

§1 ∞/∞ indeterminacy:

L'Hôpital Rule for $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$: Pick f & g continuous & differentiable functions around $x=a$

with $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \neq a$ near a . If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty$, then

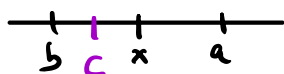
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \quad \text{provided the (RHS) limit exists}$$

This rule applied to $a \in \mathbb{R}$ & also if $a = \pm\infty$.

Why? First we assume $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Say $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$

Assume $x < a$ & pick $b < x$

By the GMVT (Lecture 92), we can find c in (b, x) with



$$\frac{f(x) - f(b)}{g(x) - g(b)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$$

Note; as $b \rightarrow a$ so do x & c

Write $\frac{f(x) - f(b)}{g(x) - g(b)} = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \left(\frac{1 - \frac{f(b)}{f(x)}}{1 - \frac{g(b)}{g(x)}} \right)$

• If b is fixed near a , then $\frac{f(b)}{f(x)} \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(b)}{\infty} = 0$ & $\frac{g(b)}{g(x)} \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} \frac{g(b)}{\infty} = 0$

This implies $\square \xrightarrow{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1-0}{1-0} = 1$.

• If b & x are close enough to a , then $\frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$ can be made as close to L as we want.

Conclusion $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \left(\frac{1 - \frac{f(b)}{f(x)}}{1 - \frac{g(b)}{g(x)}} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f(x) - f(b)}{g(x) - g(b)}$
 $= \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = L$

• Same idea works for the other side limit & also for $a = \pm\infty$.

EXAMPLES: ① $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x^2} \stackrel{\substack{\infty \\ \infty}}{\text{L'Hôp.}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{2x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2x^2} = 0$

In general, for $p > 0$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x^p} \stackrel{\substack{\infty \\ \infty}}{\text{L'Hôp.}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{p x^{p-1}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{p x^p} = 0$

② $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{e^x} \stackrel{\substack{\infty \\ \infty}}{\text{L'Hôp.}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n x^{n-1}}{e^x} = \dots = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n! x}{e^x} \stackrel{\substack{\infty \\ \infty}}{\text{L'Hôp.}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{e^x} = 0$
 $n > 0$

③ $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{-\ln x}{e^{1/x}} \stackrel{\substack{0 \\ \infty}}{\text{L'Hôp.}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{-\frac{1}{x}}{e^{1/x} \left(\frac{-1}{x^2}\right)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{x}{e^{1/x}} = 0$

④ $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 - 2}{x + 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{1} = \infty$

§2 Improper integrals

GOAL: Compute $\int_a^b f(t) dt$ when the function has issues at a or b, i.e.:

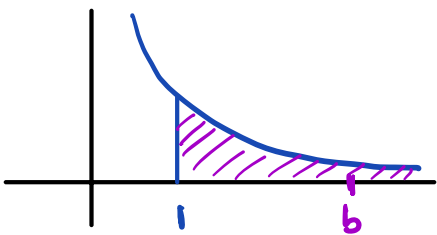
(1) $a = -\infty$ and/or $b = +\infty$

(2) $\lim_{t \rightarrow a^+} f(t) = -\infty$ and/or $\lim_{t \rightarrow b^-} f(t) = +\infty$, meaning

f has vertical asymptotes at $x = a$ and/or $x = b$.

§2.1 Type (1):

EXAMPLES: ① Calculate the area under the curve $y = \frac{1}{x}$ with $x \geq 1$



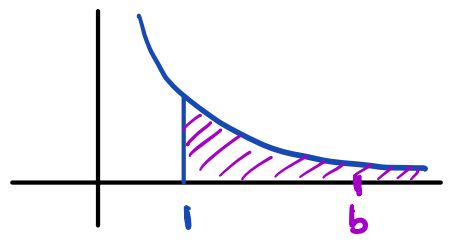
This means $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{1}{x} dx$

But $\int_1^b \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| \Big|_1^b = \ln b - \ln 1 = \ln b$

So Area = $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \ln b = \infty$

We write the area as $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x}$ & say this improper integral diverges.

② Calculate the area under the curve $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$ with $x \geq 1$



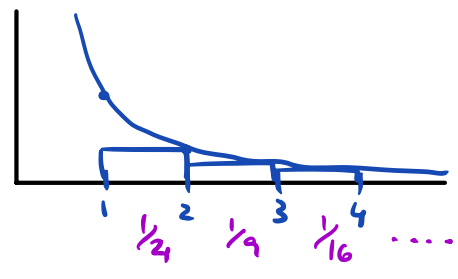
Once again, we need to compute $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{dx}{x^2}$

But $\int_1^b \frac{dx}{x^2} = \left. -\frac{1}{x} \right|_1^b = -\frac{1}{b} - (-1) = 1 - \frac{1}{b}$

So Area = $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} 1 - \frac{1}{b} = 1$

So Area = $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^2} = 1$ & we say this improper integral converges

Note: Using Riemann Sums (Lower sum)



Areas = $\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{9}, \frac{1}{16}, \dots$

In general: $\frac{1}{N^2} \text{ to } \frac{1}{(N+1)^2}$

Area = $\frac{1}{(N+1)^2}$

This says Area under the curve \geq Sum of the areas of the rectangles

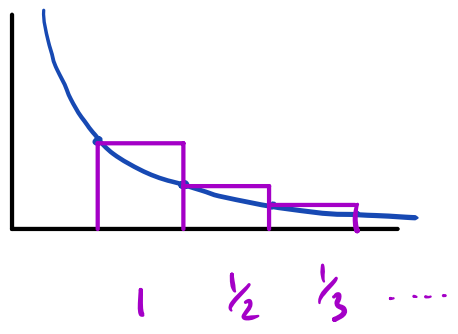
$$\geq \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{16} + \dots$$

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=2}^N \frac{1}{n^2} = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Ch 13 (series)

We will use improper integrals to study convergence of series. (Ch. 13)

In example ① working with Upper Riemann Sums, we see



Area $\leq 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$

= ∞

so the series diverges.

