### MATA37 Week 10

Kevin Santos

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## 1 Improper integrals

In the past when calculating  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ , we have assumed that:

- (1) the interval [a, b] is bounded  $(a, b \neq \infty)$
- (2) f(x) has no vertical asymptotes (VAs) in [a, b] (range (f(x))) is bounded)

If the condition(s) (1) and/or (2) are broken,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  is an **improper integral** 

Examples of type I improper integrals (integrals that break condition (1)):

$$\int_{3}^{\infty} \frac{\arctan(x)}{1+x^2} dx$$
$$\int_{-\infty}^{1} \arctan(x) dx$$

Examples of type II improper integrals (integrals that break condition (2)):

$$\int_{2}^{5} \frac{8}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$$

$$\int_{\pi/2}^{\pi} \csc(x) dx$$

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

### 1.1 Defining Type I and Type II improper integrals

Type I integrals have  $\infty$  as one of the integration limits.

$$\int_{a}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{N \to \infty} \int_{a}^{N} f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{M \to \infty} \int_{M}^{b} f(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{c} f(x) dx + \int_{c}^{\infty} f(x) dx, \text{ where } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$= \lim_{M \to \infty} \int_{M}^{c} f(x) dx + \lim_{N \to \infty} \int_{c}^{N} f(x) dx$$

The improper integral **converges** if the limit exists. It **diverges** if the limit doesn't exist. In the third case, both limits must exist for the integral to converge.

In Type II integrals, the integrand has a discontinuity at the endpoints or within the interval of integration. Given  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ :

If f(b) is undefined:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{A \to b^-} \int_a^A f(x) dx$$

If f(a) is undefined:

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = \lim_{A \to a^+} \int_A^b f(x) \, dx$$

If f(c) is undefined for some  $c \in (a, b)$ :

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{c} f(x) dx + \int_{c}^{b} f(x) dx$$
$$= \lim_{A \to c^{-}} \int_{a}^{A} f(x) + \lim_{A \to c^{+}} \int_{A}^{b} f(x)$$

**Example 1.** Evaluate the following improper integrals.

$$(1) \int_{0}^{1} \frac{\ln(x)}{x} dx$$

$$(2) \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{x} dx$$

$$(3) \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{x^{2}} dx$$

$$(4) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xe^{-x} dx$$

$$(6) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^{2}e^{-x^{3}} dx$$

$$(7) \int_{0}^{4} \frac{1}{x^{2} + x - 6} dx$$

$$(8) \int_{2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x - 2}} dx$$

$$(9) \int_{-2}^{2} \frac{1}{x^{2}} dx$$

$$(10) \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{1 + \sqrt{x}}}{\sqrt{x}} dx$$

### 1.2 Comparison theorem

The comparison theorem gives a way of determining whether a specific kind of improper integral converges or diverges. Namely, given an integral of the form  $\int_a^\infty f(x) \, dx$ , we might be able to compare f to another function g where the behaviour of  $\int_a^\infty g(x) \, dx$  is known.

#### Theorem 1. Comparison theorem (convergence)

Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose g, f are continuous on  $[a, \infty)$ . IF  $(a) \ 0 \le g(x) \le f(x) \quad \forall x \in [a, \infty)$ 

and (b)  $\int_a^\infty f(x)$  converges

THEN  $\int_{a}^{\infty} g(x)$  also converges.

### Theorem 2. Comparison theorem (divergence)

Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose g, f are continuous on  $[a, \infty)$ .

IF (a)  $0 \le f(x) \le g(x) \quad \forall x \in [a, \infty)$ 

and (b)  $\int_a^\infty f(x)$  diverges

THEN  $\int_a^\infty g(x)$  also diverges.

The same theorems can be used on Type II improper integrals, just by replacing the interval of integration.

Make sure you verify both hypotheses before using comparison theorem.

**Example 2.** Determine whether each of the following integrals converges or diverges.

$$(1) \quad \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} \, dx$$

$$(2) \quad \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1 + e^{-2x}}{x} dx$$

$$(3) \quad \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x + e^{2x}}$$

$$(4) \quad \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^3 + 1}} \, dx$$

$$(5) \quad \int_0^1 \frac{1}{\csc^2 x \sqrt{x}} \, dx$$

# 2 Sequences

We generally think of sequences as an ordered list of numbers, e.g.  $\{1,2,3,4...\}$  or  $\{1,1,2,3,5,8,13,...\}$  or  $\{3,1,4,1,5,6,...\}$ . The precise definition of a sequence is as follows:

**Definition 1.** A <u>sequence</u> of real numbers is a function whose <u>domain</u> is the natural numbers,

 $\mathbb{N} = \{1, 2, 3, ...\}.$ 

Can be denoted by

- $a_n = f(n)$
- $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$
- $\{a_n\}$

 $a_n$  is the **general term** of the sequence—it's a <u>function</u> that takes a natural number n as an input and outputs a real number.

