

8 Integration II

9 Integration III

10 Integration IV





Mathematics and Statistics $\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 7 Integration Wednesday 22 January 2025

- Solutions to Assignment 1 were posted last night.
- Kieran will have office hours tomorrow (Thursday) for two hours, 12:30–2:30 pm. (He will not have a Friday office hour this week.)



- "Area of region R(f, a, b)" is actually a very subtle concept.
- We will only scratch the surface of it (greater depth in Math 4A).
- Our treatment is similar to that in Michael Spivak's "Calculus" (2008); BS refer to this approach as the Darboux integral (BS §7.4, p. 225).
- The Darboux and Riemann approaches to the integral are equivalent.

Integration



 Contribution to "area of R(f, a, b)" is positive or negative depending on whether f is positive or negative.

Lower sum



Upper sum







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Definition (Partition)

Let a < b. A *partition* of the interval [a, b] is a finite collection of points in [a, b], one of which is a, and one of which is b.

We normally label the points in a partition

$$a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_{n-1} < t_n = b$$
,

so the i^{th} subinterval in the partition is

$$[t_{i-1},t_i]$$
.

Rigorous development of the integral

Definition (Lower and upper sums)

Suppose f is bounded on [a, b] and $P = \{t_0, ..., t_n\}$ is a partition of [a, b]. Recalling the motivating sketch, let $m_i = \inf \{ f(x) : x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i] \},$ $M_i = \sup \{ f(x) : x \in [t_{i-1}, t_i] \}.$

The lower sum of f for P, denoted by L(f, P), is defined as

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}).$$

The upper sum of f for P, denoted by U(f, P), is defined as

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i(t_i - t_{i-1}).$$

Relationship between motivating sketch and rigorous definition of lower and upper sums:

- The lower and upper sums correspond to the total areas of rectangles lying below and above the graph of f in our motivating sketch.
- However, these sums have been defined precisely without any appeal to a concept of "area".
- The requirement that f be bounded on [a, b] is <u>essential</u> in order to be sure that all the m_i and M_i are well-defined.
- It is also <u>essential</u> that the m_i and M_i be defined as inf's and sup's (rather than maxima and minima) because f was <u>not</u> assumed to be continuous.

Relationship between motivating sketch and rigorous definition of lower and upper sums:

Since $m_i \leq M_i$ for each *i*, we have

$$m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) \leq M_i(t_i - t_{i-1}), \qquad i = 1, \ldots, n.$$

 \therefore For <u>any</u> partition *P* of [a, b] we have

 $L(f, P) \leq U(f, P),$

because

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}),$$

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_i(t_i - t_{i-1}).$$

Poll

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Relationship between motivating sketch and rigorous definition of lower and upper sums:

More generally, if P₁ and P₂ are <u>any</u> two partitions of [a, b], it <u>ought</u> to be true that

$$L(f,P_1)\leq U(f,P_2),$$

because $L(f, P_1)$ should be \leq area of R(f, a, b), and $U(f, P_2)$ should be \geq area of R(f, a, b).

- But "ought to" and "should be" prove nothing, especially since we haven't yet even defined "area of R(f, a, b)".
- Before we can *define* "area of R(f, a, b)", we need to prove that $L(f, P_1) \leq U(f, P_2)$ for any partitions $P_1, P_2 \dots$

Lemma (Partition Lemma)

If partition $P \subseteq$ partition Q (i.e., if every point of P is also in Q), then $L(f, P) \leq L(f, Q)$ and $U(f, P) \geq U(f, Q)$.



Proof of Partition Lemma

As a first step, consider the special case in which the finer partition Q contains only one more point than P:

$$P = \{t_0, \ldots, t_n\},\$$

$$Q = \{t_0, \ldots, t_{k-1}, u, t_k, \ldots, t_n\},\$$

where

$$a = t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_{k-1} < u < t_k < \cdots < t_n = b$$
.

Because $[t_{k-1}, t_k]$ is split by u, we have two lower bounds:

$$m' = \inf \{ f(x) : x \in [t_{k-1}, u] \}, m'' = \inf \{ f(x) : x \in [u, t_k] \}.$$

... continued...

