

3.2 Integration by Parts

Integrals of the form $\int f(t)g(t) dt$ can be integrated by parts and **may** so yield asymptotic expansions; one automatically obtains the remainder.

Example 1. See §2.1 for $\text{erf}(z)$.

Example 2. Consider the *exponential integral*

$$E_1(x) \equiv \int_x^\infty \frac{e^{-t}}{t} dt = e^{-x} \int_0^\infty \frac{e^{-t}}{x+t} dt.$$

Then integrating by parts

$$\begin{aligned} E_1(x) &= \left[-\frac{e^{-t}}{t} \right]_x^\infty - \int_x^\infty \frac{e^{-t}}{t^2} dt \\ &= \frac{e^{-x}}{x} \left(1 - \frac{1}{x} + \frac{2!}{x^2} + \dots + \frac{m!}{(-x)^m} \right) + R_m(x), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$R_m(x) = (-1)^{m+1} (m+1)! \int_x^\infty \frac{e^{-t}}{t^{m+2}} dt.$$

Hence

$$|R_m(x)| \leq \frac{(m+1)!e^{-x}}{x^{m+2}},$$

and as in §3.1, the remainder is asymptotically smaller than the retained terms on truncation with $m \sim x$.

Example 3. The sine and cosine integrals.

$$\begin{aligned} -\text{Ci}(x) - i \text{si}(x) &= -\text{Ci}(x) + i \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \text{Si}(x) \right) \equiv \int_x^\infty \frac{e^{it}}{t} dt \\ &= -\frac{e^{ix}}{ix} \left(1 + \frac{1}{ix} + \frac{2!}{(ix)^2} + \dots + \frac{m!}{(ix)^m} \right) + R_m(x), \end{aligned}$$

where

$$R_m(x) = i(m+1)! \int_x^\infty \frac{e^{it}}{(it)^{m+2}} dt.$$

If we proceed as before

$$|R_m| \leq (m+1)! \int_x^\infty \frac{dt}{t^{m+2}} = \frac{m!}{x^{m+1}} = \mathcal{O}(\text{last term}),$$

so this does not demonstrate asymptoticity. We seek an improved error estimate by integrating by parts:

$$R_m = \left[\frac{(m+1)!e^{it}}{(it)^{m+2}} \right]_x^\infty + i(m+2)! \int_x^\infty \frac{e^{it}}{(it)^{m+3}} dt,$$

hence

$$|R_m| \leq \frac{(m+1)!}{x^{m+2}} + \frac{(m+1)!}{x^{m+2}} = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{x^{m+2}}\right).$$

3.3 Integrals with Algebraic Parameter Dependence

Example 1. Consider the integral

$$I(\varepsilon) = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{(x+\varepsilon)^{\frac{1}{2}}} dx = 2(\sqrt{1+\varepsilon} - \sqrt{\varepsilon}).$$

The leading-order ($\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$) estimate is just

$$I(0) = \underbrace{\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^{\frac{1}{2}}} dx}_{\text{global contribution from all of integration range}} = 2 .$$

In order to obtain an improved estimate one cannot expand $(1 + \varepsilon/x)^{-1/2}$ throughout the range as

$$(1 + \varepsilon/x)^{-1/2} = 1 - \varepsilon/2x + \dots ,$$

since for $0 \leq x \ll \varepsilon$ the expansion is not convergent.¹ Further, we note that when $x = \text{ord}(\varepsilon)$, the integrand is $\text{ord}(\varepsilon^{-1/2}) \Rightarrow$ contribution to the integral for this range of x will be $\text{ord}(\varepsilon^{-1/2} \cdot \varepsilon)$, i.e. $\text{ord}(\varepsilon^{1/2})$.

To account for this correction, one could subtract the leading-order estimate exactly; then

$$I = 2 + \underbrace{\int_0^1 \left[\frac{1}{(x + \varepsilon)^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \frac{1}{x^{\frac{1}{2}}} \right] dx}_{\substack{x = \text{ord}(\varepsilon), \text{ integrand} = \text{ord}(\varepsilon^{-1/2}), \text{ contribution to } \int = \text{ord}(\varepsilon^{1/2}) \\ x = \text{ord}(1), \text{ integrand} = \text{ord}(\varepsilon), \text{ contribution to } \int = \text{ord}(\varepsilon)}}$$

The major contribution is from near $x = 0$, so put $x = \varepsilon\xi$ ($\xi = \text{ord}(1)$), then

$$\begin{aligned} I &= 2 + \varepsilon^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_0^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \approx \infty} \left[\frac{1}{(1 + \xi)^{\frac{1}{2}}} - \frac{1}{\xi^{\frac{1}{2}}} \right] d\xi \\ &\approx 2 - 2\varepsilon^{\frac{1}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Further corrections can be obtained by now subtracting out this contribution, but this method is tedious and difficult! There must be a better way.

