

1 Integration

1.12 Improper integrals

- Up until this point we have looked at integrals of nice functions on nice regions — ie continuous functions $f(x)$ on a bounded region $[a, b]$.
- We now extend this to functions that have a discontinuity and / or on an infinite region $[a, \infty)$ or $(-\infty, b]$ or $(-\infty, \infty)$.
- Such integrals are called improper integrals.
- We handle them using limits.
- We do 2 types — (1) infinite intervals and (2) discontinuous integrands.

Definition (Improper integrals — clp 1.12.1). An integral having either a terminal at infinity or an unbounded integrand is called an improper integral.

Motivating example 1

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

We would naively like to just put $[-e^{-x}]_0^{\infty}$ — but we can do it more rigorously using limits.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^b e^{-x} dx &= [-e^{-x}]_0^b \\ &= 1 - e^{-b} \end{aligned}$$

As $b \rightarrow \infty$, $e^{-b} \rightarrow 0$ and the integral becomes 1. So we can define

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

On the other hand if we take

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

The limit is divergent — the integral does not exist. Consider it as the area under the curve — it is infinite.

Another good example is

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx$$

The integrand blows up at $x = 0$ so we actually compute it (by sneaking up on the discontinuity)

$$\int_a^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx = [2\sqrt{x}]_a^1 = 2 - 2\sqrt{a}$$

Now taking the limit as $a \rightarrow 0$ we get

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} (2 - 2\sqrt{a}) = 2$$

So let us make the two examples of improper integrals above a little more formal:

Definition (Improper integral with infinite domain CLP 1.12.4).

- If $\int_a^t f(x) dx$ exists for every $t \geq a$, then we define

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

if the limit exists and is finite.

- Similarly for $\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx$.
- If these limits exist the integrals are called convergent, else divergent.
- If $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ and $\int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx$ are convergent then we define

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

for any real number a .

For what values of q is this $\int_1^\infty x^q dx$ convergent? If $q \neq -1$ then

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

This limit exists if $q+1 < 0$ or $q < -1$. Now, if $q = -1$ then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^\infty 1/x dx &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b 1/x dx \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [\log |x|]_1^b \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (\log b - 0) \end{aligned}$$

which does not exist. Hence the integral is convergent for all real $q < -1$ and divergent for $q \geq -1$.

Another example (over the whole \mathbb{R})

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

Let us look at these individually

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [\arctan(x)]_0^b \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \arctan(b) - \arctan(0) \\ &= \pi/2 \end{aligned}$$

And very similarly

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

Hence $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \pi$.

Now let's look at the other type of improper integral — where the integrand is unbounded. We saw a good example of this a couple of weeks ago:

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \left[-\frac{1}{x} \right]_{-1}^1 = -2 \quad \text{WRONG — integrand is positive!}$$

We cannot do this because the integrand is divergent at $x = 0$.

Definition (Improper integral with unbounded integrand — clp 1.12.6).

- If f is continuous on $[a, b)$ and is discontinuous at b then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^t f(x) dx$$

if the limit exists and is finite.

- If f is continuous on $(a, b]$ and is discontinuous at a then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow a^+} \int_t^b f(x) dx$$

if the limit exists and is finite.

- If these limits exist then the integral is convergent, else divergent.
- If f has a discontinuity at $c \in (a, b)$ and both $\int_a^c f(x) dx$ and $\int_c^b f(x) dx$ are convergent then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

Evaluate $\int_2^6 \frac{1}{\sqrt{z-2}} dz$. Has singularity at $z = 2$, so we use limits.

$$\begin{aligned} \int_2^6 \frac{1}{\sqrt{z-2}} dz &= \lim_{a \rightarrow 2^-} \int_a^6 \frac{1}{\sqrt{z-2}} dz \\ &= \lim_{a \rightarrow 2^-} [2\sqrt{z-2}]_a^6 \\ &= \lim_{a \rightarrow 2^-} (2\sqrt{4} - 2\sqrt{a-2}) \\ &= 4 - 0 = 4 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx &= \lim_{b \rightarrow 0^-} \int_{-1}^b \frac{1}{x^2} dx + \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \int_a^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx \\ &= \underbrace{\lim_{b \rightarrow 0^-} [-1 - 1/b]}_{\infty} + \underbrace{\lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} [-1 + 1/a]}_{\infty} \end{aligned}$$

Answer is divergent.

