

A NOTION OF ALMOST EVERYWHERE PRIMITIVE

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Various generalizations of the usual notions of derivative and integral are known, see [5], [8]. For example, interesting generalizations of the descriptive definition for nonabsolutely convergent integrals were given in [9], [11], [12], [13], [14].

The classes of primitives for this integrals are, generally, of continuous functions [9], [11]. However, the classes of primitives for the integrals of Ellis [11] and the integrals of Lee [23] are not classes of continuous functions.

In order to be able to integrate "very discontinuous" functions, in this paper we introduce a notion of discontinuous but symmetrically approximate continuous primitive, by replacing the usual derivative by the approximate derivative.

The starting point of this notion is an elementary problem of analysis [1].

The obtained entity, a discontinuous primitive, may be used to define a nonabsolute integral [2], which includes the Riemann, Lebesgue and Denjoy-Perron (generalized Riemann) integrals as particular cases, because the approximate derivatives possess all the known important properties of derivatives, see [7], and the symmetric continuity ensure the uniqueness of our integration.

Recall that a statement in terms of points in a subset of \mathbb{R} is said to hold almost everywhere (abbreviated a.e.) if it is true except at the points of a Lebesgue null set (of Lebesgue measure zero).

Suppose that E_x is a set having density 1 at $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then the function $F: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, is approximately differentiable at x if the limit

$$\lim_{\substack{y \rightarrow x \\ y \in E_x}} \frac{F(y) - F(x)}{y - x}$$

exists.

This limit is then the approximate derivative of F at the point x .

We denote, as usually, the approximate derivative by F'_{ap} .

If the limit exists for almost everywhere x , then F is approximately differentiable a.e.

Throughout this paper we denote by I an interval in the real line and by D a Lebesgue null set, $D \subset I$.

It is clear that, for every point $x \in I$, $I \setminus D$ is a set having density 1 at x .

Also, in the sequel, the definitions will be given by replacing the "limit" by "approximate limit", without special mention.

DEFINITION 1.

Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given.

A function $F: I \setminus D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an a.e. primitive of f on I provided

- (i) F is approximately differentiable on $I \setminus D$;
- (ii) $F'_{\text{ap}}(x) = f(x)$, for all $x \in I \setminus D$, ($F'_{\text{ap}} = f$ a.e. on I);
- (iii) For each $d \in \mathbb{N}_1^0$, there exists the following limit

$$\lim_{\substack{\epsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ d-\epsilon, d+\epsilon \in I \wedge 0}} [F(d+\epsilon) - F(d-\epsilon)] = 0.$$

(if $d \in \text{fr } I$, then the existence of finite $F(d+)$ or $F(d-)$ is assumed).

We say also that f is a.e. primitivable on I .

REMARKS.

1) Obviously, f need not be defined on I ;

2) If F is a (strict) primitive of $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then F is an a.e. primitive of f on I ;

(Recall that a function $F: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a strict primitive of f on I if F is differentiable on I and $F'(x)=f(x)$, for all x in I [4]; and F is a primitive of f on I provided

(i) F is continuous on I ,

(ii) $F'(x)=f(x)$, for all x in I except possibly a finite or countable infinite set of values of x [4], [25];

3) If F is an a.e. primitive of f , then $F+c$ is also an a.e. primitive of f , for any constant function c ;

4) The a.e. primitive is an effective generalization of the (strict) primitive, as shown by

EXAMPLE 1.

Let $f: [0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the characteristic function of the Cantor ternary set C_0 , i.e. $f(x)=1$, when $x \in C_0$ and $f(x)=0$, when $x \in [0,1] \setminus C_0$. Then f does not possess an a.e. primitive on $[0,1]$, see [4] or [7] p.365.

Since $F: [0,1] \setminus C_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$F(x) = x \text{ (const)}$$

is an a.e. primitive of f on $[0,1]$, f is a.e. primitivable.

Note that the function f in example 1 is Riemann integrable.

It is well known that, generally, a Riemann integrable function is

not strict primitivable [4], [27]. We have a more general result

THEOREM 1.

Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a Henstock-Kurzweil integrable function. Then f is a.e. primitivable on I .

Proof.

Using the equivalence between the Henstock-Kurzweil integrability and restricted Denjoy-Perron integrability [17], it results that there exists an $\alpha \in G$ (absolutely continuous generalized) function

$$F: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R},$$

such that

$$F' = f \text{ a.e. on } I.$$

From the absolute continuity of F we deduce that the function

$$G: I \times D \rightarrow \mathbb{R},$$

where D is the set of nondifferentiability of F , defined by

$$G(x) = F(x), \text{ for all } x \in I \setminus D,$$

is an a.e. primitive of f on I .

REMARK.

From the above theorem and from the following example it results that over any interval $[a, b]$ the class of Henstock-Kurzweil integrable functions is a proper subset of the class of a.e. primitives functions.

EXAMPLE 2.

Let $f: [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function defined by $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$, when $x \neq 0$ and $f(0) = 0$.

Then, f is not Henstock-Kurzweil integrable on both intervals $[0, 1]$ and $[-1, 0]$, see [25], exercise 20, p. 69, hence f is not Henstock-Kurzweil integrable on $[-1, 1]$. However, $F: [-1, 1] \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$F(x) = \ln|x|,$$

is an a.e. primitive of f on $[-1, 1]$, since

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} [F(\varepsilon) - F(-\varepsilon)] = 0,$$

and F being differentiable on $[-1,1] \setminus \{0\}$, F is approximately differentiable on $[-1,1] \setminus \{0\}$. Let us remark that the function in this example is "very discontinuous".

In order to obtain a monotonicity theorem for our primitive, we need a corollary of O'Reilly's monotonicity theorems [26], stated in [6] in terms of extreme approximate derivatives: if F is measurable, $E^+_{ap} \geq 0$ a.e. and $E^-_{ap} \geq -\infty$ everywhere, then F is nondecreasing.

Using this result we obtain:

THEOREM 2.

If F is an a.e. primitive of $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in I$, then F is nondecreasing.

REMARKS.

1) If $F: I \times D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then it suffices that $f(x) \geq 0$, for all $x \in I \times D$.

2) We mention that the known differences between approximate derivatives and ordinary derivatives seem to involve the primitives.

For the (strict) primitive of a function f , the continuity condition imply that, if F, G are two such primitives, then

$$F = G = \text{const. on } I.$$

Generally, if $F^+ = G^+$ a.e. on I , then $F+G$ is not constant on I [17].

But the symmetrically monotonicity condition (iii) from definition 1 implies the following conclusion:

Let $F, G: I \times D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be two a.e. primitives of a given function f .

Then

$F - G = \text{const}$ on $I \times D$.

Proof. Obviously,

on every interval $I_1 \subset I \times D$ we have

$$F - G = \text{const},$$

since, in this case, the restrictions of both F and G to I_1 are strict primitives of $f|_{I_1}$.

Hence, it suffices to show that, if

$$F-G = c_1 \text{ on } B_1 \subset I \times D,$$

$$F-G = c_2 \text{ on } B_2 \subset I \times D,$$

where

$$B_1 = (-\infty, d) \cap I \times D,$$

$$B_2 = (d, +\infty) \cap I \times D,$$

and

$$d \in D,$$

then, necessarily, $c_1 = c_2$.

Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} c_2 - c_1 &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \left[(F-G)(d+\epsilon) - (F-G)(d-\epsilon) \right] = \\ &= \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} [F(d+\epsilon) - F(d-\epsilon)] - \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} [G(d+\epsilon) - G(d-\epsilon)] = 0. \end{aligned}$$

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