

SOLUTIONS TO HOMEWORK EXAMINATION, INTEGRATION THEORY, NOVEMBER 2018

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1. *Remark.* This is impossible with $f_n \geq 0$; we need cancellation. This can be achieved in (at least) two different ways. Note also that the result is valid for any measure μ .

First solution.

Define f by

$$f(x) = \frac{(-1)^i}{im(E_i)}, \quad x \in E_i.$$

Then f is integrable on each E_i , with $\int_{E_i} f dm = (-1)^i/i$, and thus the sum $\sum_i \int_{E_i} f dm$ converges. However,

$$\int_{\bigcup_i E_i} |f| dm = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_{E_i} |f| dm = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i} = \infty,$$

and thus f is not integrable on $\bigcup_i E_i$.

Second solution.

Partition each E_i as $E_i = E'_i \cup E''_i$, with $E'_i \cap E''_i = \emptyset$ and $m(E'_i) = m(E''_i) = m(E)/2$. (This is always possible with Lebesgue measure, as was assumed; it is not always possible if, e.g., we instead have a discrete measure.)

Define f by

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} 1/m(E_i), & x \in E'_i, \\ -1/m(E_i), & x \in E''_i. \end{cases}$$

Then f is integrable on each E_i , with $\int_{E_i} f dm = 0$, and thus the sum $\sum_i \int_{E_i} f dm$ converges trivially. However,

$$\int_{\bigcup_i E_i} |f| dm = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \int_{E_i} |f| dm = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 1 = \infty,$$

and thus f is not integrable on $\bigcup_i E_i$.

2. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^n \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{-n} \left(1 - \sin \frac{x}{n}\right) dx &= \int_0^\infty \chi_{(0,n)}(x) \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{-n} \left(1 - \sin \frac{x}{n}\right) dx \\ &= \int_0^\infty f_n(x) dx, \end{aligned} \quad (2.1)$$

say. For any fixed $x > 0$, we have as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $\chi_{(0,n)}(x) \rightarrow 1$, $(1 + x/n)^{-n} \rightarrow e^{-x}$ and $1 - \sin \frac{x}{n} \rightarrow 1$, and thus $f_n(x) \rightarrow e^{-x}$.

We want to apply dominated convergence¹, and we thus seek a dominating function. We give two alternative ways to do so. (Of course, one is enough.)

First domination. By the binomial expansion, for any $n \geq 2$ and $x \geq 0$,

$$\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{x^n}{n^n} \geq 1 + x + \frac{n(n-1)}{2} \cdot \frac{x^2}{2} \geq 1 + \frac{x^2}{4}.$$

Hence, for $n \geq 2$,

$$\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{-n} \leq \frac{1}{1 + x^2/4},$$

which is integrable on $(0, \infty)$.

This yields a domination $f_n(x) \leq g(x) := 2(1 + x^2/4)^{-1}$ for all $x \in (0, \infty)$, and all $n \geq 2$. This suffices, since it suffices to consider $n \geq 2$ when we take limits.²

Second (alternative) domination. By the Taylor series expansion, we have for $0 \leq x \leq 1$,

$$\log(1 + x) = \sum_{k=1}^\infty (-1)^k \frac{x^k}{k} = \left(x - \frac{x^2}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4}\right) + \dots \geq x - \frac{x^2}{2} \geq \frac{1}{2}x.$$

Hence, for $0 \leq x \leq n$,

$$\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{-n} = e^{-n \log(1+x/n)} \leq e^{-n \cdot x/2n} = e^{-x/2},$$

and thus

$$|f_n(x)| \leq 2e^{-x/2}. \quad (2.2)$$

Furthermore, (2.2) is trivial for $x > n$ because then $f_n(x) = 0$; hence (2.2) holds for all x and n . The function $h(x) := 2e^{-x/2}$ is thus a dominating function, and it is integrable on $[0, \infty)$.

