

# MATH 140B: Homework #3

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*Professor Seward*

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## Problem 1

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  $f^3 \in \mathcal{R}$ ?

*Proof.*  $f$  is not necessarily integrable. Consider

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ -1, & x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}.$$

$f^2(x) = 1$  is obviously continuous, as it is constant. Since both rationals and irrationals are dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=0}^n \Delta x_i = b - a, \quad L(P, f) = \sum_{i=0}^n -\Delta x_i = a - b,$$

for any partition  $P$ . But then  $U(P, f) - L(P, f) = 2(b - a)$ , and thus  $f \notin \mathcal{R}$ .

Suppose  $f^3 \in \mathcal{R}$ . Since  $f$  is bounded, we may assume  $|f| < M$ . Define  $\phi(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$ . Note that  $\phi(f^3(x)) = f(x)$ . Since  $x^3$  is a continuous 1-1 mapping on  $[-M^{1/3}, M^{1/3}]$ , its inverse  $\phi = \sqrt[3]{x}$  is continuous on  $[-M, M]$ , by Theorem 4.17. But then by Theorem 6.11,  $f(x) = \phi(f^3(x)) \in \mathcal{R}$  on  $[a, b]$ .  $\square$

## Problem 2

Let  $P$  be the Cantor set constructed in Theorem 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  $[0, 1]$ .

*Proof.* Note that  $P$  can be covered by finitely many segments whose total length can be made as small as desired. Pick  $\epsilon > 0$  and let  $M = \sup |f(x)|$ . Take finitely many disjoint intervals  $[u_i, v_i] \subset [0, 1]$  such that  $\bigcup_{i=0}^n (u_i, v_i) \supset P$  and  $\sum_{i=0}^n (v_i - u_i) < \epsilon$ . Put  $K = [0, 1] \setminus \bigcup_{i=0}^n (u_i, v_i)$ . Since  $K$  is compact,  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $K$ . Hence, there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(s) - f(t)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $s, t \in K$  and  $|s - t| < \delta$ .

Now consider a partition  $\rho = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  of  $[0, 1]$  such that each  $u_i, v_i$  occurs in  $\rho$  and no point of any segment  $(u_i, v_i)$  occurs in  $\rho$ . Additionally, if  $x_{i-1}$  is not one of the  $u_j$ , then  $\Delta x_i < \delta$ .

Note that  $M_i - m_i \leq 2M$  for every  $i$ , and that  $M_i - m_i \leq \epsilon$  unless  $x_{i-1}$  is one of the  $u_j$ . Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} U(\rho, f) - L(\rho, f) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta x_i \\ &= \sum_{x_{i-1}=u_j}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta x_i + \sum_{x_{i-1} \neq u_j}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta x_i \\ &< 2M\epsilon + \epsilon = (2M + 1)\epsilon, \end{aligned}$$

and the result follows from Theorem 6.6. □

### Problem 3

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

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

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.

*Proof.*

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

so it remains to show that  $\lim_{c \rightarrow 0} \int_0^c f(x) dx = 0$ . Since  $f \in \mathcal{R}$ , we may assume  $|f(x)| \leq M$  for  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Pick  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then, given any partition  $P = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$ , we have  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{nM}$  such that,

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i \leq nMc < \epsilon, \quad L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i > -nMc > -\epsilon,$$

for all  $c \in (0, \delta)$ . But then

$$\left| \int_0^c f(x) dx \right| < \epsilon,$$

and the result follows.  $\square$

(b) Construct a function  $f$  such that the above limit exists, although it fails to exist with  $|f|$  in place of  $f$ .

*Proof.* Define  $f(x) = \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  if  $x \in (\frac{1}{n+1}, \frac{1}{n}]$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Suppose  $c = \frac{1}{n+1}$ . Then,

$$\int_c^1 f(x) dx = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^k}{k}, \quad \int_c^1 |f(x)| dx = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k}.$$

As  $c \rightarrow 0$ ,  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and thus  $\int_c^1 f(x) dx$  converges but not  $\int_c^1 |f(x)| dx$ .  $\square$

## Problem 4

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

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

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  $f(x) \geq 0$  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.)

*Proof.* Consider the partition  $P = \{1, \dots, n\}$ . Since  $f$  is monotonically decreasing,

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f(k), \quad L(P, f) = \sum_{k=2}^n f(k).$$

Note that since  $f$  is at least 0 and monotonically decreasing,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(n) \in \mathbb{R}$ . We then get

$$f(n) + \sum_{k=2}^n f(k) \leq f(n) + \int_1^n f(x) dx \leq \sum_{k=1}^n f(k) \leq f(1) + \int_2^n f(x) dx.$$

But then  $\int_1^\infty f(x) dx$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty f(n)$  are bounded together, and the result follows.  $\square$

## Problem 5

Let  $p$  and  $q$  be positive real numbers such that

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

Prove the following statements.

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

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

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

*Proof.* Fix  $u$ . Define  $f(v) = \frac{u^p}{p} + \frac{v^q}{q} - uv$ . Then,  $f'(v) = v^{q-1} - u$ ,  $f''(v) = (q-1)v^{q-2} \geq 0$ , for  $v \geq 0$ . Hence,  $f(v)$  reaches minimum at  $v = u^{\frac{1}{q-1}}$ . Note that  $p = \frac{q}{q-1}$ . But then

$$\begin{aligned} f(v) &= \frac{u^p}{p} + \frac{v^q}{q} - uv \\ &\geq \frac{u^p}{p} + \frac{u^{\frac{q}{q-1}}}{q} - u^{\frac{q}{q-1}} \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} - 1 \right) u^p = 0, \end{aligned}$$

and the result follows. □

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

$$\int_a^b f^p d\alpha = 1 = \int_a^b g^q d\alpha,$$

then

$$\int_a^b fg d\alpha \leq 1.$$

*Proof.* By (a),

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

But then

$$1 = \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = \int_a^b fg d\alpha.$$

□

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

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

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.)

*Proof.* Put  $F = \int_a^b |f|^p d\alpha$ ,  $G = \int_a^b |g|^q d\alpha$ . Since  $f, g \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ ,  $|f|, |g| < M \in \mathbb{R}$ . Note that  $F = 0$  implies  $\int_a^b |f| d\alpha = 0$ . Thus

$$0 = M \int_a^b |f| d\alpha \geq \int_a^b |f||g| d\alpha \geq \left| \int_a^b fg d\alpha \right|,$$

and the inequality holds.

Hence, we may assume  $F, G > 0$ . Substituting  $f$  as  $\frac{|f|}{F^{1/p}}$  and  $g$  as  $\frac{|g|}{G^{1/q}}$ , we get

$$\int_a^b \frac{|f||g|}{F^{1/p}G^{1/q}} d\alpha \leq 1.$$

But then

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

□

- (d) Show that Hölder's inequality is also true for the “improper” integrals described in Exercises 6.7 and 6.8.

*Proof.* Since the equality holds for any finite interval, and thus the inequality also holds if the improper integrals converge.

Suppose the improper integral of  $f$  or  $g$  diverge, the right-hand side of the inequality tends to infinity, and thus the inequality still holds. □