Math 141 Lecture 9

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Outline

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

- The definition of $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, where f is defined on [a,b], has two requirements:
 - (a, b) is a finite interval.
 - \bullet f has no infinite discontinuities in [a, b].

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 - We allow infinite intervals, such as $(a, \infty), (-\infty, b)$, and $(-\infty, \infty)$.
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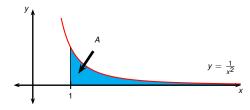
Definition (Improper Integral)

The integral

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

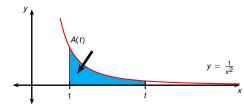
is called improper if one or more of the endpoints a and b is infinite, or if f has an infinite discontinuity on [a, b].

• Consider the region A that lies under $y = 1/x^2$, above the x-axis, and to the right of x = 1.



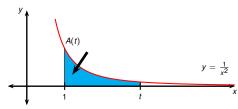
- Consider the region A that lies under $y = 1/x^2$, above the x-axis, and to the right of x = 1.
- To find its area, approximate with A(t), the area of the region under $1/x^2$, above the x-axis, right of x = 1, and left of x = t.

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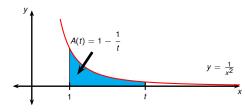
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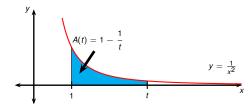
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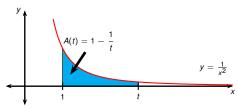
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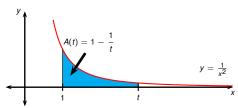
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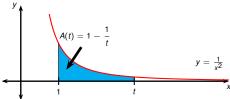
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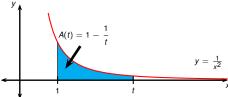
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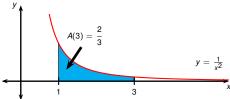
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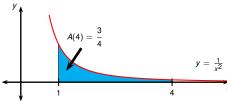
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- Notice A(t) < 1 no matter how big t is.
- Also notice $\lim_{t\to\infty} A(t) = \lim_{t\to\infty} \left(1 \frac{1}{t}\right) = 1$.
- We say that the area A is equal to 1 and write $\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_{1}^{t} \frac{1}{x^2} dx = 1.$

Definition (Improper Integral of Type I)

• If $\int_a^t f(x) dx$ exists for every $t \ge a$, then

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

if the limit exists.

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

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

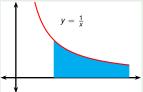
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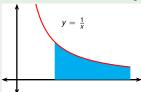
 $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$ and $\int_{-\infty}^b f(x) dx$ are called convergent if the corresponding limit exists and divergent if it doesn't exist.

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

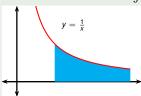
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{a} f(x) dx + \int_{a}^{\infty} f(x) dx.$$

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

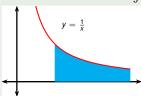




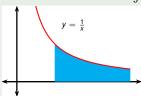
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$$= \lim_{t \to \infty} [\ln x]_{1}^{t}$$



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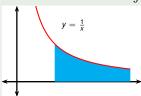


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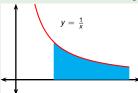
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$$= \lim_{t \to \infty} [\ln x]_{1}^{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to \infty} (\ln t - \ln 1)$$

$$= \lim_{t \to \infty} \ln t = \infty$$

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



Infinite area

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_{1}^{t} \frac{1}{x} dx$$

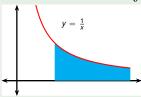
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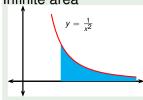
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Therefore the improper integral is divergent.

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



Infinite area



Finite area

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_{1}^{t} \frac{1}{x} dx$$

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

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Evaluate the two integrals separately:

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

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$$= \lim_{t \to -\infty} (\arctan 0 - \arctan t)$$

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_0^t \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx$$

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$$= 0 - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

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$$= \lim_{t \to -\infty} \left(\arctan 0 - \arctan t \right) = \lim_{t \to -\infty} \left(0 - \arctan t \right)$$

$$= 0 - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_{0}^{t} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \left[\arctan x \right]_{0}^{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to \infty} \left(\arctan t - \arctan 0 \right) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \arctan t = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

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

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

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$$\int_{0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_{0}^{t} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \left[\arctan x\right]_{0}^{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to \infty} \left(\arctan t - \arctan 0\right) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \arctan t = \frac{\pi}{2}$$
Therefore
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2} = \pi.$$

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

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$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{p}} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_{1}^{t} \frac{1}{x^{p}} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \left[\frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \right]_{1}^{t}$$

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

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- Assume $p \neq 1$.

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- If p > 1, then p 1 > 0, so as $t \to \infty$, $t^{p-1} \to \infty$ and $1/t^{p-1} \to 0$.
- 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 $\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} = t^{1-p} \to \infty$ as $t \to \infty$.

