

Improper Integrals

Course Title: Real Analysis II

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We discussed (in MTH321: Real Analysis I) 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 $[a, b]$. To extend the concept, we shall relax these restrictions on f and α .

➤ Definition

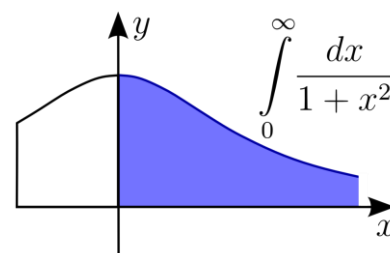
The integral $\int_a^b f d\alpha$ is called an improper integral of first kind if $a = -\infty$ or $b = +\infty$ or both i.e. one or both integration limits is infinite.

➤ Definition

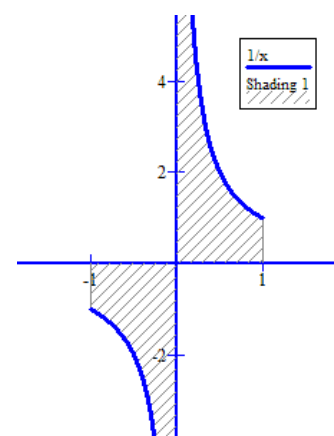
The integral $\int_a^b f d\alpha$ is called an improper integral of second kind if $f(x)$ is unbounded at one or more points of $a \leq x \leq b$. Such points are called singularities of $f(x)$.

➤ 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:

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

The function I so defined is called an infinite (or an improper) integral of first kind and is denoted by the symbol $\int_a^\infty f(x) d\alpha(x)$ or by $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$.

The integral $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ is said to converge if the limit

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} I(b) \dots\dots\dots (ii)$$

exists (finite). Otherwise, $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ is said to diverge.

If the limit in (ii) exists and equals A , the number A is called the value of the integral and we write $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha = A$

➤ **Example**

Consider and integral $\int_1^\infty x^{-p} dx$, where p is any real number.

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

As we know

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

Thus integral $\int_1^\infty x^{-p} dx$ diverges if $p < 1$ and converges if $p > 1$ and has the value $\frac{1}{p-1}$.

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

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**

Consider $\int_0^{\infty} \sin 2\pi x dx$

Since $\int_0^b \sin 2\pi x dx = \frac{1 - \cos 2\pi b}{2\pi} \rightarrow l$ as $b \rightarrow \infty$, where l has values between 0 and $\frac{1}{\pi}$, 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: $\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_{-b}^b f d\alpha$.

➤ **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 $I(b) = \int_a^b f d\alpha$ and suppose that $\int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$ is convergent, then $\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} I(b)$ exists, that is, $I(b)$ is bounded.

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

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

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

As I is monotonically increasing and bounded on $[a, +\infty)$, therefore it is convergent, that is $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ converges.

➤ **Theorem: (Comparison Test)**

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

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

$$\because 0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x) \quad \text{for every } x \geq a$$

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

$$\because \int_a^\infty g d\alpha \text{ converges} \quad \therefore \exists \text{ a constant } M > 0 \text{ such that}$$

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

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

$\Rightarrow \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} I_1(b)$ exists and is finite.

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha \text{ converges.}$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha \leq \int_a^{\infty} g d\alpha.$$

➤ **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 $g(x) \geq 0$ if $x \geq a$. 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

For all $b \geq a$, we can find some $N > 0$ such that

$$\left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - 1 \right| < \varepsilon \quad \forall x \geq N \text{ for every } \varepsilon > 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - \varepsilon < \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} < 1 + \varepsilon$$

Let $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}$. Then we have

$$\frac{1}{2} < \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} < \frac{3}{2}.$$

$$\Rightarrow g(x) < 2f(x) \dots\dots\dots(i) \quad \text{and} \quad 2f(x) < 3g(x) \dots\dots\dots(ii)$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} g d\alpha \text{ converges if } \int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha \text{ converges and } \int_a^{\infty} g d\alpha \text{ diverges if } \int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$$

diverges.

$$\text{From (ii)} \quad 2 \int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha < 3 \int_a^{\infty} g d\alpha,$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha \text{ converges if } \int_a^{\infty} g d\alpha \text{ converges and } \int_a^{\infty} g d\alpha \text{ diverges if } \int_a^{\infty} f d\alpha$$

diverges.

$\Rightarrow$ 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 $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$.

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

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

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.
- $\int_a^\infty c f d\alpha$, where c is some constant, is convergent.

