# Chapter 6: The Riemann-Stieltjes Integral

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**Supplement.** Another definition of Riemann-Stieltjes integral. (Exercise 7.3, 7.4 of the book T. M. Apostol, Mathematical Analysis, Second Edition.) Let P be a partition of [a,b]. The norm of a partition P is the length of the largest subinterval  $[x_{i-1},x_i]$  of P and is denoted by ||P||.

We say  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$  if there exists  $A \in \mathbb{R}$  having the property that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that for any partition P of [a,b] with norm  $||P|| < \delta$  and for any choice of  $t_i \in [x_{i-1},x_i]$ , we have  $|\sum_{i=1}^n f(t_i)\Delta\alpha_i - A| < \varepsilon$ .

**Claim.**  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  in the sense of Definition 6.2 implies that  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  in the sense of this another definition.

Proof of Claim. Let  $A = \int f dx$ , M > 0 be one upper bound of |f| on [a, b]. Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a partition  $P_0 = \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{N-1}, x_N = b\}$  such that  $U(P_0, f) \leq A + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . Let  $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{2MN} > 0$ . Then for any partition P with norm  $||P|| < \delta$ , write

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i \Delta x_i = S_1 + S_2,$$

where  $S_1$  is the sum of terms arising from those subintervals of P containing no point of  $P_0$ ,  $S_2$  is the sum of the remaining terms. Then

$$\begin{split} S_1 &\leq U(P_0,f) < A + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}, \\ S_2 &\leq NM \|P\| < NM\delta < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \end{split}$$

Therefore,  $U(P, f) < A + \varepsilon$ . Similarly,  $L(P, f) > A - \varepsilon$  whenever  $||P|| < \delta'$ . Hence,  $|\sum_{i=1}^{n} f(t_i) \Delta x_i - A| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $||P|| < \min\{\delta, \delta'\}$ . (Copy Apostol's hint and ensure M > 0. M in Apostol's hint might be zero if f = 0.)  $\square$ 

This supplement will be used in computing  $\int_0^\infty (\frac{\sin x}{x})^2 dx = \frac{\pi}{2}$  in Exercise 8.12.

**Exercise 6.1.** Suppose  $\alpha$  increases on [a,b],  $a \leq x_0 \leq b$ ,  $\alpha$  is continuous at  $x_0$ ,  $f(x_0) = 1$ , and f(x) = 0 if  $x \neq x_0$ . Prove that  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$  and that  $\int f d\alpha = 0$ .

Given any partition  $P = \{a = p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}, p_n = b\}$ , where  $a = p_0 \le p_1 \le \dots \le p_{n-1} \le p_n = b$ . We might compute  $L(P, f, \alpha)$  and  $U(P, f, \alpha)$  by using  $\varepsilon - \delta$ 

argument since we are hinted by the condition that  $\alpha$  is continuous. A function which is continuous at  $x_0$  has a nice property near  $x_0$  and this property would help us estimate  $U(P, f, \alpha)$  near  $x_0$ . On the contrary, if both f and  $\alpha$  are discontinuous at  $x_0$ , it might be  $f \notin \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ . Besides, if f has too many points of discontinuity (f(x) = 0) if  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$  and f(x) = 1 otherwise, for example), then f might not be Riemann-integrable on [0, 1].

**Claim 1.**  $L(P, f, \alpha) = 0$ .

Proof of Claim 1.  $m_i = 0$  since  $\inf f(x) = 0$  on any subinterval of [a, b]. So  $L(P, f, \alpha) = \sum m_i \Delta \alpha_i = 0$ . Here we don't need the condition that  $\alpha$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .  $\square$ 

Claim 2. For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists a partition P such that  $U(P, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon$ .

Proof of Claim 2. Say  $x_0 \in [p_{i_0-1}, p_{i_0}]$  for some  $i_0$ . Then

$$M_i = \sup_{p_{i-1} \le x \le p_i} f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \ne i_0, \\ 1 & \text{if } i = i_0. \end{cases}$$

So

$$U(P, f, \alpha) = \sum M_i \Delta \alpha_i = \Delta \alpha_{i_0}.$$

It is not true for any arbitrary  $\alpha$ . (For example,  $\alpha$  has a jump on  $x=x_0$ .) In fact, Exercise 6.3 shows this. Luckily,  $\alpha$  is continuous at  $x_0$ . So for  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|\alpha(x) - \alpha(x_0)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  whenever  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  (and  $x \in [a, b]$ ). Now we pick a nice partition

$$P = \{a, x_0 - \delta_1, x_0 + \delta_2, b\},\$$

where  $\delta_1 = \min\{\delta, x_0 - a\} \ge 0$  and  $\delta_2 = \min\{\delta, b - x_0\} \ge 0$ . (It is a trick about resizing " $\delta$ " to avoid considering the edge cases  $x_0 = a$  or  $x_0 = b$  or a = b.) Then  $x_0 \in [x_0 - \delta_1, x_0 + \delta_2]$  and  $\Delta \alpha$  on  $[x_0 - \delta_1, x_0 + \delta_2]$  is

$$\alpha(x_0 + \delta_2) - \alpha(x_0 - \delta_1) = (\alpha(x_0 + \delta_2) - \alpha(x_0)) + (\alpha(x_0) - \alpha(x_0 - \delta_1))$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

Therefore,  $U(P, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon$ .  $\square$ 

Proof (Definition 6.2). By Claim 1 and 2 and notice that  $U(P, f, \alpha) \geq 0$  for any

partition P,

$$\int_{a}^{b} f d\alpha = \inf U(P, f, \alpha) = 0,$$
$$\int_{a}^{b} f d\alpha = \sup L(P, f, \alpha) = 0,$$

the inf and sup again being taken over all partitions. Hence  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$  and that  $\int f d\alpha = 0$  by Definition 6.2.  $\square$ 

Proof (Theorem 6.6). By Claim 1 and 2,

$$0 \le U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon.$$

Hence  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$  by Theorem 6.6. Furthermore,

$$\int f d\alpha = \int_{a}^{b} f d\alpha = \sup L(P, f, \alpha) = 0.$$

*Proof (Theorem 6.10).*  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$  by Theorem 6.10. Thus, by Claim 1

$$\int f d\alpha = \int_a^b f d\alpha = \sup L(P, f, \alpha) = 0.$$

**Exercise 6.2.** Suppose  $f \ge 0$ , f is continuous on [a,b], and  $\int_a^b f(x)dx = 0$ . Prove that f(x) = 0 for all  $x \in [a,b]$ . (Compare with Exercise 6.1.)

For one application, see Exercise 7.20.

*Proof.* (Reductio ad absurdum) If there were  $p \in [a,b]$  such that f(p) > 0. Since f is continuous on [a,b], given  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{64} f(p) > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - f(p)| \le \frac{1}{64}f(p)$$
 whenever  $|x - p| \le \delta, x \in [a, b]$ .

Hence

$$f(x) \ge \frac{63}{64}f(p)$$

whenever  $x \in E = [\max\{a, p - \delta\}, \min\{b, p + \delta\}] \subseteq [a, b]$ . Note that the length of E is |E| > 0. So

$$0 = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx \ge \int_{E} f(x)dx \ge \int_{E} \frac{63}{64} f(p)dx = \frac{63}{64} f(p)|E| > 0,$$

which is absurd.  $\square$ 

Note. (Lebesgue integral) Let f be a nonnegative measurable function. Then  $\int f = 0$  implies f = 0 a.e.

**Exercise 6.3.** Define three functions  $\beta_1$ ,  $\beta_2$ ,  $\beta_3$  as follows:  $\beta_j(x) = 0$  if x < 0,  $\beta_j(x) = 1$  if x > 0 for j = 1, 2, 3; and  $\beta_1(0) = 0$ ,  $\beta_2(0) = 1$ ,  $\beta_3(0) = \frac{1}{2}$ . Let f be a bounded functions on [-1, 1].

(a) Prove that  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_1)$  if and only if f(0+) = f(0) and that then

$$\int f d\beta_1 = f(0).$$

- (b) State and prove a similar result for  $\beta_2$ .
- (c) Prove that  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_3)$  if and only if f is continuous at 0.
- (d) If f is continuous at 0 prove that

$$\int f d\beta_1 = \int f d\beta_2 = \int f d\beta_3 = f(0).$$

Proof of (a).