Conclusion. By any of the two dominations above (or another one), the theorem of dominate convergence applies to (2.1), and yields

$$\int_0^n \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{-n} \left(1 - \sin \frac{x}{n}\right) dx = \int_0^\infty f_n(x) dx \rightarrow \int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx = 1.$$

¹Monotone convergence is not applicable in this problem

²In fact, $1 + x \geq 1 + x^2/4$ for $x \in (0, 1)$, so this domination happens to hold for $n = 1$ too. But it is simpler to ignore $n = 1$ instead of finding a special argument for that case.

3. First solution.

Fatou's lemma yields, using the two assumptions,

$$\int_X |f - g| d\mu = \int_X \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} |f - f_n| d\mu \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_X |f - f_n| d\mu = 0.$$

Hence, $f = g$ a.e.

Second solution.

Let A be a subset of X with finite measure. $\int |f_n - f| d\mu \rightarrow 0$ implies that $f_n \rightarrow f$ in measure. $f_n \rightarrow g$ a.e. implies that $f_n \rightarrow g$ in measure on A . Thus f_n converges to both f and g in measure on A . Since a limit in measure is a.e. unique, this shows $f = g$ a.e. on A . This holds for every A of finite measure, and it follows that $f = g$ a.e. on X . (The last step is easy if X is σ -finite. In general it requires an extra argument using that $B_n := \{x : |f_n(x) - f(x)| > 0\}$ is σ -finite, and thus $B := \bigcup_n B_n$ is σ -finite, and that on $X \setminus B$ $f_n = f$ for all n and thus $g = f$ a.e. We omit the details.)

Third solution.

$\int |f_n - f| d\mu \rightarrow 0$ implies that there exists a subsequence n_k such that $f_{n_k} \rightarrow f$ a.e. Hence, for a.e. x , the full sequence $f_n(x) \rightarrow g(x)$, and the subsequence $f_{n_k}(x) \rightarrow f(x)$; consequently, $g(x) = f(x)$.

4. Let $E_k := \{x \in X : |f(x)| \geq k\}$. Then, using Beppo Levi's theorem,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mu(E_k) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_X \chi_{E_k}(x) d\mu(x) = \int_X \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \chi_{E_k}(x) d\mu(x). \quad (4.1)$$

Furthermore, for every $x \in X$,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \chi_{E_k}(x) = \sum_{1 \leq k \leq |f(x)|} 1 = \lfloor |f(x)| \rfloor,$$

and thus

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \chi_{E_k}(x) \leq |f(x)| \leq 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \chi_{E_k}(x).$$

Integrating over x yields

$$\int_X \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \chi_{E_k}(x) d\mu(x) \leq \int_X |f(x)| d\mu(x) \leq \mu(X) + \int_X \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \chi_{E_k}(x) d\mu(x), \quad (4.2)$$

and the result follows by (4.1) and (4.2). (Recall that $\mu(X) < \infty$.)

5. Let $A > 0$. We will show that

$$\int_0^A \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |f(\lambda_n x)^{k_n}| dx < \infty.$$

This implies that the sum is finite a.e. on $[0, A]$. Since A is arbitrary, and the sum is an even function, this implies that the sum is finite a.e. on \mathbb{R} ,

To show that this integral is finite, we first use Beppo Levi:

$$\int_0^A \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |f(\lambda_n x)^{k_n}| dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_0^A |f(\lambda_n x)^{k_n}| dx.$$

To estimate the integrals $\int_0^A |f(\lambda_n x)^{k_n}| dx$, I consider two cases.³ We may for convenience assume that $\lambda_n \geq 0$, since replacing λ_n by $|\lambda_n|$ does not change the integral.

Case 1: $\lambda_n A \leq 1$. Then $f(\lambda_n x) = \lambda_n x$ for $x \in [0, A]$, and thus

$$\int_0^A |f(\lambda_n x)^{k_n}| dx = \int_0^A (\lambda_n x)^{k_n} dx = \frac{\lambda_n^{k_n} A^{k_n+1}}{k_n + 1} = \frac{(\lambda_n A)^{k_n} A}{k_n + 1} \leq \frac{A}{k_n + 1}.$$

