f(x)$ (i) and $2f(x) < 3g(x)$ (ii)

$$\text{From (i)} \quad \int_N^\infty g d\alpha < 2 \int_N^\infty f d\alpha,$$

so if $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ converges, then $\int_N^\infty f d\alpha$ converges and hence by comparison test we

get $\int_N^\infty g d\alpha$ is convergent, which implies $\int_a^\infty g d\alpha$ is convergent.

Now if $\int_a^\infty g \, d\alpha$ diverges, then $\int_N^\infty g \, d\alpha$ diverges and hence by comparison test we get $\int_N^\infty f \, d\alpha$ is divergent, which implies $\int_a^\infty f \, d\alpha$ is divergent.

From (ii), we have $2\int_N^\infty f \, d\alpha < 3\int_N^\infty g \, d\alpha$,

so if $\int_a^\infty g \, d\alpha$ converges, then $\int_N^\infty g \, d\alpha$ converges and hence by comparison test we get $\int_N^\infty f \, d\alpha$ is convergent, which implies $\int_a^\infty f \, d\alpha$ is convergent.

Now if $\int_a^\infty f \, d\alpha$ diverges, then $\int_N^\infty f \, d\alpha$ diverges and hence by comparison test we get $\int_N^\infty f \, d\alpha$ is divergent, which implies $\int_a^\infty f \, d\alpha$ is divergent.

\Rightarrow The integrals $\int_a^\infty f \, d\alpha$ and $\int_a^\infty g \, d\alpha$ converge or diverge together.

➤ **Note**

The above theorem also holds if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = c$, provided that $c \neq 0$. If $c = 0$, we can only conclude that convergence of $\int_a^\infty g \, d\alpha$ implies convergence of $\int_a^\infty f \, d\alpha$.

➤ **Example**

For every real p , the integral $\int_1^\infty e^{-x} x^p \, dx$ converges.

This can be seen by comparison of this integral with $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} \, dx$.

Let $f(x) = e^{-x} x^p$ and $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$.

Now $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-x} x^p}{1/x^2}$

$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{-x} x^{p+2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{p+2}}{e^x} = 0$. (find this limit yourself)

Since $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ is convergent, therefore the given integral $\int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} x^p dx$ is also convergent.

➤ **Remark**

It is easy to show that if $\int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$ and $\int_a^{\infty} g d\alpha$ are convergent, then

- $\int_a^{\infty} (f \pm g) d\alpha$ is convergent.
- $\int_a^{\infty} cf d\alpha$, where c is some constant, is convergent.

➤ **Note**

An improper integral $\int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$ is said to converge absolutely if $\int_a^{\infty} |f| d\alpha$ converges.

It is said to be convergent conditionally if $\int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$ converges but $\int_a^{\infty} |f| d\alpha$ diverges.

➤ **Theorem**

Assume α is monotonically increasing on $[a, +\infty)$. If $f \in R(\alpha; a, b)$ for every $b \geq a$ and if $\int_a^{\infty} |f| d\alpha$ converges, then $\int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$ also converges.

Or: An absolutely convergent integral is convergent.

Proof

If $x \geq a$, $\pm f(x) \leq |f(x)|$

$$\Rightarrow |f(x)| - f(x) \geq 0 \quad \Rightarrow 0 \leq |f(x)| - f(x) \leq |f(x)|$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} (|f| - f) d\alpha \text{ converges.}$$

Now difference of $\int_a^{\infty} |f| d\alpha$ and $\int_a^{\infty} (|f| - f) d\alpha$ is convergent,

that is, $\int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$ is convergent.

➤ **Remark**

Every absolutely convergent integral is convergent.

➤ Review

- If $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = m$, then for all real $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists real $N > 0$ such that

$$|f(x) - m| < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } |x| > N.$$

- A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to be convergent if there exist a number l such that for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists an integer n_0 (depending on ε) such that

$$|a_n - l| < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } n > n_0.$$

A number l is called limit of the sequence and we write $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = l$.

A sequence $\{a_n\}$ is said to be Cauchy if there

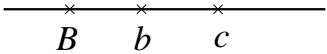
- A sequence of real numbers is Cauchy if and only if it is convergent.