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

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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 $\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} = t^{1-p} \to \infty$ as $t \to \infty$.
- Therefore $\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{xp} dx$ is divergent if p < 1.

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- Assume $p \neq 1$.

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- If p > 1, then p 1 > 0, so as $t \to \infty$, $t^{p-1} \to \infty$ and $1/t^{p-1} \to 0$.
- 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 $\frac{1}{t^{p-1}} = t^{1-p} \to \infty$ as $t \to \infty$.
- 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 $p \le 1$.

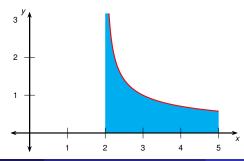
Type II: Discontinuous Integrands

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

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

exists.



Definition (Improper Integral of Type II)

• If f is continuous on [a, b) and discontinuous at b, then

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

if the limit exists.

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

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

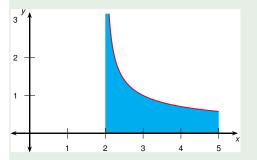
if the limit exists.

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

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

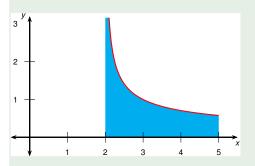
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx$$

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



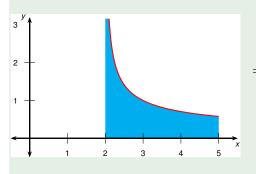
Find $\int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$.

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



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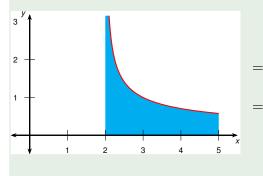


$$\int_{2}^{5} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 2^{+}} \int_{t}^{5} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$$

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

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



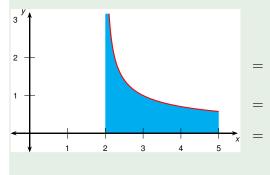
$$\int_{2}^{5} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 2^{+}} \int_{t}^{5} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 2^{+}} \left[2\sqrt{x-2} \right]_{t}^{5}$$

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

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



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

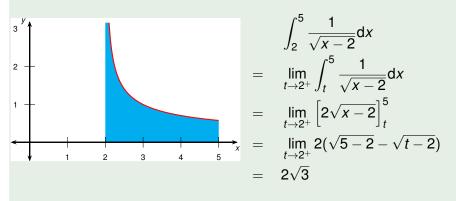
$$= \lim_{t \to 2^{+}} \int_{t}^{5} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 2^{+}} \left[2\sqrt{x-2} \right]_{t}^{5}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 2^{+}} 2(\sqrt{5-2} - \sqrt{t-2})$$

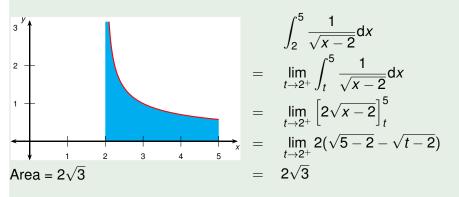
Find $\int_2^5 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x-2}} dx$.

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$$\int_0^3 \frac{1}{x-1} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x-1} dx + \int_1^3 \frac{1}{x-1} dx$$

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

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$$\int_0^3 \frac{1}{x-1} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x-1} dx + \int_1^3 \frac{1}{x-1} dx$$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x-1} = \lim_{t \to 1^-} \int_0^t \frac{dx}{x-1}$$

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

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$$\int_0^3 \frac{1}{x-1} dx = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x-1} dx + \int_1^3 \frac{1}{x-1} dx$$

$$\int_0^1 \frac{dx}{x-1} = \lim_{t \to 1^-} \int_0^t \frac{dx}{x-1} = \lim_{t \to 1^-} [\ln|x-1|]_0^t$$

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

Observe that x = 1 is a vertical asymptote for the integrand.

$$\int_{0}^{3} \frac{1}{x-1} dx = \int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{x-1} dx + \int_{1}^{3} \frac{1}{x-1} dx$$

$$\int_{0}^{1} \frac{dx}{x-1} = \lim_{t \to 1^{-}} \int_{0}^{t} \frac{dx}{x-1} = \lim_{t \to 1^{-}} [\ln|x-1|]_{0}^{t}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 1^{-}} \ln|t-1| - \ln 1$$

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

Observe that x = 1 is a vertical asymptote for the integrand.

$$\int_{0}^{3} \frac{1}{x-1} dx = \int_{0}^{1} \frac{1}{x-1} dx + \int_{1}^{3} \frac{1}{x-1} dx$$

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$$= \lim_{t \to 1^{-}} \ln|t-1| - \ln 1 = -\infty$$

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• Therefore the integral diverges.

