

Calculus II

Improper integrals

Todor Milev

2019

Outline

1 Improper Integrals

- Type I: Infinite Intervals
- Type II: Discontinuous Integrands
- A Comparison Test for Improper Integrals

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Improper Integrals

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Definition (Improper Integral)

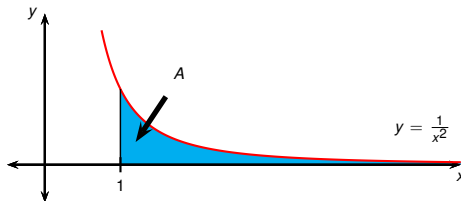
The integral

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

is called improper if one or more of the endpoints a and b is infinite, or if f has an infinite discontinuity on $[a, b]$.

Type I: Infinite Intervals

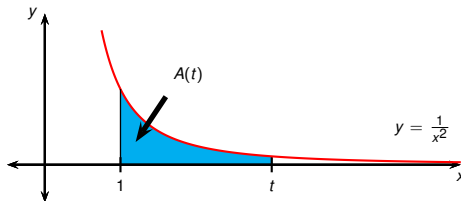
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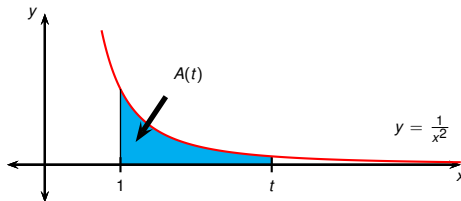
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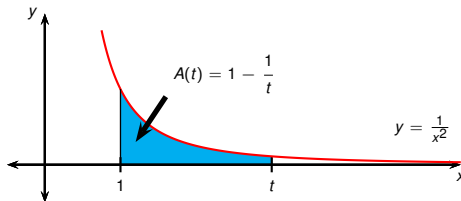
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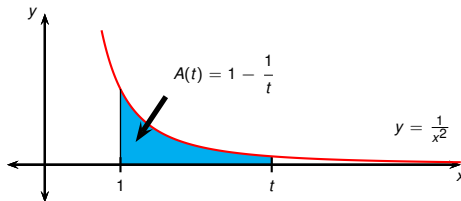
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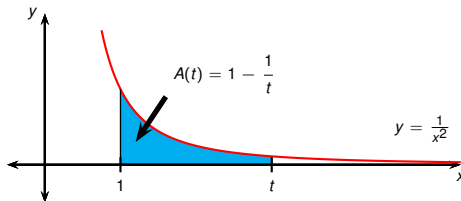


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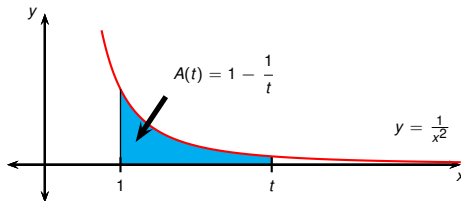


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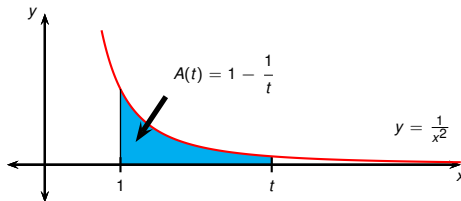


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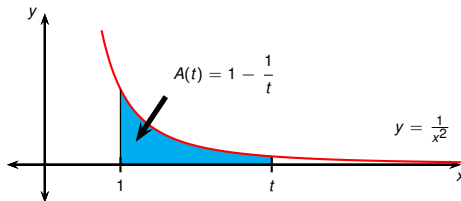


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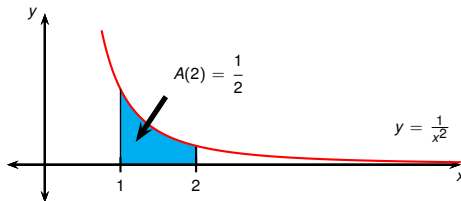


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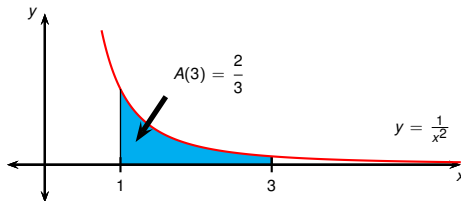


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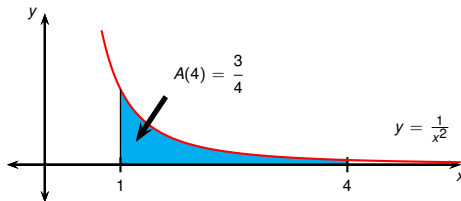


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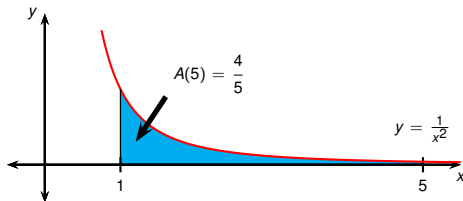


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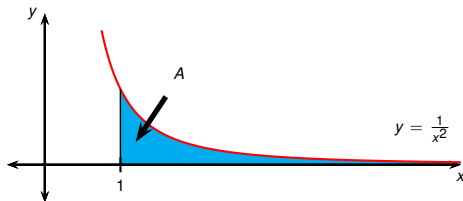


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- Also notice $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} A(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{t} \right) = 1$.
- We say that the area A is equal to 1 and write $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 1$.

Definition (Improper Integral of Type I)

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

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

if the limit exists.

- 2 If $\int_t^b f(x)dx$ exists for every $t \leq b$, then

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

if the limit exists.

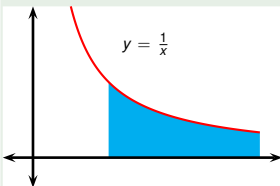
$\int_a^\infty f(x)dx$ and $\int_{-\infty}^b f(x)dx$ are called convergent if the corresponding limit exists and divergent if it doesn't exist.

- 3 If both $\int_a^\infty f(x)dx$ and $\int_{-\infty}^a f(x)dx$ are convergent, then we define

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

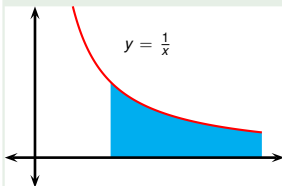
Example

Determine whether $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx$ is convergent or divergent.



Example

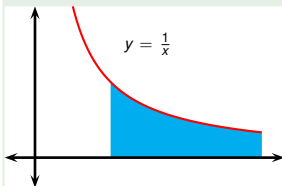
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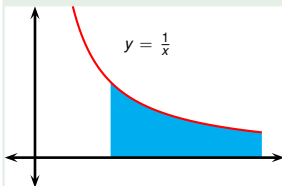
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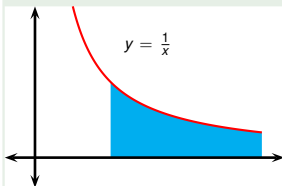
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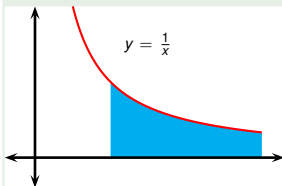
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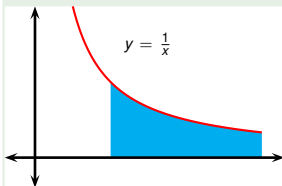
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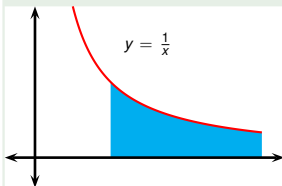
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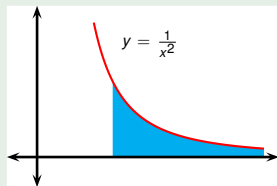
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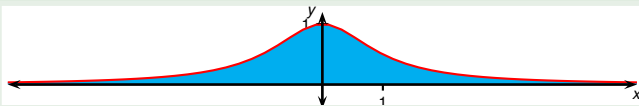


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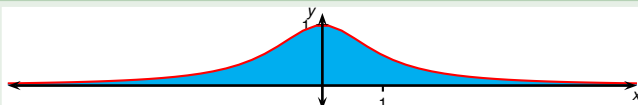
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Evaluate
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx.$$

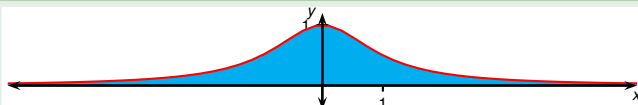
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$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

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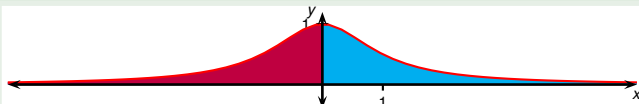


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Evaluate the two integrals separately:

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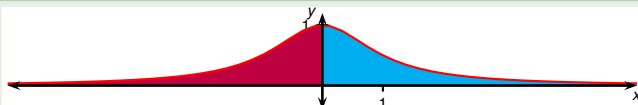
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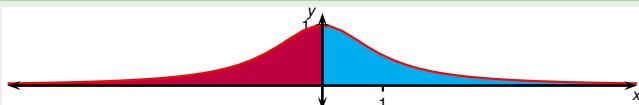
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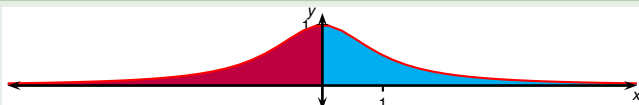
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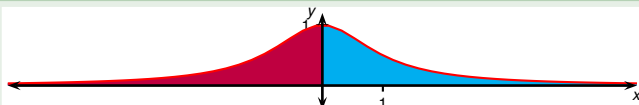
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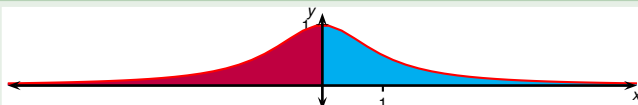
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Example



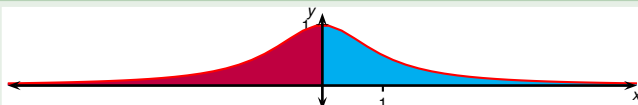
Evaluate
 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx.$

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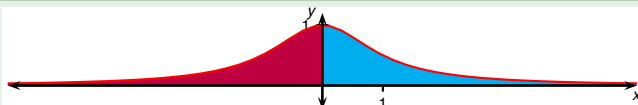
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Example



