

MATH 414 Analysis I, Homework 12

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3.3: Problem 13

Prove: If f is integrable and $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$, with strict inequality if f is continuous and positive at some point in $[a, b]$.

Answer

We will first show if f is integrable and $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq 0$. Based on theorem 3.3.5 [1] we know if f is integrable on $[a, b]$ then so is $|f|$ and:

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$$

However, $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[a, b]$, hence $|f(x)| = f(x)$. Thus:

$$0 \leq \left| \int_a^b f(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

And:

$$0 \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

Now, suppose f is continuous at $c \in [a, b]$ and $f(c) > 0$. Let $\epsilon = \frac{f(c)}{2} > 0$, then $\exists \delta > 0$ such that:

$$|f(x) - f(c)| < \frac{f(c)}{2}$$

Whenever $|x - c| < \delta$. Hence $\forall x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta)$, we know:

$$\begin{aligned}
|f(x) - f(c)| &< \frac{f(c)}{2} \\
\Rightarrow |f(c) - f(x)| &< \frac{f(c)}{2} \\
\Rightarrow |f(c)| - |f(x)| &< \frac{f(c)}{2} \\
\Rightarrow f(c) - |f(x)| &< \frac{f(c)}{2} \quad \text{since } f(c) > 0 \\
\Rightarrow \frac{f(c)}{2} &< |f(x)| \quad \forall x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \\
\Rightarrow \frac{f(c)}{2} &< f(x) \quad \forall x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \quad \text{since } f(x) \geq 0
\end{aligned}$$

Now, define g as the following:

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & \text{if } x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta); \\ 0, & \forall x \in [a, c - \delta] \cup [c + \delta, b]. \end{cases}$$

Hence:

$$g(x) \leq f(x) \quad \forall x \in [a, b] \quad \text{and} \quad 0 < g(x) \quad \forall x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta)$$

Therefore:

$$\int_a^b g(t) dt \leq \int_a^b f(t) dt \quad \text{and} \quad 0 = \int_{c-\delta}^{c+\delta} 0 dt < \int_{c-\delta}^{c+\delta} g(t) dt$$

We can write $\int_a^b g(t) dt$ as the following:

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_a^b g(t) dt &= \int_a^{c-\delta} g(t) dt + \int_{c-\delta}^{c+\delta} g(t) dt + \int_{c+\delta}^b g(t) dt \\
&= \int_a^{c-\delta} 0 dt + \int_{c-\delta}^{c+\delta} g(t) dt + \int_{c+\delta}^b 0 dt \\
&= 0 + \int_{c-\delta}^{c+\delta} g(t) dt + 0
\end{aligned}$$

Thus:

$$0 < \int_a^b g(t) dt \Rightarrow 0 < \int_a^b f(t) dt$$

3.3: Problem 18

(a) Let $f^{(n+1)}$ be integrable on $[a, b]$. Show that

$$f(b) = \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r + \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t) (b-t)^n dt.$$

HINT: Integrate by parts and use induction.

(b) What is the connection between (a) and Theorem 2.5.5?

Answer

(a) Prove by Induction:

1. **Basis**, $n = 0$:

$$\text{LHS: } f(b)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{RHS: } & \sum_{r=0}^0 \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r + \frac{1}{0!} \int_a^b f^{(1)}(t)(b-t)^0 dt. \\ & = f(a) \times 1 + 1 \times [f(t)]_a^b \\ & = f(a) + f(b) - f(a) \\ & = f(b) \\ & = \text{RHS.} \end{aligned}$$

2. **Induction Assumption:**

Suppose $n-1$ we know that:

$$f(b) = \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r + \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_a^b f^{(n)}(t)(b-t)^{n-1} dt.$$

3. **Induction Step:**

Knowing that $f^{(n+1)}$ exists and is integrable on $[a, b]$ we would like to prove for n :

$$f(b) = \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r + \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t)(b-t)^n dt.$$

Equivalently, we have to show RHS is equal to $f(b)$.

