University of Toronto - MAT137Y1 - LEC0501

Calculus!

Improper integrals in one variable

(Updated for review purposes in MAT237 – February 27, 2020)

Jean-Baptiste Campesato

February 27th, 2019

1 Definitions of improper integrals

Definition 1.1. Let $f : [a, +\infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function which is integrable on [a, c] for any c > a, then we set

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

whenever it makes sense.

Definition 1.2. Let $f : (-\infty, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function which is integrable on [c, b] for any c < b, then we set

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

whenever it makes sense.

Definition 1.3. Let $f : [a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function which is integrable on any [a, c] for $c \in (a, b)$, then we set

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

whenever it makes sense.

Definition 1.4. Let $f : (a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function which is integrable on any [c, b] for $c \in (a, b)$, then we set

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

whenever it makes sense.

Definition 1.5. Let $f : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function which is integrable on each subinterval $[c, d] \subset (a, b)$ where $a \in \mathbb{R}$ or $a = -\infty$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$ or $b = +\infty$.

We say that $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is convergent if there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that the improper integrals $\int_a^c f(x)dx$ of $f : (a, c] \to \mathbb{R}$ and $\int_c^b f(x)dx$ of $f : [c, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ are both convergent and then we set

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

Remark 1.6. In the above definition, you need to study the two bounds **separately!** Note that if $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is convergent for some $c \in (a, b)$ then it is for any $c \in (a, b)$ and its value doesn't depend on the choice of c.

Example 1.7. The integral $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x dx$ is not convergent although $\lim_{c \to +\infty} \int_{-c}^{c} x dx = 0$.

The MCT for functions 2

The following result relies on the Dedekind-completeness of \mathbb{R} .

Theorem 2.1 (The MCT – Part 1: the bounded case).

Let $F : [a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function where either $b \in \mathbb{R}_{>a}$ or $b = +\infty$. If *F* is non-decreasing and bounded from above then $\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x)$ exists and moreover $\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = \sup_{x \to \infty} F(x)$. $x \rightarrow b$ [a,b)

Proof. The set $S = \{F(x), x \in [a, b)\}$ is not empty since it contains F(a), and, is bounded from above since *F* is.

Hence, by the "least upper bound principle", it admits a supremum $M = \sup(S)$, i.e. there exists $M \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \forall x \in [a,b), \ F(x) \leq M \\ \forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists x_0 \in [a,b), \ M - \varepsilon < F(x_0) \end{array} \right.$$

We want to show that $\lim_{x \to \pm\infty} F(x) = M$, i.e.

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \ \exists A \in \mathbb{R}, \ \forall x \in [a, +\infty), \ (x > A \implies |F(x) - M| < \varepsilon)$$

I am just doing the case $b = +\infty$, the other case is quite similar.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. We know there exists $x_0 \in [a, +\infty)$ such that $M - \varepsilon < F(x_0)$. Set $A = x_0$ and let $x \in [a, +\infty)$ satisfying x > A. Since *F* is non-decreasing, we know that $M - \epsilon < F(x_0) = F(A) \le F(x)$. Hence $M - F(x) < \epsilon$. But since *M* is an upper bound of *F*, we also have that $F(x) \leq M$. Therefore $0 \leq M - F(x) < \epsilon$ which implies $|F(x) - M| < \varepsilon$. We proved that $x > A \implies |F(x) - M| < \varepsilon$ as wanted.

Theorem 2.2 (The MCT – Part 2: the non bounded case). Let $F : [a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function where either $b \in \mathbb{R}_{>a}$ or $b = +\infty$. *If F is non-decreasing and not bounded from above then* $\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = +\infty$.

Proof. Again, I am just doing the case $b = +\infty$, the other case being quite similar. We want to prove that $\lim_{x \to b^-} F(x) = +\infty$, i.e.

$$\forall M \in \mathbb{R}, \exists x_0 \in \mathbb{R}, \forall x \in [a, b), x \ge x_0 \implies F(x) > M$$

Let $M \in \mathbb{R}$. Since *f* is not bounded from above, there exists $x_0 \in [a, b)$ such that $F(x_0) > M$. Let $x \in [a, b)$. Assume that $x \ge x_0$, then $M < F(x_0) \le F(x)$ since F is non-decreasing. We prove that $x \ge x_0 \implies F(x) > M$ as wanted.

Remark 2.3. In one statement, we proved that if $F : [a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ is a non-decreasing function where either $b \in \mathbb{R}_{>a}$ or $b = +\infty$, then either

[*a*,*b*)

• *F* is bounded from above and then $\lim_{x \to b^-} F(x) = \sup_{\substack{[a,b]}} F$ (particularly this limit exists), or

• *F* is not bounded from above and then $\lim_{x \to \infty} F(x) = +\infty$.

3 The BCT and the LCT

Theorem 3.1 (The BCT). Let $f, g : [a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be two functions (either $b \in \mathbb{R}_{>a}$ or $b = +\infty$) satisfying

- (*i*) *f* and *g* are integrable on any subinterval $[a, c] \subset [a, b)$, and, (*ii*) $\forall x \in [a, b), 0 \le f(x) \le g(x)$.
- The following statements hold under the above assumptions:

- 1. If $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is divergent then $\int_a^b g(x)dx$ is divergent. 2. If $\int_a^b g(x)dx$ is convergent then $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is convergent.

