## Improper integrals: dominant terms decide

When we are dealing with an improper integral of the form  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{f(x)} dx$ tive is the the 'dominant' terms in the numerator and denominator determine whether or  $g(x)$  $dx$ , our perspecnot 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  $\frac{a_i(x)}{x_i(x)}$  $\frac{a_i(x)}{a_1(x)} \to 0$  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

$$
\int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx
$$
 converges precisely when 
$$
\int_{a}^{\infty} \frac{a_1(x)}{b_1(x)} dx
$$
 converges.

One way to justify this in any particular instance is to note that since  $\frac{a_i(x)}{x_i(x)}$  $\frac{a_1(x)}{a_1(x)} \to 0$  and  $b_i(x)$  $\frac{\partial_i(x)}{\partial_1(x)} \to 0$  for every  $i \geq 2$ , when we write

$$
f(x) = a_1(x) + a_2(x) + \dots + a_n(x) = a_1(x)[1 + \frac{a_2(x)}{a_1(x)} + \dots + \frac{a_n(x)}{a_1(x)}] = a_1(x)A(x)
$$
 and  

$$
g(x) = b_1(x) + a_2(x) + \dots + b_m(x) = b_1(x)[1 + \frac{b_2(x)}{b_1(x)} + \dots + \frac{b_m(x)}{b_1(x)}] = b_1(x)B(x)
$$

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,

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

[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 opposite directions....]

and so, eventually, 2 3  $a_1(x)$  $\frac{a_1(x)}{b_1(x)} =$  $0.8a_1(x)$  $1.2b_1(x)$  $\lt \frac{f(x)}{1.91}$  $1.2b_1(x)$  $\lt \frac{f(x)}{f(x)}$  $g(x)$  $\lt \frac{f(x)}{2.81}$  $0.8b_1(x)$  $\lt \frac{1.2a_1(x)}{2.81(x)}$  $\frac{1}{\cos b_1(x)} =$ 3 2  $a_1(x)$  $\frac{a_1(x)}{b_1(x)}$ . So  $\frac{2}{2}$ 3  $a_1(x)$  $b_1(x)$  $\lt \frac{f(x)}{f(x)}$  $g(x)$  $\frac{3}{2}$ 2  $a_1(x)$  $\frac{a_1(x)}{b_1(x)}$ . This means that if  $\int_{0}^{\infty}$ a  $a_1(x)$  $b_1(x)$ dx converges, then so does  $\frac{3}{5}$ 2  $\int^{\infty}$ a  $a_1(x)$  $b_1(x)$  $dx$ , and since (eventually)  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{f(x)} dx$  is smaller than  $\frac{3}{8} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{a_1(x)}{f(x)} dx$ ,  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f(x)}{f(x)} dx$ 

(eventually) 
$$
\int_N \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx
$$
 is smaller than  $\frac{3}{2} \int_N \frac{a_1(x)}{b_1(x)} dx$ ,  $\int_N \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$  converges, and so  $\int_a^\infty \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} dx$  converges.

On the other hand, if  $\int_{0}^{\infty}$ a  $a_1(x)$  $b_1(x)$ dx diverges, then so does  $\frac{2}{3}$ 3  $\int^{\infty}$ a  $a_1(x)$  $b_1(x)$  $dx$ , and since (eventually)  $\int^{\infty}$ N  $f(x)$  $g(x)$ dx is larger than  $\frac{2}{3}$ 3  $\int^{\infty}$ N  $a_1(x)$  $b_1(x)$  $dx, \int^{\infty}$ N  $f(x)$  $g(x)$ dx diverges, and so  $\int^{\infty}$ a  $f(x)$  $g(x)$  $dx$  diverges.

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

$$
\int_2^{\infty} \frac{x \, dx}{\sqrt{x^5 - 6x + 2}}
$$
 converges, since  $\sqrt{x^5 - 6x + 2} = \sqrt{x^5} \sqrt{1 - \frac{6}{x^4} + \frac{2}{x^5}}$ , and  
 $\sqrt{1 - \frac{6}{x^4} + \frac{2}{x^5}} \to 1$  as  $x \to \infty$ , and so eventually  $\frac{x}{2\sqrt{x^5}} < \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^5 - 6x + 2}} < \frac{2x}{\sqrt{x^5}}$ , and  
since  $\int_a^{\infty} \frac{x \, dx}{\sqrt{x^5}} = \int_a^{\infty} \frac{dx}{x^{3/2}}$  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  $x - a$ in 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  $\frac{2}{\sqrt{x^3}} =$ 2  $\frac{2}{x^{3/2}}$  (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  $\frac{x^2 - x + 2}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}} \rightarrow$ 2  $\frac{2}{1}$  = 2 as  $x \to 0$ . 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 1

$$
\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^3}} \; .
$$

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'.