Some more examples (if time)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_2^\infty \frac{1}{x(\log x)^p} dx \\ \int \frac{1}{x} (\log x)^{-p} dx \text{ sub } u = \log x, u' = 1/x \\ = \int u^{-p} du \\ = \frac{1}{1-p} u^{1-p} = \frac{1}{1-p} (\log x)^{1-p} \text{ so } \int_2^b \frac{1}{x(\log x)^p} dx = \frac{1}{1-p} ((\log b)^{1-p} - (\log 2)^{1-p}) \end{aligned}$$

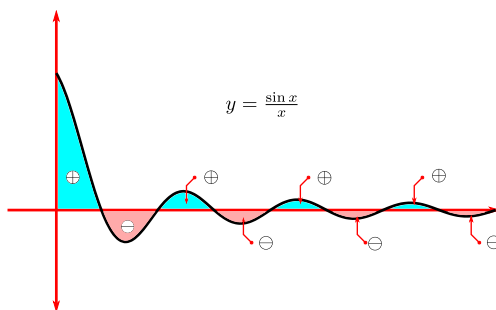
So when we take the limit $b \rightarrow \infty$ we get a convergent limit provided $p > 1$, and in that case we get

$$\int_2^\infty \frac{1}{x(\log x)^p} dx = \frac{1}{p-1} (\log 2)^{1-p}$$

One can do similarly for the integral

$$\int_0^{1/2} \frac{1}{x(\log x)^p} dx$$

This is a famous example. A very important function in signal-processing and elsewhere in mathematics and physics is the “sinc” function $\sin(x)/x$.



So if we want to integrate this from 0 to infinity then we are going to get a sequence of plus and minus areas. One can ask if this integral will converge. First let's check the limits of the function: As $x \rightarrow 0$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{sinc} x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$

and as $x \rightarrow \infty$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{sinc} x = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 0$$

And — with more advanced maths (complex numbers etc etc) than we have that

$$\int_0^\infty \operatorname{sinc} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

So — this infinite sum of plus-areas and minus-areas converges to a finite limit. And we've seen examples where the area is divergent, like

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

I want to take this sinc example and tweak it a bit to make it something we can actually integrate:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{\sin(\log(x))}{x} dx & \quad \text{sub } u = \log x, u' = 1/x \\ &= \int \sin(u) du \quad \text{easy!} \end{aligned}$$

So now, integrate this from 1 to infinity:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^\infty \frac{\sin(\log(x))}{x} dx &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{\sin(\log(x))}{x} dx \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^{\log b} \sin u du \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [-\cos u]_0^{\log b} \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (\cos \log b - \cos 0) \end{aligned}$$

which does not exist — but not because it blows up to infinity, but because it keeps alternating without settling down to a finite answer.

One more example if there is time:

$$\int_1^\infty \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}} - \frac{1}{x} \right) dx$$

Easy to see that if we separate the integrand into two integrals then both will be infinite (since the $\sqrt{1 + x^2} > x$ on the domain). But together?