The definition of convergence of a sequence is pretty much the same as the definition of convergence of a function at infinity, as seen in MATA31.

**Definition 2.** Let  $l \in \mathbb{R}$ . The sequence  $\{a_n\}$  converges to l iff

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N > 0 \text{ s.t. } \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ if } n > N, \text{ then } |a_n - l| < \epsilon$$

Denoted by

- $a_n \to l \ as \ n \to \infty$
- $a_n \to l$
- $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = l$

If  $\{a_n\}$  does not converge, we say it **diverges**. i.e. there does not exist any such l.

Proving  $\{a_n\}$  converges to l:

- Take arbitrary  $\epsilon > 0$
- Want to find some  $N \in \mathbb{R}$  where, if  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and n > N, then  $|a_n l| < \epsilon$ . Usually N is in terms of  $\epsilon$ .
- To find this N, write  $|a_n l|$  and try simplifying or finding upper bounds for this function. You usually get something like  $|a_n l| \le \frac{1}{n^p}$  for some  $p \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- If you get to something like  $\frac{1}{n^p}$ , you can use the hypothesis n > N to say  $\frac{1}{n^p} < \frac{1}{N^p}$ , then substitute in a choice of N to conclude  $|a_n l| \le \frac{1}{n^p} < \epsilon$ .
- To complete the proof, begin by taking arbitrary  $\epsilon > 0$ . Define N as you determined the previous step. Then suppose n is some natural number > N.
- Simplify the expression  $|a_n l|$  and show that under the above assumptions,  $|a_n l| < \epsilon$ .

**Example 1.** Prove that  $\left\{\frac{\sin(n)}{\sqrt[3]{n}}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges to 0. Sol. Want to prove the following:

For all 
$$\epsilon > 0$$
, there exists  $N > 0$  s.t. for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , if  $n > N$ , then  $\left| \frac{\sin(n)}{\sqrt[3]{n}} \right| < \epsilon$ 

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be arbitrary.

Choose N = > 0.

Assume  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , n > N.

$$\left| \frac{\sin(n)}{\sqrt[3]{n}} \right| = \frac{|\sin(n)|}{|\sqrt[3]{n}|} \quad \text{abs. value properties}$$
 
$$\leq \frac{1}{|\sqrt[3]{n}|} \quad \text{since } |\sin(n)| \leq 1 \text{ for all } n$$

$$=\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{n}} \quad \text{since } \sqrt[3]{n} \text{ is positive for } n>1$$
 
$$<\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{N}}$$

Since we assumed n > N, it follows  $\sqrt[3]{n} > \sqrt[3]{N}$  and hence  $1/\sqrt[3]{n} < 1/\sqrt[3]{N}$ . Now, if we choose  $N = \frac{1}{\epsilon^3}$ , then  $\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{N}} = \epsilon$ . Then we can complete the proof with the choice of N:

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be arbitrary.

Choose  $N = \frac{1}{\epsilon^3} > 0$ . Assume  $n \in \mathbb{N}, n > N$ .

$$\left|\frac{\sin(n)}{\sqrt[3]{n}}\right| = \frac{|\sin(n)|}{|\sqrt[3]{n}|} \quad \text{abs. value properties}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{|\sqrt[3]{n}|} \quad \text{since } |\sin(n)| \leq 1 \text{ for all } n$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{n}} \quad \text{since } \sqrt[3]{n} \text{ is positive for } n > 1$$

$$< \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{N}} \quad \text{by } n > N, \text{ it follows } \sqrt[3]{n} > \sqrt[3]{N} \text{ and hence } 1/\sqrt[3]{n} < 1/\sqrt[3]{N}.$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{1/\epsilon^3}} \quad \text{by choice of } N$$

$$= \frac{1}{1/\epsilon}$$

$$= \epsilon$$

Hence, if n > N, then  $\left| \frac{\sin(n)}{\sqrt[3]{n}} \right| < \epsilon$ , as wanted.  $\square$ 