(1) Given any  $\delta > 0$ , we have

$$|f(x) - f(0)| \le \sup_{x \in [0,\delta]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [0,\delta]} f(x)$$

if  $x \in [0, \delta]$ .

(2) Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\delta > 0$ . Show that if f is bounded and  $|f(x) - f(0)| < \varepsilon$  on  $[0, \delta]$  then

$$\sup_{x \in [0,\delta]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [0,\delta]} f(x) < 2\varepsilon.$$

Since f is bounded, there exists  $x_1, x_2 \in [0, \delta]$  such that

$$f(x_1) = \sup_{x \in [0,\delta]} f(x)$$
 and  $f(x_2) = \inf_{x \in [0,\delta]} f(x)$ .

By assumption,

$$f(x_1) - f(x_2) \le |f(x_1) - f(0)| + |f(0) - f(x_2)| < 2\varepsilon.$$

(3) Show that 
$$f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_1)$$
 iff  $f(0+) = f(0)$ .

$$f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_1)$$

$$\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } P \text{ such that } U(P, f, \beta_1) - L(P, f, \beta_1) < \varepsilon$$
 (Theorem 6.6)

$$\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } P \text{ containing } 0 \text{ such that } U(P, f, \beta_1) - L(P, f, \beta_1) < \varepsilon \quad \text{(Theorem 6.4)}$$
  
where  $P = \{-1 = x_0 < x_1 < \ldots < x_k = 0 < \ldots < x_n = 1\}$ 

$$\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } P \text{ containing } 0 \text{ such that } M_{k+1} - m_{k+1} < \varepsilon$$

$$\Longleftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } P \text{ containing } 0 \text{ such that } \sup_{x \in [0,\delta]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [0,\delta]} f(x) < \varepsilon$$

where 
$$[x_k, x_{k+1}] = [0, \delta], \delta > 0$$

(Take 
$$P = \{-1, 0, \delta, 1\}$$
 in "\(\infty\)" direction)

$$\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } \delta > 0 \text{ such that } |f(x) - f(0)| < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } x \in [0, \delta] \tag{(1)(2)}$$

(Replace  $\varepsilon$  by  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  in " $\Leftarrow$ " direction)

$$\iff \lim_{x \to 0+} f(x) = f(0).$$

(4) Show that  $\int f d\beta_1 = f(0)$  if  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_1)$ . By (3) and Theorem 6.7,

$$\left| f(0) - \int_a^b f d\beta_1 \right| < \varepsilon.$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,  $\int f d\beta_1 = f(0)$ .

Proof of (b). Show that  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_2)$  if and only if f(0-) = f(0) and that then

$$\int f d\beta_2 = f(0).$$

Similar to (a).

(1) Given any  $\delta > 0$ , we have

$$|f(x) - f(0)| \le \sup_{x \in [-\delta, 0]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [-\delta, 0]} f(x)$$

if  $x \in [-\delta, 0]$ .

(2) Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\delta > 0$ . Show that if f is bounded and  $|f(x) - f(0)| < \varepsilon$  on  $[-\delta, 0]$  then

$$\sup_{x \in [-\delta, 0]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [-\delta, 0]} f(x) < 2\varepsilon.$$

Since f is bounded, there exists  $x_1, x_2 \in [-\delta, 0]$  such that

$$f(x_1) = \sup_{x \in [-\delta, 0]} f(x)$$
 and  $f(x_2) = \inf_{x \in [-\delta, 0]} f(x)$ .

By assumption,

$$f(x_1) - f(x_2) \le |f(x_1) - f(0)| + |f(0) - f(x_2)| < 2\varepsilon.$$

(3) Show that  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_1)$  iff f(0-) = f(0).

$$f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_2)$$

$$\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } P \text{ such that } U(P, f, \beta_2) - L(P, f, \beta_2) < \varepsilon$$
 (Theorem 6.6)

$$\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } P \text{ containing } 0 \text{ such that } U(P, f, \beta_2) - L(P, f, \beta_2) < \varepsilon$$
 (Theorem 6.4) where  $P = \{-1 = x_0 < x_1 < \ldots < x_k = 0 < \ldots < x_n = 1\}$ 

 $\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } P \text{ containing } 0 \text{ such that } M_k - m_k < \varepsilon$ 

 $\Longleftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } P \text{ containing } 0 \text{ such that } \sup_{x \in [-\delta,0]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [-\delta,0]} f(x) < \varepsilon$ 

where 
$$[x_{k-1}, x_k] = [-\delta, 0], \ \delta > 0$$

(Take 
$$P = \{-1, -\delta, 0, 1\}$$
 in " $\Leftarrow$ " direction)

$$\iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there is } \delta > 0 \text{ such that } |f(x) - f(0)| < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } x \in [-\delta, 0] \tag{(1)(2)}$$

(Replace  $\varepsilon$  by  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  in " $\longleftarrow$ " direction)

$$\iff \lim_{x \to 0^-} f(x) = f(0).$$

(4) Show that  $\int f d\beta_2 = f(0)$  if  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_2)$ . By (3) and Theorem 6.7,

$$\left| f(0) - \int_a^b f d\beta_2 \right| < \varepsilon.$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,  $\int f d\beta_2 = f(0)$ .

Proof of (c). Note that f is continuous at 0 iff f(0+) = f(0-) = f(0). Apply the same argument in (a) and (b), we have  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\beta_3)$  if and only if f(0+) = f(0-) = f(0).  $\square$ 

Proof of (d). It suffices to show that

$$\int_a^b f d\beta_3 = f(0).$$

We can apply Theorem 6.12(d)(e) to  $\beta_3 = \frac{1}{2}(\beta_1 + \beta_2)$ . That is,

$$\int_{a}^{b} f d\beta_{3} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \int_{a}^{b} f d\beta_{1} + \int_{a}^{b} f d\beta_{2} \right] = \frac{1}{2} [f(0) + f(0)] = f(0).$$

Or apply the same argument in (a) and (b) to get

$$\left| f(0) - \int_{a}^{b} f d\beta_{3} \right| < \varepsilon$$

for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , or  $\int_a^b f d\beta_3 = f(0)$ .  $\square$ 

### Exercise 6.4. If

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for all irrational } x, \\ 1 & \text{for all rational } x, \end{cases}$$

prove that  $f \notin \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b] for any a < b.

*Proof.* Given any partition

$$P = \{a = p_0, p_1, \dots, p_{n-1}, p_n = b\}$$

of [a,b] where  $a=p_0 \leq p_1 \leq \cdots \leq p_{n-1} \leq p_n=b$ . Since a < b, we might assume that  $a=p_0 < p_1 < \cdots < p_{n-1} < p_n=b$  by removing duplicated points. Since  $\mathbb Q$  and  $\mathbb R - \mathbb Q$  are dense in  $\mathbb R$ , we have

$$M_{i} = \sup_{p_{i-1} \le x \le p_{i}} f(x) = 1,$$

$$m_{i} = \inf_{p_{i-1} \le x \le p_{i}} f(x) = 0,$$

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i} \Delta x_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \Delta x_{i} = b - a,$$

$$L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i} \Delta x_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} 0 = 0.$$

Since P is arbitrary,

$$\int_{a}^{b} f dx = \inf U(P, f) = b - a > 0,$$
$$\int_{a}^{b} f dx = \sup L(P, f) = 0.$$

Hence  $f \notin \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b] for any a < b.  $\square$ 

Note.

- (1) (Lebesgue integral) f is Lebesgue integrable.
- (2)  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a, b] iff a = b.

(3) (Problem 4.1 in H. L. Royden, Real Analysis, 3rd edition.) Construct a sequence  $\{f_n\}$  of nonnegative, Riemann integrable functions such that  $f_n$  increases monotonically to f. What does this imply about changing the order of integration and the limiting process? (Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable, write

$$\mathbb{Q} = \{r_1, r_2, \ldots\}.$$

Define

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \notin \{r_1, \dots, r_n\} ,\\ 1 & \text{if } x \in \{r_1, \dots, r_n\} . \end{cases}$$

By construction,  $f_n$  increases monotonically to f pointwise. Note that  $f_n \to f$  not uniformly. Also,  $\int_a^b f_n(x) dx = 0$  by using the same argument in Theorem 6.10. Therefore,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx = 0$  but  $\int_a^b \lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$  does not exist.)