Well — we can see (or we should be able to see) that we can integrate both terms separately:

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx \log x + C$$

and the first term is tangent-flavoured

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} & \text{ sub } x = \tan \theta, x' = \sec^2 \theta \\ &= \int \frac{\sec^2 \theta}{\sqrt{1+\tan^2 \theta}} d\theta \\ &= \int \frac{\sec^2 \theta}{\sec \theta} d\theta \\ &= \int \sec \theta d\theta \\ &= \log |\sec \theta + \tan \theta| + C \\ &= \log |x + \sqrt{x^2+1}| + c \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^b \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}} - \frac{1}{x} \right) &= \left[\log |x + \sqrt{x^2+1}| - \log x \right]_1^b \\ &= \log \left| \frac{b + \sqrt{b^2+1}}{b} \right| - \log(1 + \sqrt{2}) \end{aligned}$$

Now in the limit as $b \rightarrow \infty$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(\log \left| \frac{b + \sqrt{b^2+1}}{b} \right| - \log(1 + \sqrt{2}) \right) &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left(\log \left| \frac{1 + \sqrt{1+1/b^2}}{1} \right| - \log(1 + \sqrt{2}) \right) \\ &= \log 2 - \log(1 + \sqrt{2}) = \log \frac{2}{1 + \sqrt{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Does this answer make sense? Well — $2 < 1 + \sqrt{2} \approx 2.4$, so our answer is negative. But let's think about the integrand:

$$\begin{aligned} \sqrt{x^2+1} &> x && \text{when } x > 0 \\ \frac{1}{x^2+1} &< \frac{1}{x} \end{aligned}$$

so the integrand is negative. Oof!

So now we have learned plenty of methods of integration to start doing some simple applications.

2 Applications of integration

2.1 Work

In everyday English the word “work” means something like “exertion or effort directed to produce or accomplish something”. In physics (and mathematics) it has a precise meaning

(based on this idea) — it is the energy expended acting against a force. eg — the energy expended moving a weight against gravity.

We need some definitions

Definition. • Time t — measured in seconds

- Position s — measured in metres
- Mass m — measured in grams or kilograms
- Newton's second law

$$\text{Force} = \text{mass} \times \text{acceleration} \qquad F = m \frac{d^2s}{dt^2}$$

Force is measured in Newtons = $kg \cdot m/s^2$

- Work at constant force measures energy required to act against a force

$$\text{Work} = \text{Force} \times \text{displacement} \qquad W = Fd$$

Measured in Newton-metres = Joules

So if the force is constant, then the work is simply the force times the distance moved against the force — eg moving a heavy weight up off the floor. How much work is done moving a 1kg book from the floor to the top of a 2m high shelf?

- Acceleration due to gravity = $9.8m/s^2$. Force due to gravity = $ma = 9.8N$.
- Work done against force is $9.8 \times 2 = 19.6J$.

Very easy. But what happens when the force is not constant? If it varies with distance — eg a spring — then we approximate the work by a Riemann sum.

- Let $f(x)$ be the force acting on an object at position x .
- To compute the work done in order to move the object from $x = a$ to $x = b$ we cut up the interval $[a, b]$ into n segments $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ each of width $(b - a)/n$.
- We approximate the varying force in the interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ by a constant force $f(x_i^*)$ where $x_i^* \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]$ — just as we approximated the area in a Riemann sum.
- The work done in this interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ is then approximately $f(x_i^*)\Delta x$.
- So the total work is

$$W \approx \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*)\Delta x$$

which is exactly a Riemann sum.

- Hence as $n \rightarrow \infty$ we have

$$W = \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

Definition (Work — clp 2.1.1). The work done by a force $F(x)$ moving an object from $x = a$ to $x = b$ is

$$W = \int_a^b F(x) dx$$

Note that if $F(x) = c$ is constant then $W = c(b - a)$.

Hooke's law relates the force exerted by a string, F , to the distance it has been stretched x :

$$F = kx \qquad k = \text{spring constant}$$

Holds for lots of materials provided x isn't too large.

A standard example: A spring has natural length of 20cm. If a 25N force is required to keep it stretched at a length of 30cm how much work is required to stretch it from 20cm to 25cm?

