

Improper Integral

The definition of a definite integral

$\int_a^b f(x) dx$ represents that (i) the limits a, b are finite (ii) that the integrand is bounded and integrable in $a \leq x \leq b$.

Hence when either (or both) of these assumptions are not satisfied, that is when a limit is infinite or the integrand becomes infinite in $a \leq x \leq b$, we need new definitions of such integrals called improper integrals.

Types of Improper integral

Improper integrals are of two main types

i) The interval increases without limit

ii) The integrands has a finite number (2) of infinite discontinuities.

Type I

Under type I we have three kinds of unbounded ranges over which integrals may be taken.

① Let $f(x)$ be bounded and integrable in $a \leq x \leq B$ for every $B > a$.

Then the symbol $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$, called the improper integral, is said to converge or to exist if $\lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^B f(x) dx$ exists finitely and we write

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

② If $f(x)$ be bounded and integrable in $A \leq x \leq b$ for every $A < b$ and $\lim_{A \rightarrow \infty} \int_A^b f(x) dx$ exist finitely, then we say that the improper

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(3)

integral $\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx$ exists and is convergent and we write:

$$\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{A \rightarrow -\infty} \int_A^b f(x) dx$$

If the limit tends to plus infinity or to minus infinity, then we say that the improper integral $\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx$ ~~exists~~ and is said to diverge. And if there is no limit, the integral is said to be oscillatory.

3) If $f(x)$ be bounded and integrable in $A \leq x \leq a$ for every $A < a$ and in $a \leq x \leq B$ for every $B > a$ and $\lim_{A \rightarrow -\infty} \int_A^a f(x) dx$ and $\lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^B f(x) dx$ for $A < a < B$ exist finitely, then we say that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$ is convergent and we write

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx + \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

$$= \lim_{A \rightarrow -\infty} \int_A^a f(x) dx + \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^B f(x) dx$$



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1. Does the improper integral $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$ exist? (4)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ans: } \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^B \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx &= \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} [\tan^{-1} x]_0^B \\ &= \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} (\tan^{-1} B - \tan^{-1} 0) \\ &= \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \tan^{-1} B = \frac{\pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Hence the integral $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$ does exist and is equal to $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

2. Evaluate $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ if it converges

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^B \frac{1}{x^2} dx &= \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{x} \right]_1^B \\ &= \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \left[-\frac{1}{B} + 1 \right] = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ converges and its value is 1.

3. Evaluate $\int_a^{\infty} \sin x dx$ if it exists.

$$\text{Ans: } \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^B \sin x dx = \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} [-\cos x]_a^B$$

Therefore $\lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} (-\cos B + \cos a) = \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} (-\cos B) + \cos a$ oscillates.
Hence $\int_a^{\infty} \sin x dx$ is oscillatory.

4. Evaluate $\int_0^{\infty} e^x dx$ if it exists

(5)

Sol Now $\lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^B e^x dx = \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} (e^B - 1)$

Since $e^B - 1$ increases beyond all bounds as $B \rightarrow \infty$, this integral does not converge.

(B) Type II

(1) If $f(x)$ has an infinite discontinuity only at the left-hand end-point a , then

by $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ we shall mean $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{a+\epsilon}^b f(x) dx$

$$0 < \epsilon < b-a$$

(2) If $f(x)$ has an infinite discontinuity only at b , by

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \text{ we shall mean } \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_a^{b-\epsilon} f(x) dx$$

$$0 < \epsilon < b-a$$

(3) If $f(x)$ has an infinite discontinuity at the point $x=c$ where $a < c < b$, then

$\int_a^b f(x) dx$ we shall mean

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$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_a^{c-\epsilon} f(x) dx + \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{c+\delta}^b f(x) dx \quad (6)$$

If either of these limits fail to exist we say that the integral does not exist.