➤ Theorem (Cauchy condition for infinite integrals)

Assume that $f \in R(\alpha; a, b)$ for every $b \geq a$. Then the integral $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ converges if, and only if, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $B > 0$ such that $c > b > B$ implies

$$\left| \int_b^c f d\alpha \right| < \varepsilon$$

Proof

Let $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ be convergent, that is $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_a^\infty f d\alpha$. 

Then $\exists B > 0$ such that

$$\left| \int_a^b f d\alpha - \int_a^\infty f d\alpha \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ for every } b > B. \dots\dots\dots(i)$$

Also for $c > b > B$,

$$\left| \int_a^c f d\alpha - \int_a^\infty f d\alpha \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \dots\dots\dots(ii)$$

As we know $\int_a^c f d\alpha = \int_a^b f d\alpha + \int_b^c f d\alpha$, this gives

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_b^c f d\alpha \right| &= \left| \int_a^c f d\alpha - \int_a^b f d\alpha \right| \\ &= \left| \int_a^c f d\alpha - \int_a^\infty f d\alpha + \int_a^\infty f d\alpha - \int_a^b f d\alpha \right| \\ &\leq \left| \int_a^c f d\alpha - \int_a^\infty f d\alpha \right| + \left| \int_a^\infty f d\alpha - \int_a^b f d\alpha \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \int_b^c f d\alpha \right| < \varepsilon \text{ when } c > b > B.$$

Conversely, assume that the Cauchy condition holds.

Define $a_n = \int_a^{a+n} f d\alpha$ if $n=1,2,\dots$.

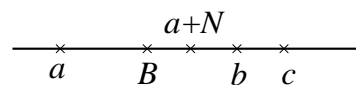
Consider n, m such that $a+n, a+m > b > B$, then

$$\begin{aligned} |a_n - a_m| &= \left| \int_a^{a+n} f d\alpha - \int_a^{a+m} f d\alpha \right| = \left| \int_a^b f d\alpha + \int_b^{a+n} f d\alpha - \int_a^b f d\alpha - \int_b^{a+m} f d\alpha \right| \\ &= \left| \int_b^{a+n} f d\alpha - \int_b^{a+m} f d\alpha \right| \leq \left| \int_b^{a+n} f d\alpha \right| + \left| \int_b^{a+m} f d\alpha \right| < \varepsilon + \varepsilon = 2\varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

This gives, the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence \Rightarrow it is convergent.

Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A$. Then for given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose B so that

$$|a_n - A| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{whenever } a+n \geq B.$$



Also for $\varepsilon > 0$, we can have (by Cauchy condition)

$$\left| \int_b^c f d\alpha \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{if } c > b > B.$$

Choose an integer N such that $a+N > B$.

Then, if $b > a+N$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^b f d\alpha - A \right| &= \left| \int_a^{a+N} f d\alpha - A + \int_{a+N}^b f d\alpha \right| \\ &\leq |a_N - A| + \left| \int_{a+N}^b f d\alpha \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon \\ \Rightarrow \int_a^\infty f d\alpha &= A \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof.

➤ **Remarks**

It follows from the above theorem that convergence of $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ implies

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_b^{b+\varepsilon} f d\alpha = 0 \quad \text{for every fixed } \varepsilon > 0.$$

However, this does not imply that $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.



IMPROPER INTEGRAL OF THE SECOND KIND

➤ **Definition**

Let f be defined on the half open interval $(a, b]$ (having point of infinite discontinuity at a) and assume that $f \in R(\alpha; x, b)$ for every $x \in (a, b]$. Define a function I on $(a, b]$ as follows:

$$I(x) = \int_x^b f d\alpha \quad \text{if } x \in (a, b]$$

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a+} I(x)$ exists then the integral $\int_{a+}^b f d\alpha$ is said to be convergent. Otherwise,

$\int_{a+}^b f d\alpha$ is said to be divergent. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a+} I(x) = A$, the number A is called the value of

the integral and we write $\int_{a+}^b f d\alpha = A$.

Similarly, if f is defined on $[a, b)$ (having point of infinite discontinuity at b) and

$f \in R(\alpha; a, x) \quad \forall x \in [a, b)$ then define $I(x) = \int_a^x f d\alpha$ if $x \in [a, b)$. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} I(x)$

exists (finite) then we say $\int_a^{b-} f d\alpha$ is convergent.

