

## Math 325 Problem Set 10 Solutions

Problems were due Friday, April 21.

36. ['another' L'Hôpital's Rule] Show that if  $f(x) \rightarrow 0$  and  $g(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , and

$$\frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \rightarrow L \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty, \text{ then } \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \rightarrow L \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

[Hint: Look at Proposition 3.6(ii), as a way to convert this into an 'ordinary' L'Hôpital's Rule problem...]

From Proposition 3.6, we have that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(1/x)$ . So we can try to compute  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  as  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(1/x)}{g(1/x)}$ , instead. That is, if we write  $F(x) = f(1/x)$  and  $G(x) = g(1/x)$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{F(x)}{G(x)}$ .

But! since  $f(x) \rightarrow 0$  and  $g(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , we know, by the same proposition that  $F(x) \rightarrow 0$  and  $G(x) \rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow 0^+$ . So we can try to apply L'Hôpital's Rule! Since  $F'(x) = (f(1/x))' = f'(1/x) \cdot (-1/x^2)$ , we have  $f'(1/x) = -x^2 F'(x)$ . Similarly, we find that  $g'(1/x) = -x^2 G'(x)$ .

But now since  $\frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \rightarrow L$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , the proposition again says that  $\frac{f'(1/x)}{g'(1/x)} \rightarrow L$  as  $x \rightarrow 0^+$ , that is,  $\frac{f'(1/x)}{g'(1/x)} = \frac{-x^2 F'(x)}{-x^2 G'(x)} = \frac{F'(x)}{G'(x)} \rightarrow L$  as  $x \rightarrow 0^+$ . So! the ordinary L'Hôpital's Rules tells us that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{F(x)}{G(x)} = L$ , and so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$ , as desired.

37. [Zorn, p.226, # 9] Show that if  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ , and you can show (from the definition!) that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = L \text{ and } \int_a^b f(x) dx = M, \text{ then } L = M. \text{ [I.e., 'the value of an integral is unique'.]}$$

[Suppose not! Show that there is a partition  $P$  that gets you into trouble...]

$\int_a^b f(x) dx = L$  and  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = M$ , and  $L \neq M$ . The  $L - M \neq 0$ , and so  $|L - M| = \epsilon > 0$ . But then by integrability we can find a  $\delta > 0$  so that for any partition  $P = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b\}$  (and any sample points: we'll pick  $c_i = x_i$ ) we have  $\|P\| < \delta$  implies

$|R(f, P, \{x_i\}) - L| < \epsilon/2$  and  $|R(f, P, \{x_i\}) - M| < \epsilon/2$ . But then  $\epsilon = |L - M| = |(L - R(f, P, \{x_i\})) + (R(f, P, \{x_i\}) - M)| \leq |L - R(f, P, \{x_i\})| + |R(f, P, \{x_i\}) - M| = |R(f, P, \{x_i\}) - L| + |R(f, P, \{x_i\}) - M| < \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon$ , so  $\epsilon < \epsilon$ , which is absurd. Therefore, it is not possible to have  $L \neq M$ , so  $L = M$ .

[Formally, in the above argument we need to know that there is a partition  $P$  with  $\|P\| < \delta$  (if there weren't one, we couldn't insert it into the inequalities above!). But there is one: picking an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $1/n < \delta$ , the partition  $P = \{a + i\frac{b-a}{n} : i = 0, \dots, n\}$  has  $\|P\| = 1/n < \delta$ .]

38. [Zorn, p.236, # 1]

(a): Show that if  $h$  is integrable on the interval  $[a, b]$  and  $h(x) \geq 0$  for every  $x \in [a, b]$ , then for every partition  $P = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b\}$  of  $[a, b]$  and set of 'samples'  $S = \{c_1, \dots, c_n\}$  with  $x_{i-1} \leq c_i \leq x_i$  for each  $i$ , we have  $R(h, P, S) \geq 0$ . Explain why we can then conclude that  $\int_a^b h(x) dx \geq 0$ .