If however we make $\epsilon = \delta$, and say that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \text{ means } \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \left[\int_a^{c-\delta} f(x) dx + \int_{c+\delta}^b f(x) dx \right]$$

We have what is called the Cauchy Principal value of $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ and write it as

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \left[\int_a^{c-\epsilon} f(x) dx + \int_{c+\epsilon}^b f(x) dx \right]$$

It may sometimes happen that, the Cauchy Principal value integral exists when, according to the general definition ~~to the~~ the integral does not exist.

1. Prove that $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{x^3} dx$ exists in (7)
Cauchy Principal Value sense but
not in general sense.

Solⁿ The integral is unbounded as $x \rightarrow 0$.

Therefore we evaluate

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{-1}^{-\epsilon} \frac{1}{x^3} dx + \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{\delta}^1 \frac{1}{x^3} dx \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \left[-\frac{1}{2x^2} \right]_{-1}^{-\epsilon} + \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \left[-\frac{1}{2x^2} \right]_{\delta}^1 \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \left[\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2} \right] + \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \left[-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\delta^2} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Since $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2}$ and $\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{2\delta^2}$ do not
exist, the original integral does not
exist. If however, we consider
Cauchy Principal Value, we are to find

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \left[\int_{-1}^{-\epsilon} \frac{1}{x^2} dx + \int_{\epsilon}^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx \right]$$

$$= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2} \right) + \left(-\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\epsilon^2} \right) \right\} = 0 \quad (8)$$

since the terms involving ϵ cancel before the limit is taken.

Tests for Convergence: Type I

(A) Comparison test

Th If $f(x)$ be a non negative integrable function when $x \geq a$ and $\int_a^B f(x) dx$ is bounded above for every $B > a$, then $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$ will converge; otherwise it will diverge to ∞ .

Th If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be integrable functions when $x \geq a$ such that $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$ then

i) $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$ converges if $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$

ii) $\int_a^\infty g(x) dx$ diverges if $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ diverges. (9)

b) Limit test

Th. Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be integrable functions when $x \gg a$ and $g(x)$ be positive.

Then if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lambda \neq 0$

the integrals $F = \int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ and $G = \int_a^\infty g(x) dx$

both converge absolutely or both diverge.

If $\frac{f}{g} \rightarrow 0$ and G converges, then

F converges absolutely. If $\frac{f}{g} \rightarrow \pm \infty$ and G diverges, then F diverges.

Prob Show that the improper integral $\int_a^\infty \frac{dx}{x^\mu}$ ($a > 0$) exists if $\mu > 1$ and

does not exist if $\mu \leq 1$.

Proof $\int_a^b \frac{dx}{x^\mu} = \frac{1}{1-\mu} [b^{1-\mu} - a^{1-\mu}]$, when $\mu \neq 1$ (10)

$\int_a^b \frac{dx}{x} = \log b - \log a$ when $\mu = 1$

let $b \rightarrow \infty$, then $\int_a^\infty \frac{dx}{x^\mu} = \frac{a^{1-\mu}}{\mu-1}$ when $\mu > 1$
 $= \infty$ when $\mu \leq 1$

Ex1 $\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{e^{x^2}+1}$ converges ~~if~~ by comparison

test, since $0 \leq \frac{1}{e^{x^2}+1} \leq \frac{1}{e^x} = e^{-x}$ and

$\int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx$ converges.

Ex2 $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{\log x}$ diverges by comparison test

since for $x > 2$, $\log x < x$, $\frac{1}{\log x} > \frac{1}{x}$

and $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{x}$ diverges.

$\therefore \int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{\log x}$ diverges.

Proof $\int_a^b \frac{dx}{x^\mu} = \frac{1}{1-\mu} [b^{1-\mu} - a^{1-\mu}]$, when $\mu \neq 1$ (10)

$\int_a^b \frac{dx}{x} = \log b - \log a$ when $\mu = 1$

let $b \rightarrow \infty$, then $\int_a^\infty \frac{dx}{x^\mu} = \frac{a^{1-\mu}}{\mu-1}$ when $\mu > 1$
 $= \infty$ when $\mu \leq 1$

Ex1 $\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{e^{x^2}+1}$ converges by comparison

test, since $0 \leq \frac{1}{e^{x^2}+1} \leq \frac{1}{e^{x^2}} = e^{-x^2}$ and

$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx$ converges.

