MA 138 - Calculus 2 with Life Science Applications Improper Integrals (Section 7.4)

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Friday, February 3, 2017

Lecture 10

Convergence Test

Test for Convergence We assume that $f(x) \ge 0$ for $x \ge a$. To show that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$ is convergent it is enough to find a function g(x) such that

 $g(x) \ge f(x)$ for all $x \ge a$;

In many cases, it is difficult (if not impossible) to evaluate an integral exactly. For example, it takes some work to show that

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

A Comparison Result for Improper Integrals

In dealing with improper integrals, it frequently suffices to know whether

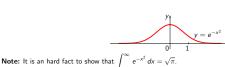
the integral converges. Instead of computing the value of the improper integral exactly, we can then resort to simpler integrals that either dominate or are dominated by

the improper integral of interest. We will explain this idea graphically.

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Example 1 (Example #9, Section 7.4, p. 361)

Show that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$ converges.



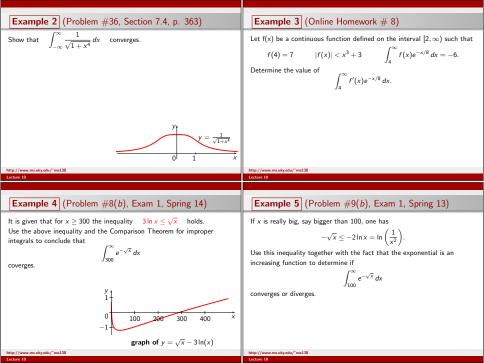
 $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx$ is convergent. It is clear from the graph that $0 \le \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) \, dx \le \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) \, dx.$

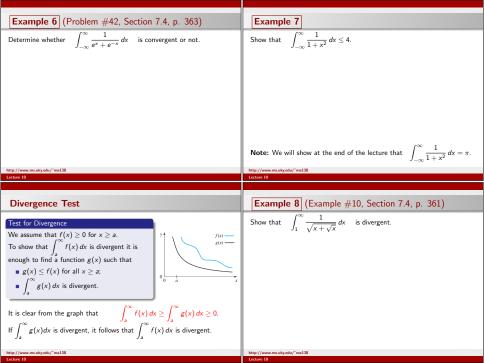
If $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx < \infty$, it follows that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$ is convergent,

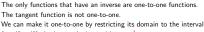
since $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx$ must take on a value between 0 and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) dx$.

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The Inverse Tangent Function $tan^{-1}(x)$

 $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$. Its inverse is denoted by tan^{-1} or arctan.

Inverse Tangent Function The inverse tangent function, tan-1, has ■ domain ℝ = range $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$. $x = \tan y$ and $-\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2}$

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Integral of $\frac{1}{1+x^2}$ (Example 4, Section 7.4, p. 356)

From the previous discussion we have $\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \tan^{-1}(x) + C.$

$$\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \tan^{-1}(x) + C.$$
Moreover
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

$$= 2 \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{0}^{b} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

$$= 2 \lim_{b \to \infty} [\tan^{-1}(x)]_{0}^{b}$$

 $= 2 \lim_{b \to \infty} [\tan^{-1}(b) - \tan^{-1}(0)]$ $= 2(\pi/2 - 0) = \pi$

Notice that $tan^{-1}(x) = y$ is equivalent to x = tan(y). If we differentiate with respect to x the latter equation and apply the chain rule, we obtain $\frac{d}{dx}(x) = 1 = \frac{d}{dx}(\tan(y)) = \frac{d}{dx}(\tan(y)) \cdot \frac{dy}{dy} = \sec^2(y) \cdot \frac{dy}{dy}.$

We want to compute $\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}(x)) = \frac{dy}{dx}$.

Derivative of $tan^{-1}(x)$ (Example 4, Section 4.7, p. 187)

Thus

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}(x)) = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec^2(y)} = \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2(y)}.$$
 We used the trigonometric identity $\sec^2(y) = 1 + \tan^2(y)$ to get the denominator in the rightmost term. Since $x = \tan(y)$, it follows that

 $\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}(x)) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$

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 $x^2 = \tan^2(v)$, and, hence,

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