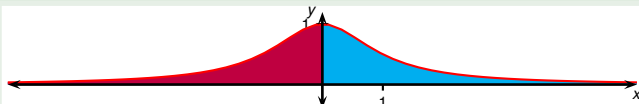
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Example



Evaluate

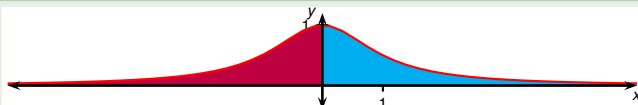
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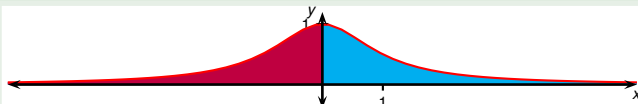
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Example



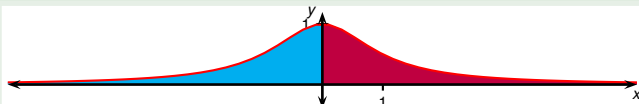
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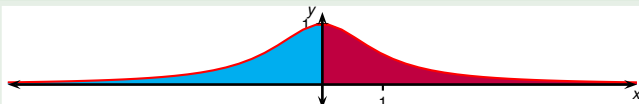
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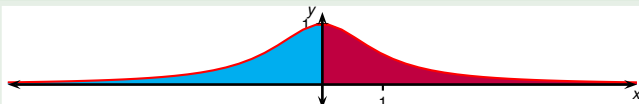
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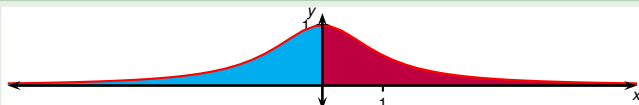
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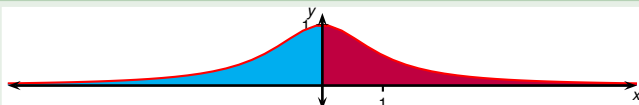
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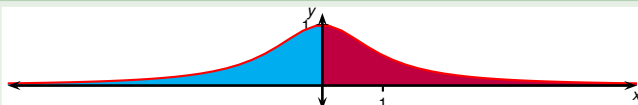
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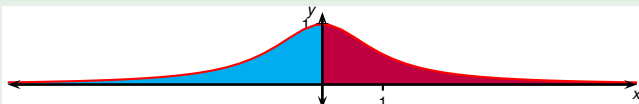
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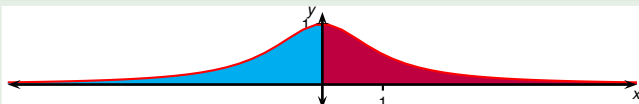
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Evaluate

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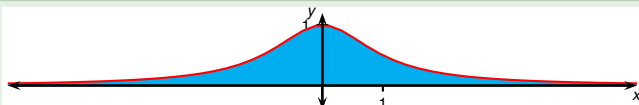
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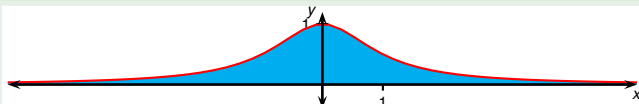
$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx &= \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx + \int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2} \end{aligned}$$

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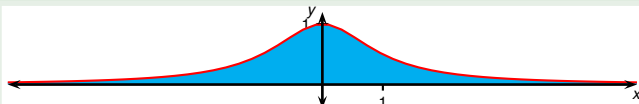
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- Therefore $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \frac{1}{p-1}$ if $p > 1$, and so the integral is convergent.
- If $p < 1$, then $p - 1 < 0$, so $\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} = t^{1-p} \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.

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$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \right]_1^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} - 1}{1-p}$$

- If $p > 1$, then $p - 1 > 0$, so as $t \rightarrow \infty$, $t^{p-1} \rightarrow \infty$ and $1/t^{p-1} \rightarrow 0$.
- Therefore $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \frac{1}{p-1}$ if $p > 1$, and so the integral is convergent.
- If $p < 1$, then $p - 1 < 0$, so $\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} = t^{1-p} \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
- Therefore $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx$ is divergent if $p < 1$.

Example

For what values of p is the integral $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx$ convergent?

- We know from Example 1 that if $p = 1$, the integral is divergent.
- Assume $p \neq 1$.

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{1}{x^p} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \right]_1^t = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} - 1}{1-p}$$

- If $p > 1$, then $p - 1 > 0$, so as $t \rightarrow \infty$, $t^{p-1} \rightarrow \infty$ and $1/t^{p-1} \rightarrow 0$.
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- If $p < 1$, then $p - 1 < 0$, so $\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} = t^{1-p} \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$.
- Therefore $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^p} dx$ is divergent if $p < 1$.

Theorem

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

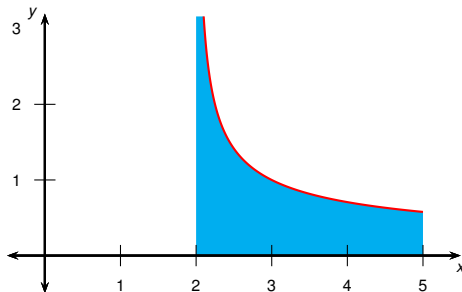
Type II: Discontinuous Integrands

We can use the same approach if the function f is discontinuous at one of the endpoints a and b in the integral $\int_a^b f(x)dx$.

For example, $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}}$ is discontinuous at 2, so we might wonder if the integral

$$\int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$$

exists.



Definition (Improper Integral of Type II)

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

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

if the limit exists.

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

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

if the limit exists.

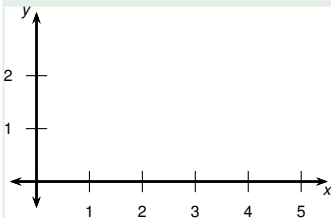
$\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is called convergent if the corresponding limit exists and divergent if it doesn't exist.

- 3 If f has a discontinuity at c , where $a < c < b$, and both $\int_a^c f(x)dx$ and $\int_c^b f(x)dx$ are convergent, then we define

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

Example

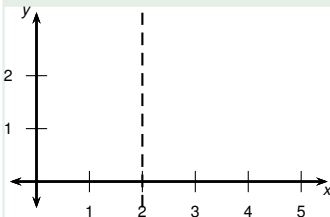
Find $\int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$.



Example

Find $\int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$.

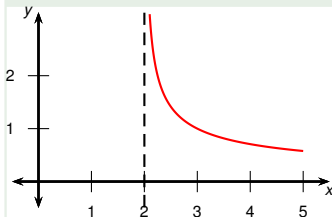
Observe that $x = 2$ is a vertical asymptote for the integrand.



Example

Find $\int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$.

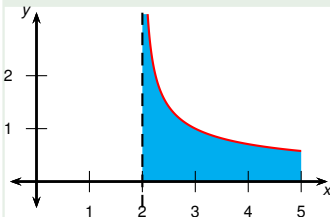
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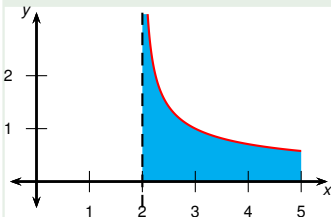
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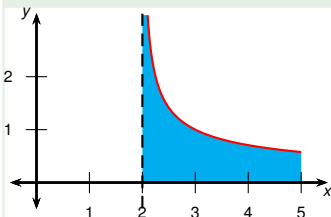


$$\int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} \int_t^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$$

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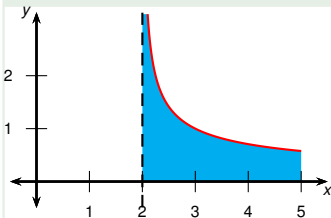


$$\begin{aligned} \int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} \int_t^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} \left[? \right]_t^5 \end{aligned}$$

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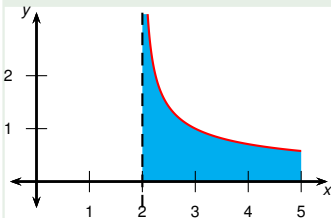


$$\begin{aligned} \int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} \int_t^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} \left[2\sqrt{x-2} \right]_t^5 \end{aligned}$$

Example

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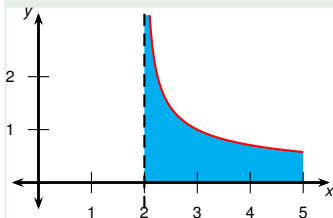


$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} \int_t^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx \\
 &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} \left[2\sqrt{x-2} \right]_t^5 \\
 &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 2^+} 2(\sqrt{5-2} - \sqrt{t-2})
 \end{aligned}$$

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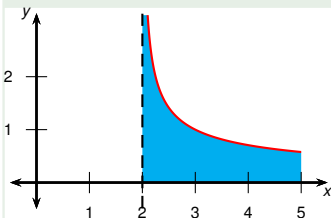


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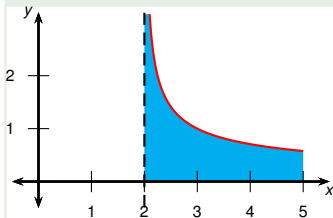


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Area = $2\sqrt{3}$

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Example

Evaluate $\int_0^3 \frac{1}{x-1} dx$.

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- Therefore the integral diverges.

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- Therefore the integral diverges.
- If we had not noticed the vertical asymptote, we might have made the following **mistake**:

$$\int_0^3 \frac{dx}{x-1} = [\ln |x-1|]_0^3 = \ln 2 - \ln 1 = \ln 2.$$

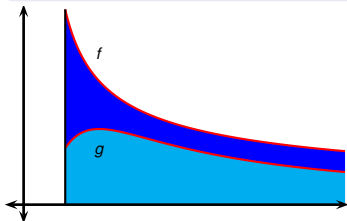
A Comparison Test for Improper Integrals

Sometimes it's impossible to find the exact value of an integral, but we still want to know if it's convergent or divergent. For such cases, we can sometimes use the following theorem.

Theorem (Comparison Theorem)

Suppose f and g are continuous and $f(x) \geq g(x) \geq 0$ for $x \geq a$.

