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The integrals in Gradshteyn and Ryzhik. Part 2: Elementary logarithmic integrals

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ABSTRACT. We describe methods to evaluate elementary logarithmic integrals. The integrand is the product of a rational function and a linear polynomial in $\ln x$.

1. Introduction

The table of integrals by I. M. Gradshteyn and I. M. Ryzhik [3] contains a large selection of definite integrals of the form

(1.1)
$$\int_{a}^{b} R(x) \ln^{m} x \, dx,$$

where R(x) is a rational function, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^+$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}$. We call integrals of the form (1.1) *elementary logarithmic integrals*. The goal of this note is to present methods to evaluate them. We may assume that a = 0 using

(1.2)
$$\int_{a}^{b} R(x) \ln^{m} x \, dx = \int_{0}^{b} R(x) \, \ln^{m} x \, dx - \int_{0}^{a} R(x) \, \ln^{m} x \, dx.$$

Section 2 describes the situation when R is a polynomial. Section 3 presents the case in which the rational function has a single simple pole. Finally section 4 considers the case of multiple poles.

2. Polynomials examples

The first example considered here is

(2.1)
$$I(P; b, m) := \int_0^b P(x) \, \ln^m x \, dx,$$

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where P is a polynomial. This can be evaluated in elementary terms. Indeed, I(P; b, m) is a linear combination of

(2.2)
$$\int_0^b x^j \, \ln^m x \, dx,$$

and the change of variables x = bt yields

(2.3)
$$\int_0^b x^j \ln^m x \, dx = b^{j+1} \sum_{k=0}^m \binom{m}{k} \ln^{m-k} b \int_0^1 t^j \ln^k t \, dt.$$

The last integral evaluates to $(-1)^k k!/(j+1)^{k+1}$ either an easy induction argument or by the change of variables $t = e^{-s}$ that gives it as a value of the gamma function.

Theorem 2.1. Let P(x) be a polynomial given by

(2.4)
$$P(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{p} a_j x^j$$

Then

(2.5)
$$I(P; b, m) := \int_0^b P(x) \ln^m x \, dx = \sum_{k=0}^m (-1)^k k! \binom{m}{k} \ln^{m-k} b \sum_{j=0}^p a_j \frac{b^{j+1}}{(j+1)^{k+1}}.$$

This expression shows that I(P; b, m) is a linear combination of $b^j \ln^k b$, with $1 \leq j \leq 1 + p(=1 + \deg(P))$ and $0 \leq k \leq m$.

3. Linear denominators

We now consider the integral

(3.1)
$$f(b;r) := \int_0^b \frac{\ln x \, dx}{x+r}$$

for b, r > 0. This corresponds to the case in which the rational function in (1.1) has a single simple pole.

The change of variables x = rt produces

(3.2)
$$\int_0^b \frac{\ln x \, dx}{x+r} = \ln r \, \ln(1+b/r) + \int_0^{b/r} \frac{\ln t \, dt}{1+t}.$$

Therefore, it suffices to consider the function

(3.3)
$$g(b) := \int_0^b \frac{\ln t \, dt}{1+t},$$

as we have

(3.4)
$$f(b;r) = \ln r \ln \left(1 + \frac{b}{r}\right) + g\left(\frac{b}{r}\right).$$

Before we present a discussion of the function g, we describe some elementary consequences of (3.2).

Elementary examples. The special case r = b in (3.2) yields

(3.5)
$$\int_0^b \frac{dx}{x+b} = \ln 2 \, \ln b + \int_0^1 \frac{\ln t \, dt}{1+t}.$$

Expanding 1/(1+t) as a geometric series, we obtain

(3.6)
$$\int_0^1 \frac{\ln t \, dt}{1+t} = -\frac{1}{2}\zeta(2) = -\frac{\pi^2}{12}$$

This appears as 4.231.1 in [3]. Differentiating (3.2) with respect to r produces

(3.7)
$$\int_0^b \frac{\ln x \, dx}{(x+r)^2} = -\frac{\ln(b+r)}{r} + \frac{\ln r}{r} + \frac{b \ln b}{r(r+b)}$$

As $b, r \to 1$ we obtain

(3.8)
$$\int_0^1 \frac{\ln x \, dx}{(1+x)^2} = -\ln 2.$$

This appears as 4.231.6 in [3]. On the other hand, as $b \to \infty$ we recover 4.231.5 in [3]:

(3.9)
$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\ln x \, dx}{(x+r)^2} = \frac{\ln r}{r}.$$

The polylogarithm function. The evaluation of the integral

(3.10)
$$g(b) := \int_0^b \frac{\ln t \, dt}{1+t},$$

requires the transcendental function

(3.11)
$$\operatorname{Li}_{n}(x) := \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{k}}{k^{n}}$$

This is the *polylogarithm function* and it has also appeared in [5] in our discussion of the family

(3.12)
$$h_n(a) := \int_0^\infty \frac{\ln^n x \, dx}{(x-1)(x+a)}, \quad n \in \mathbb{R}, \, a > 0.$$

In the current context we have n = 2 and we are dealing with the *dilogarithm function*: $\text{Li}_2(x)$.

Lemma 3.1. The function g(b) is given by

(3.13)
$$g(b) = \ln b \ln(1+b) + \text{Li}_2(-b).$$

PROOF. The change of variables t = bs yields

(3.14)
$$g(b) = \ln b \, \ln(1+b) + \int_0^1 \frac{\ln s \, ds}{1+bs}$$

Expanding the integrand in a geometric series yields the final identity.

Theorem 3.2. Let b, r > 0. Then

(3.15)
$$\int_0^b \frac{\ln x \, dx}{x+r} = \ln b \ln \left(\frac{b+r}{r}\right) + \operatorname{Li}_2\left(-\frac{b}{r}\right)$$

Corollary 3.3. Let b > 0. Then

(3.16)
$$\int_0^b \frac{\ln x \, dx}{x+b} = \ln 2 \, \ln b - \frac{\pi^2}{12}.$$

PROOF. Let $r \to b$ in Theorem 3.2 and use

(3.17)
$$\operatorname{Li}_{2}(-1) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n}}{n^{2}} = -\frac{\pi^{2}}{12}.$$

The expression in Theorem 3.2 and the method of partial fractions gives the explicit evaluation of elementary logarithmic integrals where the rational function has simple poles. For example:

Corollary 3.4. Let 0 < a < b and $r_1 \neq r_2 \in \mathbb{R}^+$. Then, with $r = r_2 - r_1$, we have

$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{\ln x \, dx}{(x+r_1)(x+r_2)} = \frac{1}{r} \left[\ln b \ln \left(\frac{r_2(b+r_1)}{r_1(b+r_2)} \right) + \ln a \ln \left(\frac{r_1(a+r_2)}{r_2(a+r_1)} \right) \right] + \frac{1}{r} \left[\operatorname{Li}_2 \left(-\frac{b}{r_1} \right) - \operatorname{Li}_2 \left(-\frac{a}{r_1} \right) - \operatorname{Li}_2 \left(-\frac{b}{r_2} \right) + \operatorname{Li}_2 \left(-\frac{a}{r_2} \right) \right].$$

The special case $a = r_1$ and $b = r_2$ is of interest:

Corollary 3.5. Let 0 < a < b. Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{\ln x \, dx}{(x+a)(x+b)} = \frac{1}{b-a} \left[\ln(ab) \ln(a+b) - \ln 2 \ln(ab) - 2 \ln a \ln b \right] \\ + \frac{1}{b-a} \left[-2 \text{Li}_{2}(-1) + \text{Li}_{2} \left(-\frac{b}{a} \right) + \text{Li}_{2} \left(-\frac{a}{b} \right) \right].$$

The integral in Corollary 3.5 appears as **4.232.1** in **[3]**. An interesting problem is to derive **4.232.2**

(3.18)
$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\ln x \, dx}{(x+u)(x+v)} = \frac{\ln^2 u - \ln^2 v}{2(u-v)}$$

directly from Corollary 3.5.

We now present an elementary evaluation of this integral and obtain from it an identity of Euler. We prove that

(3.19)
$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{\ln x \, dx}{(x+a)(x+b)} = \frac{\ln ab}{2(b-a)} \ln \frac{(a+b)^2}{4ab}.$$

PROOF. The partial fraction decomposition

$$\frac{1}{(x+a)(x+b)} = \frac{1}{b-a} \left(\frac{1}{x+a} - \frac{1}{x+b} \right)$$

reduces the problem to the evaluation of

$$I_1 = \int_a^b \frac{\ln x \, dx}{x+a} \text{ and } I_2 = \int_a^b \frac{\ln x \, dx}{x+b}.$$