Proof of <u>Partition Lemma</u> (cont.)

Then
$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}),$$

and
$$L(f,Q) = \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) + m'(u - t_{k-1}) + m''(t_k - u) + \sum_{i=k+1}^n m_i(t_i - t_{i-1})$$

 \therefore To prove $L(f, P) \leq L(f, Q)$, it is enough to show

$$m_k(t_k - t_{k-1}) \leq m'(u - t_{k-1}) + m''(t_k - u)$$
.

... continued...

Proof of Partition Lemma (cont.)

Now note that since

$$\{f(x) : x \in [t_{k-1}, u]\} \subseteq \{f(x) : x \in [t_{k-1}, t_k]\},\$$

the RHS might contain some additional *smaller* numbers, so we must have

$$\begin{array}{rcl} m_k & = & \inf \left\{ \, f(x) \, : \, x \in [t_{k-1}, t_k] \, \right\} \\ & \leq & \inf \left\{ \, f(x) \, : \, x \in [t_{k-1}, u] \, \right\} & = & m' \, . \end{array}$$

Thus, $m_k \leq m'$, and, similarly, $m_k \leq m''$.

$$egin{array}{rcl} & \ddots & m_k(t_k-t_{k-1}) & = & m_k(t_k-u+u-t_{k-1}) \ & = & m_k(u-t_{k-1})+m_k(t_k-u) \ & \leq & m'(u-t_{k-1})+m''(t_k-u) \end{array}$$

... continued...

Proof of Partition Lemma (cont.)

which proves (in this special case where Q contains only one more point than P) that $L(f, P) \leq L(f, Q)$.

We can now prove the general case by adding one point at a time.

If Q contains ℓ more points than P, define a sequence of partitions

$$P = P_0 \subset P_1 \subset \cdots \subset P_\ell = Q$$

such that P_{j+1} contains exactly one more point than P_j . Then

$$L(f,P) = L(f,P_0) \leq L(f,P_1) \leq \cdots \leq L(f,P_\ell) = L(f,Q),$$

so $L(f, P) \leq L(f, Q)$.

(Proving $U(f, P) \ge U(f, Q)$ is similar: check!)

Theorem (Partition Theorem)

Let P_1 and P_2 be any two partitions of [a, b]. If f is bounded on [a, b] then $L(f, P_1) \le U(f, P_2).$

Proof.

This is a straightforward consequence of the partition lemma.

Let $P = P_1 \cup P_2$, *i.e.*, P is the partition obtained by combining all the points of P_1 and P_2 .

Then

$$L(f, P_1) \leq L(f, P) \leq U(f, P) \leq U(f, P_2).$$

Important inferences that follow from the partition theorem:

- For <u>any</u> partition P', the upper sum U(f, P') is an upper bound for the set of <u>all</u> lower sums L(f, P).
 - $\therefore \quad \sup \left\{ L(f, P) : P \text{ a partition of } [a, b] \right\} \le U(f, P') \qquad \forall P'$
 - $\therefore \quad \sup \{L(f, P)\} \le \inf \{U(f, P)\}$
 - \therefore For <u>any</u> partition P',

 $L(f,P') \leq \sup \left\{ L(f,P) \right\} \leq \inf \left\{ U(f,P) \right\} \leq U(f,P')$

If sup {L(f, P)} = inf {U(f, P)} then we can define "area of R(f, a, b)" to be this number.

• Is it possible that $\sup \{L(f, P)\} < \inf \{U(f, P)\}$?

Poll

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Mathematics and Statistics $\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 8 Integration II Friday 24 January 2025

- Assignment 2 will be posted either during, or soon after, the weekend.
- Kieran's office hours going forward are as follows:
 - Thursday 12:30–1:30 (Math Café)

Instructor: David Earn

Friday 12:30–1:30 (HH 207)

Poll

Go to

https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php

- Click on Math 3A03
- Click on Take Class Poll
- Fill in poll Integrals: $\sup \{L(f, P)\} < \inf \{U(f, P)\}$? (AGAIN!)