- ❶ *If $\int_a^\infty f(x)dx$ is convergent, then $\int_a^\infty g(x)dx$ is convergent.*
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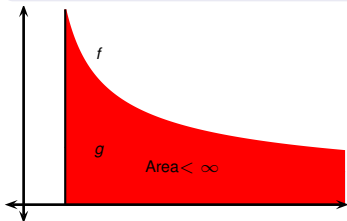
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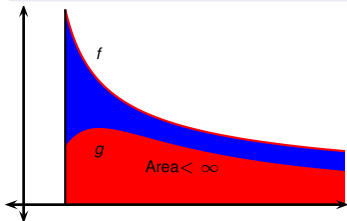
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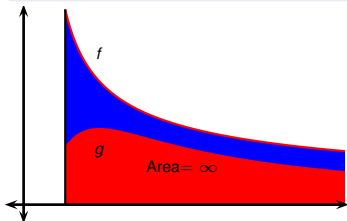
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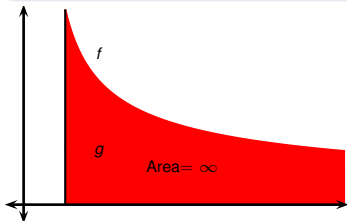
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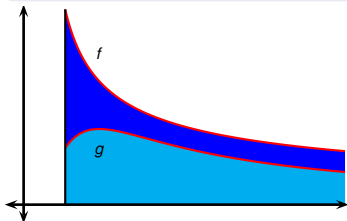
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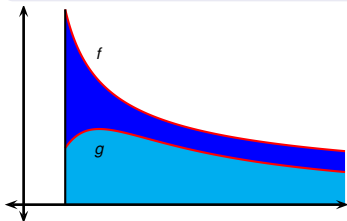
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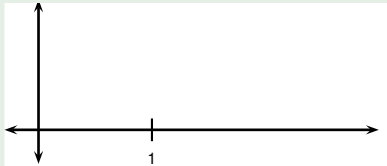
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A similar theorem holds for Type II improper integrals.

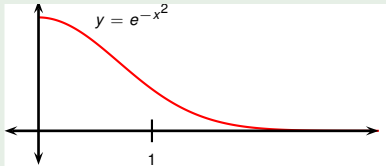
Example

Show that $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$ is convergent.



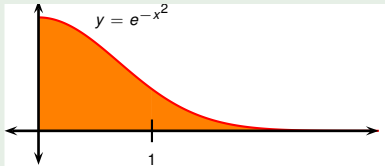
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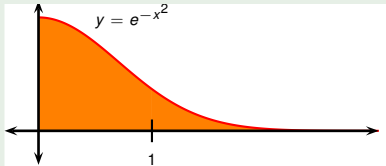
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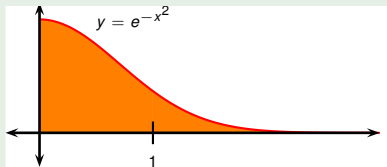
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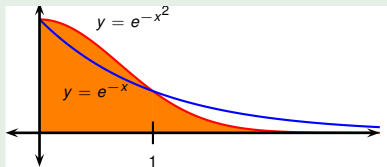
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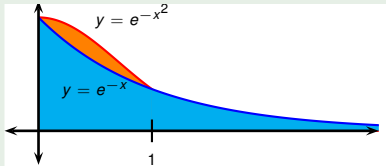
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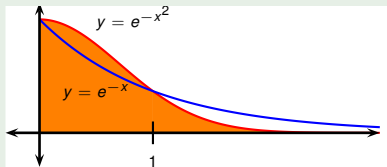
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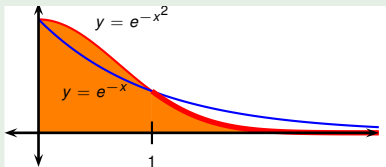
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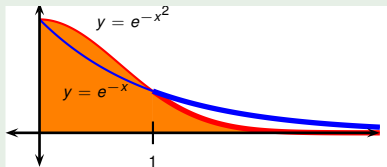
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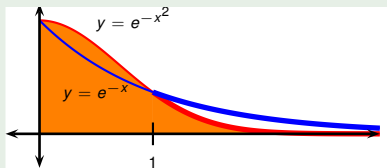
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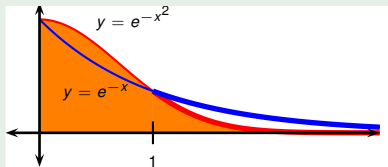
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- If integral were $\int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} dx$, we'd have no problem integrating.
- Notice that $0 \leq e^{-x^2} \leq e^{-x}$ for $x \geq 1$ (because $-x^2 < -x$ for $x > 1$ and the exponent is an increasing function).



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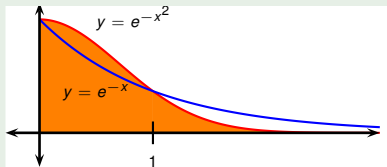
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Example

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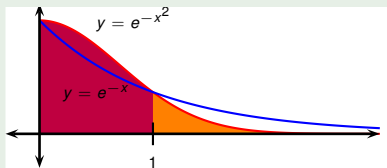
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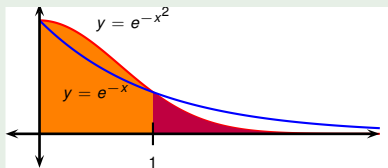
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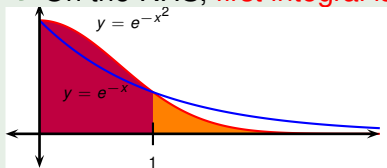
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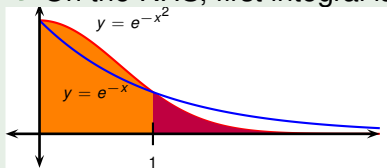
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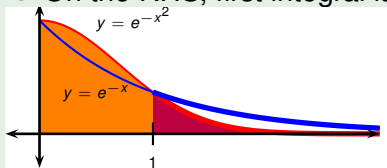


$$\int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$$

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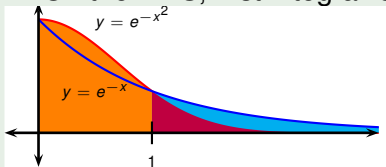


$$\int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \leq \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} dx$$

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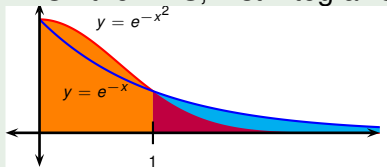


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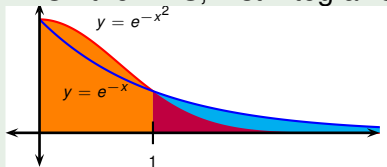


$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx &\leq \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} dx \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t e^{-x} dx \end{aligned}$$

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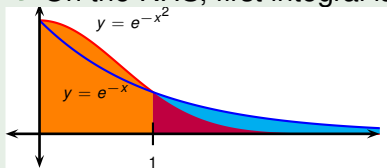


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 \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx &\leq \int_1^{\infty} e^{-x} dx \\
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 &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \left[? \right]_1^t
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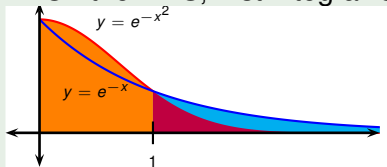


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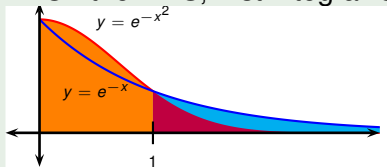


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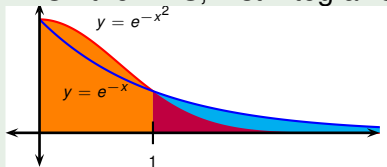


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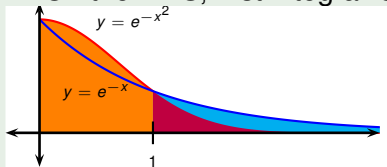


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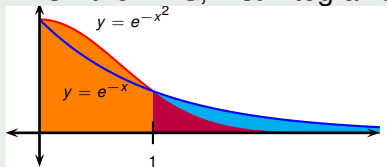


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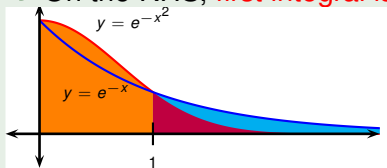
$$\int_1^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \text{ converges} \Rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \text{ converges.}$$

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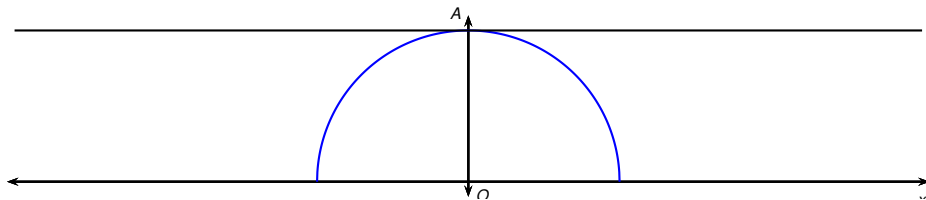
Is $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1 + e^{-x}}{x} dx$ convergent or divergent?

- Notice that for $x \geq 1$ we have $\frac{1 + e^{-x}}{x} > \frac{1}{x}$.
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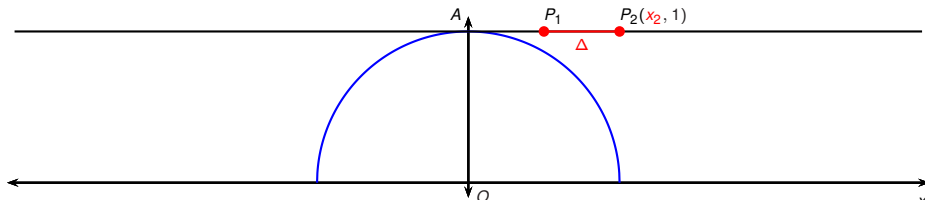
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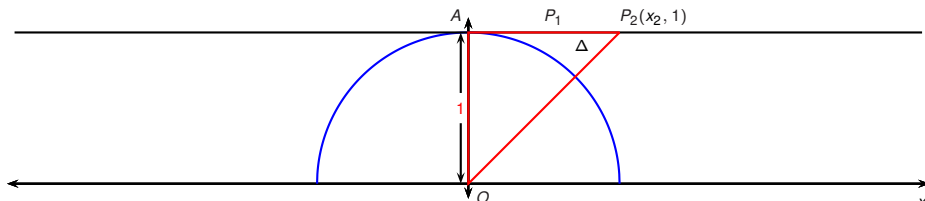
- Notice that for $x \geq 1$ we have $\frac{1 + e^{-x}}{x} > \frac{1}{x}$.
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- Therefore $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1 + e^{-x}}{x} dx$ is divergent by the Comparison Theorem.