Ex2 $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{\log x}$ diverges by comparison test

since for $x > 2$, $\log x < x$, $\frac{1}{\log x} > \frac{1}{x}$

and $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{x}$ diverges.

$\therefore \int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{\log x}$ diverges.

Ex

$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{1+x^2} dx$ converges absolutely,
since $\int_0^{\infty} \left| \frac{e^{ix}}{1+x^2} \right| dx \leq \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$
and by p-test $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} = 0$

(11)

Th

The p-test for Convergence

Let $f(x)$ be an integrable function when $x \geq a$. Then $F = \int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$ converges absolutely if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^k f(x) = \lambda$, $k > 1$

and F diverges if $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^k f(x) = \lambda (\neq 0)$ or $\pm \infty$, $k \leq 1$

Ex $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{ix}}{1+x^2} dx$ converges absolutely

$$\int_0^{\infty} \left| \frac{e^{ix}}{1+x^2} \right| dx \leq \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

and by p-test $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^2 f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{1+x^2} = 1$, $k=2 > 1$

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

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Hence $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^{-x}}{1+x^2} dx$ converges absolutely. (12)

Ex Examine the convergence of

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{1+x^2}}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^2 f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{x\sqrt{1+x^2}} = 1, \mu=2 > 1$$

$\therefore \int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{1+x^2}}$ is convergent.

Ex $\int_a^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx$ ($a > 0$) converges

$$\text{Since } 0 \leq \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} \leq \frac{1}{x^2}$$

$\int_a^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ is converges by μ -test

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^2 \times \frac{1}{x^2} = 1, \mu=2 > 1$$

\therefore By Comparison test $\int_a^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx$



Ex $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$ converges by p-test

(13)

$$\text{Since } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^2 e^{-x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{e^{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{e^{x^2} \cdot 2x} = 0, \mu=2 > 1$$

Ex $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} x^n dx$ converges

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^2 f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{n+2}}{e^x} \rightarrow 0, \mu=2 > 1$$

Ex $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\log x}{x^2} dx$ converges for as $x \rightarrow \infty$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{1/2} \frac{\log x}{x^2}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log x}{x^{3/2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{\frac{3}{2} x^{1/2}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x \cdot x^{1/2}} = 0 \rightarrow 0$$

Ex $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x^{3/2}}{3x^2 + 5} dx \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{1/2} f(x)$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \text{ for } \mu = \frac{1}{2} < 1$$

diverges.



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Test for Convergence Type II

①

Comparison test

If $f(x)$ be a non-negative integrable function in $a \leq x \leq b$ and a be the only point of infinite discontinuity of $f(x)$ in a finite interval $[a, b]$ and $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is bounded ~~over~~ above for $a < \epsilon < b-a$, the integral $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ will converge otherwise it will diverge to ∞ .

Limit Test

Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be integrable functions when $a < x \leq b$ and $g(x)$ be positive, then if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lambda \neq 0$

the integrals $F = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ and $G = \int_a^b g(x) dx$ both converge absolutely or both diverge.

②
If $\frac{f}{g} \rightarrow 0$ and g Converges, then F converges absolutely. If $\frac{f}{g} \rightarrow \pm\infty$ and g diverges, then F diverges.

Comparison integral

Show that the integral $\int_a^b \frac{dx}{(x-a)^\mu}$ exists if $\mu < 1$ and does not exist if $\mu \geq 1$.