➤ **Theorem**

Assume $\alpha \uparrow$ 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

$$\begin{aligned}
&\text{If } x \geq a, \quad \pm f(x) \leq |f(x)| \\
&\Rightarrow |f(x)| - f(x) \geq 0 \\
&\Rightarrow 0 \leq |f(x)| - f(x) \leq 2|f(x)| \\
&\Rightarrow \int_a^\infty (|f| - f) d\alpha \text{ converges.}
\end{aligned}$$

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.

➤ Note

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

➤ Remark

Every absolutely convergent integral 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

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

Proof

Let $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$ be convergent. Then $\exists B > 0$ such that

$$\begin{array}{c} \times \quad \times \quad \times \\ \hline B \quad b \quad c \end{array}$$

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

Also for $c > b > B$,

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

Consider

$$\left| \int_b^c f d\alpha \right| = \left| \int_a^c f d\alpha - \int_a^b f d\alpha \right|$$

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

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

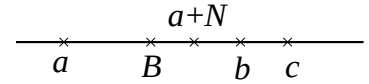
$$\begin{aligned}
|a_n - a_m| &= \left| \int_a^{a+n} f d\alpha - \int_a^{a+m} f d\alpha \right| = \left| \int_a^b f d\alpha + \int_b^{a+n} f d\alpha - \int_a^b f d\alpha - \int_b^{a+m} f d\alpha \right| \\
&= \left| \int_b^{a+n} f d\alpha - \int_b^{a+m} f d\alpha \right| \leq \left| \int_b^{a+n} f d\alpha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

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

Let $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A$

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose B so that $\left| \int_b^c f d\alpha \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ if $c > b > B$.

and also that $|a_n - A| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ whenever $a+n \geq B$.



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

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 $(a, b]$ and assume that $f \in R(\alpha; x, b)$ for every $x \in (a, b]$. Define a function I on $(a, b]$ as follows:

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

The function I so defined is called an improper integral of the second kind and is denoted by the symbol $\int_{a+}^b f(t) d\alpha(t)$ or $\int_{a+}^b f d\alpha$.

The integral $\int_{a+}^b f d\alpha$ is said to converge if the limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a+} I(x) \dots\dots\dots (ii) \text{ exists (finite).}$$

Otherwise, $\int_{a+}^b f d\alpha$ is said to diverge. If the limit in (ii) exists and equals 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 $[a, b)$ and $f \in R(\alpha; a, x) \quad \forall x \in [a, b)$ then

$I(x) = \int_a^x f d\alpha$ if $x \in [a, b)$ is also an improper integral of the second kind and is

denoted as $\int_a^{b-} f d\alpha$ and is convergent if $\lim_{x \rightarrow b-} I(x)$ exists (finite).

➤ **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

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

➤ **Example**

Consider $\int_{0+}^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx$, ($p > 0$)

This integral must be interpreted as a sum as

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{0+}^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx &= \int_{0+}^1 e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx + \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx \\ &= I_1 + I_2 \dots\dots\dots (i) \end{aligned}$$

I_2 , the second integral, converges for every real p as proved earlier.

To test I_1 , put $t = \frac{1}{x} \Rightarrow dx = -\frac{1}{t^2} dt$

$$\Rightarrow I_1 = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\varepsilon}^1 e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}}^1 e^{-\frac{1}{t}} t^{1-p} \left(-\frac{1}{t^2} dt \right) = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_1^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}} e^{-\frac{1}{t}} t^{-p-1} dt$$

Take $f(t) = e^{-\frac{1}{t}} t^{-p-1}$ and $g(t) = t^{-p-1}$

Then $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(t)}{g(t)} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{t}} \cdot t^{-p-1}}{t^{-p-1}} = 1$ and since $\int_1^{\infty} t^{-p-1} dt$ converges when $p > 0$

$\therefore \int_1^{\infty} e^{-\frac{1}{t}} t^{-p-1} dt$ converges when $p > 0$

Thus $\int_{0+}^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx$ converges when $p > 0$.

When $p > 0$, the value of the sum in (i) is denoted by $\Gamma(p)$. The function so defined is called the Gamma function.

➤ **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.

➤ **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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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 $1/2$, between 0 & 1 and examine the convergence of the

improper integrals $\int_0^{1/2} x^{m-1}(1-x)^{n-1} dx$ and $\int_{1/2}^1 x^{m-1}(1-x)^{n-1} dx$ at '0' and '1'

respectively.