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$$= \lim_{t \to 1^{-}} \ln|t-1| - \ln 1 = -\infty$$

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

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

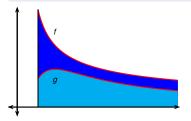
A Comparison Test for Improper Integrals

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 $f(x) \ge g(x) \ge 0$ for $x \ge a$.

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

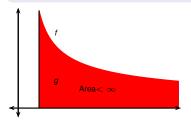


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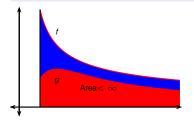


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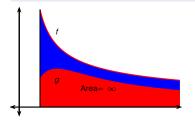


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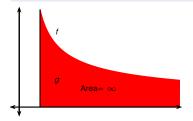


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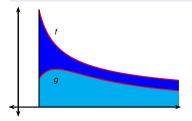


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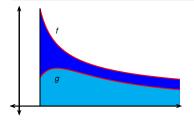


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A similar theorem holds for Type II improper integrals.

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

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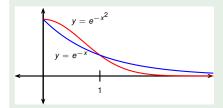
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- If integral were $\int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx$, we could integrate directly.
- However, the antiderivative of e^{-x^2} isn't an elementary function.

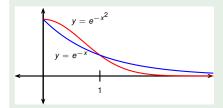
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- However, the antiderivative of e^{-x^2} isn't an elementary function.
- Notice that $e^{-x^2} < e^{-x}$ for x > 1.



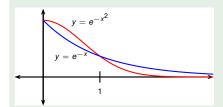
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- However, the antiderivative of e^{-x^2} isn't an elementary function.
- Notice that $e^{-x^2} \le e^{-x}$ for $x \ge 1$.
- Now split $\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx + \int_1^\infty e^{-x^2} dx$.



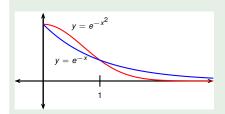
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- However, the antiderivative of e^{-x^2} isn't an elementary function.
- Notice that $e^{-x^2} \le e^{-x}$ for $x \ge 1$.
- Now split $\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx + \int_1^\infty e^{-x^2} dx$.
- On the RHS, first integral is proper no affect on convergence.



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

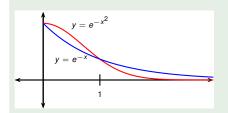
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- However, the antiderivative of e^{-x^2} isn't an elementary function.
- Notice that $e^{-x^2} \le e^{-x}$ for $x \ge 1$.
- Now split $\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx + \int_1^\infty e^{-x^2} dx$.
- On the RHS, first integral is proper no affect on convergence.



$$\int_{1}^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \int_{1}^{t} e^{-x} dx$$

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

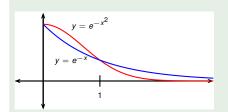
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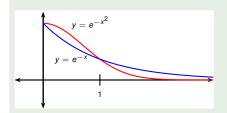
- If integral were $\int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx$, we could integrate directly.
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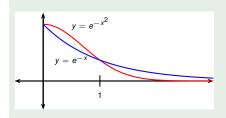
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Therefore by the Comparison Theorem, $\int_0^\infty e^{-x^2} dx$ converges.

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

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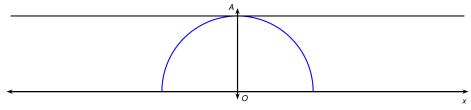
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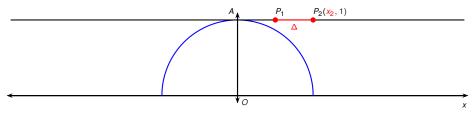
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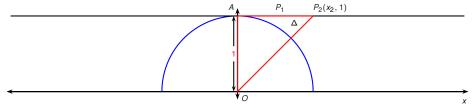
- $\bullet \ \frac{1+e^{-x}}{x} > \frac{1}{x}.$
- By a previously studied example, $\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x}$ is divergent.
- Therefore $\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1+e^{-x}}{x} dx$ is divergent by the Comparison Theorem.



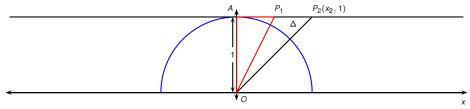
Draw a unit circle as above, let O, A be as indicated.



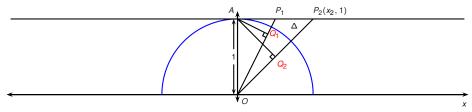
Draw a unit circle as above, let O, A be as indicated. Let P_2 be the point $(x_2, 1), P_1$ be the point $(x_2 - \Delta, 1)$.