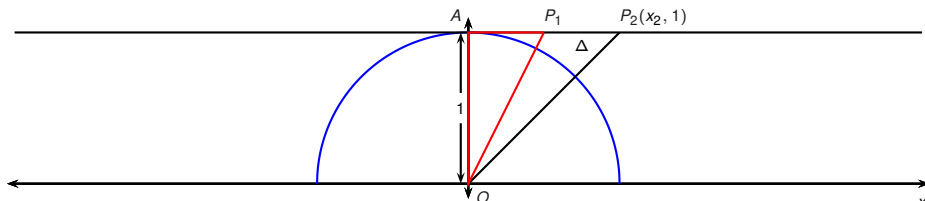
Draw a unit circle as above, let O, A be as indicated.



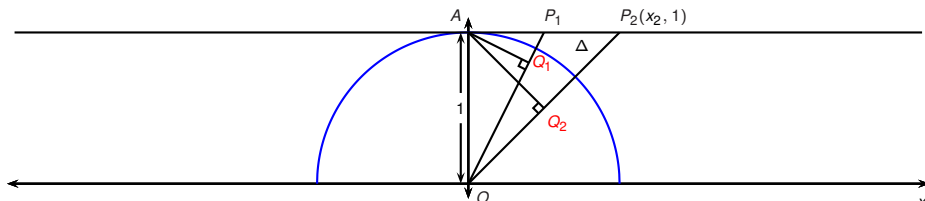
Draw a unit circle as above, let O, A be as indicated. Let P_2 be the point $(x_2, 1)$, P_1 be the point $(x_2 - \Delta, 1)$.



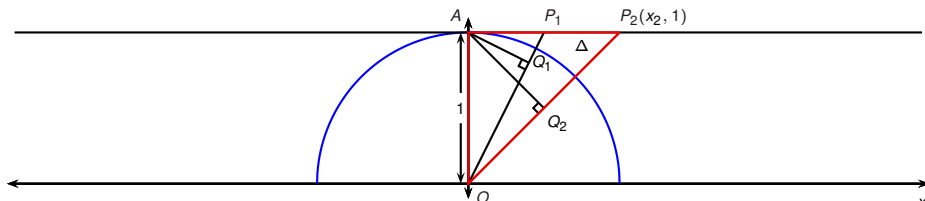
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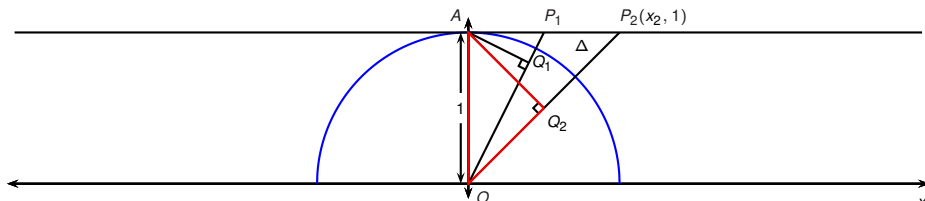
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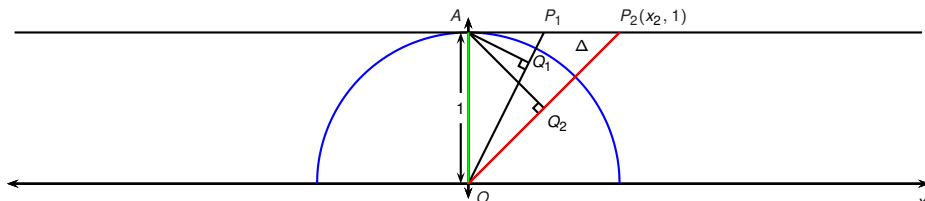
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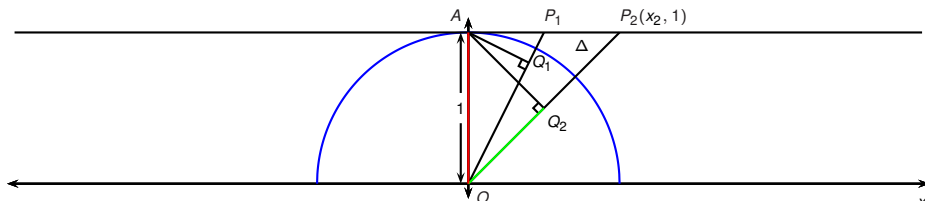


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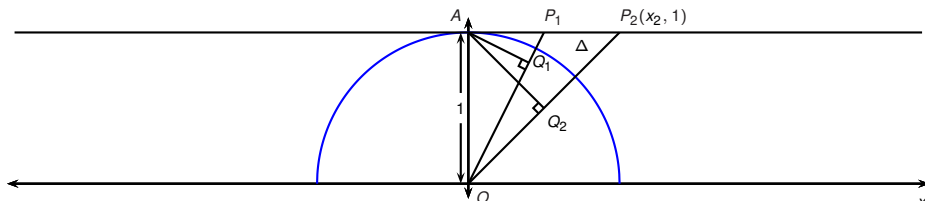
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$$\frac{|OA|}{|OP_2|} = \frac{|OQ_2|}{|OA|}$$

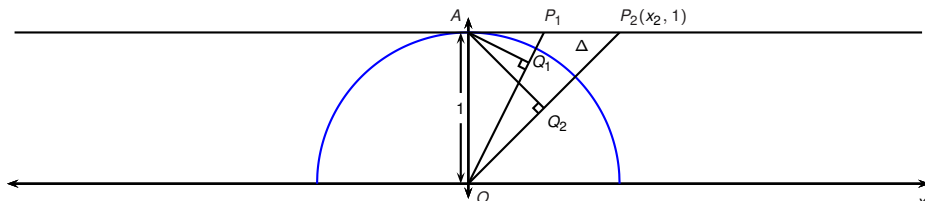


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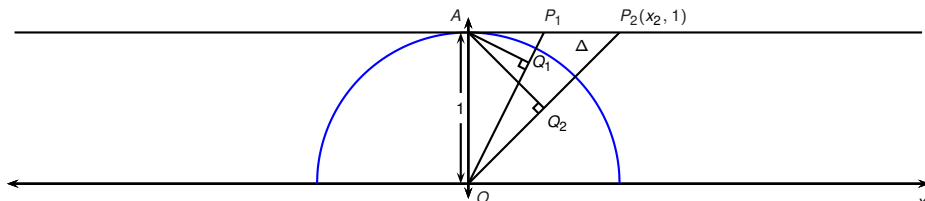
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Similarly conclude

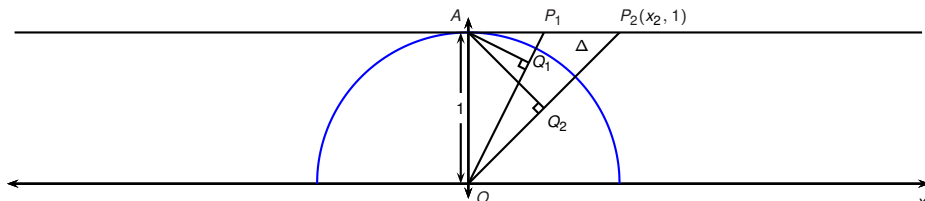
$$|OQ_1||OP_1| = |OA|^2 = 1$$



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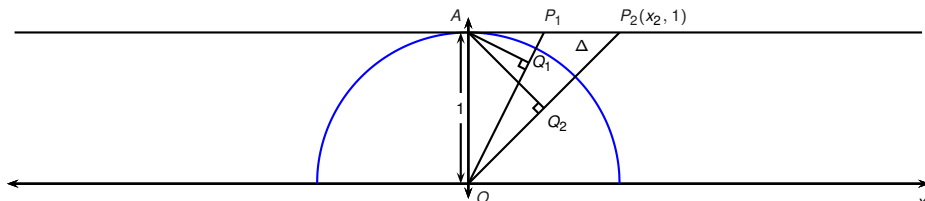
$$|OQ_1||OP_1| = |OA|^2 = 1 = |OQ_2||OP_2|.$$



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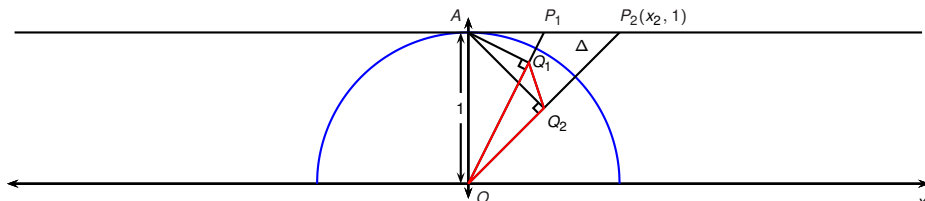
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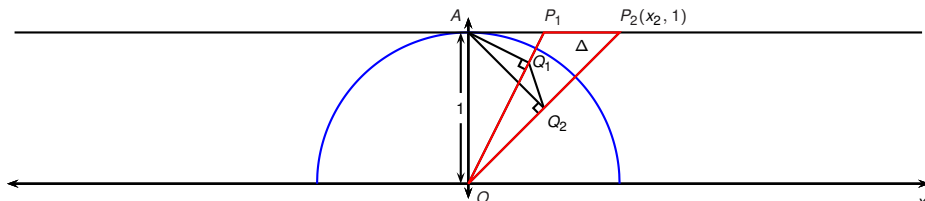