**Exercise 6.5.** Suppose f is a bounded real function on [a,b], and  $f^2 \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b]. Does it follow that  $f \in \mathcal{R}$ ? Does the answer change if we assume that  $f^3 \in \mathcal{R}$ ?

Actually we can omit the boundedness assumption of f since  $f^2 \in \mathcal{R}$  or  $f^3 \in \mathcal{R}$ .

Proof.

(1) Show that  $f^2 \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b] does not imply that  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  (unless  $f \geq 0$  on [a,b]). Similar to Exercise 6.4, define

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{for all irrational } x, \\ 1 & \text{for all rational } x. \end{cases}$$

 $f^2 = 1 \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a, b] but  $f \notin \mathcal{R}$  on [a, b] for any a < b. (The proof for the "unless" part is similar to (2).)

(2) Show that  $f^3 \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b] implies that  $f \in \mathcal{R}$ . Let  $\phi(x) = x^{\frac{1}{3}}$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ . By Theorem 6.11,  $f(x) = \phi(f(x)^3) \in \mathcal{R}$ . (The boundedness condition in Theorem 6.11 is unnecessary.)

Note. (Lebesgue integral) Suppose that  $f^2$  is Lebesgue integrable. Does it follow that f is Lebesgue integrable? Does the answer change if we assume that  $f^3$  is Lebesgue integrable? Both answers are no.

**Exercise 6.6.** Let P be the Cantor set constructed in Sec. 2.44. Let f be a bounded real function on [0,1] which is continuous at every point outside P.

Prove that  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  on [0,1]. (Hint: P can be covered by finitely many segments whose total length can be made as small as desired. Proceed as in Theorem 6.10.)

Proof (Theorem 6.10). Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

(1) Note that in Section 2.44, we have

$$P = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n$$

and each  $E_n$  is the union of  $2^n$  intervals, each of length  $\frac{1}{3^n}$ . For each interval  $[u_j, v_j] \subseteq E_n$  of  $E_n$   $(1 \le j \le 2^n)$ , we construct a slightly larger open set

$$(u_j - \lambda, v_j + \lambda) \supseteq [u, v]$$

where  $\lambda = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{2.28^n} - \frac{1}{3^n} \right) > 0$ . Each length of  $(u_j - \lambda, v_j + \lambda)$  is  $\frac{1}{2.28^n}$ . Write

$$G_n = \bigcup_{1 \le j \le 2^n} (u_j - \lambda, v_j + \lambda).$$

Hence

$$G_n \supseteq \bigcup_{1 \le j \le 2^n} [u_j, v_j] = E_n \supseteq P,$$

and the total length  $|G_n|$  of  $G_n$  satisfies

$$|G_n| \le \sum_{1 \le j \le 2^n} |(u_j - \lambda, v_j + \lambda)| = \left(\frac{2}{2.28}\right)^n.$$

(Two different subintervals might be overlapped.) As  $n \to \infty$ , P can be covered by finitely many open segments whose total length can be made as small as desired. Now we take an integer N such that  $\left(\frac{2}{2.28}\right)^N < \frac{\varepsilon}{64(M+1)}$ .

- (2) Let  $K = [0,1] G_N$  be a compact set (Theorem 2.35). By construction, f is continuous on K and thus f is uniformly continuous. So there is  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(s) f(t)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{89}$  if  $s, t \in K$  and  $|s t| < \delta$ .
- (3) Now we construct a partition  $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  of [a, b], as the following steps:
  - (a) Put  $\frac{0}{m}, \frac{1}{m}, \dots, \frac{m}{m}$  in P for some integer  $m \geq \frac{1}{\delta}$ .
  - (b) Put  $u_j \lambda$  and  $v_j + \lambda$  in P.
  - (c) Remove any points in the segment  $(u_j \lambda, v_j + \lambda)$  except 0 and 1.
- (4) Note that  $M_i m_i \leq 2M$   $(1 \leq i \leq n)$  where  $M = \sup |f(x)|$  is defined. Hence,

$$U(P,f) - L(P,f) \le \frac{\varepsilon}{89} + 2M \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{64(M+1)} \le \varepsilon.$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary, Theorem 6.6 shows that  $f \in \mathcal{R}$ .

Supplement (Lebesgue's criterion for Riemann-integrability). Let f be a bounded real function on [a,b] and let D be the set of discontinuities of f in [a,b]. Then  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b] if and only if D has measure zero.

For a proof, see Theorem 7.48 in Tom M. Apostol, Mathematical Analysis, 2nd edition.

**Exercise 6.7.** Suppose f is a real function on (0,1] and  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  on [c,1] for every c > 0. Define

$$\int_0^1 f(x)dx = \lim_{c \to 0} \int_c^1 f(x)dx$$

if this limit exists (and is finite).

- (a) If  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  on [0,1], show that this definition of the integral agrees with the old one.
- (b) Construct a function such that the above limit exists, although it fails to exist with |f| in place of f.

Proof of (a).

- (1) Since  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  on [0,1], f is bounded or  $|f| \leq M$  for some real M.
- (2) For any 0 < c < 1, we have

$$\left| \int_0^1 f(x)dx - \int_c^1 f(x)dx \right| = \left| \int_0^c f(x)dx \right|$$
 (Theorem 6.12(c))  
  $\leq Mc.$  (Theorem 6.12(d))

(3) Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{M+1} > 0$  such that

$$\left| \int_0^c f(x)dx - \int_0^1 f(x)dx \right| \le Mc < M\delta = M \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{M+1} < \varepsilon$$

whenever  $0 < c < \delta$ . Hence  $\lim_{c\to 0} \int_0^c f(x) dx = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$ .

 $Proof \ of \ (b) (Construct \ by \ nonabsolutely \ convergent \ series).$ 

(1) Given any nonabsolutely (conditionally) convergent series  $\sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k$  (take  $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  for example and then see Remark 3.46), we define f on (0,1] by

$$f(x) = 2^n a_n$$

if  $\frac{1}{2^n} < x \le \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}$  as  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ 

(2) By construction,

$$\int_{\frac{1}{2^n}}^{\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}} f(x)dx = \left(\frac{1}{2^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{2^n}\right) 2^n a_n = a_n.$$

and thus

$$\int_{\frac{1}{2^n}}^1 f(x)dx = \int_{\frac{1}{2^n}}^{\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}} f(x)dx + \dots + \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 f(x)dx = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k.$$

(3) Given any  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $\sum a_n$  is convergent, there exists a common integer N such that

$$|a_n| \le \frac{\varepsilon}{89}$$

and

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_k - A \right| \le \frac{\varepsilon}{64}$$

for some real A whenever  $n \geq N$  (Definition 3.21 and Theorem 3.23). Therefore, for any  $0 < c \leq \frac{1}{2^N}$ , say  $\frac{1}{2^{n+1}} < c \leq \frac{1}{2^n} \leq \frac{1}{2^N}$  for some  $n \geq N$ , we have

$$\left| \int_{c}^{1} f(x)dx - A \right| = \left| \int_{c}^{\frac{1}{2^{n}}} f(x)dx + \int_{\frac{1}{2^{n}}}^{1} f(x)dx - A \right|$$

$$\leq \left| \left( \frac{1}{2^{n}} - c \right) 2^{n+1} a_{n+1} \right| + \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k} - A \right|$$

$$\leq |a_{n+1}| + \left| \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{k} - A \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{89} + \frac{\varepsilon}{64}$$

$$\leq \varepsilon$$

Hence,  $\lim_{c\to 0} \int_c^1 f(x)dx = A$  exists.

(4) Since

$$\int_{\frac{1}{2^n}}^1 |f(x)| dx = \int_{\frac{1}{2^n}}^{\frac{1}{2^{n-1}}} |f(x)| dx + \dots + \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 |f(x)| dx = \sum_{k=1}^n |a_k| \to \infty$$

as  $n \to \infty$ ,  $\lim_{c\to 0} \int_c^1 f(x) dx$  does not exist. (Or show that  $\lim_{c\to 0} \int_c^1 f(x) dx = \infty$  by definition directly.)