Example

 $\exists ? \ f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ (bounded)} + \sup \{L(f, P)\} < \inf \{U(f, P)\}$

Let
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [a, b], \\ 0 & x \in \mathbb{Q}^{c} \cap [a, b]. \end{cases}$$

Consider any partition P of [a, b]. If $P = \{t_0, \ldots, t_n\}$ then $m_i = 0 \ \forall i$ (\because $[t_{i-1}, t_i] \cap \mathbb{Q}^c \neq \emptyset$), and $M_i = 1 \ \forall i$ (\because $[t_{i-1}, t_i] \cap \mathbb{Q} \neq \emptyset$).

 \therefore L(f, P) = 0 and U(f, P) = b - a for <u>any</u> partition P.

 $\therefore \quad \sup \left\{ L(f, P) \right\} = 0 < b - a = \inf \left\{ U(f, P) \right\}.$

Can we define "area of R(f, a, b)" for such a weird function? Yes, but not in this course!

Definition (Integrable)

A function $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be *integrable* on [a, b] if it is <u>bounded</u> on [a, b] and

 $\sup\{L(f, P) : P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\}$ = inf {U(f, P) : P a partition of [a, b]}.

In this case, this common number is called the *integral* of f on [a, b] and is denoted $\int_{a}^{b} f$

Note: If
$$f$$
 is integrable then for any partition P we have

$$L(f,P) \leq \int_a^b f \leq U(f,P),$$

and $\int_{a}^{b} f$ is the <u>unique</u> number with this property.

Notation:

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$
 means precisely the same as $\int_{a}^{b} f$.

- The symbol "dx" has no meaning in isolation just as "x →" has no meaning except in lim_{x→a} f(x).
- It is not clear from the definition which functions are integrable.
- The definition of the integral does not itself indicate how to compute the integral of any given integrable function. So far, without a lot more effort, we can't say much more than these two things:

If f(x) ≡ c then f is integrable on [a, b] and ∫_a^b f = c ⋅ (b - a).
The weird example function is <u>not</u> integrable.

- Bartle and Sherbert refer to functions that are integrable according to our definition as *Darboux integrable* (BS §7.4, p. 225).
- BS develop the integral using one value of the function within each subinterval of a partition, rather than starting with upper and lower sums. They refer to functions that are integrable in this sense as *Riemann integrable*.
- BS also prove (BS Theorem 7.4.11, p. 232) that a function is Riemann integrable if and only if it is Darboux integrable. So the two definitions are, in fact, equivalent.
- In Math 4A03 you will define *Lebesgue integrable*, a more subtle concept that makes it possible to attach meaning to "area of *R*(*f*, *a*, *b*)" for the weird example function (among others), and to precisely characterize functions that are Riemann integrable.

Theorem (Equivalent " ε -P" criterion for integrability)

A <u>bounded</u> function $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on [a, b] iff for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there is a partition P of [a, b] such that

 $U(f,P)-L(f,P)<\varepsilon.$

(BS Theorem 7.4.8, p. 229)

<u>Note</u>: This theorem is just a restatement of the definition of integrability. It is often more convenient to work with $\varepsilon > 0$ than with sup's and inf's.
Proof of equivalence of "sup = inf" and " ε -P" definitions of integrability. (\implies) Suppose the bounded function f is integrable, *i.e.*, $\sup\{L(f, P) : P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\}$ = inf{U(f, P) : P a partition of [a, b]} = $\int^{b} f$ Given $\varepsilon > 0$, since $\int^{b} f$ is the least upper bound of the lower sums, there is a partition P_1 such that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = \sup_{P'} \{ L(f, P') \} < L(f, P_1) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} ,$ $-L(f,P_1) < -\int^{b}f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$ *i.e.*, such that (♡)

Proof of equivalence of <u>"sup = inf"</u> and <u>" ε -P"</u> definitions of integrability.

Similarly, there is a partition P_2 such that

$$U(f, P_2) < \inf_{P'} \{ U(f, P') \} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \qquad (\diamondsuit)$$

Therefore, putting together inequalities (\diamondsuit) and (\heartsuit), we have

$$U(f,P_2)-L(f,P_1) < \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} - \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

But that's not quite what we need. We need, for a single partition P, $U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \varepsilon$.