Proof

When $\mu \neq 1$, we have

$$\int_{a+\epsilon}^b \frac{dx}{(x-a)^\mu} = \frac{1}{1-\mu} \left\{ (b-a)^{1-\mu} - \epsilon^{1-\mu} \right\}$$

and when $\mu = 1$

$$\int_{a+\epsilon}^b \frac{dx}{x-a} = \log(b-a) - \log \epsilon$$

On letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+$, we obtain

$$\int_a^b \frac{dx}{(x-a)^\mu} = \frac{(b-a)^{1-\mu}}{1-\mu} \quad \text{when } 0 < \mu < 1$$

$$= \infty, \quad \text{when } \mu \geq 1$$

when $\mu \leq 0$, the integral is proper.

(3)

The p-test for convergence

Let $f(x)$ be an integrable function in an arbitrary interval $(a+\varepsilon, b)$ where $0 < \varepsilon < b-a$.

Then $F = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ converges absolutely if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} (x-a)^\mu f(x) = \lambda$, for $0 < \mu < 1$

and F diverges if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} (x-a)^\mu f(x) = \lambda (\neq 0)$

or $\pm \infty$ for $\mu \geq 1$

Ex $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{(1+x)\sqrt{x}}$ converges

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (x-0)^\mu f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (x-0)^{1/2} \frac{1}{(1+x)\sqrt{x}}$$

$$= 1 \quad \mu = \frac{1}{2} < 1$$

Ex $\int_0^1 \frac{\log x}{\sqrt{x}} dx$ converges since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (x-0)^{3/4} \frac{\log x}{\sqrt{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\log x}{x^{1/2-3/4}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\log x}{x^{-1/4}}$$

$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\log x}$ diverges

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} (x-1) \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\log x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{\frac{3}{2}x^{1/2} - \frac{1}{2}x^{-1/2}}{\frac{1}{x}} = 1 \quad \boxed{\text{L. Hospital Rule}}$$

Ex $\int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x(1-x)}}$ converges

(4)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} (1-x)^{\frac{1}{2}} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} (1-x)^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x(1-x)}} = 1 \quad \mu < 1$$

Convergence of Gamma and Beta Function

i) Gamma function

Let us discuss the convergence of

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{n-1} dx$$

We write $f(x) = e^{-x} x^{n-1}$

$$I_1 = \int_0^1 e^{-x} x^{n-1} dx, \quad I_2 = \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{n-1} dx$$

The part I_1 is proper when $n \geq 1$, improper but absolutely convergent when $0 < n < 1$;

for as $x \rightarrow 0^+$, $[e^{-x} x^{n-1} \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0^+]$ by

μ -test.

$$x^{1-n} f(x) = x^{1-n} e^{-x} x^{n-1} = e^{-x} \rightarrow 1$$

For $0 < \mu = 1-n < 1$, i.e. for $0 < n < 1$.

(5)

The part I_2 also converges absolutely for all values of n by μ -test, for as $x \rightarrow \alpha$,

$$x^2 f(x) = x^2 e^{-x} x^{n-1} = e^{-x} x^{n+1} \rightarrow 0$$

Thus converges for $n > 0$. This is called gamma function denoted by $\Gamma(n)$.

$$\text{Hence } \Gamma(n) = \int_0^{\alpha} e^{-x} x^{n-1} dx, \quad n > 0$$

(2) Beta function

$$\int_0^1 x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} dx$$

This is a proper integral when $m, n > 1$ but is improper at the lower limit when $m < 1$, at the upper limit when $n < 1$. We therefore, split it into two parts $I_1 + I_2$

where

$$I_1 = \int_0^{1/2} x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} dx$$

$$I_2 = \int_{1/2}^1 x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} dx$$

(6)