**Exercise 6.8.** Suppose  $f \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b] for every b > a where a is fixed. Define

$$\int_{a}^{\infty} f(x)dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$

if this limit exists (and is finite). In that case, we say that the integral on the left **converges**. If it also converges after f has been replaced by |f|, it is said to converge **absolutely**. Assume that  $f(x) \ge 0$  and that f decreases monotonically on  $[1, \infty)$ . Prove that

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} f(x)dx$$

converges if and only if

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n)$$

converges. (This is the so-called "integral test" for convergence of series.)

#### PLACEHOLDER

**Exercise 6.9.** Show that integration by parts can sometimes be applied to the "improper" integrals defined in Exercise 6.7 and 6.8. (State appropriate hypotheses, formulate a theorem, and prove it.) For instance show that

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{\cos x}{1+x} dx = \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin x}{(1+x)^2} dx.$$

Show that one of these integrals converges **absolutely**, but that the other does not.

#### PLACEHOLDER

Exercise 6.10. Let p and q be positive real integers such that

$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1.$$

Prove the following statements.

(a) If  $u \ge 0$  and  $v \ge 0$ , then

$$uv \le \frac{u^p}{p} + \frac{v^q}{q}.$$

Equality holds if and only if  $u^p = v^q$ .

(b) If  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ ,  $g \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ ,  $f \geq 0$ ,  $g \geq 0$ , and

$$\int_{a}^{b} f^{p} d\alpha = \int_{a}^{b} g^{q} d\alpha = 1,$$

then

$$\int_{a}^{b} fg d\alpha \le 1.$$

(c) If f and g are complex functions in  $\mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ , then

$$\left| \int_a^b fg d\alpha \right| \leq \left\{ \int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} \left\{ \int_a^b |g|^q d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

This is **Hölder's inequality**. When p = q = 2 it is usually called the Schwarz inequality. (Note that Theorem 1.35 is a very special case of this.)

(d) Show that Hölder's inequality is also true for the "improper" integrals described in Exercise 6.7 and 6.8.

Proof of (a) (Young's inequality).

- (1) u = 0 or v = 0 is nothing to do. For u > 0 and v > 0, we give some different proofs.
- (2) First proof.

$$\begin{split} uv &= \exp(\log(uv)) \\ &= \exp\left(\frac{1}{p}\log(u^p) + \frac{1}{q}\log(v^q)\right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{p}\exp(\log(u^p)) + \frac{1}{q}\exp(\log(v^q)) \qquad \text{(Convexity of } \exp(x)) \\ &= \frac{u^p}{p} + \frac{v^q}{q}. \end{split}$$

Here the convexity of  $\exp(x)$  can be derived by the fact that  $(\exp(x))'' > 0$  and Exercise 5.14. The fact that the equality holds if and only if  $u^p = v^q$  is derived from the strictly convexity of  $\exp(x)$  additionally. (For the details about the exponential and logarithmic functions, might see Chapter 8.)

(3) Second proof.

$$\log\left(\frac{u^p}{p} + \frac{v^q}{q}\right) \ge \frac{1}{p}\log(u^p) + \frac{1}{q}\log(v^q) \qquad \text{(Concavity of } \log(x)\text{)}$$

$$= \log(u) + \log(v)$$

$$= \log(uv).$$

Since  $\log(x)$  increases monotonically  $((\log(x))' = \frac{1}{x} > 0 \text{ if } x > 0), \frac{u^p}{p} + \frac{v^q}{q} \ge uv$  (or take the exponential function to get the same conclusion). Here the concavity of  $\log(x)$  can be derived by the fact that  $(\log(x))'' < 0$ 

and a statement that  $f''(x) \leq 0$  if and only if f is concave. The fact that the equality holds if and only if  $u^p = v^q$  is derived from the strictly concavity of  $\log(x)$  additionally. (The proof is analogous to Exercise 5.14.)

(4) Third proof. Suppose that  $f:[0,\infty)\to [0,\infty)$  is a strictly increasing continuous function such that f(0)=0 and  $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x)=\infty$ . Then

$$uv \le \int_0^u f(x)dx + \int_0^v f^{-1}(x)dx$$

for every  $u, v \ge 0$ , and equality occurs if and only if v = f(u). Define

$$F(x) = -xf(x) + \int_0^x f(t)dt + \int_0^{f(x)} f^{-1}(t)dt.$$

By Theorem 6.20 (the fundamental theorem of calculus) and Theorem 5.5 (chain rule),

$$F'(x) = -(f(x) + xf'(x)) + f(x) + f'(x)f^{-1}(f(x)) = 0.$$

Hence F(x) is a constant on (0, u) (Theorem 5.11(b)). Note that F(x) is continuous on [0, u] and F(0) = 0, so F(x) = 0 on [0, u] or

$$\int_0^x f(t)dt + \int_0^{f(x)} f^{-1}(t)dt = xf(x).$$

Take x = u to get

$$\int_0^u f(x)dx + \int_0^{f(u)} f^{-1}(x)dx = uf(u).$$

Hence

$$\int_{0}^{u} f(x)dx + \int_{0}^{v} f^{-1}(x)dx - uv$$

$$= \int_{0}^{u} f(x)dx + \int_{0}^{f(u)} f^{-1}(x)dx + \int_{f(u)}^{v} f^{-1}(x)dx - uv$$

$$= uf(u) + \int_{f(u)}^{v} f^{-1}(x)dx - uv$$

$$= \int_{f(u)}^{v} [f^{-1}(x) - f^{-1}(f(u))]dx$$
>0.

The last inequality holds since f is strictly increasing and thus  $f^{-1}$  is strictly increasing too. Besides, the equality holds if and only if f(u) = v. Now the conclusion holds by taking  $f(x) = x^{p-1}$  in

$$uv \le \int_0^u f(x)dx + \int_0^v f^{-1}(x)dx$$

and the equality holds if and only if  $u^p = v^q$ .

Proof of (b). Every integral is well-defined (Theorem 6.11 and Theorem 6.13(a)). Let  $u = f \ge 0$  and  $v = g \ge 0$  in (a). Integrate both sides of the inequality

$$fg \le \frac{f^p}{p} + \frac{g^q}{q}$$

to get

$$\int_{a}^{b} f g d\alpha \leq \int_{a}^{b} \left(\frac{f^{p}}{p} + \frac{g^{q}}{q}\right) d\alpha \qquad \qquad \text{(Theorem 6.12(b))}$$

$$= \int_{a}^{b} \frac{f^{p}}{p} d\alpha + \int_{a}^{b} \frac{g^{q}}{q} d\alpha \qquad \qquad \text{(Theorem 6.12(a))}$$

$$= \frac{1}{p} \int_{a}^{b} f^{p} d\alpha + \frac{1}{q} \int_{a}^{b} g^{q} d\alpha \qquad \qquad \text{(Theorem 6.12(a))}$$

$$= \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} \qquad \qquad \text{(Assumption)}$$

$$= 1.$$

The equality holds if  $f^p = g^q$ . Note that the equality does not hold only if  $f^p = g^q$ . (Consider  $\alpha$  is constant on some subinterval  $[c,d] \subsetneq [a,b]$ .) Luckily, it is true for the additional assumption that  $\alpha(x) = x$  and f,g are continuous on [a,b].  $\square$ 

Proof of (c). There are three possible cases.

- (1) The case  $\left\{ \int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} = 0$ . So  $\int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha = 0$ .
  - (a) Show that  $\int_a^b |f| d\alpha = 0$  if  $\int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha = 0$ . (Reductio ad absurdum) If  $\int_a^b |f| d\alpha = A > 0$ , then given  $\varepsilon = \frac{A}{2} > 0$ , there exists a partition  $P_0 = \{a = x_0 \le \cdots \le x_n = b\}$  such that

$$\sum_{i=0}^{n} m_i \Delta \alpha_i > \frac{A}{2},$$

where  $m_i = \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} |f|$  and  $\Delta \alpha_i = \alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1})$ . By the pigeonhole principle, there exists  $1 \le i_0 \le n$  such that

$$L(P_0, |f|, \alpha) = m_{i_0} \Delta \alpha_{i_0} > \frac{A}{2n} > 0.$$

Especially,  $m_{i_0} > 0$  and  $\Delta \alpha_{i_0} > 0$ . Now we consider  $L(P, |f|^p, \alpha)$ . Hence

$$L(P_0, |f|^p, \alpha) = \sum_{i=0}^n m_i^p \Delta \alpha_i \ge m_{i_0}^p \Delta \alpha_{i_0} > 0,$$

or

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f| d\alpha = \sup L(P, f, \alpha) \ge m_{i_0}^{p} \Delta \alpha_{i_0} > 0,$$

which is absurd.