How should we proceed?

<u>Hint</u>: Recall the partition lemma ...

Proof of equivalence of <u>"sup = inf"</u> and <u>" ε -P"</u> definitions of integrability.

Let $P = P_1 \cup P_2$. Then the partition lemma implies that $L(f, P) \ge L(f, P_1)$, and $U(f, P) \le U(f, P_2)$, so

$$U(f,P) - L(f,P) \leq U(f,P_2) - L(f,P_1)$$

$$< \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} - \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$

which competes the proof that $\sup = \inf \implies \varepsilon - P$.

(\leftarrow) We now need to show that if a bounded function f satisfies the ε -P definition of integrability then it also satisfies the sup = inf definition of integrability.

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, we can choose a partition *P* (depending on ε) such that

$$U(f,P)-L(f,P) < \varepsilon.$$

Proof of equivalence of <u>"sup = inf"</u> and <u>" ε -P</u>" definitions of integrability.

Now, for any partition, and in particular for P, we have

$$L(f, P) \leq \sup_{P'} \{L(f, P')\} \leq \inf_{P'} \{U(f, P')\} \leq U(f, P),$$

We can temporarily write this more simply as

 $L \leq S \leq I \leq U$

Subtracting S from this chain of inequalities implies

$$L-S \leq 0 \leq I-S \leq U-S$$

Now note that $L \leq S$ implies $U - S \leq U - L$, so we have

$$0 \leq I-S \leq U-L$$

i.e., $0 \leq \inf_{P'} \{U(f, P')\} - \sup_{P'} \{L(f, P')\} \leq U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \varepsilon$. But by hypothesis, such a partition P can be found for any given $\varepsilon > 0$. Therefore, $\inf_{P'} \{U(f, P')\} = \sup_{P'} \{L(f, P')\}$.

Example

Suppose b > 0 and f(x) = x for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Prove, using only the definition of the integral via $\sup = \inf \text{ or } \varepsilon P$, that

$$\int_0^b f = \frac{b^2}{2}$$

(This exercise should help you appreciate the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.)

<u>Note</u>: If working through the above example doesn't convince you of the power of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, try computing $\int_0^b x^2 dx$ directly from the definition of the integral.



Mathematics and Statistics $\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 9 Integration III Monday 27 January 2025 42/82

- Assignment 2 has been posted on the course web site.
 - The participation deadline is Monday 3 Feb 2025 @ 11:25am.
- On Friday this week, the class will be a Q&A session with the TA. It's a great opportunity to ask questions about Assignment 2, or anything else.

Last time...

Rigorous development of the integral:

- Definition: integrable.
- Example: non-integrable function.
- Theorem: Equivalent " ε -*P*" definition of integrable.
- <u>Note</u>: The different equivalent definitions are most convenient in different contexts, *e.g.*,
 - Proving non-integrability of the weird example was easiest using the sup-inf definition.
 - Computing the value of $\int_0^b x \, dx$ is easiest using the ε -*P* definition.

Poll

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Integral theorems

Theorem (continuous \implies integrable)

If f is continuous on [a, b] then f is integrable on [a, b].

Rough work to prepare for proof:

$$U(f,P) - L(f,P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (M_i - m_i)(t_i - t_{i-1})$$

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose a partition P that is so fine that $M_i - m_i < \varepsilon$ for all i (possible because f is continuous and <u>bounded</u>). Then

$$U(f,P) - L(f,P) < \varepsilon \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - t_{i-1}) = \varepsilon(b-a).$$

Not quite what we want. So choose the partition P such that $M_i - m_i < \varepsilon/(b - a)$ for all i. To get that, choose P such that

$$|f(x)-f(y)| < rac{arepsilon}{2(b-a)}$$
 if $|x-y| < \max_{1\leq i\leq n}(t_i-t_{i-1}),$

which we can do because f is <u>uniformly</u> continuous on [a, b].

