

## HOMEWORK #10 SOLUTIONS

- (1) Prove that the function  $f(x) = x^3$  is (Riemann) integrable on  $[0, 1]$  and show that

$$\int_0^1 x^3 dx = \frac{1}{4}.$$

(Without using formulae for integration that you learnt in previous calculus classes...)

You may use the identity  $\sum_{i=1}^n i^3 = \frac{1}{4}(n^4 + 2n^3 + n^2)$ .

**Solution:**

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and define the dissection

$$\mathcal{D}_n = \left\{0, \frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \dots, \frac{n-1}{n}, 1\right\}.$$

The function  $f(x) = x^3$  is increasing between 0 and 1. Therefore the supremum of the values on an interval  $(x_{i-1}, x_i)$  is  $f(x_i) = x_i^3$ , and the infimum is  $f(x_{i-1}) = x_{i-1}^3$ . Thus we can calculate the lower and upper sums of  $f$  with respect to  $\mathcal{D}_n$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{i-1}{n}\right)^3 \cdot \frac{1}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^4} \sum_{i=1}^n (i-1)^3 \\ &= \frac{1}{4n^4} (n^4 + 2n^3 + n^2) - \frac{n^3}{n^4} \\ &= \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{4n^2} \end{aligned}$$

A similar calculation gives

$$\mathcal{U}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) = \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{4n^2}.$$

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$  we have  $\mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) \rightarrow \frac{1}{4}$  and also  $\mathcal{U}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) \rightarrow \frac{1}{4}$ . From this it follows that  $f$  is integrable on  $[0, 1]$  and that

$$\int_0^1 x^3 dx = \frac{1}{4},$$

as required.

- (2) Suppose that  $g(x)$  is a continuous function on an interval  $[a, b]$  such that  $g(x) > 0$  for all  $x$ . Show that

$$\int_a^b g(x)dx > 0.$$

**Solution**

Since  $g(x) \neq 0$  on  $[a, b]$  the function  $\frac{1}{g}$  is defined and continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Hence there is  $M > 0$  so that  $\frac{1}{g(x)} < M$  for all  $x$ . This means that  $g(x) > \frac{1}{M} > 0$  for all  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ . Let  $\mathcal{D} = \{a, b\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}) \leq \int_a^b f$ . However,

$$\mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}) > \frac{1}{M}|b - a| > 0,$$

so we're done.

- (3) Let  $f : [1, 3] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in (2, 3] \cap \mathbb{Q} \\ 1 & \text{if } x \in (2, 3] \setminus \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$$

Prove that  $f$  is not Riemann integrable.

**Solution:**

$f$  is integrable on  $[1, 3]$  if and only if it is integrable on  $[1, 2]$  and also on  $[2, 3]$ . Thus, it is enough to show that  $f$  is not integrable on  $[2, 3]$ .

Well, for any dissection  $\mathcal{D} = \{2 = x_0, \dots, x_n = 3\}$  of  $[2, 3]$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} \sup\{f(x) \mid x \in (x_{i-1}, x_i)\} &= 1, \text{ and} \\ \inf\{f(x) \mid x \in (x_{i-1}, x_i)\} &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$\mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}) = 0,$$

and

$$\int_{\underline{2}}^3 f = 0.$$

Similarly,

$$\mathcal{U}(f, \mathcal{D}) = 1,$$

and

$$\int_2^{\overline{3}} f = 1.$$

This shows that  $f$  is not integrable on  $[2, 3]$  and hence it is not integrable on  $[1, 3]$ .

(4) Define  $p : [0, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as follows:

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x \leq 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$$

Prove that  $p(x)$  is Riemann integrable on  $[0, 2]$  and determine

$$\int_0^2 p(x) dx.$$

**Solution:**

$f$  is continuous so integrable on  $[0, 2]$ . We have

$$\int_0^2 f = \int_0^1 f + \int_1^2 f.$$

Howie works out  $\int_0^1 f = \frac{1}{2}$ .

