Improper integrals: dominant terms decide

When we are dealing with an improper integral of the form $\int_a^\infty \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$, our perspective is that the 'dominant' terms in the numerator and denominator determine whether or not the integral converges. By 'dominant' we mean that if $f(x) = a_1(x) + a_2(x) + \cdots + a_n(x)$, then the term $a_1(x)$ dominates if $\frac{a_i(x)}{a_1(x)} \to 0$ as $x \to \infty$, for every other term $i = 2, \ldots, n$. Then if $a_1(x)$ and $b_1(x)$ are the dominant terms of the top and bottom, our result is that

$$\int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx \text{ converges precisely when } \int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{a_{1}(x)}{b_{1}(x)} dx \text{ converges.}$$

One way to justify this in any particular instance is to note that since $\frac{a_i(x)}{a_1(x)} \to 0$ and $\frac{b_i(x)}{b_1(x)} \to 0$ for every $i \ge 2$, when we write

$$f(x) = a_1(x) + a_2(x) + \dots + a_n(x) = a_1(x)\left[1 + \frac{a_2(x)}{a_1(x)} + \dots + \frac{a_n(x)}{a_1(x)}\right] = a_1(x)A(x) \text{ and}$$
$$g(x) = b_1(x) + a_2(x) + \dots + b_m(x) = b_1(x)\left[1 + \frac{b_2(x)}{b_1(x)} + \dots + \frac{b_m(x)}{b_1(x)}\right] = b_1(x)B(x)$$

we have $A(x) \to 1$ and $B(x) \to 1$ as $x \to \infty$ (since, other than the 1 in each sum, every other term goes to 0). This means that <u>eventually</u> A(x) and B(x) are both close to 1, so, eventually, say, 0.8 < A(x) < 1.2 and 0.8 < B(x) < 1.2. But then, eventually,

$$0.8a_1(x) < a_1(x)A(x) = f(x) = a_1(x)A(x) < 1.2a_1(x) \text{ and} 0.8b_1(x) < b_1(x)B(x) = g(x) = b_1(x)B(x) < 1.2b_1(x),$$

[We are supposing here that the dominant terms $a_1(x), b_1(x)$ are <u>positive</u>; if they are not, pull a minus sign out of the entire integral first! Otherwise, the inequalities go the <u>opposite</u> directions....]

and so, eventually,

$$\frac{2}{3}\frac{a_{1}(x)}{b_{1}(x)} = \frac{0.8a_{1}(x)}{1.2b_{1}(x)} < \frac{f(x)}{1.2b_{1}(x)} < \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} < \frac{f(x)}{0.8b_{1}(x)} < \frac{1.2a_{1}(x)}{0.8b_{1}(x)} = \frac{3}{2}\frac{a_{1}(x)}{b_{1}(x)} .$$
So $\frac{2}{3}\frac{a_{1}(x)}{b_{1}(x)} < \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} < \frac{3}{2}\frac{a_{1}(x)}{b_{1}(x)} .$
This means that if $\int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{a_{1}(x)}{b_{1}(x)} dx$ converges, then so does $\frac{3}{2}\int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{a_{1}(x)}{b_{1}(x)} dx$, and since (eventually) $\int_{N}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$ is smaller than $\frac{3}{2}\int_{N}^{\infty} \frac{a_{1}(x)}{b_{1}(x)} dx$, $\int_{N}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$ converges, and so $\int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$ converges.

On the other hand, if $\int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{a_1(x)}{b_1(x)} dx$ diverges, then so does $\frac{2}{3} \int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{a_1(x)}{b_1(x)} dx$, and since (eventually) $\int_{N}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$ is larger than $\frac{2}{3} \int_{N}^{\infty} \frac{a_1(x)}{b_1(x)} dx$, $\int_{N}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$ diverges, and so $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{q(x)} dx$ diverges.

The same basic principle applies for most other situations. For example, dealing with something inside of a square (or other) root:

$$\int_{2}^{\infty} \frac{x \, dx}{\sqrt{x^5 - 6x + 2}} \text{ converges, since } \sqrt{x^5 - 6x + 2} = \sqrt{x^5} \sqrt{1 - \frac{6}{x^4} + \frac{2}{x^5}}, \text{ and}$$
$$\sqrt{1 - \frac{6}{x^4} + \frac{2}{x^5}} \to 1 \text{ as } x \to \infty, \text{ and so eventually } \frac{x}{2\sqrt{x^5}} < \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^5 - 6x + 2}} < \frac{2x}{\sqrt{x^5}}, \text{ and}$$
$$\text{since } \int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{x \, dx}{\sqrt{x^5}} = \int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^{3/2}} \text{ converges, so does the original integral.}$$

Integrals with a limit of integration equal to $-\infty$ behave similarly; we could use a u-substitution u = -x to directly turn it into a integral in the form above.

Improper integrals where the function 'blows up' at an endpoint a (or inside of the interval) also have 'dominant terms', usually determined by the smallest powers of x - ain the numerator and denominator. To make things less challenging for ourselves, we can use a u-substitution u = x - a (or u = a - x) to move the vertical asymptote to u = 0.] The principle is basically the same:

For example, the function $\frac{x^2 - x + 2}{\sqrt{x^3 + x^5}}$, near x = 0, behaves like $\frac{2}{\sqrt{x^3}} = \frac{2}{x^{3/2}}$ (whose integral diverges), since

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - x + 2}{\sqrt{x^3 + x^5}} = \frac{x^2 - x + 2}{\sqrt{x^3(1 + x^2)}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^3}} \frac{x^2 - x + 2}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}}$$

and $\frac{x^2 - x + 2}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}} \rightarrow \frac{2}{1} = 2$ as $x \rightarrow 0$. So we can (eventually, i.e., near x = 0) trap f(x)between two multiples of $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^3}}$, and so the convergence of the integral of f mirrors that of $\frac{1}{\sqrt{r^3}}$.

Generally, if we pull out the smallest powers of numerator and denominator and set them aside, then what remains will converge to a non-zero, finite number as we approach the asymptote. This means that the function behaves like a constant multiple of the pieces we set aside, and so has the same convergence 'profile'.