Convergence at 0:

We write

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

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

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

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

Convergence at 1:

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

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

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

We deduce that the integral $\int_{1/2}^1 x^{m-1}(1-x)^{n-1} dx$ 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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

➤ **Note**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$\therefore \int_0^1 x(x+1) dx$ is a proper integral $\therefore \int_0^1 \log x \cdot \log(1+x) dx$ is convergent.

➤ **Note**

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

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



UNIFORM CONVERGENCE OF IMPROPER INTEGRALS

➤ **Definition**

Let f be a real valued function of two variables x & y , $x \in [a, +\infty)$, $y \in S$ where $S \subset \mathbb{R}$. Suppose further that, for each y in S , the integral $\int_a^\infty f(x, y) d\alpha(x)$ is convergent. If F denotes the function defined by the equation

$$F(y) = \int_a^\infty f(x, y) d\alpha(x) \quad \text{if } y \in S$$

the integral is said to converge *pointwise* to F on S

➤ **Definiton**

Assume that the integral $\int_a^\infty f(x, y) d\alpha(x)$ converges pointwise to F on S . The integral is said to converge *Uniformly* on S if, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $B > 0$ (depending only on ε) such that $b > B$ implies

$$\left| F(y) - \int_a^b f(x, y) d\alpha(x) \right| < \varepsilon \quad \forall y \in S.$$

(Pointwise convergence means convergence when y is fixed but uniform convergence is for every $y \in S$).

➤ **Theorem (Cauchy condition for uniform convergence.)**

The integral $\int_a^\infty f(x, y) d\alpha(x)$ converges uniformly on S , iff, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $B > 0$ (depending on ε) such that $c > b > B$ implies

$$\left| \int_b^c f(x, y) d\alpha(x) \right| < \varepsilon \quad \forall y \in S.$$

Proof

Proceed as in the proof for Cauchy condition for infinite integral $\int_a^\infty f d\alpha$.

➤ **Theorem (Weierstrass M-test)**

Assume that $\alpha \uparrow$ on $[a, +\infty)$ and suppose that the integral $\int_a^b f(x, y) d\alpha(x)$ exists for every $b \geq a$ and for every y in S . If there is a positive function M defined on $[a, +\infty)$ such that the integral $\int_a^\infty M(x) d\alpha(x)$ converges and $|f(x, y)| \leq M(x)$ for each $x \geq a$ and every y in S , then the integral $\int_a^\infty f(x, y) d\alpha(x)$ converges uniformly on S .

Proof

$\because |f(x, y)| \leq M(x)$ for each $x \geq a$ and every y in S .

$\therefore$ For every $c \geq b$, we have

$$\left| \int_b^c f(x, y) d\alpha(x) \right| \leq \int_b^c |f(x, y) d\alpha(x)| \leq \int_b^c M d\alpha \dots\dots\dots (i)$$

$\therefore I = \int_a^\infty M d\alpha$ is convergent

$\therefore$ given $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists B > 0$ such that $b > B$ implies

$$\left| \int_a^b M d\alpha - I \right| < \varepsilon/2 \dots\dots\dots (ii)$$

Also if $c > b > B$, then

$$\left| \int_a^c M d\alpha - I \right| < \varepsilon/2 \dots\dots\dots (iii)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \left| \int_b^c M d\alpha \right| &= \left| \int_a^c M d\alpha - \int_a^b M d\alpha \right| \\ &= \left| \int_a^c M d\alpha - I + I - \int_a^b M d\alpha \right| \\ &\leq \left| \int_a^c M d\alpha - I \right| + \left| \int_a^b M d\alpha - I \right| < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon \quad (\text{By ii \& iii}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \int_b^c f(x, y) d\alpha(x) \right| < \varepsilon, \quad c > b > B \text{ \& for each } y \in S$$

Cauchy condition for convergence (uniform) being satisfied.

Therefore the integral $\int_a^\infty f(x, y) d\alpha(x)$ converges uniformly on S .

➤ **Example**

Consider $\int_0^\infty e^{-xy} \sin x \, dx$

$$|e^{-xy} \sin x| \leq |e^{-xy}| = e^{-xy} \quad (\because |\sin x| \leq 1)$$

and $e^{-xy} \leq e^{-xc}$ if $c \leq y$

Now take $M(x) = e^{-cx}$

The integral $\int_0^\infty M(x) dx = \int_0^\infty e^{-cx} dx$ is convergent & converging to $\frac{1}{c}$.

$\therefore$ The conditions of M-test are satisfied and $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-xy} \sin x \, dx$ converges uniformly on $[c, +\infty)$ for every $c > 0$.