### Properties of convergent sequences

Let  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  be sequences. Let  $a, b, k \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 3.** Suppose  $a_n \to a$  and  $b_n \to b$ . Then

(a) 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n + b_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n + \lim_{n \to \infty} b_n = a + b$$
 (1)

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} k(a_n) = ka$$
(2)

(c) 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n)(b_n) = \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n\right) \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n\right) = ab$$
 (3)

(c) 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (a_n)(b_n) = \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n\right) \left(\lim_{n \to \infty} b_n\right) = ab$$
(d) 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left(\frac{a_n}{b_n}\right) = \frac{a}{b}$$
(4)

(Provided that 
$$b \neq 0$$
 and  $b_n \neq 0 \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) (5)

#### Theorem 4. Uniqueness of limits

IF  $\{a_n\}$  converges

THEN its limit is unique.

**Definition 3.** A sequence is **bounded** if

$$\exists c \in \mathbb{R}^+ \ s.t. \ |a_n| \le c \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$
 (6)

Note that  $|a_n| \le c$  equivalently means  $-c \le a_n \le c$ .

### Theorem 5. Convergent sequences are bounded

IF  $\{a_n\}$  converges

THEN  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded.

**Example 2.** Determine whether the following sequences converge or diverge and provide a complete  $\epsilon - N$ proof.

(1) 
$$\left\{ \frac{n \arctan(n) - 1}{n^2 + 6\sqrt{n}} \right\}$$
  
(2)  $\left\{ \frac{2n - 1}{n + 3} \right\}$ 

(2) 
$$\left\{\frac{2n-1}{n+3}\right\}$$

(3) 
$$\{n^{-3/2}\}$$

$$(4) \quad \{1 + 2(-1)^n\}$$

(1) Hint: use the fact  $\arctan(x) < \pi/2$  for all x.

Prove by  $\epsilon - N$  definition that if  $\{a_n\}$  converges to 0 and  $\{b_n\}$  is bounded, then  $\{a_nb_n\}$ Example 3. converges.

#### 3 Answers to selected examples

**Example 1.** Determine whether each of the following integrals converges or diverges.

(1) 
$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x^{2}} dx$$
(2) 
$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1 + e^{-2x}}{x} dx$$
(3) 
$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x + e^{2x}}$$
(4) 
$$\int_{-1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^{3} + 1}} dx$$
(5) 
$$\int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{\csc^{2} x \sqrt{x}} dx$$

- (1) Use comparison test with  $e^{-x}$  to show convergence.
- (2) Use comparison test with 1/x to show divergence.
- (3) Use comparison test with  $1/e^{2x}$  to show convergence. (Note: you could try using 1/x, but this won't lead you closer to the answer.)

Sol. Comparison test with  $1/e^{2x}$ :

- (a) For all  $x \in [1, \infty)$ , it holds that  $1/e^{2x} \ge 0$  since  $e^{2x} \ge 0$ .
- (b) Since  $x \in [1, \infty)$ , it follows that

$$x + e^{2x} > e^{2x}$$

Hence,

$$\frac{1}{x+e^{2x}}<\frac{1}{e^{2x}}\quad \checkmark$$

Now, if we prove the integral of  $1/e^{2x}$  over  $[1,\infty)$  converges, we can conclude that the original integral converges by CT.

$$\begin{split} \int_{1}^{\infty} e^{-2x} \, dx &= \lim_{N \to \infty} \int_{1}^{N} e^{-2x} \, dx \\ &= \lim_{N \to \infty} \left[ -\frac{1}{2} e^{-2x} \right]_{1}^{N} \\ &= \lim_{N \to \infty} -\frac{1}{2} (e^{-2N} - e^{-2}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} e^{-2} \quad \text{since as } N \to \infty, \, e^{-2N} \to 0, \, \text{and} \, \, \frac{1}{2} e^{-2} \, \text{is constant} \end{split}$$

Therefore,  $\int_1^\infty e^{-2x} dx$  converges, hence by CT,  $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{x+e^{2x}}$  converges.  $\square$ Note: it's also true that  $\frac{1}{x+e^{2x}} < \frac{1}{x}$ . But  $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x} dx$  diverges, so CT can't tell you anything about the original integral.

(4) Use comparison test with  $1/\sqrt{x^3}$  to show convergence. Don't forget to split the integral first since the function also has a discontinuity at x = -1.

(5) Recall  $\csc x = 1/\sin x$  and use the fact that  $0 \le \sin^2 x \le 1$ .