③ In general: area under the curve $y = \frac{1}{x^p}$ $p \geq 0$ $p \neq 1$. L43 [9]

$$\int_1^b \frac{dx}{x^p} = \int_1^b x^{-p} dx = \frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \Big|_1^b = \frac{1}{1-p} (b^{1-p} - 1)$$

$$\text{Area} = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^p} = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^b \frac{dx}{x^p} = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1-p} (b^{1-p} - 1) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } p < 1 \\ \frac{-1}{1-p} = \frac{1}{p-1} & p > 1 \end{cases}$$

Why? $b^{1-p} \xrightarrow{b \rightarrow \infty} \infty$ if $p < 1$ but $b^{1-p} = \frac{1}{b^{p-1}} \xrightarrow{b \rightarrow \infty} 0$ if $p > 1$.

Definition $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$

Similarly: $\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$

Applications (1) Test convergence/divergence of series (Chapter 13)

(2) Laplace Transform: $L_f(p) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-px} f(x) dx$ of a function f
(used to solve differential eqn)

(3) GAMMA function $\Gamma(p) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx$
 $p \neq 0$

But $\int_0^b e^{-x} x^{p-1} dx = e^{-x} \frac{x^p}{p} \Big|_0^b - \int_0^b -e^{-x} \frac{x^p}{p} dx = e^{-b} \frac{b^p}{p} - 0 + \frac{1}{p} \int_0^b e^{-x} x^p dx$
 u dv $v = \frac{x^p}{p}$ parts

Taking limit as $b \rightarrow \infty$ we get $\Gamma(p) = 0 - 0 + \frac{1}{p} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} x^p dx = \frac{1}{p} \Gamma(p+1)$

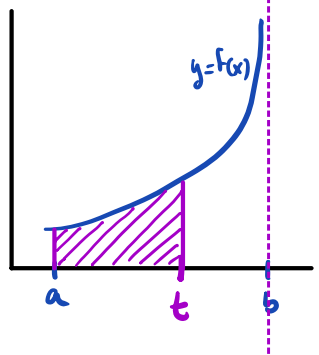
Conclusion: $\Gamma(p+1) = p \Gamma(p)$ for any $p \neq 0$

This function interpolates $(p-1)!$ for $p \geq 1$. because $\Gamma(1) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = -e^{-x} \Big|_0^{\infty} = -(0-1) = 1 = 0!$

Thus, $\Gamma(x)$ is a continuous version of the factorial function!

§2.2 Type (II):

Fix $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ & assume f has a vertical asymptote at $x=b$.



Area under the curve = $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ (improper integral)
 $= \lim_{t \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^t f(x) dx$

Note: This limit may or may not exist!

Def • If the limit exists, we say the improper integral converges.
 • _____ does not exist or it is $\pm\infty$, we say the integral diverges.

EXAMPLES: ① $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x}}$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}} = +\infty$ & $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}} \geq 0$
 \Rightarrow asymptote at $x=1$ $f: (0,1)$

$$\int_0^t \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x}} = -2\sqrt{1-x} \Big|_0^t = -2(\sqrt{1-t} - \sqrt{1}) = 2 - 2\sqrt{1-t}$$

Then $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^t \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x}} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} (2 - 2\sqrt{1-t}) = 2 - 2\sqrt{1-1} = \boxed{2}$
 it converges!

② $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1-x}$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{1-x} = +\infty$ & $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x} \geq 0$ on $(0,1)$

$$\int_0^t \frac{dx}{1-x} = -\ln|1-x| \Big|_0^t = -(\ln|1-t| - \ln|1-0|) = -(\ln(1-t) - 0)$$

Then $\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1-x} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^t \frac{dx}{1-x} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 1^-} -\ln(1-t) = -(-\infty) = \boxed{\infty}$
 it diverges!

In general: we use the same ideas to define improper integrals when $x=a$ is a vertical asymptote:

Def: $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{t \rightarrow a^+} \int_t^b f(x) dx$ if $x=a$ is a vertical asymptote, but $x=b$ is not.

Q: What if we have 2 vertical asymptotes of if $a = -\infty$ & $b = +\infty$.

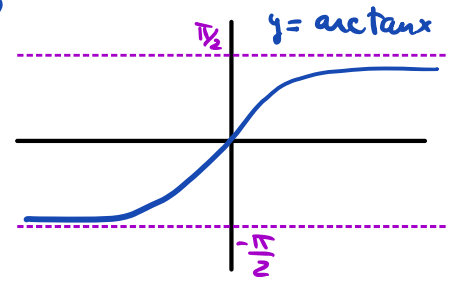
A: Use an intermediate point & additivity of integrals.

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx \quad \text{for ANY } a < c < b$$

! The (RHS) value should not depend on c if the improper integral converges. This is a subtle point since both terms on (RHS) are improper integrals.

Typical choice: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^{\infty} f(x) dx \quad c=0$

EXAMPLE: $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \geq 0$.



$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^c f(x) dx + \int_c^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \arctan x \Big|_a^b = \arctan b - \arctan(a)$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^c f(x) dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^c \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} (\arctan c - \arctan(a))$$

$$= \arctan c - (-\frac{\pi}{2}) = \arctan c + \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\int_c^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_c^b \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (\arctan b - \arctan c) = \frac{\pi}{2} - \arctan c$$

So (RHS) = $(\arctan c + \frac{\pi}{2}) + (\frac{\pi}{2} - \arctan c) = \boxed{\pi}$ (independent of c)