➤ **Theorem (Dirichlet's test for uniform convergence)**

Assume that α is bounded on $[a, +\infty)$ and suppose the integral $\int_a^b f(x, y) d\alpha(x)$ exists for every $b \geq a$ and for every y in S . For each fixed y in S , assume that $f(x, y) \leq f(x', y)$ if $a \leq x' < x < +\infty$. Furthermore, suppose there exists a positive function g , defined on $[a, +\infty)$, such that $g(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow +\infty$ and such that $x \geq a$ implies

$$|f(x, y)| \leq g(x) \quad \text{for every } y \text{ in } S.$$

Then the integral $\int_a^{\infty} f(x, y) d\alpha(x)$ converges uniformly on S .

Proof

Let $M > 0$ be an upper bound for $|\alpha|$ on $[a, +\infty)$.

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose $B > a$ such that $x \geq B$ implies

$$g(x) < \frac{\varepsilon}{4M}$$

$$(\because g(x) \text{ is +ive and } \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty \therefore |g(x) - 0| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4M} \text{ for } x \geq B)$$

If $c > b$, integration by parts yields

$$\begin{aligned} \int_b^c f \, d\alpha &= \left| f(x, y) \cdot \alpha(x) \right|_b^c - \int_b^c \alpha \, df \\ &= f(c, y)\alpha(c) - f(b, y)\alpha(b) + \int_b^c \alpha \, d(-f) \dots\dots\dots (i) \end{aligned}$$

But, since $-f$ is increasing (for each fixed y), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_b^c \alpha \, d(-f) \right| &\leq M \int_b^c d(-f) \quad (\because \text{upper bound of } |\alpha| \text{ is } M) \\ &= M f(b, y) - M f(c, y) \dots\dots\dots (ii) \end{aligned}$$

Now if $c > b > B$, we have from (i) and (ii)

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_b^c f \, d\alpha \right| &\leq \left| f(c, y)\alpha(c) - f(b, y)\alpha(b) \right| + \left| \int_b^c \alpha \, d(-f) \right| \\ &\leq |\alpha(c)| |f(c, y)| + |f(b, y)| |\alpha(b)| + M |f(b, y) - f(c, y)| \\ &\leq |\alpha(c)| |f(c, y)| + |\alpha(b)| |f(b, y)| + M |f(b, y)| + M |f(c, y)| \\ &\leq M g(c) + M g(b) + M g(b) + M g(c) \\ &= 2M [g(b) + g(c)] \end{aligned}$$

$$< 2M \left[\frac{\varepsilon}{4M} + \frac{\varepsilon}{4M} \right] = \varepsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \left| \int_b^c f d\alpha \right| < \varepsilon \quad \text{for every } y \text{ in } S.$$

Therefore the Cauchy condition is satisfied and $\int_a^\infty f(x, y) d\alpha(x)$ converges uniformly on S .

➤ Example

Consider $\int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-xy}}{x} \sin x dx$

Take $\alpha(x) = \cos x$ and $f(x, y) = \frac{e^{-xy}}{x}$ if $x > 0, y \geq 0$.

If $S = [0, +\infty)$ and $g(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ on $[\varepsilon, +\infty)$ for every $\varepsilon > 0$ then

i) $f(x, y) \leq f(x', y)$ if $x' \leq x$ and $\alpha(x)$ is bounded on $[\varepsilon, +\infty)$.

ii) $g(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow +\infty$

iii) $|f(x, y)| = \left| \frac{e^{-xy}}{x} \right| \leq \frac{1}{x} = g(x) \quad \forall y \in S.$

So that the conditions of Dirichlet's theorem are satisfied.

Hence

$\int_\varepsilon^\infty \frac{e^{-xy}}{x} \sin x dx = + \int_\varepsilon^\infty \frac{e^{-xy}}{x} d(-\cos x)$ converges uniformly on $[\varepsilon, +\infty)$ if $\varepsilon > 0$.

$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \quad \therefore \int_0^\varepsilon e^{-xy} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ converges being a proper integral.

$\Rightarrow \int_0^\infty e^{-xy} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ also converges uniformly on $[0, +\infty)$.

➤ Remarks

Dirichlet's test can be applied to test the convergence of the integral of a product. For this purpose the test can be modified and restated as follows:

Let $\phi(x)$ be bounded and monotonic in $[a, +\infty)$ and let $\phi(x) \rightarrow 0$, when $x \rightarrow \infty$.