Case 2: $\lambda_n A > 1$. Let N be the smallest integer $\geq \lambda_n A$. Note that, since $\lambda_n A > 1$, $N \leq 2\lambda_n A$. Then, using the symmetry and periodicity of f ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^A |f(\lambda_n x)^{k_n}| dx &\leq \int_0^{N/\lambda_n} |f(\lambda_n x)^{k_n}| dx = N \int_0^{1/\lambda_n} |f(\lambda_n x)^{k_n}| dx \\ &= N \int_0^{1/\lambda_n} (\lambda_n x)^{k_n} dx = N \frac{1/\lambda_n}{k_n + 1} \leq \frac{2A}{k_n + 1}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, in both cases the integral is at most

$$\frac{2A}{k_n + 1} \leq \frac{2A}{k_n}.$$

Consequently,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_0^A |f(\lambda_n x)^{k_n}| dx \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2A}{k_n} = 2A \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k_n} < \infty.$$

This completes the proof.

6. With the substitution $y = n^t = e^{t \log n}$ in the hint, we obtain, for $n \geq 1$,

$$\log n \int_0^{\infty} \frac{(1+y)^{-n}}{y(\log^2 y + \pi^2)} dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \log^2 n \frac{(1+n^t)^{-n}}{t^2 \log^2 n + \pi^2} dt =: \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_n(t) dt, \quad (6.1)$$

say. We have

$$f_n(t) = \log^2 n \frac{(1+n^t)^{-n}}{t^2 \log^2 n + \pi^2} = \frac{\log^2 n}{t^2 \log^2 n + \pi^2} (1+n^t)^{-n}. \quad (6.2)$$

We first show that $f_n(t)$ converges a.e. as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Consider the two factors separately. We have, as $n \rightarrow \infty$ with t fixed,

$$\frac{\log^2 n}{t^2 \log^2 n + \pi^2} \rightarrow \frac{1}{t^2}, \quad t \neq 0. \quad (6.3)$$

Furthermore, if $t \geq 0$, then $(1+n^t)^{-n} \leq 2^{-n} \rightarrow 0$; if $-\infty < t < 0$, then (for fixed t) $n^t \rightarrow 0$ and thus

$$\log((1+n^t)^{-n}) = -n \log(1+n^t) = -n(n^t + O(n^{2t}))$$

³This is not necessary, but I find it simplest this way.

$$= -n^{t+1}(1 + o(1)) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 0, & t < -1, \\ -\infty, & -1 < t < 0. \end{cases}$$

Hence,

$$(1 + n^t)^{-n} \rightarrow \begin{cases} 1, & t < -1, \\ 0, & t > -1, t \neq 0. \end{cases} \quad (6.4)$$

Consequently, as $n \rightarrow \infty$, by (6.3) and (6.4),

$$f_n(t) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 1/t^2, & t < -1, \\ 0, & t > -1, t \neq 0. \end{cases} \quad (6.5)$$

Next, we try to dominate $f_n(t)$. We do this in two different ways. First, for any $t \neq 0$,

$$|f_n(t)| \leq \frac{\log^2 n}{t^2 \log^2 n + \pi^2} \leq \frac{1}{t^2}. \quad (6.6)$$

On the other hand, if $|t| \leq \frac{1}{2}$, then $n^t \geq n^{-1/2}$ and thus, for $n \geq 4$,

$$\log(1 + n^t) \geq \log(1 + n^{-1/2}) \geq \frac{1}{2}n^{-1/2}. \quad (6.7)$$

Hence,

$$|f_n(t)| \leq \frac{\log^2 n}{\pi^2} (1 + n^t)^{-n} \leq \log^2 n e^{-\frac{1}{2}n^{1/2}}. \quad (6.8)$$

The right-hand side is independent of t , and $\rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, and is thus bounded by some constant C for all $n \geq 4$.

Combining this with (6.6), we find that for every $n \geq 4$ and a.e. $t \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$|f_n(t)| \leq \min\left(\frac{1}{t^2}, C\right) =: g(t). \quad (6.9)$$

The function $g(t)$ defined in (6.9) is integrable, and thus dominated convergence applies and yields, using (6.5),

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_n(t) dt \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\mathbf{1}\{t < -1\}}{t^2} dt = \int_{-\infty}^{-1} \frac{1}{t^2} dt = 1. \quad (6.10)$$