(b) Show that  $\int_a^b |fg| d\alpha = 0$  if  $\int_a^b |f| d\alpha = 0$ . Since  $g \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ , |g| is bounded by some real M on [a,b], that is,  $|g(x)| \leq M$ . Hence

$$0 \le \int_a^b |fg| d\alpha \le \int_a^b M|f| d\alpha = M \int_a^b |f| d\alpha = 0.$$

Therefore  $\int_a^b |fg| d\alpha = 0$ .

By (a)(b),  $\int_a^b |fg| d\alpha = 0$  and thus Hölder's inequality holds for this case.

- (2) The case  $\left\{ \int_a^b |g|^q d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}} = 0$ . Similar to (1).
- (3) If both  $\left\{ \int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} > 0$  and  $\left\{ \int_a^b |g|^q d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}} > 0$ , then we apply (b) to

$$F(x) = \frac{|f(x)|}{\left\{ \int_a^b |f(x)|^p d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}}} \quad \text{and} \quad G(x) = \frac{|g(x)|}{\left\{ \int_a^b |g(x)|^q d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}}}.$$

Here  $F(x) \ge 0$  and  $G(x) \ge 0$  are well-defined and Riemann integrable. Thus the conclusion holds. The equality holds if  $F(x)^p = G(x)^q$  or

$$\frac{|f|^p}{\int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha} = \frac{|g|^q}{\int_a^b |g|^q d\alpha}.$$

Note that the equality does not hold only if  $\frac{|f|^p}{\int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha} = \frac{|g|^q}{\int_a^b |g|^q d\alpha}$ . Luckily, it is true for the additional assumption that  $\alpha(x) = x$  and f, g are continuous on [a, b].

By (1)(2)(3), in any case the equality holds if

$$|f|^p \int_a^b |g|^q d\alpha = |g|^q \int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha.$$

In addition, if  $\alpha(x)=x$  and f,g are continuous on [a,b], then the equality holds if and only if

$$|f|^p \int_a^b |g|^q d\alpha = |g|^q \int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha.$$

Proof of (d).

(1) Suppose f and g are real functions on (0,1] and  $f,g\in \mathscr{R}$  on [c,1] for every c>0. Show that

$$\left| \int_0^1 f g dx \right| \le \left\{ \int_0^1 |f|^p dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} \left\{ \int_0^1 |g|^q dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

Here  $\int_0^1$  is one improper integral defined in Exercise 6.7.

(a) By (c), we have

$$\left| \int_c^1 fg dx \right| \leq \left\{ \int_c^1 |f|^p dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} \left\{ \int_c^1 |g|^q dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

for any  $c \in (0,1]$ . Here every integral is well-defined (Theorem 6.11 and Theorem 6.13).

(b) Since every integral is  $\geq 0$ , by taking the limit in the right hand side we have

$$\left| \int_{c}^{1} f g dx \right| \leq \left\{ \int_{c}^{1} |f|^{p} dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} \left\{ \int_{c}^{1} |g|^{q} dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

$$\leq \left\{ \int_{0}^{1} |f|^{p} dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} \left\{ \int_{0}^{1} |g|^{q} dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

It is possible that  $\left\{ \int_0^1 |f|^p dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} = \infty$  or  $\left\{ \int_0^1 |g|^q dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}} = \infty$ .

(c) Now  $\left| \int_{c}^{1} fg dx \right|$  is bounded by  $\left\{ \int_{0}^{1} |f|^{p} dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} \left\{ \int_{0}^{1} |g|^{q} dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}}$ . Take limit to get

$$\left| \int_0^1 fg dx \right| \leq \left\{ \int_0^1 |f|^p dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} \left\{ \int_0^1 |g|^q dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{q}}$$

even if some limit is divergent.

(2) Suppose f and g are real functions on [a,b] and  $f,g \in \mathcal{R}$  on [a,b] for every b > a where a is fixed. Show that

$$\left|\int_a^\infty fgdx\right| \leq \left\{\int_a^\infty |f|^pdx\right\}^{\frac{1}{p}} \left\{\int_a^\infty |g|^qdx\right\}^{\frac{1}{q}}.$$

Here  $\int_a^{\infty}$  is one improper integral defined in Exercise 6.8. Same as (1).

**Exercise 6.11.** Let  $\alpha$  be a fixed increasing function on [a,b]. For  $u \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ , define

$$||u||_2 = \left\{ \int_a^b |u|^2 d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Suppose  $f, g, h \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ , and prove the triangle inequality

$$||f - h||_2 \le ||f - g||_2 + ||g - h||_2$$

as a consequence of the Schwarz inequality, as in the proof of Theorem 1.37.

Proof.

(1) By Exercise 6.10(c) with p = q = 2, we have

$$\begin{split} \int_{a}^{b} |f - g||g - h|d\alpha &= \left| \int_{a}^{b} |f - g||g - h|d\alpha \right| \\ &\leq \left\{ \int_{a}^{b} |f - g|^{2} dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left\{ \int_{a}^{b} |g - h|^{2} dx \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \|f - g\|_{2} \|g - h\|_{2}. \end{split}$$

Every integral is well-defined (Theorem 6.12 and Theorem 6.13 (or Theorem 6.11)).

(2) Since

$$\begin{split} \|f-h\|_2^2 &= \int_a^b |f-h|^2 d\alpha \\ &\leq \int_a^b (|f-g|+|g-h|)^2 d\alpha \qquad \qquad \text{(Triangle inequality)} \\ &= \int_a^b (|f-g|^2+2|f-g||g-h|+|g-h|^2) d\alpha \\ &= \int_a^b |f-g|^2 d\alpha + 2 \int_a^b |f-g||g-h| d\alpha + \int_a^b |g-h|^2 d\alpha \\ &\leq \|f-g\|_2^2 + 2\|f-g\|_2 \|g-h\|_2 + \|g-h\|_2^2 \\ &= (\|f-g\|_2 + \|g-h\|_2)^2, \end{split} \tag{(1)}$$

we have

$$||f - h||_2 \le ||f - g||_2 + ||g - h||_2.$$

Here every integral is well-defined (Theorem 6.12 and Theorem 6.13 (or Theorem 6.11)).

**Exercise 6.12.** With the notations of Exercise 6.11, suppose  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Prove that there exists a continuous function g on [a,b] such that  $\|f-g\|_2 < 0$ 

 $\varepsilon$ . (Hint: Let  $P = \{a = x_0 \leq \cdots \leq x_n = b\}$  be a suitable partition of [a, b], define

$$g(t) = \frac{x_i - t}{\Delta x_i} f(x_{i-1}) + \frac{t - x_{i-1}}{\Delta x_i} f(x_i)$$

if  $x_{i-1} \leq t \leq x_i$ .)