If  $h(x) \geq 0$  for every  $x \in [a, b]$ , then  $h(c_i) \geq 0$  for every sample point  $c_i$ , since  $a \leq x_{i-1} \leq c_i \leq x_i \leq b$ , so  $c_i \in [a, b]$ . Then since  $x_i - x_{i-1} > 0$  for every  $i$  (since  $x_{i-1} < x_i$ ), we have  $f(c_i)(x_i - x_{i-1}) \geq 0$  for every  $i$ . So  $R(f, P, S) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i)(x_i - x_{i-1})$  is a sum of non-negative numbers, which is (by induction!) nonnegative. So  $R(f, P, S) \geq 0$  for every  $P$  and  $S$ .

This, in turn, implies that  $\int_a^b f(x)dx \geq 0$ , since if  $\int_a^b f(x)dx = L < 0$ , then for every  $P$  and  $S$ , we have  $|R(f, P, s) - L| = |R(f, P, s) + (-L)| = R(f, P, s) + (-L) \geq -L = \epsilon > 0$  (since  $R(f, P, S)$  and  $-L$  are both  $\geq 0$ ), and so for that choice of  $\epsilon > 0$  there is no  $\delta > 0$  so that  $\|P\| < \delta$  implies that  $|R(f, P, S) - L| < \epsilon$ . So  $\int_a^b f(x)dx$  cannot equal  $L$ .

(b): Use part (a) and the properties of integrals (Theorem 5.5) to show that if  $f$  and  $g$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  for every  $x \in [a, b]$ , then  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$ .

We know from work in class (sort of...) that if  $f$  and  $g$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then  $f - g = f + (-1)g$  is also integrable on  $[a, b]$ , and  $\int_a^b (f - g)(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + (-1) \int_a^b g(x) dx$ . But since  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[a, b]$ , we have  $(f - g)(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, b]$ , and so by part (a) we have  $\int_a^b (f - g)(x) dx \geq 0$ . So  $\int_a^b (f - g)(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx - \int_a^b g(x) dx \geq 0$ , and so  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx$ , as desired.

39. [Zorn, p.236, # 2] Suppose that  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ , and  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  for every  $x \in [a, b]$ . Show that  $m(b - a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b - a)$ .

We can solve this one of two ways. If we define functions  $g(x) = m$  and  $h(x) = M$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ , then both  $g$  and  $h$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$ . (This is because every Riemann sum for  $g$  is equal to  $m(b - a)$  and every Riemann sum for  $h$  is  $M(b - a)$ . This in turn means that  $\int_a^b g(x) dx = m(b - a)$  and  $\int_a^b h(x) dx = M(b - a)$ .) Then the previous problem, part (b), allows us to conclude that since  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  on  $[a, b]$  we have  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq \int_a^b g(x) dx = m(b - a)$ , and since  $h(x) \geq f(x)$  on  $[a, b]$  we have  $M(b - a) = \int_a^b h(x) dx \geq \int_a^b f(x) dx$ . So  $m(b - a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b - a)$ .

The other, more back-to-basics, approach is to look at the Riemann sums of  $f$ . Since  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  on  $[a, b]$ , for any partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  and sample points  $S = \{c_i\}$ , we have  $m \leq f(c_i) \leq M$ , so

$$m(b - a) = \sum_{i=1}^n m \cdot (x_i - x_{i-1}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n f(c_i) \cdot (x_i - x_{i-1}) = R(f, P, S) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n M \cdot (x_i - x_{i-1}) = M(b - a).$$

So every Riemann sum is trapped between  $m(b - a)$  and  $M(b - a)$ . But since  $f$  is integrable, we can choose any sequence of partitions  $P_n$  with  $\|P_n\| \rightarrow 0$  and  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and compute the integral as  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R(f, P_n, S_n)$ . But since  $m(b - a) \leq R(f, P_n, S_n) \leq M(b - a)$ , the Squeeze Play Theorem (!) tells us

$$\text{that } m(b - a) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R(f, P_n, S_n) = \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b - a).$$