Proof.

For $x \in [a, b)$, set $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$ (which is well-defined since f is integrable on [a, x]), then F is non-decreasing: if $x_1 < x_2$ then $F(x_2) - F(x_1) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(t) dt \ge 0$.

Hence, according to the MCT, either F is bounded from above and then $\int_{x \to b^-}^{b} F(x) dt = \lim_{x \to b^-} F(x)$

exists, or it is not bounded from above and then $\lim_{x \to b^-} F(x) = +\infty$ and $\int_a^b f(t)dt$ is divergent. The same result holds for $G = \int_a^x g(t)dt$.

First case: assume that $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is divergent. Since $f(x) \le g(x)$, we have $\int_a^x f(t)dt \le \int_a^x g(t)dt$. Since the limit of the LHS of the inequality is $+\infty$ (by the above remark), then the limit of the RHS is also $+\infty$.

Second case: assume that $\int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx$ is convergent. Therefore *G* is bounded from above by some $M \in \mathbb{R}$. Hence, for any $x \in [a, b)$, $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt \le \int_a^x g(t)dt = G(x) \le M$. Therefore F(x) is non-decreasing and admits an upper bound. We deduce from the MCT that $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{x \to b^{-}} F(x)$ is convergent.

Exercise 3.2. Let $f, g : [a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be two functions (either $b \in \mathbb{R}_{>a}$ or $b = +\infty$) satisfying

- (*i*) *f* and *g* are integrable on any subinterval $[a, c] \subset [a, b)$, and,

(*ii*) $\exists \alpha, \beta > 0, \forall x \in [a, b), 0 \le \alpha f(x) \le g(x) \le \beta f(x).$ Prove that $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ and $\int_a^b g(x) dx$ are either both convergent or both divergent.

Theorem 3.3 (The LCT). Let $f, g : [a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be two functions (either $b \in \mathbb{R}_{>a}$ or $b = +\infty$) satisfying (*i*) f and g are integrable on any subinterval $[a, c] \subset [a, b)$ (for instance they are continuous),

- (*ii*) $\forall x \in [a, b), f(x) \ge 0$,
- (*iii*) $\forall x \in [a, b), g(x) > 0, and,$

(iv) $\lim_{x \to b^{-}} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lambda > 0$ exists and is positive. Then $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$ and $\int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx$ are either both convergent or both divergent.

Proof. I'm explaining the case $b = +\infty$, the other case is exactly the same. By definition of the limit (applied to $\varepsilon = \frac{\lambda}{2} > 0$), there exists a $M \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\forall x \in [a, b)$,

$$x > M \implies \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \lambda \right| < \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

We may rewrite the conclusion as

$$\lambda - \frac{\lambda}{2} < \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} < \lambda + \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

which implies that

$$0 < \frac{\lambda}{2}g(x) < f(x) < \frac{3\lambda}{2}g(x)$$

The end of the proof now derives from the above exercise.

Remark 3.4. The above results hold for improper integrals of functions of the form $f : (a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ (i.e. when the integral is improper at the lower bound).

Indeed, if $0 \le f(x) \le g(x)$ on (a, b] then $F(x) = \int_x^b f(t)dt$ and $G(x) = \int_x^b g(t)dt$ are non-increasing. Therefore either *F* is bounded from above and $\lim_{x \to a^+} F(x)$ exists or $\lim_{x \to a^+} F(x) = +\infty$ (and the same result holds for *G*).

Hence the above proofs work with slight changes.

Remark 3.5. Notice that $\int_a^b f(x)dx$ is convergent if and only if $\int_a^b -f(x)dx$ is. Hence, when you want to compare two functions that are both negative, you can multiply them by -1 and then apply the above results.

4 Absolute convergence

Definition 4.1. Let $f : I \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function defined on I = (a, b] (*a* may be $-\infty$) or [a, b) (*b* may be $+\infty$).

We say that $\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$ is *absolutely convergent* if $\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)|dx$ is convergent.

The absolute convergence implies the convergence.

Theorem 4.2. If
$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$
 is absolutely convergent then $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$ is convergent.

Proof. We may assume that I = [a, b), the other cases being similar. Notice that $\forall x \in I$, $0 \le f(x) + |f(x)| \le 2|f(x)|$. By assumption, $\int_{a}^{b} |f(x)|dx$ is convergent, hence by the BCT $\int_{a}^{b} (f(x) + |f(x)|) dx$ is convergent. For $c \in [a, b)$, we have $\int_{0}^{c} f(x)dx = \int_{0}^{c} (f(x) + |f(x)|)dx - \int_{a}^{c} |f(x)|dx$. Then $\lim_{c \to b^{-}} \int_{0}^{c} f(x)dx$ exists since $\lim_{c \to b^{-}} \int_{0}^{c} (f(x) + |f(x)|)dx$ and $\lim_{c \to b^{-}} \int_{0}^{c} |f(x)|dx$ exist.