We use integration by parts, which is defined as the following:

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du$$

Choose:

$$u = (b-t)^n \quad \text{and} \quad dv = f^{(n+1)}(t)dt$$

Then, we have:

$$du = -n(b-t)^{n-1}dt \quad \text{and} \quad v = f^{(n)}(t)$$

By applying the integration by parts formula, we have:

$$\int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t)(b-t)^n dt = \left[f^{(n)}(t)(b-t)^n \right]_a^b - \int_a^b f^{(n)}(t) \cdot (-n(b-t)^{n-1}) dt$$

Which can be simplified to the following:

$$\int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t)(b-t)^n dt = \left[f^{(n)}(t)(b-t)^n \right]_a^b + n \int_a^b f^{(n)}(t)(b-t)^{n-1} dt$$

Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r + \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t) (b-t)^n dt \\
&= \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (b-a)^n + \frac{1}{n!} \left[f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^n \right]_a^b + \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_a^b f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^{n-1} dt \\
&= \sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r + \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_a^b f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^{n-1} dt + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (b-a)^n + \frac{1}{n!} \left[f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^n \right]_a^b
\end{aligned}$$

Based on the induction hypothesis $\sum_{r=0}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r + \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \int_a^b f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^{n-1} dt$

is equal to $f(b)$. Thus, we have to show $\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (b-a)^n + \frac{1}{n!} \left[f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^n \right]_a^b$ is equal to 0.

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (b-a)^n + \frac{1}{n!} \left[f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^n \right]_a^b &= \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (b-a)^n + \frac{1}{n!} \left(f^{(n)}(b) (b-b)^n - f^{(n)}(a) (b-a)^n \right) \\
&= \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (b-a)^n - \frac{f^{(n)}(a) (b-a)^n}{n!} \\
&= 0
\end{aligned}$$

(b) Let's recall Theorem 2.5.5:

Theorem 2.5.5 (Extended Mean Value Theorem)

Suppose that f is continuous on a finite closed interval I with endpoints a and b (that is, either $I = (a, b)$ or $I = (b, a)$), $f^{(n+1)}$ exists on the open interval I^0 , and, if $n > 0$, that $f', \dots, f^{(n)}$ exist and are continuous at a . Then

$$f(b) - \sum_{r=0}^n \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (b-a)^{n+1}$$

for some c in I^0 . The given formula and Theorem 2.5.5 are closely related as they both expand a function f around a point a using derivatives up to order n . Both involve the idea of approximating $f(b)$ by a Taylor series-like expansion and express the remainder term in a different but equivalent way.

Both (a) and Theorem 2.5.5 include a sum of terms involving the derivatives of f at a :

$$\sum_{r=0}^n \frac{f^{(r)}(a)}{r!} (b-a)^r.$$

This represents the Taylor series expansion of f around a up to order n .

On the other hand, Theorem 2.5.5 represents the remainder term as:

$$R = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (b-a)^{n+1},$$

where $c \in (a, b)$.

While (a) expresses the remainder term as an integral:

$$R = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t) (b-t)^n dt.$$

This is the integral form of the remainder, which is a weighted average of $f^{(n+1)}(t)$ over the interval $[a, b]$. These two values of the remainder are equivalent. However, the integral form distributes the remainder over the interval $[a, b]$, while Theorem 2.5.5 forms it with a single evaluation at some unknown $c \in (a, b)$. Since c is generally unknown, (a) gives a way to determine this value as stated in Theorem 2.5.5.

3.4: Problem 4

Find all values of p for which the following integrals exist **(i)** as proper integrals (perhaps after defining f at the endpoints of the interval) or **(ii)** as improper integrals. **(iii)** Evaluate the integrals for the values of p for which they converge.

(c) $\int_0^\infty e^{-px} dx$

(d) $\int_0^1 x^{-p} dx$

(e) $\int_0^\infty x^{-p} dx$

Answer

(c) Fix $p \in \mathbb{R}$ and consider the function

$$f(x) = e^{-px}$$

is locally integrable on $(0, \infty)$. To see whether

$$I = \int_0^\infty e^{-px} dx$$

converges according to Definition 3.4.3, we consider the improper integrals

$$I_1 = \int_0^1 e^{-px} dx \quad \text{and} \quad I_2 = \int_1^\infty e^{-px} dx$$

separately.