The change of variables x = at gives, with c = b/a,

$$I_{1} = \int_{1}^{c} \frac{\ln(at) dt}{1+t}$$

= $\ln a \int_{1}^{c} \frac{dt}{1+t} + \int_{1}^{c} \frac{\ln t}{1+t} dt$
= $\ln a \ln(1+c) - \ln a \ln 2 + \int_{1}^{c} \frac{\ln t}{1+t} dt.$

Similarly,

$$I_2 = \ln b \ln 2 - \ln b \ln(1 + 1/c) + \int_1^{1/c} \frac{\ln t}{1 + t} dt$$

Therefore

$$I_1 - I_2 = \ln a \ln(1+c) + \ln b \ln(1+1/c) - \ln 2 \ln a - \ln 2 \ln b + \int_1^c \frac{\ln t}{1+t} dt - \int_{1/c}^1 \frac{\ln t}{1+t} dt.$$

Let s = 1/t in the second integral to get

$$\int_{1/c}^{1} \frac{\ln t}{1+t} \, dt \quad = \quad \int_{c}^{1} \frac{\ln s}{s(1+s)} \, ds.$$

Replacing in the expression for $I_1 - I_2$ yields

$$I_1 - I_2 = \ln a \left(\ln(a+b) - \ln a - \ln 2 \right) - \ln b \left(\ln 2 - \ln(a+b) + \ln b \right) + \int_1^c \frac{\ln t}{t} dt.$$

The last integral can now be evaluated by elementary means to produced the result. $\hfill \Box$

Now comparing the two evaluation of the integral in Corollary 3.5 produces an identity for the dilogarithm function.

Corollary 3.6. The dilogarithm function satisfies

(3.20)
$$\operatorname{Li}_2(-z) + \operatorname{Li}_2\left(-\frac{1}{z}\right) = -\frac{\pi^2}{6} - \frac{1}{2}\ln^2(z).$$

This is the first of many interesting functional equations satisfied by the polylogarithm functions. It was established by L. Euler in 1768. The reader will find in [4] a nice description of them.

4. A single multiple pole

In this section we consider the evaluation of

(4.1)
$$f_n(b,r) := \int_0^b \frac{\ln x \, dx}{(x+r)^n}.$$

This corresponds to the elementary rational integrals with a single pole (at x = -r). The change of variables x = rt yields

$$f_n(b,r) = \frac{\ln r}{(n-1)r^{n-1}} \left[\frac{(b+r)^{n-1} - r^{n-1}}{(b+r)^{n-1}} \right] + \frac{1}{r^{n-1}} h_n(b/r),$$

where

(4.2)
$$h_n(b) := \int_0^b \frac{\ln t \, dt}{(1+t)^n}$$

We first establish a recurrence for h_n .

Theorem 4.1. Let
$$n > 2$$
 and $b > 0$. Then h_n satisfies the recurrence

(4.3)
$$h_n(b) = \frac{n-2}{n-1}h_{n-1}(b) + \frac{b\ln b}{(n-1)(1+b)^{n-1}} + \frac{1-(1+b)^{n-2}}{(n-1)(n-2)(1+b)^{n-2}}.$$

PROOF. Start with

$$h_n(b) = \int_0^b \frac{[(1+t)-t] \ln t \, dt}{(1+t)^n} = h_{n-1}(b) - \int_0^b \frac{t \ln t \, dt}{(1+t)^n}$$

Integrate by parts in the last integral, with $u = t \ln t$ and $dv = dt/(1+t)^n$ to produce the result.

The initial condition for this recurrence is obtained from the value

(4.4)
$$h_2(b) = \frac{b}{1+b} \ln b - \ln(1+b).$$

This expression follows by a direct integration by parts in

(4.5)
$$h_2(b) = -\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \int_{\epsilon}^{b} \ln t \, \frac{d}{dt} (1+t)^{-1} \, dt.$$

The first few values of $h_n(b)$ suggest the introduction of the function

(4.6)
$$q_n(b) := (1+b)^{n-1} h_n(b),$$

for $n \ge 2$. For example,

(4.7)
$$q_2(b) = b \ln b - (1+b) \ln(1+b).$$

The recurrence for h_n yields one for q_n .

Corollary 4.2. The recurrence

$$(4.8) q_n(b) = \frac{(n-2)}{(n-1)}(1+b)q_{n-1}(b) + \frac{b\ln b}{n-1} - \frac{(1+b)\left[(1+b)^{n-2}-1\right]}{(n-1)(n-2)}$$

holds for $n \ge 3$.