Proof that $\underline{continuous} \implies \underline{integrable}$ (cont.)

Since *f* is continuous on the <u>closed interval</u> [a, b], it is bounded on [a, b] (which is the first requirement to be integrable on [a, b]).

Also, since f is continuous on [a, b], it is <u>uniformly</u> continuous on [a, b]. $\therefore \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$ such that $\forall x, y \in [a, b]$,

$$|x-y| < \delta \implies |f(x)-f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}.$$

Now choose a partition of [a, b] such that the length of each subinterval $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$ is less than δ , *i.e.*, $t_i - t_{i-1} < \delta$. Then, for any $x, y \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]$, we have $|x - y| < \delta$ and therefore \dots continued...

Integral theorems

· .

Proof that $\underline{continuous} \implies \underline{integrable}$ (cont.)

$$|f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}$$
 $\forall x, y \in [t_{i-1}, t_i].$
 $M_i - m_i \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)} < \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a}$ $i = 1, ..., n$

Since this is true for all *i*, it follows that

$$U(f,P) - L(f,P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (M_i - m_i)(t_i - t_{i-1})$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (t_i - t_{i-1}) = \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} (b-a) = \varepsilon.$$

Theorem (Integral segmentation)

Let a < c < b. If f is integrable on [a, b], then f is integrable on [a, c] and on [c, b]. Conversely, if f is integrable on [a, c] and [c, b] then f is integrable on [a, b]. Finally, if f is integrable on [a, b] then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f = \int_{a}^{c} f + \int_{c}^{b} f. \qquad (\heartsuit)$$

(a good exercise)

This theorem motivates these definitions:

$$\int_{a}^{a} f = 0 \qquad \text{and} \quad \text{if } a > b \quad \text{then}$$

$$\int_a^b f = -\int_b^a f.$$

Then (\heartsuit) holds for any $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem (Algebra of integrals – a.k.a. \int_a^b is a linear operator)

If f and g are integrable on [a, b] and $c \in \mathbb{R}$ then f + g and cf are integrable on [a, b] and

1
$$\int_{a}^{b} (f+g) = \int_{a}^{b} f + \int_{a}^{b} g;$$

2 $\int_{a}^{b} cf = c \int_{a}^{b} f.$

(proofs are relatively easy; good exercises) (BS Theorem 7.1.5, p. 204)

Theorem (Integral of a product)

If f and g are integrable on [a, b] then fg is integrable on [a, b].

(compared to integral of a sum, proof is much harder; tough exercise)

<u>Note</u>:

- There is no "product rule" for integrals. While f and g integrable does imply fg integrable, we <u>cannot</u> write the integral of the product fg in terms of the integrals of the factors f and g.
- The closest we can come to a product formula is integration by parts, which arises from the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus together with the product rule for *derivatives*.

Lemma (Integral bounds)

Suppose f is integrable on [a, b]. If $m \le f(x) \le M$ for all $x \in [a, b]$ then $m(b-a) \le \int_{a}^{b} f \le M(b-a)$.

Proof.

For any partition P, we must have $m \leq m_i \forall i$ and $M \geq M_i \forall i$.

$$\therefore \quad m(b-a) \leq L(f,P) \leq U(f,P) \leq M(b-a) \quad \forall P$$

$$\therefore \quad m(b-a) \leq \sup\{L(f,P)\} = \int_{a}^{b} f = \inf\{U(f,P)\}$$

$$\leq M(b-a).$$

Theorem (Integrals are continuous)

If f is integrable on [a, b] and F is defined on [a, b] by

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f$$

then F is continuous on [a, b].

Proof

Let's first consider $x_0 \in [a, b)$ and show F is continuous from above at x_0 , *i.e.*, $\lim_{x \to x_0^+} F(x) = F(x_0)$. If $x \in (x_0, b]$ then

$$(\heartsuit) \implies F(x) - F(x_0) = \int_a^x f - \int_a^{x_0} f = \int_{x_0}^x f .$$
 (*)

Proof that integrals are continuous (cont.)