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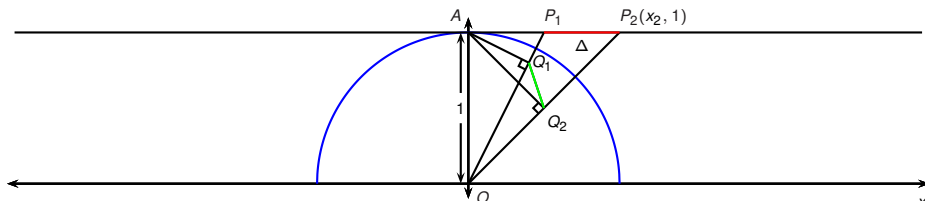
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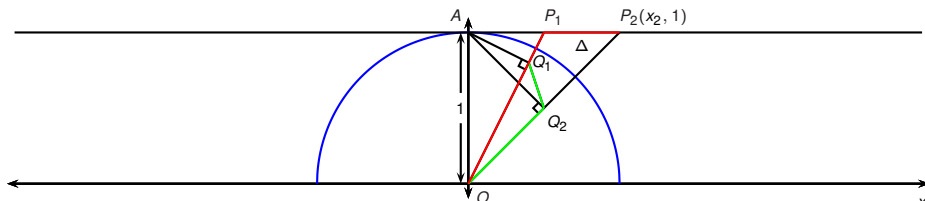
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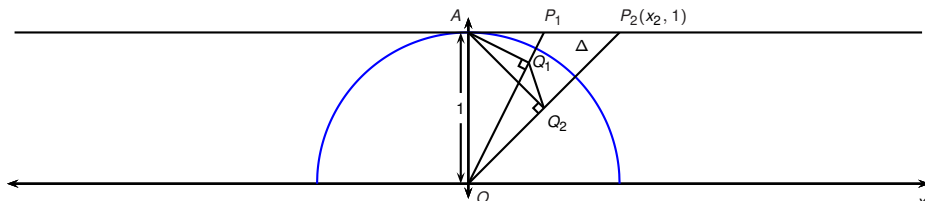
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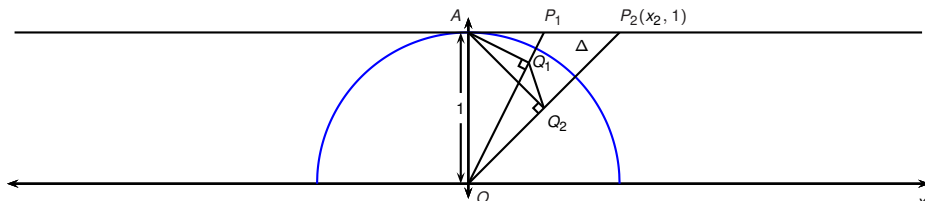


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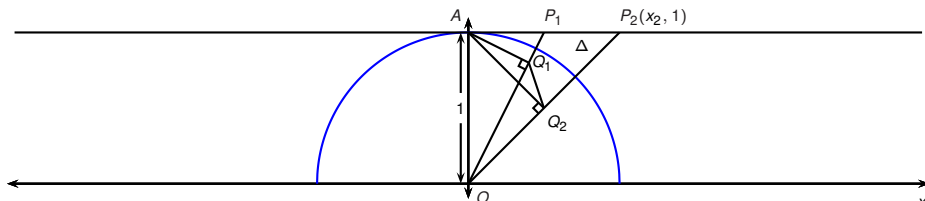
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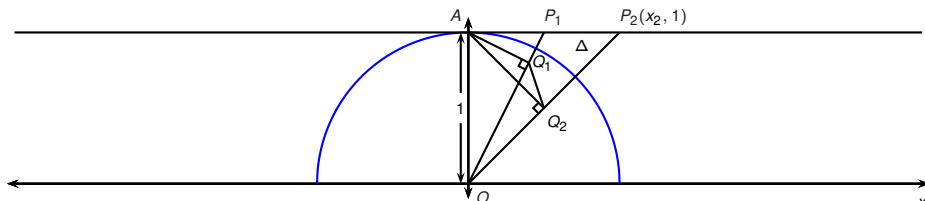


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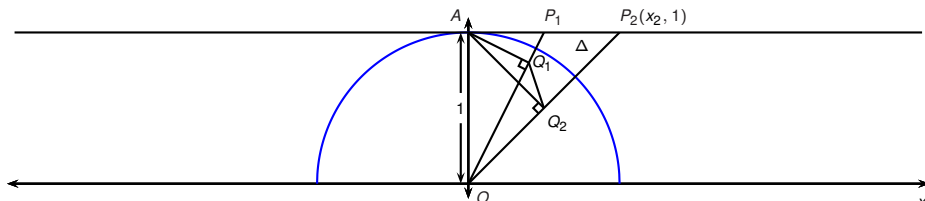
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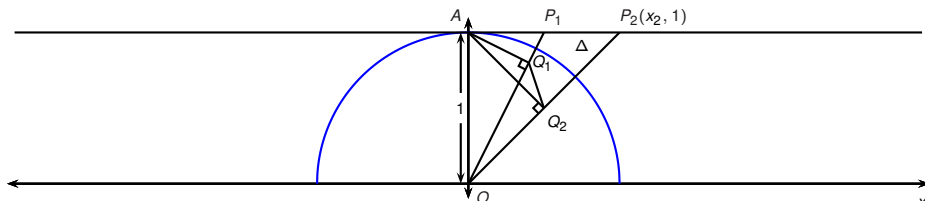
$$\frac{|OQ_2|}{|OP_2|} = \frac{|OQ_2||OP_2|}{|OP_2|^2}$$

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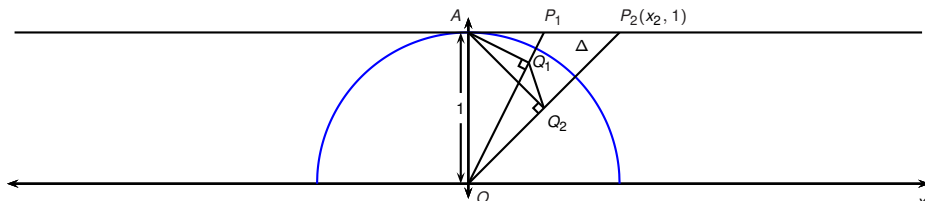
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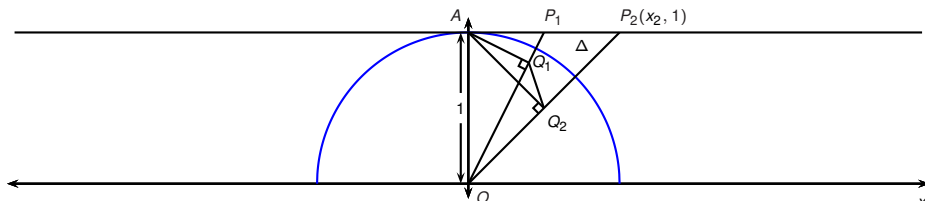
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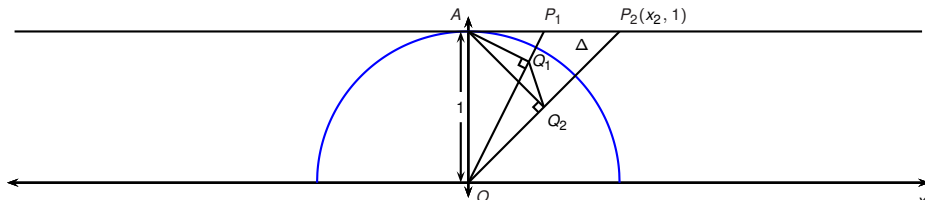
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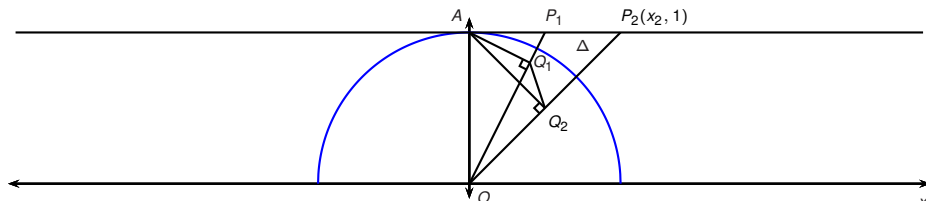
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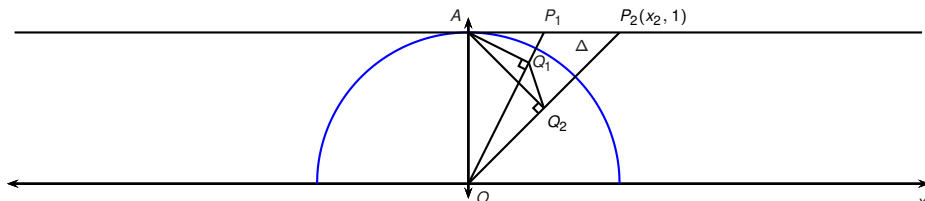
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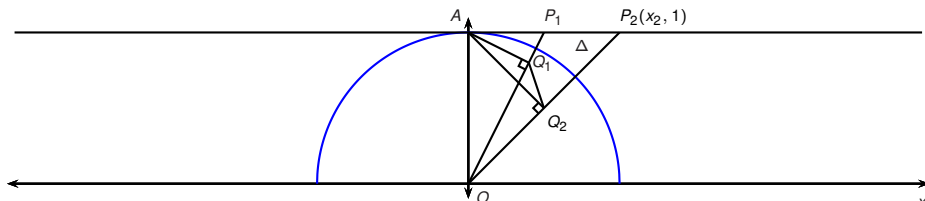


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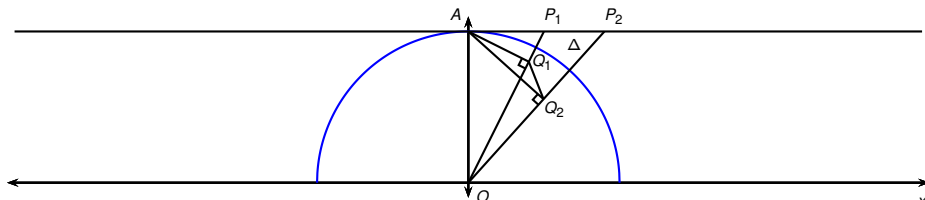
$$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$