Now I_1 converges for $0 < m < 1$, diverges when $m \leq 0$, for as $x \rightarrow 0^+$, by μ -test

$$x^{1-m} f(x) = x^{1-m} x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n+1} = (1-x)^{n+1} \rightarrow 1$$

for $\mu = 1-m$ and for convergence $0 < \mu = 1-m < 1$ that is $0 < m < 1$, Also

$$\begin{aligned} x f(x) &= x \cdot x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n+1} \\ &= x^m (1-x)^{n+1} \rightarrow \begin{cases} 1 & \text{when } m=0 \\ \infty & \text{when } m < 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

where $f(x) = x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n+1}$

Next if we make the change of variable $x = 1-y$, the second ~~integrable~~ integral reduces to the first with m and n interchanged. Hence we may draw the same conclusion as before with n in place of m . Thus converges for $m, n > 0$. This is called Beta function denoted by $B(m, n)$

$$B(m, n) = \int_0^1 x^{m-1} (1-x)^{n-1} dx, \text{ for } m, n > 0$$

Ex $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{e^x}{\sqrt{1+x^3}} dx$ converges absolutely by μ -test. (7)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{5/4} \frac{e^x}{\sqrt{1+x^3}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x x^{5/4}}{x^{3/2} \sqrt{1+\frac{1}{x^3}}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{5/4 - 3/2} \frac{e^x}{\sqrt{1+\frac{1}{x^3}}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{\frac{5-6}{4}} \frac{e^x}{\sqrt{1+\frac{1}{x^3}}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^{1/4} \sqrt{1+\frac{1}{x^3}}} = 0 \quad \mu = \frac{5}{4} > 1$$

Since absolute converges \Rightarrow its ordinary convergence.

Ex $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x^3} dx$ diverges by μ -test.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^2 \frac{\sin x}{x^3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \quad \text{for } \mu=2 > 1$$

Ex $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\log x}{x+a} dx$ ($a > 0$) diverges by μ -test

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \frac{\log x}{x+a} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log x}{x} \cdot \frac{x}{x+a} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\log x}{x} \cdot \frac{x^2}{x^2+a} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{1} = \infty \quad \text{for } \mu=1 \end{aligned}$$

Ex

$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} dx$ converges by μ -test

(8)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \int_0^1 \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} dx + \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

and at the upper limit by μ -test

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{3/2} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - \cos x}{\sqrt{x}} = 0, \mu = \frac{3}{2} > 1$$

By μ -test it is convergent.

Ex

Discuss the convergence of

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \log \sin x dx$$

Solⁿ

The only singularity is at $x=0$.

$$\text{Also } \log \sin x = \log \left(x \frac{\sin x}{x} \right)$$

$$= \log x + \log \frac{\sin x}{x}$$

By μ -test

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^{\mu} \log \sin x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left(x^{\mu} \log x + x^{\mu} \log \frac{\sin x}{x} \right)$$

$$= 0$$

(since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^\mu \log x = 0$, if $\mu > 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$)⁹

for $\mu > 0$. See also that μ cannot be taken to be ≥ 1 . Thus $0 < \mu < 1$. Hence the integral converges.

Ex $\int_1^\infty \frac{\sin x}{x^p} dx$ converges absolutely for $p > 1$,

$$\int_1^\infty \left| \frac{\sin x}{x^p} \right| dx \leq \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx \quad \text{for } x \geq 1$$

and $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{x^p}$ converges whenever $p > 1$.

Relation 1 For any $a > 0$,

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-at} t^{x-1} dt = \frac{\Gamma(x)}{a^x}, \quad x > 0$$

Proof

Put $at = u$,

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-at} t^{x-1} dt = \int_{aE}^{aB} e^{-u} \frac{u^{x-1}}{a^{x-1}} \frac{du}{a}$$

As $\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+$, $B \rightarrow \infty$

(10)

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-at} t^{x-1} dt = \frac{1}{a^x} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} u^{x-1} du = \frac{\Gamma(x)}{a^x}$$

Relation 2 $\Gamma(x+1) = x \Gamma(x)$, $x > 0$

$$\int_{\epsilon}^B e^{-t} t^{x-1} dt = e^{-t} \frac{t^x}{x} \Big|_{\epsilon}^B + \frac{1}{x} \int_{\epsilon}^B e^{-t} t^x dt$$