*Proof.* Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

(1) There are some real numbers m and M such that  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  if  $x \in [a,b]$  since  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$  or f is bounded on [a,b]. By Theorem 6.6, there exists a partition  $P = \{a = x_0 \leq \cdots \leq x_n = b\}$  such that

$$U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha) < \frac{\varepsilon^2}{M - m + 1}.$$

Here

$$U(P, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i \Delta \alpha_i \text{ where } M_i = \sup_{x_{i-1} \le x \le x_i} f(x)$$
$$L(P, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i \Delta \alpha_i \text{ where } m_i = \inf_{x_{i-1} \le x \le x_i} f(x).$$

(2) For such partition P, define g on [a, b] by

$$g(t) = \frac{x_i - t}{\Delta x_i} f(x_{i-1}) + \frac{t - x_{i-1}}{\Delta x_i} f(x_i)$$

if  $x_{i-1} \leq t \leq x_i$ . So that

$$|f(t) - g(t)| = \left| \left( \frac{x_i - t}{\Delta x_i} + \frac{t - x_{i-1}}{\Delta x_i} \right) f(t) - \frac{x_i - t}{\Delta x_i} f(x_{i-1}) + \frac{t - x_{i-1}}{\Delta x_i} f(x_i) \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{x_i - t}{\Delta x_i} (f(t) - f(x_{i-1})) + \frac{t - x_{i-1}}{\Delta x_i} (f(t) - f(x_i)) \right|$$

$$\leq \frac{x_i - t}{\Delta x_i} |f(t) - f(x_{i-1})| + \frac{t - x_{i-1}}{\Delta x_i} |f(t) - f(x_i)|$$

$$\leq \frac{x_i - t}{\Delta x_i} (M_i - m_i) + \frac{t - x_{i-1}}{\Delta x_i} (M_i - m_i)$$

$$= M_i - m_i$$

if  $x_{i-1} \leq t \leq x_i$ . Especially,

$$|f(t) - g(t)| \le M - m$$

if  $a \leq t \leq b$ .

(3) Note that the integral  $\int_a^b |f-g|^2 d\alpha$  is well-defined (Theorem 6.8, Theorem 6.11 and Theorem 6.12). So that

$$\int_{a}^{b} |f - g|^{2} d\alpha = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_{i}} |f - g|^{2} d\alpha$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_{i}} (M - m)(M_{i} - m_{i}) d\alpha$$

$$= (M - m) \sum_{i=1}^{n} \int_{x_{i-1}}^{x_{i}} (M_{i} - m_{i}) \Delta \alpha_{i}$$

$$= (M - m) [U(P, f, \alpha) - L(P, f, \alpha)]$$

$$\leq (M - m) \cdot \frac{\varepsilon^{2}}{M - m + 1}$$

$$< \varepsilon^{2}.$$

Hence,

$$\|f-g\|_2 = \left\{ \int_a^b |f-g|^2 d\alpha \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} < \varepsilon.$$

Note.

(1) Apply the same argument we can prove the following statement:

Suppose  $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Prove that there exists a continuous function g on [a,b] such that  $\int_a^b |f-g| d\alpha < \varepsilon$ .

- (2) (Lebesgue integral)
  - (a) Let f be Lebesgue integrable over E. Then, given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is a simple function  $\varphi$  such that

$$\int_{E} |f - \varphi| < \varepsilon.$$

(b) Under the same hypothesis there is a step function  $\psi$  such that

$$\int_{E} |f - \psi| < \varepsilon.$$

(c) Under the same hypothesis there is a continuous function g vanishing outside a finite interval such that

$$\int_{E} |f - g| < \varepsilon.$$

Exercise 6.13. Define

$$f(x) = \int_{x}^{x+1} \sin(t^2) dt.$$

(a) Prove that  $|f(x)| < \frac{1}{x}$  if x > 0. (Hint: Put  $t^2 = u$  and integrate by parts, to show that f(x) is equal to

$$\frac{\cos(x^2)}{2x} - \frac{\cos[(x+1)^2]}{2(x+1)} - \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{\cos u}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du.$$

Replace  $\cos u \ by -1.$ )

(b) Prove that  $2xf(x)=\cos\left(x^2\right)-\cos[(x+1)^2]+r(x)$  where  $|r(x)|<\frac{c}{x}$  and c is a constant.

- (c) Find the upper and lower limits of xf(x), as  $x \to \infty$ .
- (d) Does  $\int_0^\infty \sin(t^2) dt$  converges?

Proof of (a).

(1) Put  $t^2 = u$  and integrate by parts to get

$$f(x) = \int_{x}^{x+1} \sin(t^{2}) dt$$

$$= \int_{x^{2}}^{(x+1)^{2}} \frac{\sin u}{2u^{\frac{1}{2}}} du$$

$$= -\frac{\cos[(x+1)^{2}]}{2(x+1)} + \frac{\cos(x^{2})}{2x} - \int_{x^{2}}^{(x+1)^{2}} \frac{\cos u}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du.$$

(2)

$$|f(x)| \le \left| \frac{\cos[(x+1)^2]}{2(x+1)} \right| + \left| \frac{\cos(x^2)}{2x} \right| + \left| \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{\cos u}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du \right|$$

$$\le \left| \frac{\cos[(x+1)^2]}{2(x+1)} \right| + \left| \frac{\cos(x^2)}{2x} \right| + \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{|\cos u|}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du$$

$$\le \frac{1}{2(x+1)} + \frac{1}{2x} + \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{1}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du$$

$$= \frac{1}{2(x+1)} + \frac{1}{2x} + \left[ \frac{1}{2x} - \frac{1}{2(x+1)} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{x}.$$

(3) The equality in (2) holds only if  $\left|\cos[(x+1)^2]\right| = 1$ ,  $\left|\cos(x^2)\right| = 1$ , and

$$\left| \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{\cos u}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du \right| = \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{|\cos u|}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du = \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{1}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du.$$

Since  $\cos u$  has two absolute minimums or maximums at two different points  $u=x^2$  and  $u=(x+1)^2$ , by the property of  $\cos(u)$  there is some  $u_0 \in [x^2, (x+1)^2]$  such that  $\cos(u_0) = 0$ . Hence given  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2} > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|\cos(u)| \le \frac{1}{2}$$

whenever

$$u \in E = [\max\{u_0 - \delta, x^2\}, \min\{u_0 + \delta, (x+1)^2\}] \subseteq [x^2, (x+1)^2].$$

Here |E| > 0. So that

$$\int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{|\cos u|}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du = \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{1}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du - \frac{1}{2} \int_E \frac{1}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du < \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{1}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du,$$

which is absurd. Hence the equality in (2) does not hold.

Proof of (b).

(1) By (a),

$$2xf(x) = \cos(x^2) - \cos[(x+1)^2] + r(x)$$

where

$$r(x) = \frac{\cos[(x+1)^2]}{x+1} - 2x \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{\cos u}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du.$$

(2) Similar to (a),

$$|2xf(x)| \le \frac{1}{x+1} + 2x \int_{x^2}^{(x+1)^2} \frac{1}{4u^{\frac{3}{2}}} du$$

$$= \frac{1}{x+1} + 2x \left[ \frac{1}{2x} - \frac{1}{2(x+1)} \right]$$

$$= \frac{2}{x+1}$$

$$< \frac{2}{x}.$$

Proof of (c).  $\square$ 

Note.

$$\int_0^\infty \sin(t^2)dt = \int_0^\infty \cos(t^2)dt = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2\sqrt{2}}.$$

Exercise 6.14. Deal similarly with

$$f(x) = \int_{x}^{x+1} \sin(e^{t}) dt.$$

Show that

$$e^x |f(x)| < 2$$

and that

$$e^{x} f(x) = \cos(e^{x}) - e^{-1} \cos(e^{x+1}) + r(x)$$

where  $|r(x)| < Ce^{-x}$  for some constant C.

#### PLACEHOLDER

**Exercise 6.15.** Suppose f is a real, continuously differentiable function on [a,b], f(a) = f(b) = 0, and

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)^{2} dx = 1.$$

Prove that

$$\int_{a}^{b} x f(x) f'(x) dx = -\frac{1}{2}$$

and that

$$\int_{a}^{b} [f'(x)]^{2} dx \int_{a}^{b} x^{2} f(x)^{2} dx > \frac{1}{4}.$$

*Proof.* Every integral is well-defined (Theorem 4.9 and Theorem 6.8).

(1) By Theorem 6.22 (integration by parts),

$$\int_{a}^{b} x \left( \frac{f(x)^{2}}{2} \right)' dx = \left[ x \cdot \frac{f(x)^{2}}{2} \right]_{x=a}^{x=b} - \int_{a}^{b} \frac{f(x)^{2}}{2} dx,$$

or

$$\int_{a}^{b} x f(x) f'(x) dx = \left[ b \cdot \frac{f(b)^{2}}{2} - a \cdot \frac{f(a)^{2}}{2} \right] - \frac{1}{2} \int_{a}^{b} f(x)^{2} dx = -\frac{1}{2}.$$

(2) By Exercise 6.10(c),

$$\int_{a}^{b} [f'(x)]^{2} dx \int_{a}^{b} x^{2} f(x)^{2} dx \ge \left( \int_{a}^{b} x f(x) f'(x) dx \right)^{2} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

(3) (Reductio ad absurdum) If the equality were holding, then by Exercise 6.10(c)

$$(f'(x))^2 \int_a^b x^2 f(x)^2 dx = x^2 f(x)^2 \int_a^b [f'(x)]^2 dx$$

on [a, b] (since x, f(x) and f'(x) are continuous on [a, b]).