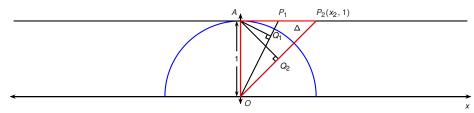
Draw a unit circle as above, let O, A be as indicated. Let P_2 be the point $(x_2, 1), P_1$ be the point $(x_2 - \Delta, 1)$. By the Pythagorean theorem, $|OP_2|^2 = 1 + x_2^2$



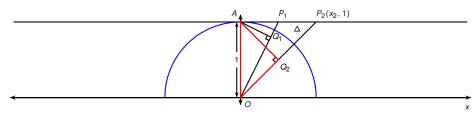
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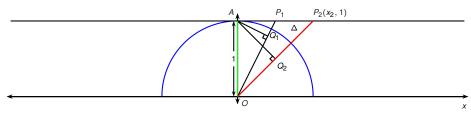
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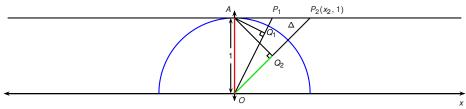
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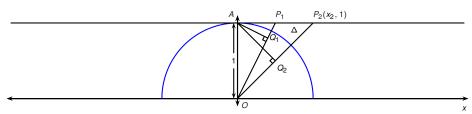
Spring 2015



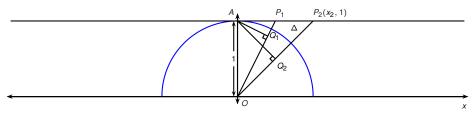
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Lecture 9

Math 141



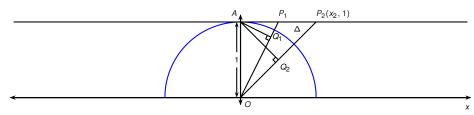
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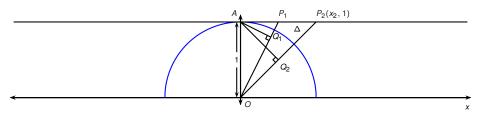
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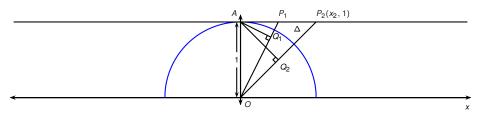
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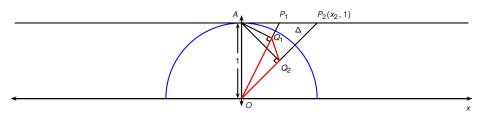
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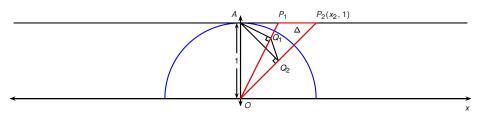
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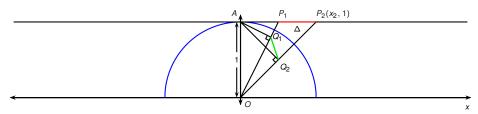
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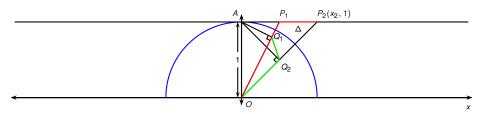
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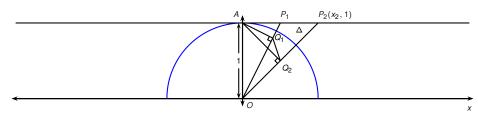
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$$\begin{split} |OQ_1||OP_1| &= |OA|^2 = 1 = |OQ_2||OP_2|. \text{ Therefore } \frac{|OQ_1|}{|OP_2|} = \frac{|OQ_2|}{|OP_1|} \text{ and so } \\ \triangle OQ_2Q_1 \text{ is similar to } \triangle OP_1P_2. \text{ Therefore } \frac{|Q_1Q_2|}{|P_1P_2|} = \frac{|OQ_2|}{|OP_1|} \end{split}$$



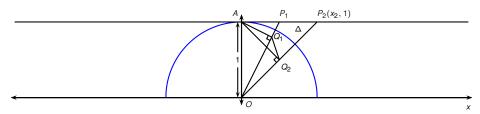
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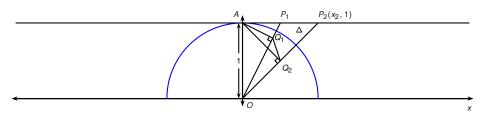
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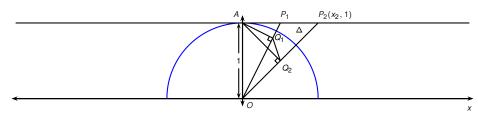
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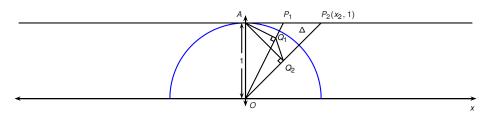
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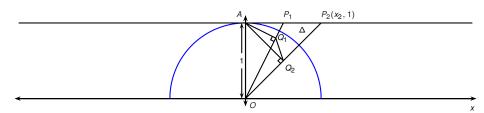
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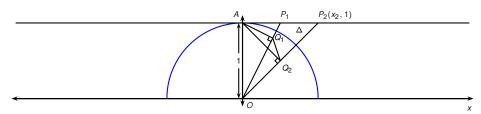
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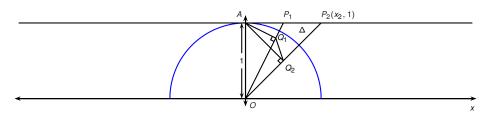
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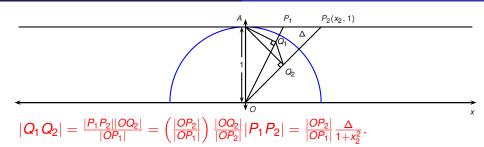
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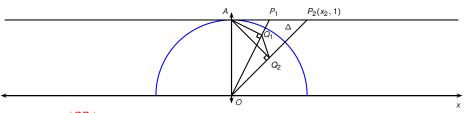