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Alternative 1: Solve a differential equation. Let

$$J(x) = \int_0^x \frac{1}{(q + \varepsilon)^{\frac{1}{2}}} dq .$$

Then we need to find $J(1)$. This can be done by solving the differential equation

$$\frac{dJ}{dx} = \frac{1}{(x + \varepsilon)^{\frac{1}{2}}}$$

subject to the initial condition $J(0) = 0$. We will discover how to do this in §5.

Alternative 2: Divide & Conquer. In this method we split the range of integration. Split $[0, 1]$ at $x = \delta$ where $\varepsilon \ll \delta \ll 1$, and then use Taylor series when we can use Taylor series:

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^\delta \frac{dx}{(x + \varepsilon)^{\frac{1}{2}}} + \int_\delta^1 \frac{dx}{(x + \varepsilon)^{\frac{1}{2}}} \\ &= \varepsilon^{\frac{1}{2}} \int_0^{\delta/\varepsilon} \frac{d\xi}{(1 + \xi)^{\frac{1}{2}}} + \int_\delta^1 \frac{1}{x^{\frac{1}{2}}} \left(1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{2x} + \frac{3\varepsilon^2}{8x^2} + \dots \right) dx \\ &= 2\varepsilon^{\frac{1}{2}} \left(\left(\frac{\delta}{\varepsilon} + 1 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} - 1 \right) + 2 - 2\delta^{\frac{1}{2}} + \varepsilon - \frac{\varepsilon}{\delta^{\frac{1}{2}}} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\varepsilon^2}{\delta^{\frac{3}{2}}}, \varepsilon^2\right) \\ &= 2\delta^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{\varepsilon}{\delta^{\frac{1}{2}}} - 2\varepsilon^{\frac{1}{2}} + 2 - 2\delta^{\frac{1}{2}} + \varepsilon - \frac{\varepsilon}{\delta^{\frac{1}{2}}} + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\varepsilon^2}{\delta^{\frac{3}{2}}}, \varepsilon^2\right) \\ &= 2 - 2\varepsilon^{\frac{1}{2}} + \varepsilon + \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\varepsilon^2}{\delta^{\frac{3}{2}}}, \varepsilon^2\right) . \end{aligned}$$

¹ And in this case there is no exponentially small multiplier.

Remarks.

- The error term is definitely small if $\varepsilon^{\frac{2}{3}} \ll \delta \ll 1$.
- Since δ is arbitrary, all terms containing a δ must cancel.
- To organise the algebra it is sometimes helpful to tie δ to ε , e.g.

$$\delta = K\varepsilon^{\frac{3}{4}},$$

and then the answer must be independent of K .

Example 2. Suppose that we wish to estimate the integral

$$I(m, \varepsilon) = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{(1 - m^2 \cos^2 \theta)^2 \sin^2 \theta + \varepsilon^2} d\theta \quad 0 < m < \infty,$$

for $0 < \varepsilon \ll 1$. It turns out that there are three cases to consider: $0 < m < 1$; $|m - 1| \ll 1$; $m > 1$.

(a) $0 < m < 1$

θ	integrand	contribution to \int
ord(1)	ord(1)	ord(1)
ord(ε)	ord(1)	ord(ε)
$\uparrow (1 - m^2 \cos^2 \theta)^2 \sin^2 \theta \sim \varepsilon^2$		