➤ **Note**

The tests developed to check the behaviour of the improper integrals of Ist kind are applicable to improper integrals of IInd kind after making necessary modifications.

➤ **Example**

$f(x) = x^{-p}$ is defined on $(0, b]$ and $f \in R(x, b)$ for every $x \in (0, b]$.

$$\begin{aligned} I(x) &= \int_x^b x^{-p} dx \quad \text{if } x \in (0, b] \\ &= \int_{0+}^b x^{-p} dx = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{0+\varepsilon}^b x^{-p} dx = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{x^{1-p}}{1-p} \right]_{\varepsilon}^b = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{b^{1-p} - \varepsilon^{1-p}}{1-p}, \quad (p \neq 1) \\ &= \begin{cases} \text{finite}, & p < 1 \\ \text{infinite}, & p > 1 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

When $p = 1$, we get $\int_{\varepsilon}^b \frac{1}{x} dx = \log b - \log \varepsilon \rightarrow \infty$ as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.

$$\Rightarrow \int_{0+}^b x^{-1} dx \text{ also diverges.}$$

Hence the integral converges when $p < 1$ and diverges when $p \geq 1$.

➤ **Note**

If the two integrals $\int_{a+}^c f d\alpha$ and $\int_c^{b-} f d\alpha$ both converge, we write

$$\int_{a+}^{b-} f d\alpha = \int_{a+}^c f d\alpha + \int_c^{b-} f d\alpha$$

The definition can be extended to cover the case of any finite number of sums. We can also consider mixed combinations such as

$$\int_{a+}^b f d\alpha + \int_b^{\infty} f d\alpha \text{ which can be written as } \int_{a+}^{\infty} f d\alpha.$$

➤ **Assignment**

Consider $\Gamma(p) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx$, ($p > 0$). Evaluate the convergence of this improper integral.

➤ **A Useful Comparison Integral**

$$\int_a^b \frac{dx}{(x-a)^n}$$

We have, if $n \neq 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{a+\varepsilon}^b \frac{dx}{(x-a)^n} &= \left| \frac{1}{(1-n)(x-a)^{n-1}} \right|_{a+\varepsilon}^b \\ &= \frac{1}{(1-n)} \left(\frac{1}{(b-a)^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{\varepsilon^{n-1}} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Which tends to $\frac{1}{(1-n)(b-a)^{n-1}}$ or $+\infty$ according as $n < 1$ or $n > 1$, as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$.

Again, if $n = 1$,

$$\int_{a+\varepsilon}^b \frac{dx}{x-a} = \log(b-a) - \log \varepsilon \rightarrow +\infty \text{ as } \varepsilon \rightarrow 0.$$

Hence the improper integral $\int_a^b \frac{dx}{(x-a)^n}$ converges iff $n < 1$.

➤ Question

Examine the convergence of

$$(i) \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/3}(1+x^2)} \quad (ii) \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^2(1+x)^2} \quad (iii) \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/2}(1-x)^{1/3}}$$

Solution

$$(i) \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/3}(1+x^2)}$$

Here '0' is the only point of infinite discontinuity of the integrand.

We have

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{1/3}(1+x^2)}$$

$$\text{Take } g(x) = \frac{1}{x^{1/3}}$$

$$\text{Then } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{1+x^2} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 f(x) dx \text{ and } \int_0^1 g(x) dx \text{ have identical behaviours.}$$

$$\because \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/3}} \text{ converges} \quad \therefore \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/3}(1+x^2)} \text{ also converges.}$$

$$(ii) \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^2(1+x)^2}$$

Here '0' is the only point of infinite discontinuity of the given integrand.

We have

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

$$\text{Take } g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\text{Then } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{(1+x)^2} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 f(x) dx \text{ and } \int_0^1 g(x) dx \text{ behave alike.}$$

But $n = 2$ being greater than 1, the integral $\int_0^1 g(x) dx$ does not converge. Hence the given integral also does not converge.

$$(iii) \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x^{1/2}(1-x)^{1/3}}$$

Here '0' and '1' are the two points of infinite discontinuity of the integrand.

We have

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{1/2}(1-x)^{1/3}}$$

We take any number between 0 and 1, say $\frac{1}{2}$, and examine the convergence of the improper integrals $\int_0^{1/2} f(x) dx$ and $\int_{1/2}^1 f(x) dx$.