Corollary 4.2 establishes the existence of functions $X_n(b)$, $Y_n(b)$ and $Z_n(b)$, such that

(4.9)
$$q_n(b) = X_n(b) \ln b + Y_n(b) \ln(1+b) + Z_n(b)$$

The recurrence (4.8) produces explicit expression for each of these parts.

Proposition 4.3. Let $n \ge 2$ and b > 0. Then

(4.10)
$$X_n(b) = \frac{(1+b)^{n-1} - 1}{n-1}$$

PROOF. The function X_n satisfies the recurrence

(4.11)
$$X_n(b) = \frac{n-2}{n-1}(1+b)X_{n-1}(b) + \frac{b}{n-1}.$$

The initial condition is $X_2(b) = b$. The result is now easily established by induction.

Proposition 4.4. Let $n \ge 2$ and b > 0. Then

(4.12)
$$Y_n(b) = -\frac{(1+b)^{n-1}}{n-1}$$

PROOF. The function Y_n satisfies the recurrence

(4.13)
$$Y_n(b) = \frac{n-2}{n-1}(1+b)Y_{n-1}(b)$$

This recurrence and the initial condition $Y_2(b) = -(1+b)$, yield the result.

It remains to identify the function $Z_n(b)$. It satisfies the recurrence

(4.14)
$$Z_n(b) = \frac{n-2}{n-1}(1+b)Z_{n-1}(b) - \frac{(1+b)\left\lfloor (1+b)^{n-2} - 1 \right\rfloor}{(n-2)(n-1)}.$$

This recurrence and the initial condition $Z_2(b) = 0$ suggest the definition

(4.15)
$$T_n(b) := -\frac{(n-1)! Z_n(b)}{b(1+b)}.$$

Lemma 4.5. The function $T_n(b)$ is a polynomial of degree n-3 with positive integer coefficients.

PROOF. The function $T_n(b)$ satisfies the recurrence

(4.16)
$$T_n(b) = (n-2)(1+b)T_{n-1}(b) + (n-3)! \left[\frac{(1+b)^{n-2}-1}{b}\right].$$

Now simply observe that the right hand side is a polynomial in b.

Properties of the polynomial $T_n(b)$ will be described in future publications. We now simply observe that its coefficients are *unimodal*. Recall that a polynomial

(4.17)
$$P_n(b) = \sum_{k=0}^n c_k b^k$$

is called *unimodal* if there is an index n^* , such that $c_k \leq c_{k+1}$ for $0 \leq k \leq n^*$ and $c_k \geq c_{k+1}$ for $n^* < k \leq n$. That is, the sequence of coefficients of P_n has a single peak. Unimodal polynomials appear in many different branches of Mathematics. The reader will find in [2] and [6] information about this property. We now use the result of [1] to establish the unimodality of T_n .

Theorem 4.6. Suppose $c_k > 0$ is a nondecreasing sequence. Then P(x+1) is unimodal.

Therefore we consider the polynomial $S_n(b) := T_n(b-1)$. It satisfies the recurrence

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(4.18)
$$S_n(b) = b(n-2)S_{n-1}(b) + (n-3)! \sum_{r=0}^{n-3} b^r$$

Now write

(4.19)
$$S_n(b) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-3} c_{k,n} b^k,$$

and conclude that $c_{0,n} = (n-3)!$ and

(4.20) $c_{k,n} = (n-2)c_{k-1,n-1} + (n-3)!,$

from which it follows that

(4.21)
$$c_{k+1,n} - c_{k,n} = (n-2) \left[c_{k,n-1} - c_{k-1,n-1} \right].$$

We conclude that $c_{k,n}$ is a nondecreasing sequence.

Theorem 4.7. The polynomial $T_n(b)$ is unimodal.

Conclusions. We have given explicit formulas for integrals of the form

(4.22)
$$\int_{a}^{b} R(x) \ln x \, dx$$

where R is a rational function with real poles. Future reports will describe the case of higher powers

(4.23)
$$\int_{a}^{b} R(x) \ln^{m} x \, dx,$$

as well as the case of complex poles, based on integrals of the form

(4.24)
$$C_n(a,r) := \int_0^b \frac{\ln x \, dx}{(x^2 + r^2)^n}$$

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