On  $[1, 2]$ ,  $f$  is identically 1, so it is easy to see that all lower and upper sums (with respect to any dissection) are equal to 1, which means that

$$\int_1^2 f = 1.$$

Therefore,  $\int_0^2 f = 1\frac{1}{2}$ .

(5) Suppose that  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is (Riemann) integrable on  $[a, b]$ . Prove that

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(a + i \frac{b-a}{n}\right).$$

**Solution:** Fix  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Consider the following dissection:

$$\mathcal{D}_n = \left\{ a, a + \frac{b-a}{2n} + \frac{b-a}{n}, a + \frac{b-a}{2n} + \frac{2(b-a)}{n}, \dots, a + \frac{b-a}{2n} + \frac{(n-1)(b-a)}{n}, b \right\}$$

This is a partition of  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  intervals, one of length  $\frac{b-a}{2n}$ , one of length  $\frac{b-a}{2n} + \frac{b-a}{n}$  and  $n-2$  of length  $\frac{b-a}{n}$ .

It is more natural to define the partition without the  $+\frac{b-a}{2n}$  points, but we want the point  $a + \frac{i(b-a)}{n}$  to be in the interior of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  interval, which it is.

Therefore, the intervals are  $I_{1,n}, \dots, I_{n,n}$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} m_{i,n} &= \inf\{f(x) \mid x \in I_{i,n}\} \\ M_{i,n} &= \sup\{f(x) \mid x \in I_{i,n}\}, \end{aligned}$$

from which it follows that (for  $1 \leq i < n$ )

$$m_{i,n} \leq f\left(a + i \frac{b-a}{n}\right) \leq M_{i,n}.$$

Therefore, the terms of the lower and the upper sum of  $\mathcal{D}_n$  match up to give an inequality with the required sum  $\frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(a + i \frac{b-a}{n}\right)$ , except for the first and last terms where the lengths of the intervals are wrong.

The best thing to do is note that these terms are small, and going to 0 as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore, if we prove that there is a number  $L$  so that

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mathcal{U}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) \quad (1)$$

then we'll see that  $L = \int_a^b f$  and that  $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(a + i \frac{b-a}{n}\right)$ , which is what we are required to prove. Thus, we are left to prove Equation (1).

To do this, note that we know that  $f$  is integrable.

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be arbitrary. There is a dissection  $\mathcal{D}$  of  $[a, b]$  so that

$$\mathcal{U}(f, \mathcal{D}) - \mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Suppose that there are  $k$  intervals in  $\mathcal{D}$  and let these intervals be  $J_1, \dots, J_k$ . Suppose also that

$$M = \sup\{|f(x)| \mid x \in [a, b]\}.$$

(We'll assume that  $M > 0$ , since otherwise there's almost nothing to prove.)

For any  $n$ , any given term in the sum  $\frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f\left(a + i \frac{b-a}{n}\right)$  has size at most  $M \frac{b-a}{n}$ .

Choose  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  so that  $N > \frac{2kM(b-a)}{\epsilon}$ . Then, if  $n > N$  we consider

$$\mathcal{U}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) - \mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}_n).$$

This has  $n$  terms in it, involving the difference between the supremum and the infimum of  $f$  on a given interval. All but at most  $k$  of the intervals  $I_{i,n}$  are entirely contained within some interval  $J_s$ . Since the intervals  $J_s$  are bigger, the difference between the supremum and infimum of  $f$  on the interval  $J_s$  can only be bigger than on the corresponding  $I_{i,n}$ .

The choice of  $n$  guarantees that each of the other terms in the difference (those corresponding to intervals not entirely contained in a  $J_s$ ) have size at most  $\frac{\epsilon}{2k}$ , and there are at most  $k$  of these terms. Thus, we split the sum

$$\mathcal{U}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) - \mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}_n)$$

into two sets of terms. The first set of terms has total size no bigger than

$$\mathcal{U}(f, \mathcal{D}) - \mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}) < \frac{\epsilon}{2},$$

while the second set of terms has size at most

$$k \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{2k} = \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Thus, putting these together we see that

$$\mathcal{U}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) - \mathcal{L}(f, \mathcal{D}_n) < \epsilon$$

which proves Equation (1), and finishes the proof.