(a) Show that both integrals are nonzero. (Reductio ad absurdum) If  $\int_a^b x^2 f(x)^2 dx = 0$ , then  $x^2 f(x)^2 = 0$  or x f(x) = 0 on [a,b] (Exercise 6.2). So that

$$\int_{a}^{b} x f(x) f'(x) dx = 0 \neq -\frac{1}{2},$$

which is absure. Similarly,  $\int_a^b [f'(x)]^2 dx \neq 0$ .

(b) By (a), we write

$$C = \left\{ \frac{\int_{a}^{b} [f'(x)]^{2} dx}{\int_{a}^{b} x^{2} f(x)^{2} dx} \right\}^{\frac{1}{2}} > 0$$

be a positive constant. Hence

$$f'(x) = \pm Cxf(x).$$

Here the sign " $\pm$ " is not necessary unchanged on [a, b]. Luckily, we can show that the sign " $\pm$ " is unchanged on some subinterval of [a, b].

(c) To find such subinterval of [a, b], we consider the zero set Z(f') and Z(xf) on [a, b]. Since  $f'(x) = \pm Cxf(x)$  with C > 0, we have

$$Z(f') = Z(xf).$$

Note that Z(f') = Z(xf) is closed (Exercise 4.3) and not equal to [a, b] (by applying the same argument in (a)). Hence the complement of Z(f') = Z(xf) is open and nonempty, which can be written as the union of an at most countable collection of disjoint segments (Exercise 2.29).

(d) Consider any nonempty open interval in (c), say

$$(c,d) \subseteq [a,b].$$

By construction,  $f'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in (c, d)$ . Since f'(x) is continuous, by Theorem 4.23 there are only two mutually exclusive possible cases:

- (i) f'(x) > 0 for all  $x \in (c, d)$ ,
- (ii) f'(x) < 0 for all  $x \in (c, d)$ .

Similar result for xf(x). Therefore, the sign " $\pm$ " of  $f'(x) = \pm Cxf(x)$  are unchanged on (c,d), that is,

- (i) f'(x) = Cxf(x) for all  $x \in (c, d)$ ,
- (ii) f'(x) = -Cxf(x) for all  $x \in (c, d)$ ,
- (e) Suppose f'(x) = Cxf(x) on (c,d). Since f'(x) and xf(x) are both vanishing at x = c and x = d, f'(x) = Cxf(x) at x = c and x = d. So

$$f'(x) = Cxf(x)$$
 if  $x \in [c, d]$ .

Define

$$\phi(x,y) = Cxy$$

be a real function on  $R=[c,d]\times \mathbb{R}.$  And consider the initial-value problem

$$y' = \phi(x, y)$$
 with  $y(c) = 0$ .

Then

$$|\phi(x, y_2) - \phi(x, y_1)| = Cx|y_2 - y_1| \le A|y_2 - y_1|$$

where  $A = C \cdot \max\{|c|, |d|\}$  is a constant. By Exercise 5.27, this initial-value problem has at most one solution. Clearly, y = f(x) = 0 on [c, d] is one solution of this initial-value problem, contrary to the construction of [c, d]. Similar result for the case f'(x) = -Cxf(x).

Therefore, the equality does not hold.

**Exercise 6.16.** For  $1 < s < \infty$ , define

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}.$$

(This is Riemann's zeta function, of great importance in the study of the distribution of prime numbers.) Prove that

(a)  $\zeta(s) = s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx$ 

and that

(b)  $\zeta(s) = \frac{s}{s-1} - s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{x - [x]}{x^{s+1}} dx,$ 

where [x] denotes the greatest integer  $\leq x$ . Prove that the integral in (b) converges for all s > 0. (Hint: To prove (a), compute the difference between the integral over [1, N] and the Nth partial sum of the series that defines  $\zeta(s)$ .)

Proof of (a) (Hint).

(1) Define

$$a_N = s \int_1^N \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx - \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{1}{n^s}.$$

Hence

$$s \int_{1}^{N} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx = \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} s \int_{n}^{n+1} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} s \int_{n}^{n+1} \frac{n}{x^{s+1}} dx$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} n \left( \frac{1}{n^{s}} - \frac{1}{(n+1)^{s}} \right)$$
$$= \left( \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{n^{s}} \right) - \frac{1}{N^{s-1}},$$

or

$$a_N = -\frac{1}{N^{s-1}}.$$

(2) So

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} a_N = 0$$

(since s-1>0). By Theorem 3.28,  $\zeta(s)$  converges if s>1. Hence

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} s \int_{1}^{N} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx = \zeta(s)$$

converges.

(3) Hence given any real b>1, there exists an integer N such that  $N\leq b< N+1$ . Since  $x\mapsto \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}}\geq 0$  on  $[1,\infty)$ ,

$$s \int_{1}^{N} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx \le s \int_{1}^{b} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx \le s \int_{1}^{N+1} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx.$$

Since  $b \to \infty$  if and only if  $N \to \infty$ ,

$$\lim_{N \to \infty} s \int_1^N \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx \le \lim_{b \to \infty} s \int_1^b \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx \le \lim_{N \to \infty} s \int_1^{N+1} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx$$

$$\Longrightarrow \zeta(s) \le \lim_{b \to \infty} s \int_1^b \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx \le \zeta(s).$$

Hence

$$\lim_{b \to \infty} s \int_{1}^{b} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx = s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx = \zeta(s)$$

(in the sense of Exercise 6.8).

Proof of (b).

(1) Show that

$$s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^s} dx = \frac{s}{s-1}.$$

Given any real b > 1. By the fundamental theorem of calculus (Theorem 6.21),

$$s \int_{1}^{b} \frac{1}{x^{s}} dx = \frac{s}{s-1} - \frac{s}{(s-1)b^{s-1}}.$$

Hence

$$\lim_{b \to \infty} s \int_1^b \frac{1}{x^s} dx = \frac{s}{s-1}$$

since  $\frac{1}{b^{s-1}} \to 0$  as  $b \to \infty$  (in the sense of Exercise 6.8).

(2) By (a) and (1),  $s \int_1^\infty \frac{x-[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx$  exists and equal to

$$s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{x - [x]}{x^{s+1}} dx = s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^{s}} dx - s \int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx = \frac{s}{s-1} - \zeta(s).$$

The result is established.

(3) Show that

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{x - [x]}{x^{s+1}} dx$$

converges for all s>0. Note that  $0\leq x-[x]<1$  on  $[1,\infty).$  So

$$\int_1^b \frac{x - [x]}{x^{s+1}} dx \le \int_1^b \frac{1}{x^{s+1}} dx = \frac{1}{s} - \frac{1}{sb^s}.$$

Since  $\frac{1}{sb^s} \to 0$  as  $b \to \infty$ ,

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \frac{x - [x]}{x^{s+1}} dx = \lim_{b \to \infty} \int_{1}^{b} \frac{x - [x]}{x^{s+1}} dx \le \lim_{b \to \infty} \frac{1}{s} - \frac{1}{sb^{s}} = \frac{1}{s}.$$

Note that  $\frac{1}{s}$  is finite, and thus the integral  $\int_1^\infty \frac{x-[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx$  converges.

Note.

- (1) The integral  $\int_1^\infty \frac{[x]}{x^{s+1}} dx$  does not converge for all  $1 \ge s > 0$ .
- (2) Compare to Exercise 8.9.
- (3) **Euler's summation formula.** (Theorem 7.13 in the textbook: *Tom. M. Apostol, Mathematical Analysis, 2nd edition.*) If f has a continuous derivative f' on [a,b], then we have

$$\sum_{a < n < b} f(n) = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_a^b f'(x) \{x\} dx + f(a) \{a\} - f(b) \{b\},$$

where  $\sum_{a < n \le b}$  means the sum from n = [a] + 1 to n = [b]. When a and b are integers, this becomes

$$\sum_{n=a}^{b} f(n) = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx + \int_{a}^{b} f'(x) \left( \{x\} - \frac{1}{2} \right) dx + \frac{f(a) + f(b)}{2}.$$

By taking  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^s}$  we can get (a) as well.