To examine the convergence of $\int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{x^{1/2}(1-x)^{1/3}} dx$, we take $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^{1/2}}$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{(1-x)^{1/3}} = 1$$

$$\therefore \int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{x^{1/2}} dx \text{ converges} \quad \therefore \int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{x^{1/2}(1-x)^{1/3}} dx \text{ is convergent.}$$

To examine the convergence of $\int_{1/2}^1 \frac{1}{x^{1/2}(1-x)^{1/3}} dx$, we take $g(x) = \frac{1}{(1-x)^{1/3}}$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{x^{1/2}} = 1$$

$$\therefore \int_{1/2}^1 \frac{1}{(1-x)^{1/3}} dx \text{ converges} \quad \therefore \int_{1/2}^1 \frac{1}{x^{1/2}(1-x)^{1/3}} dx \text{ is convergent.}$$

Hence $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$ converges.

➤ Question

Show that $\int_0^1 x^{m-1}(1-x)^{n-1} dx$ exists iff m, n are both positive.

Solution

The integral is proper if $m \geq 1$ and $n \geq 1$.

The number '0' is a point of infinite discontinuity if $m < 1$ and the number '1' is a point of infinite discontinuity if $n < 1$.

Let $m < 1$ and $n < 1$.

We take any number, say $\frac{1}{2}$, between 0 & 1 and examine the convergence of the improper integrals $\int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} dx$ and $\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} dx$ at '0' and '1' respectively.

Convergence at 0:

We write

$$f(x) = x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} = \frac{(1-x)^{n-1}}{x^{1-m}} \quad \text{and take} \quad g(x) = \frac{1}{x^{1-m}}$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 0$$

$$\text{As } \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{x^{1-m}} dx \text{ is convergent at 0 iff } 1-m < 1 \text{ i.e. } m > 0$$

We deduce that the integral $\int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} dx$ is convergent at 0, iff m is +ive.

Convergence at 1:

$$\text{We write } f(x) = x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} = \frac{x^{m-1}}{(1-x)^{1-n}} \quad \text{and take } g(x) = \frac{1}{(1-x)^{1-n}}$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 1$$

$$\text{As } \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 \frac{1}{(1-x)^{1-n}} dx \text{ is convergent, iff } 1-n < 1 \text{ i.e. } n > 0.$$

We deduce that the integral $\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} dx$ converges iff $n > 0$.

Thus $\int_0^1 x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} dx$ exists for positive values of m, n only.

It is a function which depends upon m & n and is defined for all positive values of m & n . It is called Beta function.

➤ Question

Show that the following improper integrals are convergent.

$$(i) \int_1^{\infty} \sin^2 \frac{1}{x} dx \quad (ii) \int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx \quad (iii) \int_0^1 \frac{x \log x}{(1+x)^2} dx \quad (iv) \int_0^1 \log x \cdot \log(1+x) dx$$

Solution

$$(i) \text{ Let } f(x) = \sin^2 \frac{1}{x} \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\text{then } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin^2 \frac{1}{x}}{\frac{1}{x^2}} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\sin y}{y} \right)^2 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx \text{ and } \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx \text{ behave alike.}$$

$$\therefore \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx \text{ is convergent } \therefore \int_1^{\infty} \sin^2 \frac{1}{x} dx \text{ is also convergent.}$$

$$(ii) \int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx$$

$$\text{Take } f(x) = \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} \text{ and } g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$$\sin^2 x \leq 1 \Rightarrow \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} \leq \frac{1}{x^2} \quad \forall x \in (1, \infty)$$

$$\text{and } \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx \text{ converges } \therefore \int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx \text{ converges.}$$

➤ **Note**

$$\int_0^1 \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx \text{ is a proper integral because } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} = 1 \text{ so that '0' is not a point of}$$

infinite discontinuity. Therefore $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx$ is convergent.