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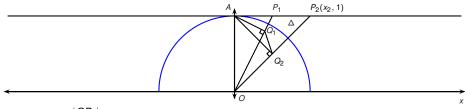


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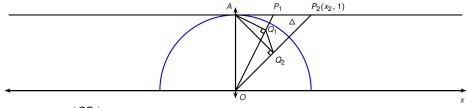


$$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1 + x_2^2}.$$

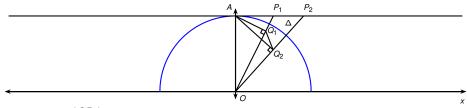


$$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1 + x_2^2}.$$

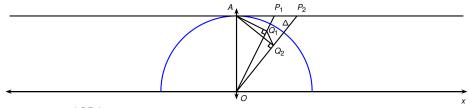
If we let $P_2 \rightarrow P_1$



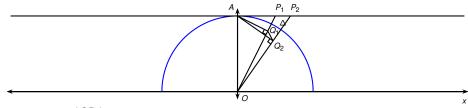
$$|Q_1Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1 + x_2^2}.$$



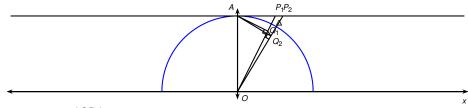
$$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1 + x_2^2}.$$



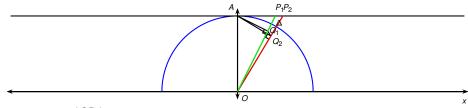
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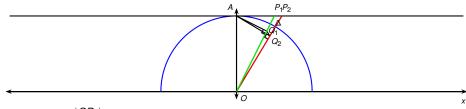


$$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1 + x_2^2}.$$



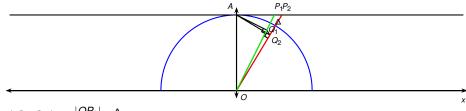
$$|Q_1 Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1 + x_2^2}.$$

If we let $P_2 \to P_1$, i.e., $\Delta \to 0$, we get $\frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \to 1$.



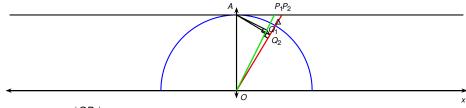
$$|Q_1Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1 + x_2^2}.$$

If we let $P_2 \to P_1$, i.e., $\Delta \to 0$, we get $\frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \to 1$. 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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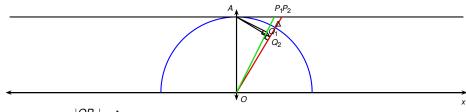
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$$|Q_1Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1 + x_2^2}.$$

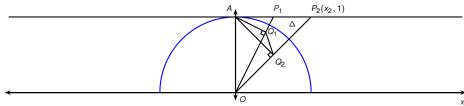
If we let $P_2 o P_1$, i.e., $\Delta o 0$, we get $\frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} o 1$. In strict mathematical language: for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that when $\Delta < \delta$ we have that $1 > \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} > 1 - \varepsilon$. Furthermore, the choice of δ can be made independent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

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



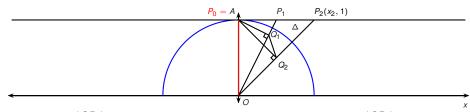
$$|Q_1Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1 + x_2^2}.$$

If we let $P_2 \to P_1$, i.e., $\Delta \to 0$, we get $\frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \to 1$. 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.



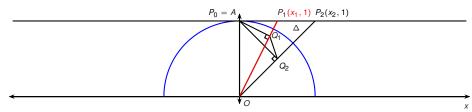
 $|Q_1Q_2|=\frac{|\mathit{OP}_2|}{|\mathit{OP}_1|}\frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon>0, \text{ can choose } \Delta \colon 1<\frac{|\mathit{OP}_2|}{|\mathit{OP}_1|}<1+\varepsilon.$

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

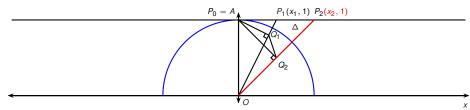


 $|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$ For any $\varepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+\varepsilon$.