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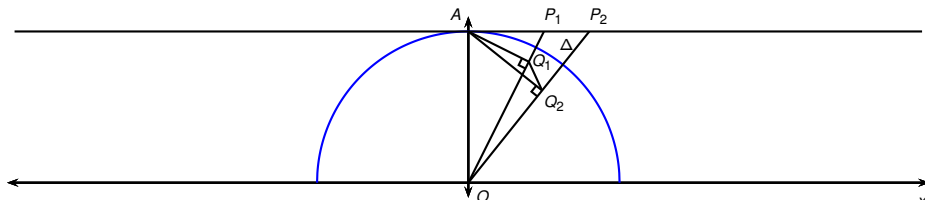
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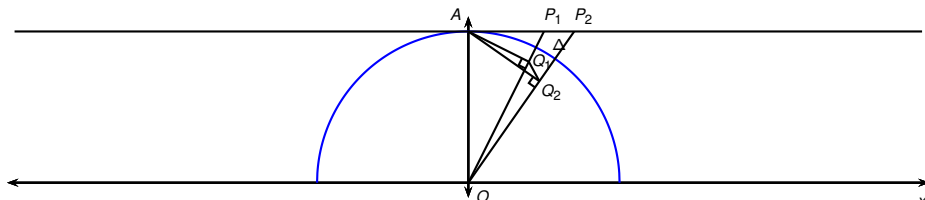
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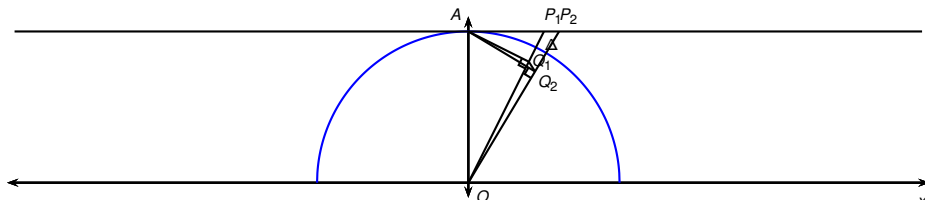
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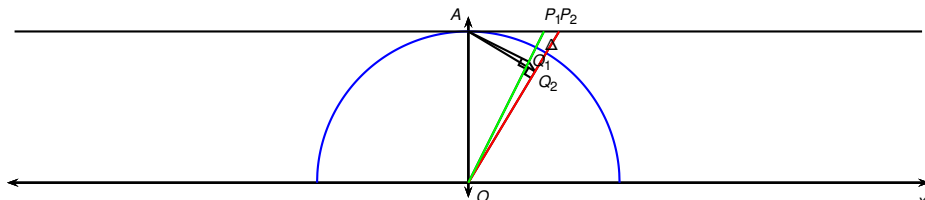
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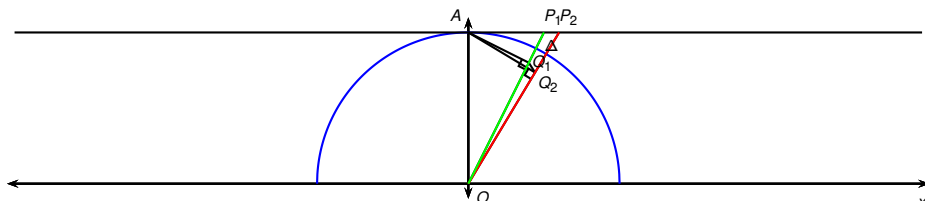
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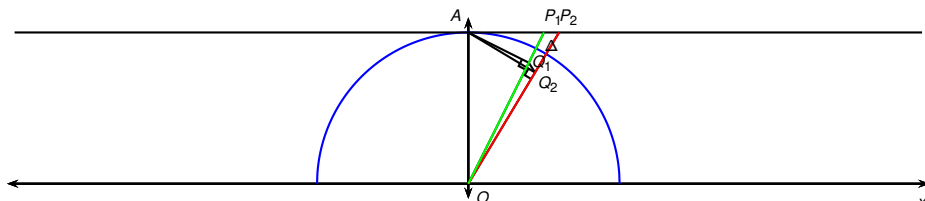
$$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$

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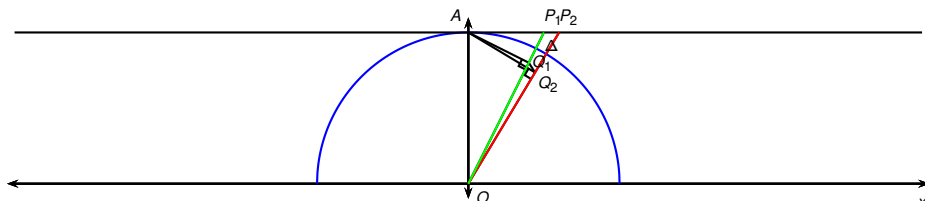
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If we let $P_2 \rightarrow P_1$, i.e., $\Delta \rightarrow 0$, we get $\frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \rightarrow 1$. In strict mathematical language: for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that when $\Delta < \delta$ we have that $1 > \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} > 1 - \varepsilon$.



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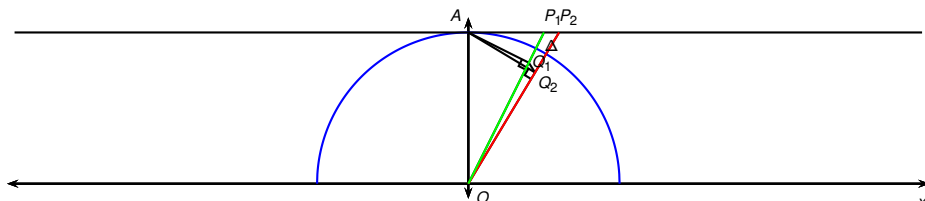
If we let $P_2 \rightarrow P_1$, i.e., $\Delta \rightarrow 0$, we get $\frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \rightarrow 1$. In strict mathematical language: for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that when $\Delta < \delta$ we have that $1 > \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} > 1 - \varepsilon$. Furthermore, the choice of δ can be made independent of the value of x_2 :



$$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$

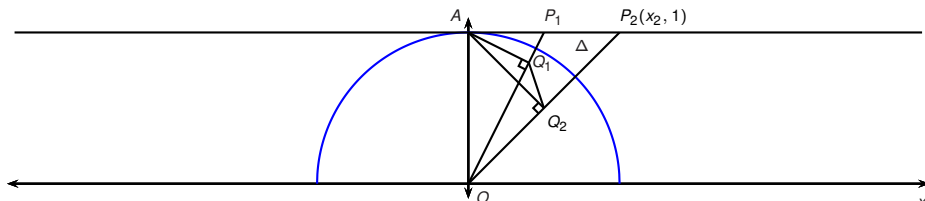
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$$\text{expression } \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} = \sqrt{\frac{1+x_2^2}{1+(x_2-\Delta)^2}}.$$

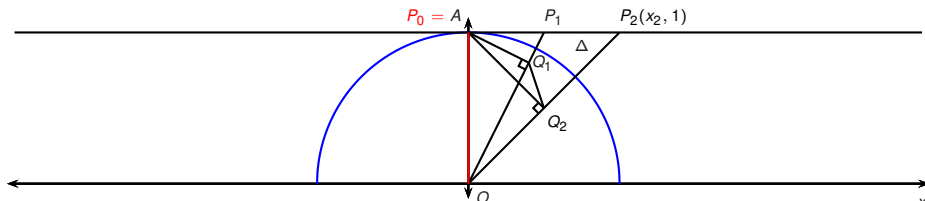


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If we let $P_2 \rightarrow P_1$, i.e., $\Delta \rightarrow 0$, we get $\frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \rightarrow 1$. In strict mathematical language: for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that when $\Delta < \delta$ we have that $1 > \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} > 1 - \varepsilon$. Furthermore, the choice of δ can be made independent of the value of x_2 : to prove that one analyzes the expression $\frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} = \sqrt{\frac{1+x_2^2}{1+(x_2-\Delta)^2}}$. We leave the tedious but otherwise easy details to the interested student.

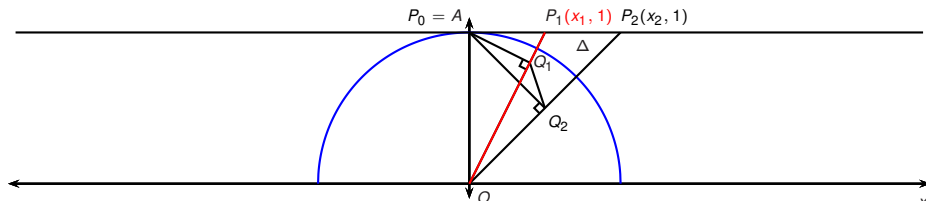

$$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon > 0, \text{ can choose } \Delta: 1 < \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon.$$

Fix a large number N and let Δ be such that $n = \frac{N}{\Delta}$ is integer.



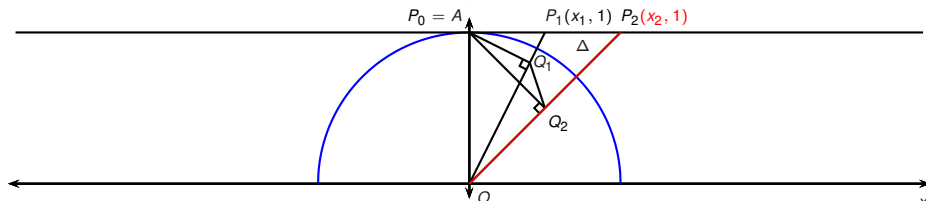
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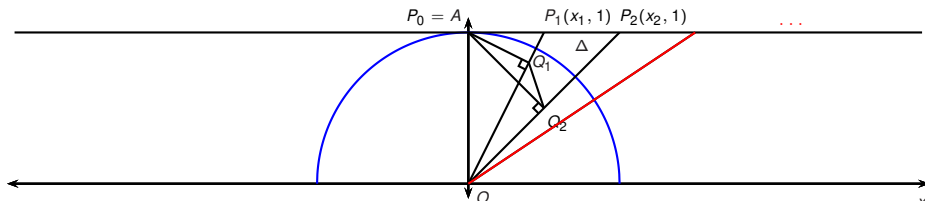
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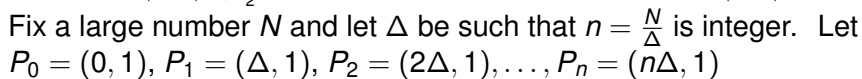