As $B \rightarrow \infty$ and $\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+$, the integration part vanishes at both limits and therefore

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} t^{x-1} dt = \frac{1}{x} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} t^x dt$$

$$\Gamma(x) = \frac{1}{x} \Gamma(x+1) \quad \text{or} \quad \Gamma(x+1) = x \Gamma(x), \quad x > 0$$

Relation 3 $\Gamma(1) = 1$

$$\Gamma(1) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} dt$$

$$= \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^B e^{-t} dt$$

$$= \lim_{B \rightarrow \infty} (1 - e^{-B}) = 1$$

Relation 4

$$\Gamma(n+1) = n! \quad n \text{ being a positive integer.} \quad (11)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\Gamma(n+1) &= n \Gamma(n) \\ &= n(n-1) \Gamma(n-1) \\ &= \dots \\ &= n(n-1)(n-2) \dots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \Gamma(1) \\ &= n!\end{aligned}$$

The Beta function

$$B(x, y) = \int_0^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt, \quad x, y > 0$$

$$B(x, y) = \int_0^{1/2} t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt + \int_{1/2}^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt$$

Relation 1

$$B(x, y) = B(y, x), \quad \text{for } x, y > 0$$

Proof

Put $t = 1-u$

$$\int_{\epsilon}^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt = \int_{\delta}^{1-\epsilon} u^{y-1} (1-u)^{x-1} du$$

and on letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+$, $\delta \rightarrow 0^+$, we have

$$B(x, y) = B(y, x)$$

Relation 2

$$B(x, y) = 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2x-1} \theta \cos^{2y-1} \theta d\theta, \quad x, y > 0 \quad (12)$$

ProofPut $t = \sin^2 \theta$, then

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\delta} t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt \\ &= \int_{\epsilon}^{1-\delta} t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt \\ &= \int_{\sin^{-1}\sqrt{\epsilon}}^{\sin^{-1}\sqrt{1-\delta}} \sin^{2x-2} \theta \cos^{2y-2} \theta \cdot 2 \sin \theta \cos \theta d\theta \\ & \quad \sin^{-1}\sqrt{\epsilon} \end{aligned}$$

and on letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0^+$, $\delta \rightarrow 0^+$, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 t^{x-1} (1-t)^{y-1} dt &= B(x, y) \\ &= 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2x-1} \theta \cos^{2y-1} \theta d\theta, \quad x, y > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Relation 3

$$B\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) = \pi$$

Put $x = \frac{1}{2} = y$

$$B\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) = 2 \int_0^{\pi/2} d\theta = \pi$$

Relation between Beta and Gamma Function

$$B(x, y) = \frac{\Gamma(x) \Gamma(y)}{\Gamma(x+y)}, \quad x, y > 0$$

Relation 4

$$\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$$

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$$B\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma(1)} = \pi$$

$$\text{But } \Gamma(1) = 1$$

$$\therefore \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$$

Th $\Gamma(m)\Gamma(1-m) = \pi \csc m\pi, \quad 0 < m < 1$

Ex $\Gamma(4) = 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot \Gamma(1) = 6$

Ex $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^4 x \cos^4 x dx$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{5}{2}\right)\Gamma\left(\frac{5}{2}\right)}{\Gamma(5)} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{4 \cdot 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot \Gamma(1)}$$

$$= \frac{3\pi}{256}$$

Ex Show that $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^4}} dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{\tan x} dx = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{\tan x} dx &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{1/2} x \cos^{-1/2} x dx \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{3}{4}\right)\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{4}\right)}{\Gamma(1)} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Gamma(\frac{1}{4}) \Gamma(1-\frac{1}{4})}{1} = \frac{1}{2} \pi \operatorname{csc} \frac{\pi}{4}$$

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$$= \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$$