Fix a large number N and let Δ be such that $n = \frac{N}{\Delta}$ is integer. Let $P_0 = (0, 1), P_1 = (\Delta, 1), P_2 = (2\Delta, 1), \dots, P_n = (n\Delta, 1)$

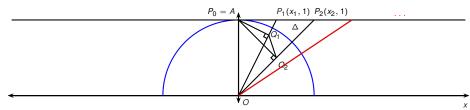


$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$

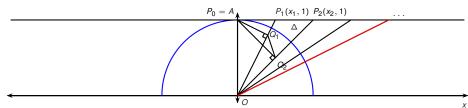


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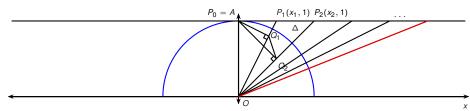
Fix a large number N and let Δ be such that $n = \frac{N}{\Delta}$ is integer. Let $P_0 = (0, 1), P_1 = (\Delta, 1), P_2 = (2\Delta, 1), \dots, P_n = (n\Delta, 1)$



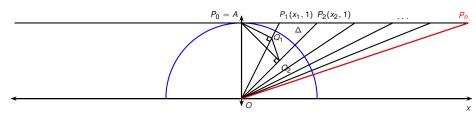
$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$



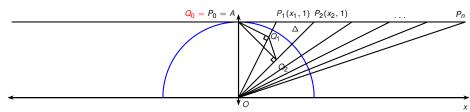
$$|\mathit{Q}_{1}\mathit{Q}_{2}| = \frac{|\mathit{OP}_{2}|}{|\mathit{OP}_{1}|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_{2}^{2}}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon > 0, \text{ can choose } \Delta \text{: } 1 < \frac{|\mathit{OP}_{2}|}{|\mathit{OP}_{1}|} < 1 + \varepsilon.$$



$$|Q_1Q_2|=\frac{|\mathit{OP}_2|}{|\mathit{OP}_1|}\frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon>0, \text{ can choose } \Delta \colon 1<\frac{|\mathit{OP}_2|}{|\mathit{OP}_1|}<1+\varepsilon.$$

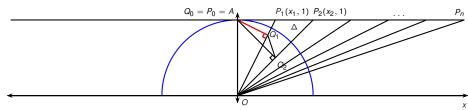


$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $\varepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+\varepsilon$.



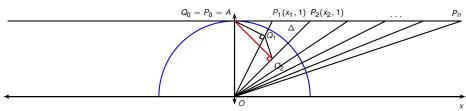
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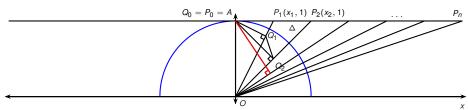
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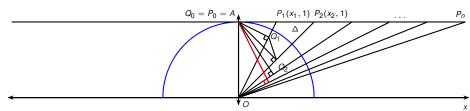
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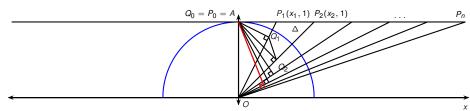
$$|\mathit{Q}_{1}\mathit{Q}_{2}| = \frac{|\mathit{OP}_{2}|}{|\mathit{OP}_{1}|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_{2}^{2}}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon > 0, \text{ can choose } \Delta \text{: } 1 < \frac{|\mathit{OP}_{2}|}{|\mathit{OP}_{1}|} < 1 + \varepsilon.$$

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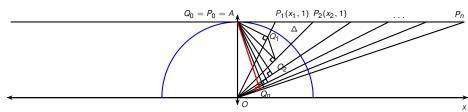
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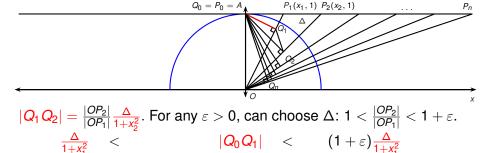
$$|\mathit{Q}_{1}\mathit{Q}_{2}| = \frac{|\mathit{OP}_{2}|}{|\mathit{OP}_{1}|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_{2}^{2}}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon > 0, \text{ can choose } \Delta \text{: } 1 < \frac{|\mathit{OP}_{2}|}{|\mathit{OP}_{1}|} < 1 + \varepsilon.$$