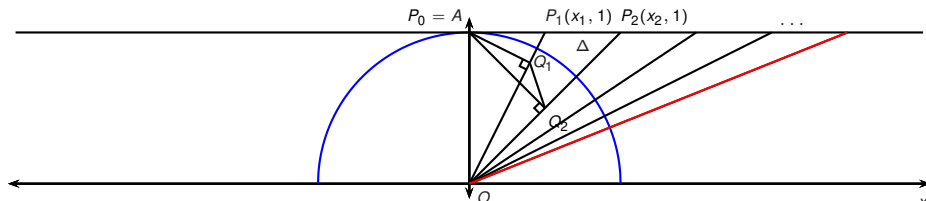
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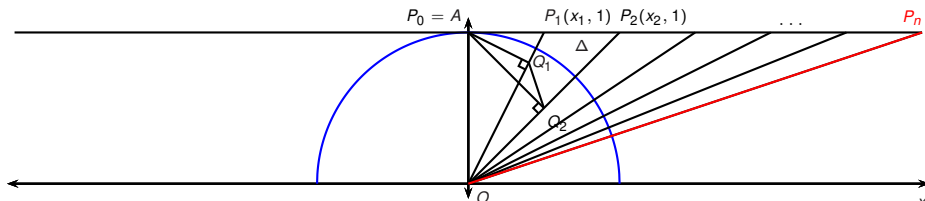
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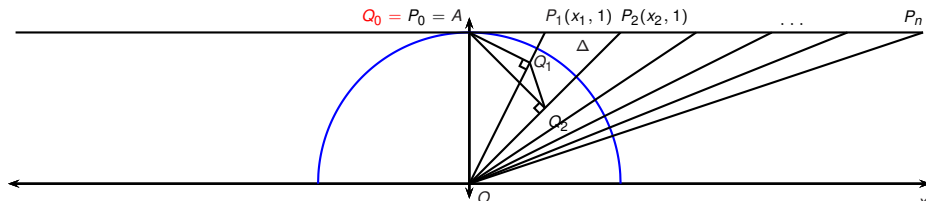
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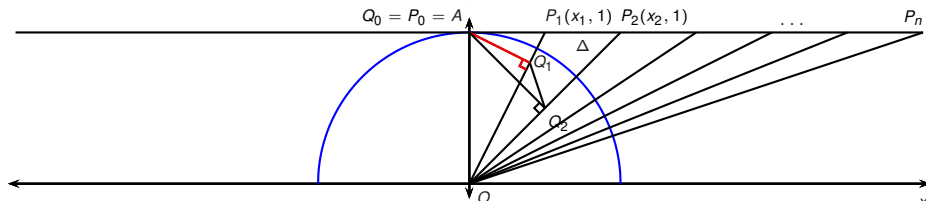
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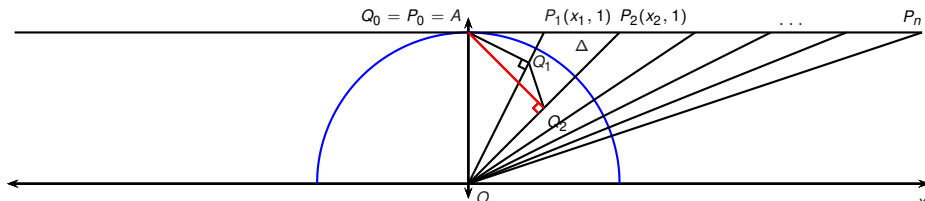
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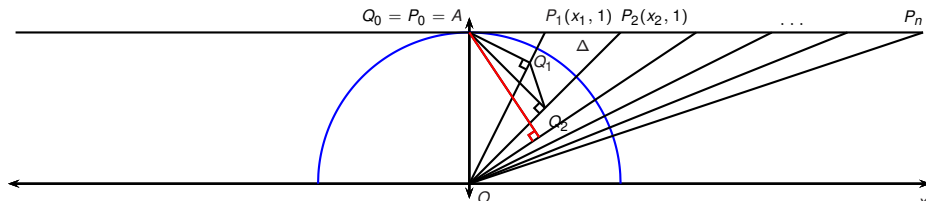
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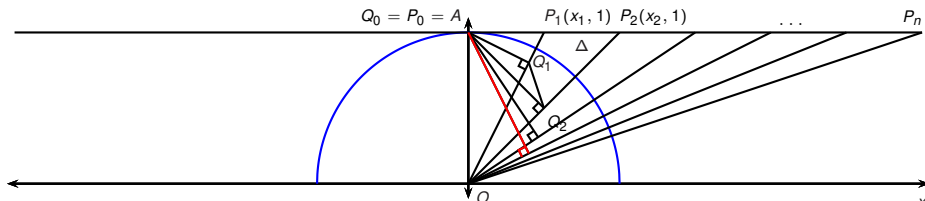
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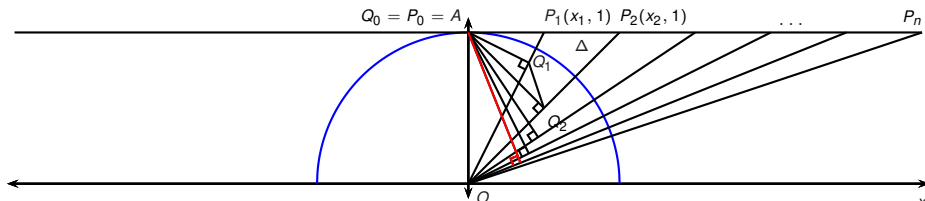
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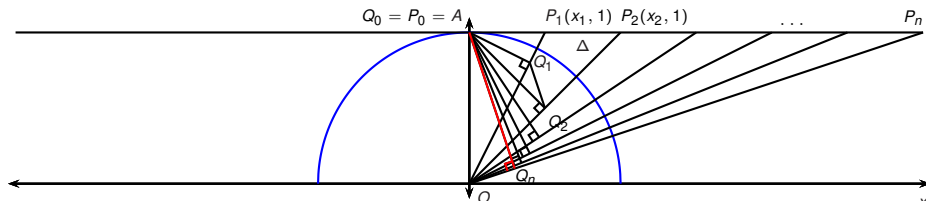
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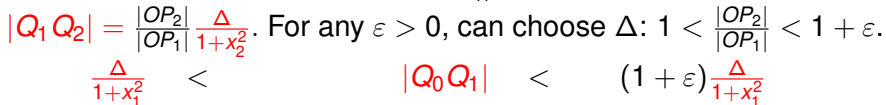
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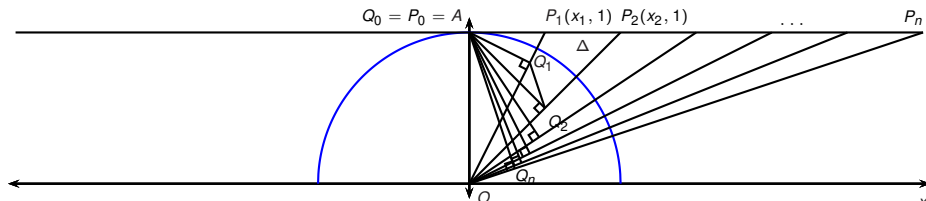
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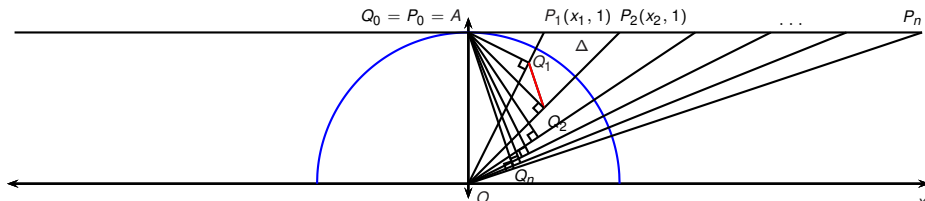




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$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} <$$

$$|Q_0 Q_1| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}$$



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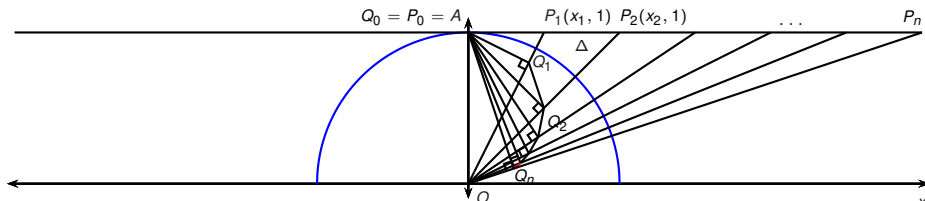
$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} < \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$$

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$$|Q_1 Q_2| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$$







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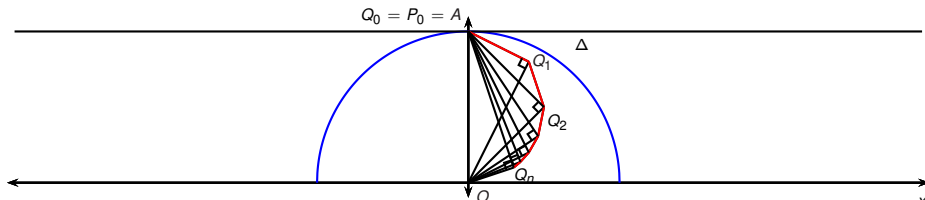
$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2} <$$

$$|Q_1 Q_2| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$$

\vdots

$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_n^2} <$$

$$|Q_{n-1} Q_n| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_n^2}$$



$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, can choose Δ : $1 < \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon$.

