MATH 531 HOMEWORK 8

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Page 210, Exercise 4.8.4. Let $f:[a,b]\subset\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$ be integrable and $f\leq M$. Prove that

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \ dx \le (b - a)M.$$

Since f is Riemann integrable, we know $\int_a^b f(x) \ dx = \overline{\int_a^b} f(x) \ dx$. Expanding the definition of the upper integral gives

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \overline{\int_{a}^{b}} f(x) dx$$
$$= \inf_{P} \{U(f, P)\}.$$

Replacing the infimum over partitions with any fixed partition P, we get the bound

$$\leq U(f, P)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x)(x_{i+1} - x_i).$$

Finally, we use the fact that f is bounded above by M to get

$$\leq \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} M(x_{i+1} - x_i) = (b-a)M.$$

This is the desired bound.

Page 211, Exercise 4.8.7. Let $f:[0,1]\to\mathbb{R}$, f(x)=1 if x=1/n, n an integer, and f(x) = 0 otherwise.

- (1) Prove that f is integrable. (2) Show that $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0$.
- (1) To show that f is Riemann integrable, we must show that its upper and lower integrals are equal. First, note that any subinterval of [0,1] contains an irrational number since the irrationals are dense in \mathbb{R} . Since 1/n is the form of a rational

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number, this means that every subinterval of [0,1] contains at least one point x satisfying f(x) = 0. Thus for any partition P of [0,1], the lower sum is

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \inf_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x)(x_{i+1} - x_i)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} 0x_{i+1} - x_i)$$
$$= 0.$$

Thus $\sup_{P} \{L(f, P)\} = \int_{0}^{1} f(x) dx = 0.$

Now fix $n \in \mathbb{N}$, and let $[x_0, x_1] = [0, \sqrt{2}/n]$. Construct a partition P_n of [0, 1] containing x_0 and x_1 as its first two points such that all subsequent intervals have length no more than $1/n^2$. Then we can bound the upper sum as follows.

$$U(f, P_n) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x)(x_{i+1} - x_i)$$

$$= \sup_{x \in [x_0, x_1]} (x_1 - x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x)(x_{i+1} - x_i).$$

We can bound every supremum term by 1, resulting in the upper bound

$$\leq (x_1 - x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} (x_{i+1} - x_i)$$

$$\leq \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n} + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

$$= \frac{\sqrt{2}}{n} + \frac{n-1}{n^2}$$

$$\leq \frac{\sqrt{2} + 1}{n}.$$

Taking the limit as n increases, we get

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} U(f, P_n) \le \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\sqrt{2} + 1}{n} = 0.$$

Thus $\inf_{P} \{U(f,P)\} = \overline{\int_0^1} f(x) \ dx = 0 = \underline{\int_0^1} f(x) \ dx$, so f is Riemann integrable.

(2) Since both the lower and upper integral are 0, the Riemann integral $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$ is also 0.

Page 211, Exercise 4.8.8. Let $f:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be Riemann integrable and $|f(x)| \le M$. Let $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) \ dt$. Prove that $|F(y) - F(x)| \le M|y - x|$. Deduce that F is continuous. Does this check with Example 4.8.10?

The case x = y is trivial, so assume x and y are distinct. If x < y, then we have

$$|F(y) - F(x)| = \left| \int_{a}^{y} f(t) dt - \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt \right|$$
$$= \left| \int_{x}^{y} f(t) dt \right|$$
$$= \left| \inf_{P} U(f, P) \right|$$

where the infimum is over all partitions P of [x, y]. Selecting an arbitrary partition \tilde{P} of the form $\{x_0 = x, x_1, \dots, x_n = y\}$ gives the bound

$$\leq \left| U(f, \tilde{P}) \right|
= \left| \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x)(x_{i+1} - x_i) \right|
\leq \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \sup_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} |f(x)| (x_{i+1} - x_i)
\leq \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} M(x_{i+1} - x_i)
= M(y - x).$$

So $|F(y) - F(x)| \le M(y-x)$ when x < y. Similarly, if y < x, then $|F(y) - F(x)| \le M(x-y)$. Putting these together yields the desired inequality

$$|F(y) - F(x)| \le M|y - x|.$$

Now fix $\varepsilon > 0$ and set $\delta = \varepsilon/M$. If $|y - x| < \delta$, then

$$|F(y) - F(x)| \le M|y - x| < M\frac{\varepsilon}{M} = \varepsilon,$$

so F is continuous on [a, b]. Furthermore, since δ does not depend on the specific x and y being used, F is uniformly continuous on [a, b].

This checks with Example 4.8.10, as continuity of a function is not enough to guarantee differentiability.

Page 235, Exercise 4.41. Prove that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$$

and

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}.$$

We can rewrite $\sum_{k=1}^{n} k$ as

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k = \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k + \sum_{k=1}^{n} k \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{k=1}^{n} k + \sum_{k=1}^{n} (n - k + 1) \right)$$

$$= \frac{n(n+1)}{2},$$

as desired.

We can prove the second identity by induction. When n = 1, we have $\sum_{k=1}^{n} k^2 = 1$ and n(n+1)(2n+2) = 1(2)(3)/6 = 1. Assuming the identity holds for some arbitrary n, we must show it holds for n+1. We have

$$\begin{split} \sum_{k=1}^{n=1} k^2 &= (n+1)^2 + \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\ &= \frac{6(n+1)^2 + n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(2n^2 + 7n + 6)}{6} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)(n+2)(2n+3)}{6} \\ &= \frac{(n+1)((n+1) + 1)(2(n+1) + 1)}{6}, \end{split}$$

so the identity holds for all n.