We know:

$$\int_0^1 e^{-px} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1-e^{-p}}{p}, & p \neq 0, \\ 1, & p = 0. \end{cases}$$

Hence, for $p \neq 0$:

$$\int_1^\infty e^{-px} dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^c e^{-px} dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1-e^{-px}}{p} \right]_1^c = \begin{cases} \frac{e^{-p}}{p}, & p > 0, \\ -\infty, & p < 0. \end{cases}$$

Therefore:

$$I = \int_0^\infty e^{-px} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p}, & p > 0, \\ 1, & p = 0, \\ -\infty, & p < 0. \end{cases}$$

(d) Fix $p \in \mathbb{R}$ and consider the function

$$f(x) = x^{-p}$$

The proper integral is when f is defined on a closed interval of $[0, 1]$, and the improper integral is when f is locally integrable on $[0, 1)$. First, we will be calculating the proper integral with the assumption that f is defined on a closed interval of $[0, 1]$. Hence, for $p \neq 0, 1$:

$$\int_0^1 x^{-p} dx = \left[\frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{1-p}$$

And for $p = 1$ and by using improper integral:

$$\int_0^1 x^{-1} dx = [\ln(x)]_0^1 = \lim_{N \rightarrow 0^+} \int_N^1 x^{-1} dx = \lim_{N \rightarrow 0^+} [\ln(x)]_N^1 = \lim_{N \rightarrow 0^+} \ln(1) - \lim_{N \rightarrow 0^+} \ln(N) = 0 - (-\infty) = \infty$$

Therefore:

$$\int_0^1 x^{-p} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-p}, & p \neq 0, 1, \\ \infty, & p = 1, \\ 1, & p = 0. \end{cases}$$

Now, suppose f is locally integrable on $[0, 1)$. Hence, for $p \neq 0, 1$:

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^c x^{-p} dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} \left[\frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \right]_0^c = \lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} \left(\frac{c^{-p+1}}{-p+1} - 0 \right) = \lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{c^{-p+1}}{-p+1} = \frac{1}{-p+1}$$

And for $p = 1$:

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^c x^{-1} dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} [\ln(x)]_0^c = \lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} (\ln(c) - \ln(0)) = \lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} \ln(c) - \lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} \ln(0) = \infty$$

Therefore:

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^c x^{-p} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-p}, & p \neq 0, 1, \\ \infty, & p = 1, \\ 1, & p = 0. \end{cases}$$

(e) $\int_0^\infty x^{-p} dx$. Fix $p \in \mathbb{R}$ and consider the function

$$f(x) = x^{-p}$$

is locally integrable on $(0, \infty)$. To see whether

$$I = \int_0^\infty x^{-p} dx$$

converges according to Definition 3.4.3, we consider the improper integrals

$$I_1 = \int_0^1 x^{-p} dx \quad \text{and} \quad I_2 = \int_1^\infty x^{-p} dx$$

separately. Based on (d), we know:

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow 1^-} \int_0^c x^{-p} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-p}, & p \neq 0, 1, \\ \infty, & p = 1, \\ 1, & p = 0. \end{cases}$$

Now, for $p \neq 0, 1$:

$$\int_1^\infty x^{-p} dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^c x^{-p} dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{x^{-p+1}}{-p+1} \right]_1^c = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{p-1}, & p > 1, \\ \infty, & p < 1. \end{cases}$$

Therefore:

$$I = \int_0^\infty x^{-p} dx = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{1-p}, & p > 1, \\ 1, & p = 0, \\ \infty, & p \leq 1. \end{cases}$$

3.4: Problem 5

5. Evaluate

(b) $\int_0^\infty e^{-x} \sin x dx$

(c) $\int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{x dx}{x^2+1}$

Answer

(b) We use integration by parts, which is defined as the following:

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du$$

By choosing:

$$u = e^{-x} \quad \text{and} \quad dv = \sin x dx$$

Then, we have:

$$du = -e^{-x} dx \quad \text{and} \quad v = -\cos x$$

Thus:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty e^{-x} \sin x dx &= -e^{-x} \cos x - \int_0^\infty -e^{-x} - \cos x dx \\ &= -e^{-x} \cos x - \int_0^\infty e^{-x} \cos x dx \end{aligned}$$

We will be using integration by parts on $\int_0^\infty e^{-x} \cos x dx$ again, by choosing:

$$u = e^{-x} \quad \text{and} \quad dv = \cos x dx$$

Then, we have:

$$du = -e^{-x} dx \quad \text{and} \quad v = \sin x$$

Thus:

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_0^\infty e^{-x} \sin x \, dx &= -e^{-x} \cos x - \int_0^\infty -e^{-x} - \cos x \, dx \\
&= -e^{-x} \cos x - \int_0^\infty e^{-x} \cos x \, dx \\
&= -e^{-x} \cos x - \left(e^{-x} \sin x - \int_0^\infty -e^{-x} \sin x \, dx \right) \\
&= -e^{-x} \cos x - e^{-x} \sin x - \int_0^\infty e^{-x} \sin x \, dx \\
\Rightarrow 2 \int_0^\infty e^{-x} \sin x \, dx &= -e^{-x} \cos x - e^{-x} \sin x
\end{aligned}$$

Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}
2 \int_0^\infty e^{-x} \sin x \, dx &= 2 \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^c e^{-x} \sin x \, dx \\
&= \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} [-e^{-x} \cos x - e^{-x} \sin x]_0^c \\
&= \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} [-e^{-c} \cos c - e^{-c} \sin c] - \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} [-e^{-0} \cos 0 - e^{-0} \sin 0] \\
&= \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} -e^{-c}(\cos c + \sin c) - \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} -1 \\
&= \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} -e^{-c}(\cos c + \sin c) + 1 = 0 + 1 \\
&= 1 \\
\Rightarrow \int_0^\infty e^{-x} \sin x \, dx &= \frac{1}{2}
\end{aligned}$$

(c) The function

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2 + 1}$$

is locally integrable on $(0, \infty)$ and $(-\infty, 0)$. To see whether

$$I = \int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{x \, dx}{x^2 + 1}$$

converges according to Definition 3.4.3, we consider the improper integrals

$$I_1 = \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{x \, dx}{x^2 + 1} \quad \text{and} \quad I_2 = \int_0^\infty \frac{x \, dx}{x^2 + 1}$$

separately.

For I_1 , we can write:

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{x \, dx}{x^2 + 1} &= \lim_{c \rightarrow -\infty} \int_c^0 \frac{x \, dx}{x^2 + 1} \\
&= \lim_{c \rightarrow -\infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + 1) \right]_c^0 \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{c \rightarrow -\infty} (\ln(1) - \ln(c^2 + 1)) \\
&= -\infty
\end{aligned}$$

For I_2 , we can write:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^\infty \frac{x dx}{x^2 + 1} dx &= \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^c \frac{x dx}{x^2 + 1} dx \\ &= \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2 + 1) \right]_0^c \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} (\ln(c^2 + 1) - \ln(1)) \\ &= \infty\end{aligned}$$

Since both $\int_0^\infty \frac{x dx}{x^2 + 1} dx$ and $\int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{x dx}{x^2 + 1} dx$ diverge, so does $\int_{-\infty}^\infty \frac{x dx}{x^2 + 1} dx$.

3.4: Problem 6

Prove: If $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ exists as a proper or improper integral, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_x^b f(t) dt = 0.$$

Answer

We will analyze the answer for the existence of proper and improper integral of $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ separately.

- Proper integral: is one where the function f is continuous on the interval $[a, b]$ except countably many points, and the limit of integration is finite. Hence, the following limit exists $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^x f(t) dt$, and based on the definition 3.4.1 in [1]:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^x f(t) dt = \int_a^b f(t) dt.$$

Hence:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \left(\int_a^x f(t) dt + \int_x^b f(t) dt \right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^b f(t) dt \\ \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^x f(t) dt + \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_x^b f(t) dt &= \int_a^b f(t) dt \\ \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_x^b f(t) dt &= 0\end{aligned}$$

- Improper integral: is one where the function f is locally integrable on (a, b) , however whether $b = \infty$ or $b < \infty$ and f is unbounded as x approaches b from the left. Now, since $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ exists as an improper integral, it converges to the following:

$$\int_a^b f(t) dt = \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^x f(t) dt.$$

In addition, since f is locally integrable on (a, b) we define:

$$\begin{aligned}
& \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \left(\int_a^x f(t) dt + \int_x^b f(t) dt \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^b f(t) dt \\
& \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_a^x f(t) dt + \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_x^b f(t) dt = \int_a^b f(t) dt \\
& \Rightarrow \int_a^b f(t) dt + \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_x^b f(t) dt = \int_a^b f(t) dt \\
& \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} \int_x^b f(t) dt = 0
\end{aligned}$$

Please note that this question was solved with respect to the definition of the existence proper and improper integral of f stated in [1].

References

- [1] William F Trench. *Introduction to real analysis*. 2013.