- Careful of units — we need newtons and metres.
- First work out the spring constant:

$$\begin{aligned} F &= kx \\ 25 &= k(0.30 - 0.20) \\ k &= 25/0.1 = 250 \text{ N/m} \end{aligned}$$

- So we can now work out the work

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_0^{0.05} F(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^{0.05} 250x dx \\ &= [125x^2]_0^{0.05} = 125 \times 0.0025 = 0.3125 \text{ J} \end{aligned}$$

Another slightly less standard example: A chain lying on the ground is 10m long and weighs 80kg. How much work is required to raise one end to a height of 6m?

- Assume that the chain will be “L” shaped when it has been lifted, with 4m left on the ground. Also assume no friction and constant density of the chain = 8kg/m. (A picture might help)
- Let us do this with a Riemann sum — split the chain into segments $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ and work out how much work is done lifting each segment.
- Let x be the distance (in m) from the top of the chain. The piece of chain at x is lifted $6 - x$ m. Hence the segment $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ is lifted $6 - x_i^*$ m.
- The segment weighs $8\Delta x$, so experiences $8 \times 9.8\Delta x = 78.4\Delta x$ gravitational force.
- So the Riemann sum is given by

$$W \approx \sum_{i=1}^n (6 - x_i^*) 78.4\Delta x$$

- So the work is given (limit of $n \rightarrow \infty$)

$$\begin{aligned} W &= 78.4 \int_0^6 (6 - x) dx \\ &= 78.4 [6x - x^2/2]_0^6 = 78.4 \times 18 = 1411.2J \end{aligned}$$

What if the chain was dangling from the roof and we were to lift the far end?

- Let x be the distance from the middle of the chain.
- The piece of chain at x is lifted a distance of $2x$
- Hence the Riemann sum is

$$W \approx \sum_{i=1}^n 2x_i^* 78.4 \Delta x$$

- So the work done is

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_0^5 156.8x dx \\ &= 156.8 [x^2/2]_0^5 = 156.8 \times 12.5 = 1960 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly if we calculate the work done pumping water from a tank — compute the work done pumping out each “slice” of water.

A very standard example:

- The tank is shaped like an inverted cone — height = 10m, radius = 4m.
- Filled to height of 8m.
- Find work pumping water out of top.
- Density of water is 1000 kg/m^3 .

How do we do this?

- Draw a picture.
- How much work done to remove each “slice” of water?
- Let x be distance from bottom of the tank. The slice at x has volume

$$\begin{aligned} V(x) &= \pi r(x)^2 \Delta x \\ &= \pi \left(\frac{2x}{5} \right)^2 \Delta x \end{aligned}$$

- The weight of this slice is $1000V(x)$. So the gravitation force acting on the slice is $1000V(x) \times 9.8$.
- We need to move the slice at x up $10 - x$ metres.

- So the work done is

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_0^8 9800V(x)(10-x)dx \\ &= 1568\pi \int_0^8 x^2(10-x)dx \\ &\approx 3.36 \times 10^6 J \end{aligned}$$

Finally — let us look at how work relates to some of Newton's laws of motion. To do this assume that we are moving an object against a force, $F(x)$, and that the position of the object is given by $x(t)$. Then the work is given by

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \int_a^b F(x)dx && \text{sub } x = x(t) \\ &= \int_{t=\alpha}^{t=\beta} F(x(t)) \frac{dx}{dt} dt \end{aligned}$$

Newton to the rescue with his laws $F = ma$:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} m \frac{d^2x}{dt^2} dt \\ &= m \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} v'(t)v(t) dt && \text{a little chain rule} \\ &= m \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{1}{2} v(t)^2 \right) dt \\ &= m \left[\frac{1}{2} v(t)^2 \right]_{\alpha}^{\beta} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} m v(\beta)^2 - \frac{1}{2} m v(\alpha)^2 \end{aligned}$$

This new function $\frac{m}{2}v^2$ is the *kinetic energy* — so this is telling us that the work done is equal to the difference in kinetic energy. (this is related to the concept of “conservation of energy”).