Page 236, Exercise 4.42. For x > 0, define $L(x) = \int_1^x (1/t) dt$. Prove the following, using this definition:

- (1) L is increasing in x.
- (2) L(xy) = L(x) + L(y).
- (3) L'(x) = 1/x.
- (4) L(1) = 0.
- (5) Properties c and d uniquely determine L. What is L?
- (1) Let $x' \ge x > 0$, then

$$L(x') - L(x) = \int_{1}^{x'} \frac{1}{t} dt - \int_{1}^{x} \frac{1}{t} dt$$
$$= \int_{1}^{x} \frac{1}{t} dt + \int_{x}^{x'} \frac{1}{t} dt - \int_{1}^{x} \frac{1}{t} dt$$
$$= \int_{x}^{x'} \frac{1}{t} dt.$$

Since $1/t \ge 0$ for all t and $x' \ge x$, this integral is nonzero, so L is increasing in x.

(2) We have

$$L(xy) = \int_{1}^{xy} \frac{1}{t} dt$$
$$= \int_{1}^{x} \frac{1}{t} dt + \int_{x}^{xy} \frac{1}{t} dt.$$

Now let u = t/x, then this becomes

$$= \int_{1}^{x} \frac{1}{t} dt + \int_{1}^{y} \frac{1}{u} du$$

= $L(x) + L(y)$,

as desired.

(3) Let G be any antiderivative of 1/x, then the derivative of L is

$$L'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$$
$$= \frac{d}{dx} [G(x) - G(1)]$$
$$= \frac{1}{x} + 0,$$

so L'(x) = 1/x.

(4) Let G again be any antiderivative of 1/x, then L(1) is

$$L(1) = \int_{1}^{1} \frac{1}{t} dt$$

= $G(1) - G(1)$
= 0.

so L(1) = 0.

(5) L is ln. In class we showed that the derivative of $\ln(x)$ is 1/x, so by (c), $L(x) = \ln(x) + C(x)$, where C'(x) = 0. But by (d), we know $L(1) = \ln(1) + C(1) = C(1) = 0$. Since C(1) is just a constant, this means all terms in C must be 0. Thus $L(x) = \ln(x)$.

Page 236, Exercise 4.44. Let $f:[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ be Riemann integrable and suppose for every a,b with $0 \le a < b \le 1$ there is a c with a < c < b and f(c) = 0. Prove $\int_0^1 f = 0$. Must f be zero? What if f is continuous?

Consider any partition P of [0,1] of the form $\{x_0 = 0, x_1, \ldots, x_n = 1\}$. By assumption, the interval $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ contains a point c_i such that $f(c_i) = 0$. Thus the infimum of f on this interval is 0.

Since f is Riemann integrable, the value of the integral is equal to $\sup_{P} L(f, P)$. Expanding the lower sum into its full definition gives

$$\int_0^1 f(x) \ dx = \sup_P \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \inf_{[x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x)(x_{i+1} - x_i).$$

We just showed that each infimum term in this summation is 0, so L(f, P) = 0 for every partition P. Since it is true for every partition, $\sup_P L(f, P) = 0$ as well, so $\int_0^1 f$ must itself be 0.

With no further constraints, f need not be the zero function. Consider the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

defined for all $x \in [0,1]$. Since \mathbb{Q} is dense in \mathbb{R} , this function satisfies the conditions from the original problem, and thus $\int_0^1 f = 0$ even though f in this case is clearly not the zero function.

If f is continuous, however, it must be the zero function, which we show by contradiction. To begin, note that since f is continuous and it is defined on the compact set [0,1], f is in fact uniformly continuous on [0,1]. Thus for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ when $|y - x| < \delta$.

Suppose $f(z) \neq 0$ for some $z \in [0,1]$, i.e. $|f(z)| = \varepsilon$ for some $\varepsilon > 0$. Now take $x \in [0,1]$ such that $|z-x| < \delta$, then $|f(x)-f(z)| < \varepsilon$. This means that f(x) is not 0 either. Moreover, f(x) must be the same sign as f(z). If x < z, consider the interval [x,z], and if z < x, consider the interval [z,x]. For all y in this interval, $|y-z| < \delta$, so $|f(x)-f(z)| < \varepsilon$. Since f(x) and f(z) are the same sign, f(y) is also nonzero. We have found an interval with no roots of f, which contradicts the assumption that all intervals of [0,1] contain a root of f. Thus f(z) = 0 for all $z \in [0,1]$, i.e. f is the zero function.

Page 236, Exercise 4.45. Prove the following **second mean value theorem**. Let f and g be defined on [a,b] with g continuous, $f \geq 0$, and f integrable. Then there is a point $x_0 \in (a,b)$ such that

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)g(x) \ dx = g(x_0) \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \ dx.$$

Let $m=\inf\{g([a,b])\}$, and let $M=\sup\{g([a,b])\}$, then clearly $m\leq g(x)\leq M$ for all $x\in [a,b]$. Since $f\geq 0$, the integral $\int_a^b f$ is also non-negative. Thus we have

$$m \int_a^b f(x) dx \le \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx \le M \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

Now consider $h(t) = t \int_a^b f(x) dx$. For fixed f, this is continuous with respect to t (it is just a linear function). Since $\int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx$ lies in the connected set [h(m), h(M)], by the intermediate value theorem we know there exists $t_0 \in [m, M]$ such that

$$t_0 \int_a^b f(x) \ dx = \int_a^b f(x)g(x) \ dx.$$

Since [a, b] is connected, g is continuous, and $m \le t_0 \le M$, by the intermediate value theorem again we know there exists $x_0 \in [a, b]$ such that $g(x_0) = t_0$. Thus we have

$$t_0 \int_a^b f(x) \ dx = g(x_0) \int_a^b f(x) \ dx = \int_a^b f(x)g(x) \ dx,$$

which gives us the desired equality.