Since f is integrable on [a, b], it is bounded on [a, b], so $\exists M > 0$ such that

$$-M \leq f(x) \leq M \qquad \forall x \in [a, b],$$

from which the integral bounds lemma implies

$$-M(x-x_0) \leq \int_{x_0}^x f \leq M(x-x_0),$$

$$\therefore \quad (*) \implies -M(x-x_0) \leq F(x)-F(x_0) \leq M(x-x_0).$$

:. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, we can ensure $|F(x) - F(x_0)| < \varepsilon$ by requiring $0 \le x - x_0 < \varepsilon/M$, which proves $\lim_{x \to x_0^+} F(x) = F(x_0)$.

A similar argument starting from $x_0 \in (a, b]$ and $x \in [a, x_0)$ yields $\lim_{x \to x_0^-} F(x) = F(x_0)$. Thus, "integrals are continuous".





Mathematics and Statistics $\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 10 Integration IV Wednesday 29 January 2025

- Assignment 2 has been posted on the course web site.
 The participation deadline is Monday 3 Feb 2025 @ 11:25am.
- On Friday this week, the class will be a Q&A session with the TA. It's a great opportunity to ask questions about Assignment 2, or anything else.
- The poll for Assignment 2 participation will open after class today until 11:25am on Monday.
- I have an office hour today, 2:00-3:00 pm.

Last time...

Rigorous development of the integral:

- continuous \implies integrable.
- Integral segmentation.
- Algebra of integrals.
- Integral bounds lemma.
- Integrals are continuous.

Theorem (First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus – FFTC)

Let f be integrable on [a, b], and define F on [a, b] by

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f$$
.

If f is <u>continuous</u> at $c \in [a, b]$, then F is <u>differentiable</u> at c, and F'(c) = f(c).

- If c = a or c = b, then F'(c) is understood to mean the rightor left-hand derivative of F.
- The "integrals are continuous" theorem implies that F is <u>continuous</u> on <u>all</u> of [a, b]. The FFTC says, in addition, that F is <u>differentiable</u> at the <u>single point</u> c.
- The FFTC implies that if *f* is continuous on all of [*a*, *b*] then *F* is differentiable on all of [*a*, *b*].

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Proof of First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Suppose $c \in [a, b)$, and $0 < h \le b - c$. Then the integral segmentation theorem implies that

$$F(c+h)-F(c) = \int_{a}^{c+h} f - \int_{a}^{c} f = \int_{c}^{c+h} f.$$

Motivated by the sketch, define

$$m_h = \inf \{ f(x) : x \in [c, c+h] \}, \\ M_h = \sup \{ f(x) : x \in [c, c+h] \}.$$

Then the integral bounds lemma implies

$$m_h \cdot h \leq \int_c^{c+h} f \leq M_h \cdot h,$$

Proof of <u>First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus</u> (cont.)

and hence

$$m_h \leq \frac{F(c+h)-F(c)}{h} \leq M_h.$$

This inequality is true for <u>any</u> integrable function. However, because f is <u>continuous</u> at c, we have

$$\lim_{h\to 0^+} m_h = f(c) = \lim_{h\to 0^+} M_h,$$

so the squeeze theorem (BS Theorem 4.2.6, p. 114) implies

$$F'_+(c) = \lim_{h \to 0^+} \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} = f(c).$$

A similar argument for $c \in (a, b]$ and $-(c - a) \le h < 0$ yields $F'_{-}(c) = f(c)$.

Corollary

If f is continuous on [a, b] and f = g' for some function g, then

$$\int_a^b f = g(b) - g(a).$$

Proof.

Let
$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f$$
. Then $\forall x \in [a, b], F'(x) = f(x)$ (by FFTC).
 $\implies F' = f = g'$.

 $\therefore \exists c \in \mathbb{R} \text{ such that } F = g + c \quad (\text{Assignment 1}).$

$$\therefore F(a) = g(a) + c. \qquad \text{But } F(a) = \int_a^a f = 0, \text{ so } c = -g(a).$$

$$\therefore F(x) = g(x) - g(a).$$

This is true, in particular, for x = b, so $\int_{a}^{b} f = g(b) - g(a)$.