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$$|Q_0 Q_1| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}$$

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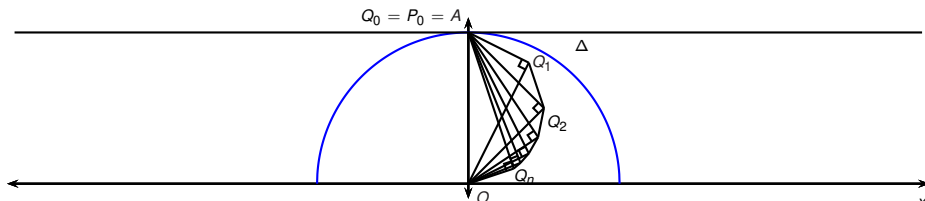
$$|Q_1 Q_2| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$$

\vdots

$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_n^2} <$$

$$|Q_{n-1} Q_n| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_n^2}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\Delta}{1+x_i^2} < \sum_{i=1}^n |Q_{i-1} Q_i| < (1 + \varepsilon) \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\Delta}{1+x_i^2}$$



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$$\downarrow$$

$$\int_0^N \frac{dx}{1+x^2} <$$

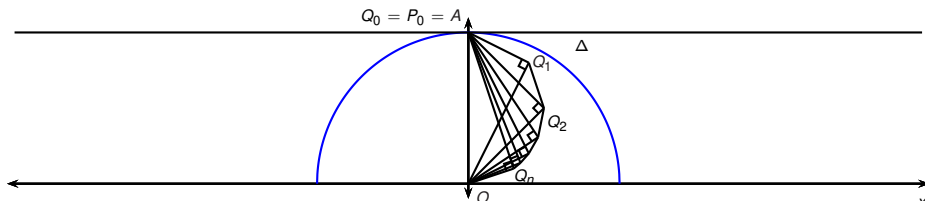
$$\downarrow$$

$$\lim_{\Delta} \sum |Q_{i-1} Q_i| <$$

$$\downarrow$$

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

Let $\Delta \rightarrow 0$.



$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, can choose Δ : $1 < \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon$.

$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} <$$

$$|Q_0 Q_1| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}$$

$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2} <$$

$$|Q_1 Q_2| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$$

\vdots

$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_n^2} <$$

$$|Q_{n-1} Q_n| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_n^2}$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\Delta}{1+x_i^2} <$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |Q_{i-1} Q_i| < (1 + \varepsilon) \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\Delta}{1+x_i^2}$$

\downarrow

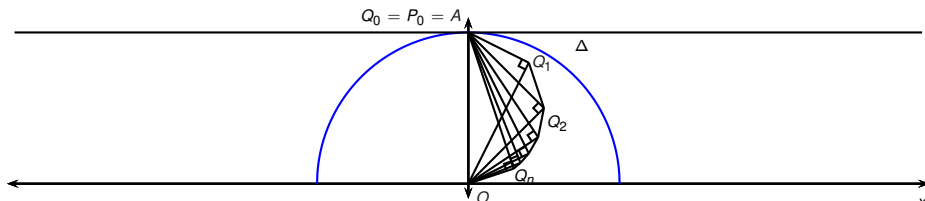
$$\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{1+x^2} <$$

$$\lim_{\Delta, N} \sum |Q_{i-1} Q_i| <$$

\downarrow

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

Let $\Delta \rightarrow 0$. Next take $N \rightarrow \infty$.



$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, can choose Δ : $1 < \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon$.

$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} <$$

$$|Q_0 Q_1| < (1 + \varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}$$

$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2} <$$

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\vdots

$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_n^2} <$$

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$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\Delta}{1+x_i^2} < \sum_{i=1}^n |Q_{i-1} Q_i| < (1 + \varepsilon) \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\Delta}{1+x_i^2}$$

$$\downarrow$$

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{1+x^2} <$$

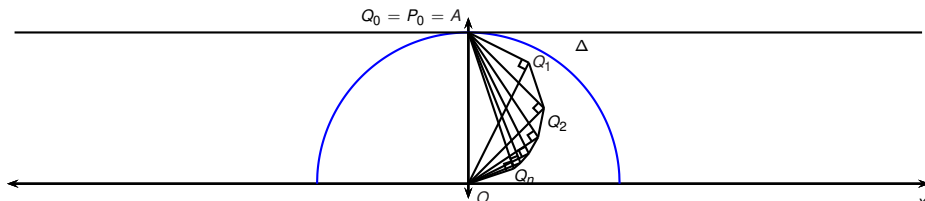
$$\downarrow$$

$$\lim_{\Delta, N} \sum |Q_{i-1} Q_i| <$$

$$\downarrow$$

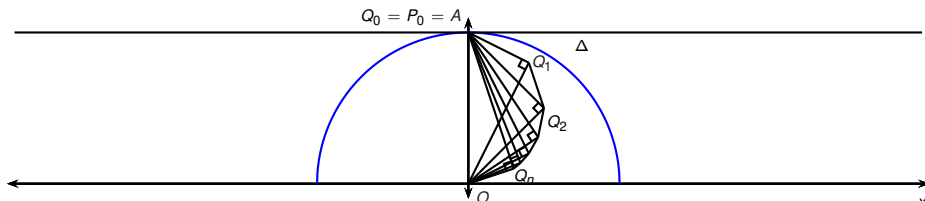
$$(1 + \varepsilon) \int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{1+x^2}$$

Let $\Delta \rightarrow 0$. Next take $N \rightarrow \infty$. Finally take $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$



$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, can choose Δ : $1 < \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon$.

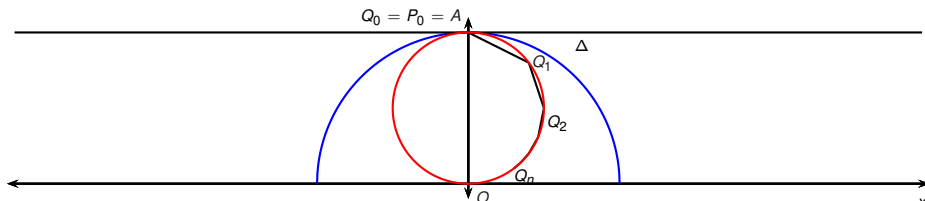
$$\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \lim_{\Delta, N, \varepsilon} \sum |Q_{i-1} Q_i|$$



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$$\int_0^\infty \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \lim_{\Delta, N, \varepsilon} \sum |Q_{i-1} Q_i|$$

The points Q_1, Q_2, \dots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

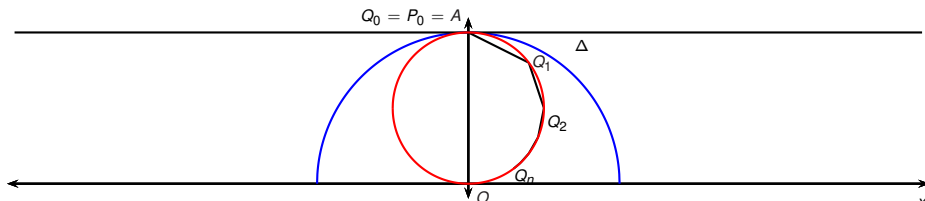


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The points Q_1, Q_2, \dots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1, Q_2, \dots lie on the circle C with radius $\frac{1}{2}$ and center $(0, \frac{1}{2})$.

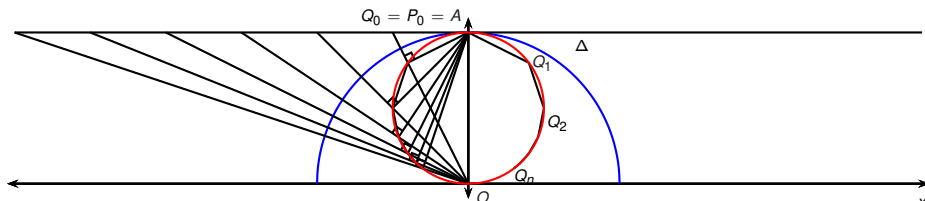


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The points Q_1, Q_2, \dots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1, Q_2, \dots lie on the circle C with radius $\frac{1}{2}$ and center $(0, \frac{1}{2})$. Therefore $\sum |Q_{i-1} Q_i|$ approximates half of the circumference of the circle C .



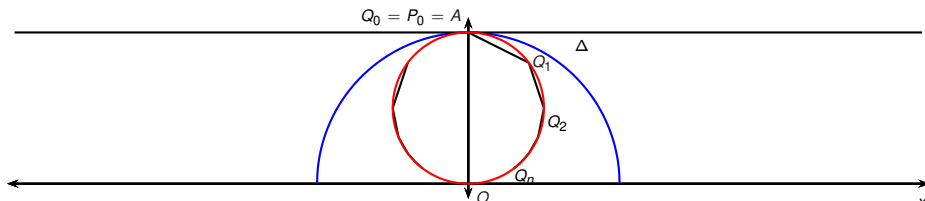
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The points Q_1, Q_2, \dots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

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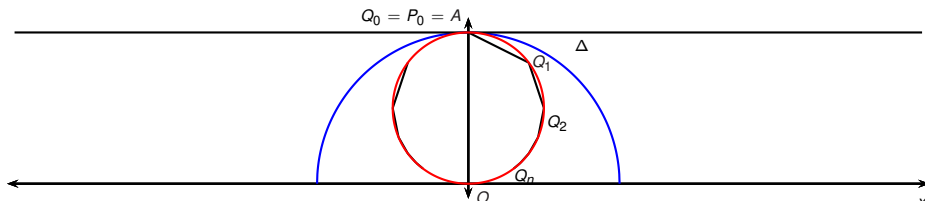
$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, can choose Δ : $1 < \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon$.

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The points Q_1, Q_2, \dots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1, Q_2, \dots lie on the circle C with radius $\frac{1}{2}$ and center $(0, \frac{1}{2})$. Therefore $\sum |Q_{i-1} Q_i|$

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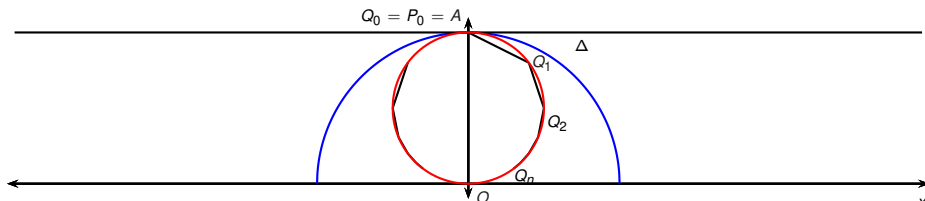
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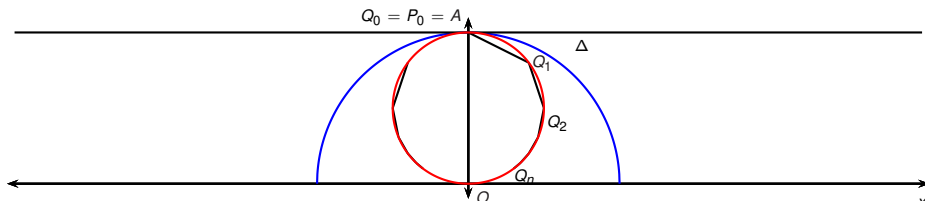
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