Also let $\int_a^X f(x) dx$ be bounded when $X \geq a$.

Then $\int_a^\infty f(x) \phi(x) dx$ is convergent.

➤ **Example**

Consider $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$

$$\because \frac{\sin x}{x} \rightarrow 1 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 0.$$

$\therefore 0$ is not a point of infinite discontinuity.

Now consider the improper integral $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$.

The factor $\frac{1}{x}$ of the integrand is monotonic and $\rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\text{Also } \left| \int_1^X \sin x \, dx \right| = \left| -\cos X + \cos(1) \right| \leq \left| \cos X \right| + \left| \cos(1) \right| < 2$$

So that $\int_1^X \sin x \, dx$ is bounded above for every $X \geq 1$.

$\Rightarrow \int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ is convergent. Now since $\int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ is a proper integral, we see that

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx \text{ is convergent.}$$

➤ **Example**

Consider $\int_0^{\infty} \sin x^2 \, dx$.

$$\text{We write } \sin x^2 = \frac{1}{2x} \cdot 2x \cdot \sin x^2$$

$$\text{Now } \int_1^{\infty} \sin x^2 \, dx = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{2x} \cdot 2x \cdot \sin x^2 \, dx$$

$\frac{1}{2x}$ is monotonic and $\rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\text{Also } \left| \int_1^X 2x \sin x^2 \, dx \right| = \left| -\cos X^2 + \cos(1) \right| < 2$$

So that $\int_1^X 2x \sin x^2 \, dx$ is bounded for $X \geq 1$.

Hence $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{2x} \cdot 2x \cdot \sin x^2 \, dx$ i.e. $\int_1^{\infty} \sin x^2 \, dx$ is convergent.

Since $\int_0^1 \sin x^2 dx$ is only a proper integral, we see that the given integral is convergent.

➤ **Example**

Consider $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-ax} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$, $a > 0$

Here e^{-ax} is monotonic and bounded and $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ is convergent.

Hence $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-ax} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ is convergent.

➤ **Example**

Show that $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ is not absolutely convergent.

Solution

Consider the proper integral $\int_0^{n\pi} \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx$

where n is a positive integer. We have

$$\int_0^{n\pi} \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx = \sum_{r=1}^n \int_{(r-1)\pi}^{r\pi} \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx$$

Put $x = (r-1)\pi + y$ so that y varies in $[0, \pi]$.

We have $|\sin[(r-1)\pi + y]| = |(-1)^{r-1} \sin y| = \sin y$

$$\therefore \int_{(r-1)\pi}^{r\pi} \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx = \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\sin y}{(r-1)\pi + y} dy$$

$\therefore r\pi$ is the max. value of $[(r-1)\pi + y]$ in $[0, \pi]$

$$\therefore \int_0^{\pi} \frac{\sin y}{(r-1)\pi + y} dy \geq \frac{1}{r\pi} \int_0^{\pi} \sin y dy = \frac{2}{r\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{n\pi} \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx \geq \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{2}{r\pi} = \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{1}{r}$$

$\therefore \sum_{r=1}^n \frac{1}{r} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we see that

$$\int_0^{n\pi} \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

We need not
take $|x|$
because $x \geq 0$.

$\therefore$ Division by max. value
will lessen the value

Let, now, X be any real number.

There exists a +tive integer n such that $n\pi \leq X < (n+1)\pi$.

$$\text{We have } \int_0^X \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx \geq \int_0^{n\pi} \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx$$

Let $X \rightarrow \infty$ so that n also $\rightarrow \infty$. Then we see that $\int_0^X \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx \rightarrow \infty$

So that $\int_0^\infty \frac{|\sin x|}{x} dx$ does not converge.

➤ 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

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

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

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 ∞ .

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

➤ **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

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

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

➤ **Question**

Show that $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{(1+x)^\alpha} dx$ converges for $\alpha > 0$.

Solution

$$\int_0^{\infty} \sin x dx \text{ is bounded because } \int_0^x \sin x dx \leq 2 \quad \forall x > 0.$$

Furthermore the function $\frac{1}{(1+x)^\alpha}$, $\alpha > 0$ is monotonic on $[0, +\infty)$.

$\Rightarrow$ the integral $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{(1+x)^\alpha} dx$ 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

$$\because e^{-x} < 1 \quad \text{and} \quad 1+x^2 > 1$$

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

$$\text{Also} \quad \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \int_0^{1-\varepsilon} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \, dx$$

$$= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \sin^{-1}(1-\varepsilon) = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

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

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