Remark 4.3. The converse is false!!! See the following example!

Example 4.4. Define $f : [1, +\infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ by $f(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$ then $\int_{1}^{+\infty} f(x)dx$ is convergent but $\int_{1}^{+\infty} |f(x)|dx$ is divergent. Indeed $\int_{1}^{c} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} dx = \left[-\frac{\cos(x)}{x}\right]_{1}^{c} + \int_{1}^{c} \frac{\cos(x)}{x^{2}} dx = \cos(1) - \frac{\cos(c)}{c} + \int_{1}^{c} \frac{\cos(x)}{x^{2}} dx$. The last integral is convergent since it is absolutely convergent (use that $0 \le \left|\frac{\cos(x)}{x^{2}}\right| \le \frac{1}{x^{2}}$) and $\lim_{c \to +\infty} \frac{\cos(c)}{c} = 0$, hence $\int_{1}^{+\infty} f(x)dx$ is convergent.

Let's prove that *f* is not absolutely convergent:

$$\int_{\pi}^{(n+1)\pi} \left| \frac{\sin(x)}{x} \right| dx = \sum_{k=1}^{n} \int_{k\pi}^{(k+1)\pi} \left| \frac{\sin(x)}{x} \right| dx$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} \int_{0}^{\pi} \left| \frac{\sin(s+k\pi)}{s+k\pi} \right| ds$$
$$\ge \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{(k+1)\pi} \int_{0}^{\pi} \sin(s) ds$$
$$= \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{1}{(k+1)} \xrightarrow[n \to +\infty]{} +\infty$$

Some counter-examples 5

Example 5.1. Let $f : [a, +\infty) \to \mathbb{R}$. Then $\int_{x\to+\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ is convergent does **NOT** imply that $\lim_{x\to+\infty} f(x)$ exists, even if *f* is non-negative. Indeed, let *f* be the function whose graph joins $\left(n - \frac{1}{n^3}, 0\right)$, (n, n) and $\left(n + \frac{1}{n^3}, 0\right)$ by segment lines for $n \in \mathbb{N}_{>2}$ (and 0 otherwise). Sketch the graph! It helps computing the partial integrals: we sum areas of triangles. Define $F(x) = \int_0^x f(t)dt$ then *F* is obviously non-decreasing and

$$F(x) \le F\left(n + \frac{1}{n^3}\right) = \sum_{k=2}^n \frac{1}{2}k\frac{2}{k^3} \le \sum_{k=1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$$

The last series is convergent. Hence F is non-decreasing and bounded from above. Therefore Fadmits a limit by the MCT and $\int_{a}^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ is convergent. Nevertheless $\lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x)$ doesn't exist.

However, we have the following result:

Exercise 5.2. If $\lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) = \ell$ exists and $\int_{\alpha}^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ is convergent then $\ell = 0$.

Example 5.3. Let $f : [a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Then $\int_{a}^{+\infty} f(x)dx$ is divergent does **NOT** imply that $\lim_{x \to b^{-}} f(x) = +\infty$, even if *f* is non-negative.

Indeed, let *f* the function defined on (0, 1] whose graph joins $\left(\frac{1}{2^p} - \frac{1}{p2^p}, 0\right), \left(\frac{1}{2^p}, 2^p\right)$ and $\left(\frac{1}{2^p} + \frac{1}{p2^p}, 0\right)$ by segment lines for $p \in \mathbb{N}_{>3}$.

Sketch the graph! It helps computing the partial integrals: we sum areas of triangles.

The area of one triangle is $\frac{1}{2}2\frac{1}{p^{2p}}2^p = \frac{1}{p}$ hence the integral $\int_0^1 f(x)dx$ is divergent since $\sum_{n>1} \frac{1}{p}$ is divergent.

But $\lim_{x\to 0^+} f(x) \neq +\infty$ since $f\left(\frac{1}{2^p} - \frac{1}{p^{2^p}}\right) = 0$.

6 Exercises

Exercise 6.1 (Riemann's integrals).

- 1. Prove that $\int_{1}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{x^{\alpha}} dx$ is convergent if and only if $\alpha > 1$.
- 2. Prove that $\int_{-0}^{1} \frac{1}{x^{\alpha}} dx$ is convergent if and only if $\alpha < 1$.

Exercise 6.2. Let $f : [a, +\infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a non-negative function which is integrable on any [a, c] for c > a.

- 1. Prove that if there exists $\alpha > 1$ such that $x^{\alpha} f(x) \xrightarrow[x \to +\infty]{} 0$ then $\int_{a}^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ is convergent.
- 2. Prove that if there exists $\alpha \leq 1$ such that $x^{\alpha} f(x) \xrightarrow[x \to +\infty]{} +\infty$ then $\int_{a}^{+\infty} f(x) dx$ is divergent.

Exercise 6.3 (Bertrand's integral).

Prove that
$$\int_{2}^{+\infty} \frac{1}{x^{\alpha} (\ln x)^{\beta}} dx \text{ is convergent if and only if } \begin{cases} \alpha > 1 \\ \text{or} \\ \alpha = 1 \text{ and } \beta > 1 \end{cases}$$