**Exercise 6.17.** Suppose  $\alpha$  increases monotonically on [a,b], g is continuous, and g(x) = G'(x) for  $a \le x \le b$ . Prove that

$$\int_{a}^{b} \alpha(x)g(x)dx = G(b)\alpha(b) - G(a)\alpha(a) - \int_{a}^{b} Gd\alpha.$$

(Hint: Take g real, without loss of generality. Given  $P = \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n = b\}$ , choose  $t_i \in (x_{i-1}, x_i)$  so that  $g(t_i)\Delta x_i = G(x_i) - G(x_{i-1})$ . Show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha(x_i)g(t_i)\Delta x_i = G(b)\alpha(b) - G(a)\alpha(a) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} G(x_{i-1})\Delta \alpha_i.$$

Proof (Hint). Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

(1) Take g real, without loss of generality. Given any partition

$$P = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < \ldots < x_n = b\}$$

of [a,b].

(2) By the mean value theorem (Theorem 5.10), there is  $t_i \in (x_{i-1}, x_i)$  such that

$$G(x_i) - G(x_{i-1}) = (x_i - x_{i-1})G'(t_i) = g(t_i)\Delta x_i.$$

(3) Hence,

$$\begin{split} \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)g(t_i)\Delta x_i &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)(G(x_i) - G(x_{i-1})) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)G(x_i) - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)G(x_{i-1}) \\ &= \underbrace{G(b)\alpha(b) - G(a)\alpha(a) + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)G(x_{i-1})}_{\text{adjust the index of } \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)G(x_i)} - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)G(x_{i-1}) \\ &= G(b)\alpha(b) - G(a)\alpha(a) - \sum_{i=1}^n G(x_{i-1})\Delta\alpha_i. \end{split}$$

(4) Since G(x) is differentiable on [a,b], G(x) is continuous (Theorem 5.2) and thus  $G \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$  (Theorem 6.8). So there is a partition  $P_1$  such that

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^{n} G(t_j) \Delta \alpha_j - \int_{a}^{b} G d\alpha \right| < \varepsilon$$

whenever  $t_j \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]$  (Theorem 6.7). In particular, we pick  $t_j = x_{j-1} \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]$  for all j, that is,

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^{n} G(x_{j-1}) \Delta \alpha_{j} - \int_{a}^{b} G d\alpha \right| < \varepsilon.$$

Note that if  $P^*$  is a refinement of P, the result is true too (Theorem 6.4).

(5) Since  $\alpha$  increases monotonically,  $\alpha \in \mathcal{R}$  (Theorem 6.9). Since g is continuous,  $g \in \mathcal{R}$  (Theorem 6.8). Hence  $\alpha g \in \mathcal{R}$  (Theorem 6.13). So there is a partition  $P_2$  such that

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha(t_k) g(t_k) \Delta x_k - \int_{a}^{b} \alpha g dx \right| < \varepsilon$$

whenever  $t_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$  (Theorem 6.7). In particular, we pick  $t_k = x_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$  for all k, that is,

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^{m} \alpha(x_k) g(x_k) \Delta x_k - \int_a^b \alpha g dx \right| < \varepsilon.$$

Note that if  $P^*$  is a refinement of P, the result is true too (Theorem 6.4).

(6) Since g is continuous on a compact set  $[a,b],\ g$  is uniformly continuous. Hence there exists  $\delta>0$  such that

$$|g(y) - g(x)| < \varepsilon$$

whenever  $|y-x|<\delta$  and  $x,y\in[a,b].$  For such  $\delta$ , we construct a partition  $P_3$  such that

$$|g(t_l) - g(x_l)| < \varepsilon$$

whenever  $t_l \in [x_{l-1}, x_l]$ . (For example, we might take

$$P_3 = \left\{ a, a + \frac{1}{N}(b-a), a + \frac{2}{N}(b-a), \dots, a + \frac{N-1}{N}(b-a), b \right\}$$

where N is an integer  $\geq \frac{b-a}{\delta}$ .) Hence

$$\left| \sum_{l=1}^{N} \alpha(x_l) g(t_l) \Delta x_l - \sum_{l=1}^{N} \alpha(x_l) g(x_l) \Delta x_l \right|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{l=1}^{N} \alpha(x_l) [g(t_l) - g(x_l)] \Delta x_l \right|$$

$$\leq \sum_{l=1}^{N} |\alpha(x_l)| \cdot |g(t_l) - g(x_l)| \cdot \Delta x_l$$

$$\leq M \varepsilon \sum_{l=1}^{N} \Delta x_l$$

$$= M(b-a) \varepsilon.$$

Note that if  $P^*$  is a refinement of P, the result is true too (by the uniformly convergence of g).

(7) Let  $P = \{a = x_0 < x_1 < \ldots < x_n = b\}$  be a common refinement of  $P_1, P_2$ 

and  $P_3$ . By (3)(4)(5)(6) we have

$$\begin{split} & \left| \int_a^b \alpha(x)g(x)dx - G(b)\alpha(b) + G(a)\alpha(a) + \int_a^b Gd\alpha \right| \\ & = \left| \int_a^b \alpha(x)g(x)dx - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)g(t_i)\Delta x_i + \int_a^b Gd\alpha - \sum_{i=1}^n G(x_{i-1})\Delta\alpha_i \right| \\ & \leq \left| \int_a^b \alpha(x)g(x)dx - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)g(t_i)\Delta x_i \right| + \left| \int_a^b Gd\alpha - \sum_{i=1}^n G(x_{i-1})\Delta\alpha_i \right| \\ & \leq \left| \int_a^b \alpha(x)g(x)dx - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)g(x_i)\Delta x_i \right| + \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)g(x_i)\Delta x_i - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha(x_i)g(t_i)\Delta x_i \right| \\ & + \left| \int_a^b Gd\alpha - \sum_{i=1}^n G(x_{i-1})\Delta\alpha_i \right| \\ & \leq \varepsilon + M(b-a)\varepsilon + \varepsilon \\ & = (M(b-a)+2)\varepsilon. \end{split}$$

Since  $\varepsilon$  is arbitrary,

$$\left| \int_a^b \alpha(x)g(x)dx - G(b)\alpha(b) + G(a)\alpha(a) + \int_a^b Gd\alpha \right| = 0,$$
 or 
$$\int_a^b \alpha(x)g(x)dx - G(b)\alpha(b) + G(a)\alpha(a) + \int_a^b Gd\alpha = 0,$$
 or 
$$\int_a^b \alpha(x)g(x)dx = G(b)\alpha(b) - G(a)\alpha(a) - \int_a^b Gd\alpha.$$

**Exercise 6.18.** Let  $\gamma_1$ ,  $\gamma_2$ ,  $\gamma_3$  be curves in the complex plane, defined on  $[0, 2\pi]$  by

$$\gamma_1 = \exp(it), 
\gamma_2 = \exp(2it), 
\gamma_3 = \exp\left(2\pi it \sin\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)\right).$$

Show that these three curves have the same range, that  $\gamma_1$  and  $\gamma_2$  are rectifiable, that the length of  $\gamma_1$  is  $2\pi$ , that the length of  $\gamma_2$  is  $4\pi$ , and that  $\gamma_3$  is not rectifiable.

Might assume that  $\gamma_3(0) = 1$ .

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**Exercise 6.19.** Let  $\gamma_1$  be a curve in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , defined on [a,b]; let  $\psi$  be a continuous 1-1 mapping of [c,d] onto [a,b], such that  $\psi(c)=a$ ; and define  $\gamma_2(s)=\gamma_1(\psi(s))$ . Prove that  $\gamma_2$  is an arc, a closed curve, or a rectifiable curve if and only if the same is true of  $\gamma_1$ . Prove that  $\gamma_2$  and  $\gamma_1$  have the same length.

## PLACEHOLDER