Poll

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- Click on Math 3A03
- Click on Take Class Poll
- Fill in poll Integrals: Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

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Theorem (Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)

If f is integrable on [a, b] and f = g' for some function g, then

$$\int_a^b f = g(b) - g(a) \, .$$

<u>Notes</u>:

- This looks like the corollary to the first fundamental theorem, except that f is assumed only to be integrable, not continuous.
- Recall from Darboux's theorem that if f = g' for some g then f has the intermediate value property, but f need not be continuous.

•
$$g'$$
 exists on $[a, b] \implies$ applies to g .

• The proof of the second fundamental theorem is completely different from the corollary to the first, because we cannot use the first fundamental theorem (which assumed *f* is continuous).

Proof of Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Let $P = \{t_0, \ldots, t_n\}$ be any partition of [a, b]. By the Mean Value Theorem, for each i = 1, ..., n, $\exists x_i \in [t_{i-1}, t_i]$ such that

$$g(t_i) - g(t_{i-1}) = g'(\mathbf{x}_i)(t_i - t_{i-1}) = f(\mathbf{x}_i)(t_i - t_{i-1}).$$

Define m_i and M_i as usual. Then $m_i \leq f(\mathbf{x}_i) \leq M_i \ \forall i$, so

$$\begin{split} m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) &\leq f(\mathbf{x}_i)(t_i - t_{i-1}) \leq M_i(t_i - t_{i-1}), \\ i.e., \quad m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) \leq g(t_i) - g(t_{i-1}) \leq M_i(t_i - t_{i-1}). \end{split}$$

$$\therefore \sum_{i=1}^{n} m_{i}(t_{i} - t_{i-1}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(g(t_{i}) - g(t_{i-1}) \right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^{n} M_{i}(t_{i} - t_{i-1})$$

i.e., $L(f, P) \leq g(b) - g(a) \leq U(f, P)$

for any partition P. $\therefore g(b) - g(a) = \int_a^b f$.

What useful things can we do with integrals?

- Compute areas of complicated shapes: find anti-derivatives and use the second fundamental theorem of calculus.
- Define trigonometric functions (rigorously).
- Define logarithm and exponential functions (rigorously).



Mathematics and Statistics $\int_{M} d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$

Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 11 Integration V Monday 3 February 2025

/1/0

- The participation deadline for Assignment 2 is today, Monday 3 Feb 2025 @ 11:25am.
- If you haven't participated yet, do the poll **now**.

- First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.
- Corollary to FFTC.
- Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.
- What can we do with the integral?
Poll

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What is π ?



Definition

$$\pi \equiv 2 \int_{-1}^{1} \sqrt{1-x^2} \, dx \, .$$

What are cos and sin ?



Definition (Sectoral area)

If
$$x \in [-1,1]$$
 then $\mathcal{A}(x) = \frac{x\sqrt{1-x^2}}{2} + \int_x^1 \sqrt{1-t^2} dt$.

<u>Note</u>: $A(-1) = \pi/2$, A(1) = 0.

What are cos and sin ?



Length of circular arc swept out by angle θ : θ

Area of sectoral region swept out by angle θ : $\theta/2$

So, if $\theta \in [0, \pi]$ then we define $\cos \theta$ to be the unique number in [-1, 1] such that $\mathcal{A}(\cos \theta) = \theta/2$, and we define $\sin \theta$ to be $\sqrt{1 - (\cos \theta)^2}$.

<u>We must prove</u>: given $x \in [0, \pi] \exists ! y \in [-1, 1]$ such that $\mathcal{A}(y) = x/2$.

What are cos and sin ?

Proof that $\forall x \in [0, \pi] \exists ! y \in [-1, 1]$ such that $\mathcal{A}(y) = x/2$:

<u>Existence</u>: $\mathcal{A}(1) = 0$, $\mathcal{A}(-1) = \pi/2$, and \mathcal{A} is continuous. Hence by the intermediate value theorem $\exists y \in [-1, 1]$ such that $\mathcal{A}(y) = x/2$.