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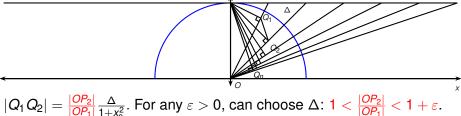


$$|Q_1Q_2|=\frac{|\mathit{OP}_2|}{|\mathit{OP}_1|}\frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon>0, \text{ can choose } \Delta \colon 1<\frac{|\mathit{OP}_2|}{|\mathit{OP}_1|}<1+\varepsilon.$$

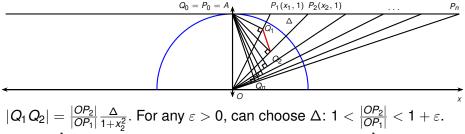
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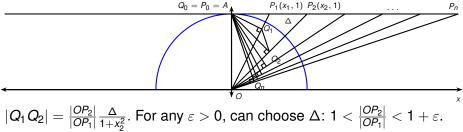
 $Q_0 = P_0 = A$



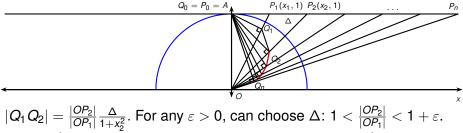
$$\begin{aligned} |Q_1Q_2| &= \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon > 0, \text{ can choose } \Delta \colon 1 < \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon. \\ \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} &< |Q_0Q_1| &< (1+\varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} \end{aligned}$$



$$\begin{split} |Q_1Q_2| &= \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon > 0, \text{ can choose } \Delta \colon 1 < \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon. \\ \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} &< |Q_0Q_1| &< (1+\varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} \\ \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2} &< |Q_1Q_2| &< (1+\varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2} \end{split}$$

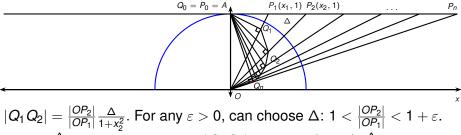


$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$ $rac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}<$ $|Q_0Q_1|<$ $(1+arepsilon)rac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}$ $|Q_1Q_2|<$ $(1+arepsilon)rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$



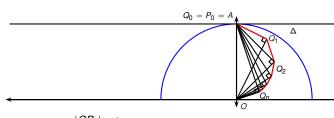
$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$ $rac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}<$ $|Q_0Q_1|<$ $(1+arepsilon)rac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}$ $|Q_1Q_2|<$ $(1+arepsilon)rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$

.



$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$ $rac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}<$ $|Q_0Q_1|<$ $(1+arepsilon)rac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2}$ $|Q_1Q_2|<$ $(1+arepsilon)rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$ \vdots $rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}<$ $|Q_{n-1}Q_n|<$ $(1+arepsilon)rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$

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

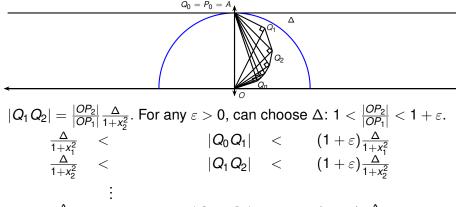


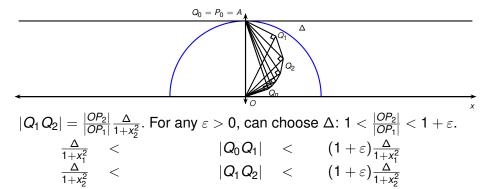
$$\begin{split} |Q_1Q_2| &= \frac{|\mathit{OP}_2|}{|\mathit{OP}_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}. \text{ For any } \varepsilon > 0, \text{ can choose } \Delta \text{: } 1 < \frac{|\mathit{OP}_2|}{|\mathit{OP}_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon. \\ \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} &< |Q_0Q_1| &< (1+\varepsilon) \frac{\Delta}{1+x_1^2} \end{split}$$

:

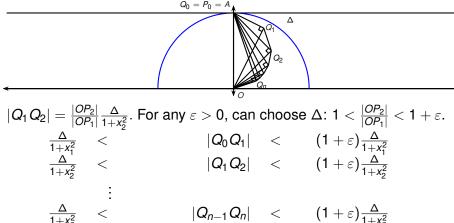
$$\frac{\Delta}{1+x_n^2} < |Q_{n-1}Q_n| < (1+\varepsilon)\frac{\Delta}{1+x_n^2}$$

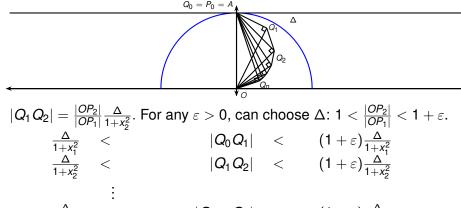
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\Delta}{1+x_i^2} < \sum_{i=1}^n |Q_{i-1}Q_i| < (1+\varepsilon)\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\Delta}{1+x_i^2}$$



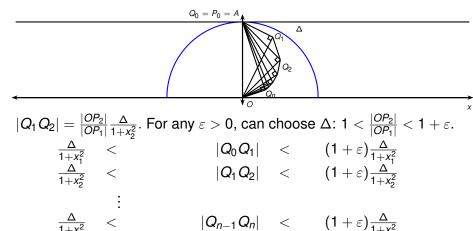


Let $\Delta \to 0$. Next take $N \to \infty$.