We will find the solution correct to $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2)$; to this end let $0 < \varepsilon \ll \delta \ll 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 I &= \varepsilon \int_0^{\frac{\delta}{\varepsilon}} \frac{\sin^2(\varepsilon u)}{(1 - m^2 \cos^2(\varepsilon u))^2 \sin^2(\varepsilon u) + \varepsilon^2} du + \int_{\delta}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{(1 - m^2 \cos^2 \theta)^2 \sin^2 \theta + \varepsilon^2} d\theta \\
 &= \varepsilon \int_0^{\frac{\delta}{\varepsilon}} \frac{u^2 du}{(1 - m^2)^2 u^2 + 1} + \int_{\delta}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1}{(1 - m^2 \cos^2 \theta)^2} d\theta + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2) \\
 &= \varepsilon \left[\frac{(1 - m^2)u - \tan^{-1}((1 - m^2)u)}{(1 - m^2)^3} \right]_0^{\frac{\delta}{\varepsilon}} + \frac{(2 - m^2)\pi}{4(1 - m^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} - \int_0^{\delta} \frac{d\theta}{(1 - m^2 \cos^2 \theta)^2} + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2) \\
 &\quad \text{via a } \tan \theta = t = (1 - m^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \tan \psi \text{ substitution} \\
 &= \frac{\delta}{(1 - m^2)^2} - \frac{\varepsilon \pi}{2(1 - m^2)^3} + \frac{(2 - m^2)\pi}{4(1 - m^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} - \frac{\delta}{(1 - m^2)^2} + \mathcal{O}\left(\varepsilon^2, \delta^2, \frac{\varepsilon^2}{\delta}\right) \\
 &\quad \text{since } \arctan\left(\frac{1}{\Delta}\right) \sim \frac{\pi}{2} - \Delta \\
 I &= \underbrace{\frac{(2 - m^2)\pi}{4(1 - m^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}}}_{\text{global}} - \underbrace{\frac{\varepsilon \pi}{2(1 - m^2)^3}}_{\text{local}} + \dots \tag{3.1}
 \end{aligned}$$

Note that this is a non-uniform approximation as $m \rightarrow 1$. There is a loss of ordering of the series solution when

$$\frac{1}{(1 - m^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \sim \frac{\varepsilon}{(1 - m^2)^3}$$

i.e. when

$$(1 - m^2) \sim \varepsilon^{\frac{2}{3}} \quad \text{and} \quad I \sim \frac{1}{\varepsilon}.$$

(b) This suggests that when $|m - 1| \ll 1$, we should introduce a scaled parameter: viz.

$$m = 1 - \varepsilon^{\frac{2}{3}} \lambda . \quad (3.2)$$

First let us examine the local contribution from near $\theta = 0$ (since on the basis of the estimates above it will be leading order). Put $\theta = \varepsilon^\beta u$, then

$$(1 - m^2 \cos^2 \theta)^2 \sin^2 \theta + \varepsilon^2 = \left(\varepsilon^{2\beta} u^2 + 2\varepsilon^{\frac{2}{3}} \lambda \right)^2 \varepsilon^{2\beta} u^2 + \varepsilon^2 + \dots$$

All leading order terms balance if $\beta = \frac{1}{3}$; this is referred to as a *distinguished scaling*. As a first guess, let us assume that this is the scaling in θ to consider. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \theta = \text{ord}(\varepsilon^{\frac{1}{3}}); \quad \text{integrand} &= \text{ord}\left(\varepsilon^{\frac{2}{3}}/\varepsilon^2\right); \quad \text{contribution to } \int = \text{ord}(1/\varepsilon) \\ \theta = \text{ord}(1); \quad \text{integrand} &= \text{ord}(1); \quad \text{contribution to } \int = \text{ord}(1) \end{aligned}$$

The ‘local’ contribution dominates. Hence introduce $\varepsilon^{\frac{1}{3}} \ll \delta \ll 1$, and split the integral:

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^\delta \dots d\theta + \int_\delta^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \dots d\theta \\ &\sim \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_0^{\delta \varepsilon^{-\frac{1}{3}}} \frac{u^2 du}{(u^2 + 2\lambda)^2 u^2 + 1} \sim \frac{1}{\varepsilon} f(\lambda) \end{aligned}$$

where

$$f(\lambda) = \int_0^\infty \frac{u^2 du}{(u^2 + 2\lambda)^2 u^2 + 1} .$$

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Hence for a given λ (or equivalently m), we have a leading order asymptotic estimate. However, we should check that as $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$, we obtain the same estimate as in (a). In particular, when $\lambda \gg 1$

$$\begin{aligned} u = \text{ord}(1) \quad , \quad \text{integrand} &= \text{ord}(1/\lambda^2), \quad \text{contribution to } \int = \text{ord}(1/\lambda^2) \\ u = \text{ord}(\lambda^{\frac{1}{2}}), \quad \text{integrand} &= \text{ord}(1/\lambda^2), \quad \text{contribution to } \int = \text{ord}(1/\lambda^{\frac{3}{2}}) \end{aligned}$$