$$(iii) \int_0^1 \frac{x \log x}{(1+x)^2} dx$$

$$\therefore \log x < x, \quad x \in (0, 1)$$

$$\therefore x \log x < x^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{x \log x}{(1+x)^2} < \frac{x^2}{(1+x)^2}$$

$$\text{Now } \int_0^1 \frac{x^2}{(1+x)^2} dx \text{ is a proper integral.}$$

$$\therefore \int_0^1 \frac{x \log x}{(1+x)^2} dx \text{ is convergent.}$$

$$(iv) \int_0^1 \log x \cdot \log(1+x) dx$$

$$\because \log x < x \quad \therefore \log(x+1) < x+1$$

$$\Rightarrow \log x \cdot \log(1+x) < x(x+1)$$

$$\because \int_0^1 x(x+1)dx \text{ is a proper integral} \quad \therefore \int_0^1 \log x \cdot \log(1+x)dx \text{ is convergent.}$$

➤ **Note**

$$(i) \int_0^a \frac{1}{x^p} dx \text{ diverges when } p \geq 1 \text{ and converges when } p < 1.$$

$$(ii) \int_a^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx \text{ converges iff } p > 1.$$

➤ **Questions**

Examine the convergence of

$$(i) \int_1^\infty \frac{x}{(1+x)^3} dx \quad (ii) \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{(1+x)\sqrt{x}} dx \quad (iii) \int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{x^{1/3}(1+x)^{1/2}}$$

Solution

$$(i) \text{ Let } f(x) = \frac{x}{(1+x)^3} \text{ and take } g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}.$$

$$\text{As } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^3}{(1+x)^3} = 1$$

Therefore the two integrals $\int_1^\infty \frac{x}{(1+x)^3} dx$ and $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ have identical behaviour for convergence at ∞ .

$$\because \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx \text{ is convergent} \quad \therefore \int_1^\infty \frac{x}{(1+x)^3} dx \text{ is convergent.}$$

$$(ii) \text{ Let } f(x) = \frac{1}{(1+x)\sqrt{x}} \text{ and take } g(x) = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x}} = \frac{1}{x^{3/2}}$$

$$\text{We have } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{1+x} = 1$$

$$\text{and } \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^{3/2}} dx \text{ is convergent. Thus } \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{(1+x)\sqrt{x}} dx \text{ is convergent.}$$

$$(iii) \text{ Let } f(x) = \frac{1}{x^{1/3}(1+x)^{1/2}}$$

$$\text{we take } g(x) = \frac{1}{x^{1/3} \cdot x^{1/2}} = \frac{1}{x^{5/6}}$$

We have $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 1$ and $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{5/6}} dx$ is divergent $\therefore \int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$ is divergent.

➤ **Question**

Show that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$ is convergent.

Solution

We have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx &= \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \left[\int_{-a}^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx + \int_0^a \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \right] \\ &= \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \left[\int_0^a \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx + \int_0^a \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \right] = 2 \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \left[\int_0^a \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \right] \\ &= 2 \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \left| \tan^{-1} x \right|_0^a = 2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \pi \end{aligned}$$

therefore the integral is convergent.

➤ **Question**

Show that $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\tan^{-1} x}{1+x^2} dx$ is convergent.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} \because (1+x^2) \cdot \frac{\tan^{-1} x}{(1+x^2)} &= \tan^{-1} x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2} \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty \\ \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\tan^{-1} x}{1+x^2} dx &\quad \& \quad \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \quad \text{behave alike.} \end{aligned} \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{Here } f(x) = \frac{\tan^{-1} x}{1+x^2} \\ \text{and } g(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\because \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \text{ is convergent } \therefore \text{A given integral is convergent.}$$

➤ **Question**

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

Solution

$$\because |e^{-x} \cos x| < e^{-x} \quad \text{and} \quad \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = 1$$

\therefore the given integral is absolutely convergent. (Comparison test)

➤ **Question**

Show that $\int_0^1 \frac{e^{-x}}{\sqrt{1-x^4}} dx$ is convergent.

Solution

$\because e^{-x} < 1$ and $1+x^2 > 1$ for all $x \in (0,1)$.

$$\therefore \frac{e^{-x}}{\sqrt{1-x^4}} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1-x^2)(1+x^2)}} < \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Also } \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_0^{1-\varepsilon} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx \\ &= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \sin^{-1}(1-\varepsilon) = \frac{\pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 \frac{e^{-x}}{\sqrt{1-x^4}} dx \text{ is convergent. (by comparison test)}$$

References:

1. Tom M. Apostol, Mathematical Analysis, 2nd Edition, 1974.
2. S.C. Malik and Savita Arora, Mathematical Analysis, 2nd Edition, 1992.