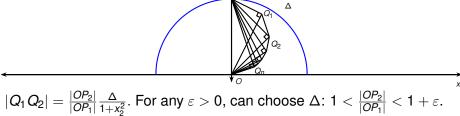


Let $\Delta \to 0$. Next take $N \to \infty$. Finally take $\varepsilon \to 0$



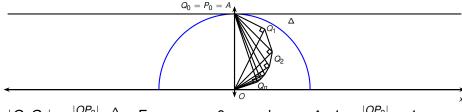
Let $\Delta \to 0$. Next take $N \to \infty$. Finally take $\varepsilon \to 0$, use squeeze thm.

 $Q_0 = P_0 = A$



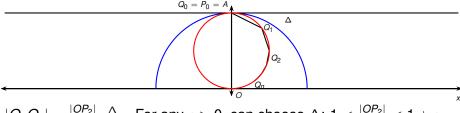
$$|Q_1Q_2| = \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} \frac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}$$
. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, can choose Δ : $1 < \frac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|} < 1 + \varepsilon$.

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



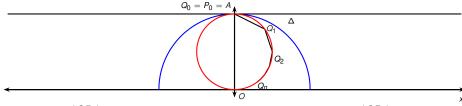
$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$ $\int_0^\infty rac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} = \lim_{\Delta,N,arepsilon}\sum |Q_{i-1}Q_i|$

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



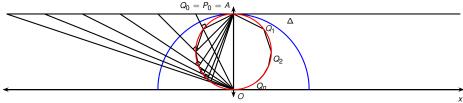
$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$
$$\int_0^\infty rac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} = \lim_{\Delta,N,arepsilon}\sum |Q_{i-1}Q_i|$$

The points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$. Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots lie on the circle C with radius $\frac{1}{2}$ and center $(0, \frac{1}{2})$.



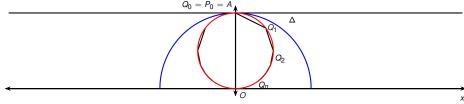
$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$
$$\int_0^\infty rac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} = \lim_{\Delta,N,arepsilon}\sum |Q_{i-1}Q_i|$$

The points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$. Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots 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.



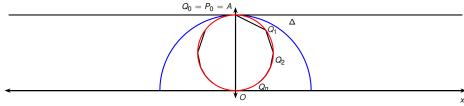
$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$
$$\int_0^\infty \; rac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} \; = \; \lim_{\Delta,N,arepsilon}\sum |Q_{i-1}Q_i|$$

The points Q_1,Q_2,\ldots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$. Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1,Q_2,\ldots 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. By symmetry,



$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$
$$\int_0^\infty rac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} = \lim_{\Delta\cdot N_- arepsilon}|Q_{i-1}Q_i|$$

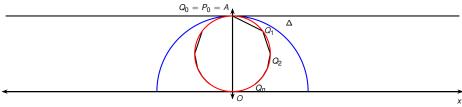
The points Q_1,Q_2,\ldots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$. Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1,Q_2,\ldots lie on the circle C with radius $\frac{1}{2}$ and center $(0,\frac{1}{2})$. Therefore $\sum |Q_{i-1}Q_i|$ approximates half of the circumference of the circle C. By symmetry,



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$$\int_0^\infty rac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} = \lim_{\Delta,N,arepsilon}\sum |Q_{i-1}Q_i|$$

The points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$. Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots 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. By symmetry,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \text{ circumference of } C$$

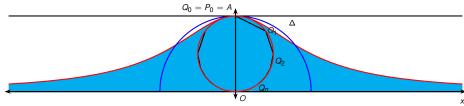


$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$
$$\int_0^\infty rac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} = \lim_{\Delta.N.arepsilon}\sum |Q_{i-1}Q_i|$$

The points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$. Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots 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. By symmetry,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} = \text{ circumference of } C = 2\pi \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \pi,$$

as desired.



$$|Q_1Q_2|=rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}rac{\Delta}{1+x_2^2}.$$
 For any $arepsilon>0$, can choose Δ : $1<rac{|OP_2|}{|OP_1|}<1+arepsilon.$
$$\int_0^\infty rac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} = \lim_{\Delta N \in \Sigma} |Q_{i-1}Q_i|$$

The points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots see the segment OA from an angle of $\frac{\pi}{2}$. Therefore, by Euclidean geometry, the points Q_1, Q_2, \ldots 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. By symmetry,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{1+x^2} = \text{ circumference of } C = 2\pi \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \pi,$$

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