This suggests that the largest contribution will come from where $v = \lambda^{-\frac{1}{2}} u = \text{ord}(1)$. Hence estimate f in this range:

$$f(\lambda) \sim \frac{1}{\lambda^{\frac{3}{2}}} \int_0^\infty \frac{dv}{(2 + v^2)^2} = \frac{\pi}{4(2\lambda)^{\frac{3}{2}}} ,$$

and

$$I \sim \frac{\pi}{4\varepsilon(2\lambda)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \sim \frac{\pi}{4(1 - m^2)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \quad (3.3)$$

↓ agrees with (3.1) for $m \approx 1$

We might also be interested in the other limit, i.e. $\lambda \rightarrow -\infty$. This estimate is a little more tricky, since $(u^2 + 2\lambda)$ can now have a zero (when $|\lambda| \gg 1$, this term normally dominates the denominator). First we test for a significant contribution from near this zero by introducing a scaled coordinate:

$$u = (-2\lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} + (-\lambda)^\gamma w .$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} 1 + u^2 (u^2 + 2\lambda)^2 &\sim 1 + (-2\lambda) \left(2(-2\lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} (-\lambda)^\gamma w + \dots \right)^2 \\ &\sim 1 + 16\lambda^2 (-\lambda)^{2\gamma} w^2 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

There is a distinguished scaling for the choice $\gamma = -1$, in which case the contribution to the integral from near the zero can be estimated as follows:

$$u = (-2\lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \text{ord}(1/|\lambda|); \quad \text{integrand} = \text{ord}(|\lambda|/1); \quad \text{contribution to } \int = \text{ord}(1) .$$

This is a much larger contribution than we found for $\lambda \gg 1$.

In order to estimate the contribution set

$$u = (-2\lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{w}{(-\lambda)} \quad (3.4)$$

then

$$f(\lambda) = \int_{-2^{1/2}(-\lambda)^{3/2} \approx -\infty}^{\infty} \frac{(-2\lambda + \dots) dw}{(-\lambda)[1 + 16w^2 \dots]} \sim \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Hence as $\lambda \rightarrow -\infty$, the value of the integral tends to a large constant, viz.

$$I \sim \frac{\pi}{2\varepsilon}. \quad (3.5)$$

(c) Finally consider the case when $m > 1$.

The limit $\lambda \rightarrow -\infty$ (i.e. $0 < (m-1) \ll 1$) suggests that the main contribution will be local, and will come from the region close to the point where

$$m^2 \cos^2 \theta = 1.$$

Define

$$\theta_m = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{m} \right) \quad \left(0 < \theta_m < \frac{\pi}{2} \right).$$

In order to deduce the coordinate scaling that is appropriate close to θ_m , we note from (3.2) and (3.4) that the ‘inner’ scaling for $0 < m-1 \ll 1$ can be written in the form

$$\theta = \varepsilon^{\frac{1}{3}} u = \varepsilon^{\frac{1}{3}} \left((-2\lambda)^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{w}{(-\lambda)} \right) = (2(m-1))^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{\varepsilon w}{(m-1)} \sim \theta_m + \frac{2\varepsilon w}{\theta_m^2}.$$

This suggests that for $(m-1) = \mathcal{O}(1)$ we should try the scaling

$$\theta = \theta_m + \varepsilon t,$$

in which case

$$(1 - m^2 \cos^2 \theta)^2 \sin^2 \theta + \varepsilon^2 \sim 4\varepsilon^2 m^2 \sin^4 \theta_m t^2 + \dots + \varepsilon^2$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} I &\sim \int_{-\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\theta_m \approx -\infty}^{\frac{1}{\varepsilon}(\frac{\pi}{2}-\theta_m) \approx +\infty} \frac{\varepsilon \sin^2(\theta_m + \varepsilon t) dt}{\varepsilon^2 (4m^2 t^2 \sin^4 \theta_m + 1) + \dots} \\ &\sim \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \cdot \frac{\pi}{2m} \end{aligned} \quad (3.6)$$

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We note that (3.6) agrees with (3.5) in the limit $m \rightarrow 1$.

3.4 Logarithms

Consider

$$\int_0^a f(x, \varepsilon) dx \quad \text{with} \quad f(x, \varepsilon) = \begin{cases} \text{ord}(\varepsilon^{-\alpha}) & x = \text{ord}(\varepsilon) \\ x^{-\alpha} & \varepsilon \ll x \ll 1 \\ \text{ord}(1) & x = \text{ord}(1). \end{cases}$$

e.g.

$$f = \frac{1}{(x + \varepsilon)^\alpha} \frac{1}{1 + x}.$$

There are three possibilities for the leading-order contribution depending on the value of α :