<u>Uniqueness</u>: A is differentiable on (-1, 1) and A'(x) < 0 on (-1, 1). \therefore On (-1, 1), A is decreasing, and hence one-to-one.

Definition (cos and sin)

If $x \in [0, \pi]$ then $\cos x$ is the unique number in [-1, 1] such that $\mathcal{A}(\cos x) = x/2$, and $\sin x = \sqrt{1 - (\cos x)^2}$.

These definitions are easily extended to all of \mathbb{R} :

- For $x \in [\pi, 2\pi]$, define $\cos x = \cos (2\pi x)$ and $\sin x = -\sin (2\pi x)$.
- Then, for $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus [0, 2\pi]$ define $\cos x = \cos(x \mod 2\pi)$ and $\sin x = \sin(x \mod 2\pi)$.

Trigonometric theorems

Given the rigorous definition of cos and sin, we can prove:

- 1 cos and sin are differentiable on \mathbb{R} . Moreover, $\cos' = -\sin$ and $\sin' = \cos$.
- 2 sec, tan, csc and cot can all be defined in the usual way and have all the usual properties.
- 3 The inverse function theorem allows us to define, and compute the derivatives of, all the inverse trigonometric functions.
- 4 If f is twice differentiable on \mathbb{R} , f'' + f = 0, f(0) = aand f'(0) = b, then $f = a \cos + b \sin b$.
- 5 For all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\sin (x + y) = \sin x \cos y + \cos x \sin y,$$

$$\cos (x + y) = \cos x \cos y - \sin x \sin y.$$

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Something deep that you know enough to prove

Extra Challenge Problem: Prove that π is irrational.

<u>*Hint*</u>: Suppose $\pi^2 = \frac{a}{b}$, for $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$. Show that the smallest positive root of sin is irrational. Consider the function

$$f(x)=10^x.$$

What <u>exactly</u> is this function?

In our mathematically naïve previous life, we just <u>assumed</u> that f(x) is well-defined $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$, and that f has a well-defined inverse function,

$$f^{-1}(x) = \log_{10}(x)$$
.

But how are 10^{\times} and $\log_{10}(x)$ defined for <u>irrational</u> x ?

Let's review what we know...

What are log and exp ?

n times

$$n \in \mathbb{N} \implies 10^n = \underbrace{10 \cdots 10}_{n \text{ times}}$$

 $n, m \in \mathbb{N} \implies 10^n \cdot 10^m = 10^{n+m}$

When we extend 10^x to $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, we want this product rule to be preserved:

$$10^{0} \cdot 10^{n} = 10^{0+n} = 10^{n} \implies 10^{0} = 1$$
$$10^{-n} \cdot 10^{n} = 10^{0} = 1 \implies 10^{-n} = \frac{1}{10^{n}}$$
$$\underbrace{10^{1/n} \cdots 10^{1/n}}_{10^{1/n}} = 10 \underbrace{1/n \cdots 1/n}_{10^{1/n}} = 10^{1} = 10 \implies 10^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{10}$$

n times

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What are log and exp ?

Finally, to define 10^q for all $q \in \mathbb{Q}$, note that we must have

$$\left(10^{\frac{1}{n}}\right)^{m} = \underbrace{10^{\frac{1}{n}} \cdots 10^{\frac{1}{n}}}_{m \text{ times}} = 10\underbrace{\underbrace{\frac{1}{n} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n}}_{m \text{ times}}}_{m \text{ times}} = 10^{\frac{m}{n}} \implies 10^{\frac{m}{n}} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left(\sqrt[n]{10}\right)^{m}$$

Now we're stuck. *How do we extend this scheme to <u>irrational</u> ×?* We need a more sophisticated idea.

Let's try to find a function on all of $\mathbb R$ that satisfies

$$f(x+y) = f(x) \cdot f(y), \qquad orall x, y \in \mathbb{R},$$
 and $f(1) = 10.$

It then follows that f(0) = 1 and, $\forall x \in \mathbb{Q}$, $f(x) = [f(1)]^x$. What additional properties can we impose on f(x) that will lead us to a sensible definition of f(x) for <u>all</u> $x \in \mathbb{R}$?