

**7** Integration

**8** Integration II

**9** Integration III

**10** Integration IV

**11** Integration V

**12** Integration VI



Mathematics  
and Statistics

$$\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

# Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

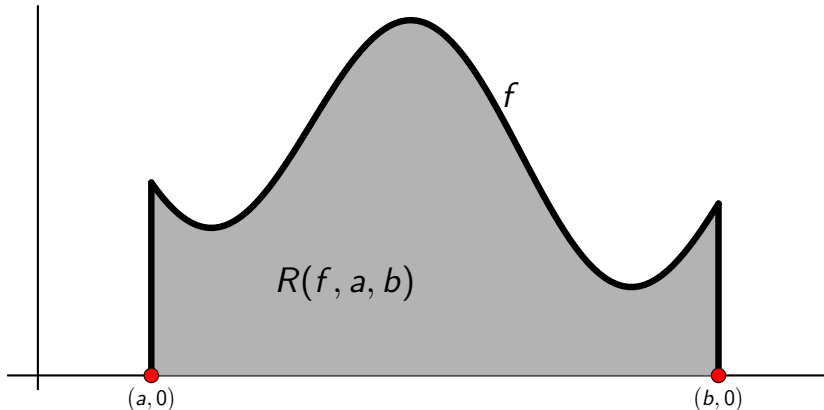
Lecture 7  
Integration  
Wednesday 22 January 2025

# Announcements

- 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.)

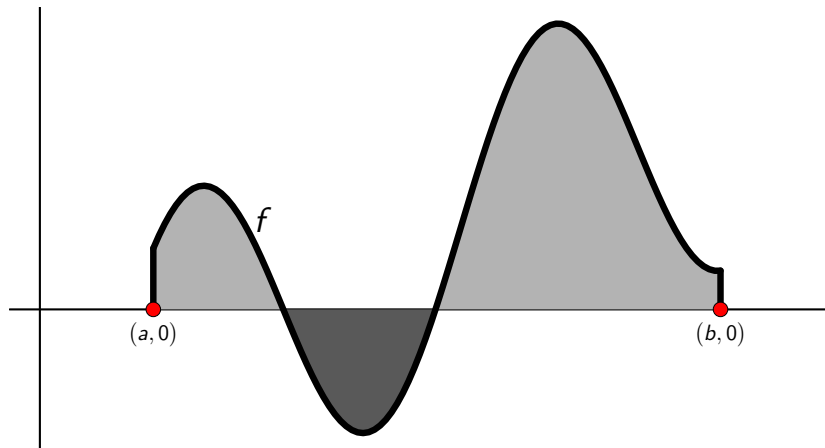
# Integration

# Integration



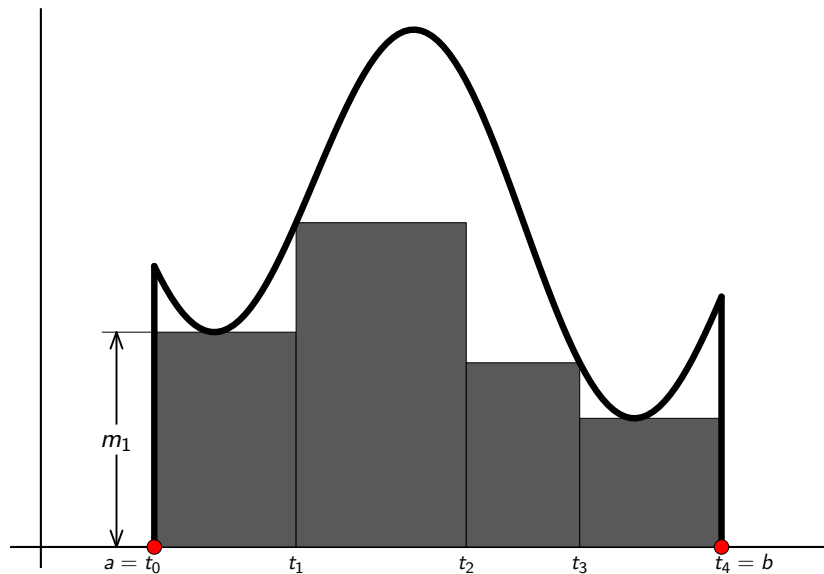
- “Area of region  $R(f, a, b)$ ” is actually a very subtle concept.
- We will only scratch the surface of it (greater depth in Math 4A).
- Our treatment is similar to that in Michael Spivak’s “Calculus” (2008); BS refer to this approach as the Darboux integral (BS §7.4, p. 225).
- The Darboux and Riemann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

# Integration

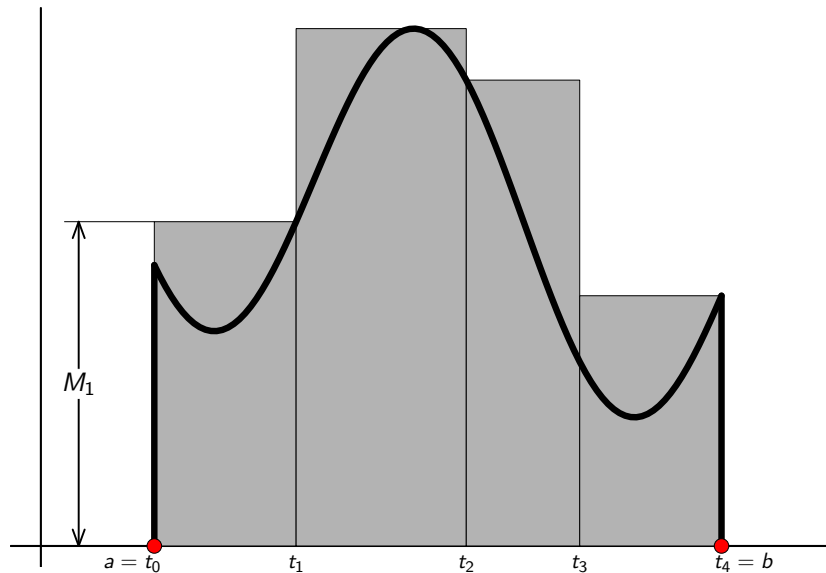


- Contribution to “area of  $R(f, a, b)$ ” is positive or negative depending on whether  $f$  is positive or negative.

## Lower sum

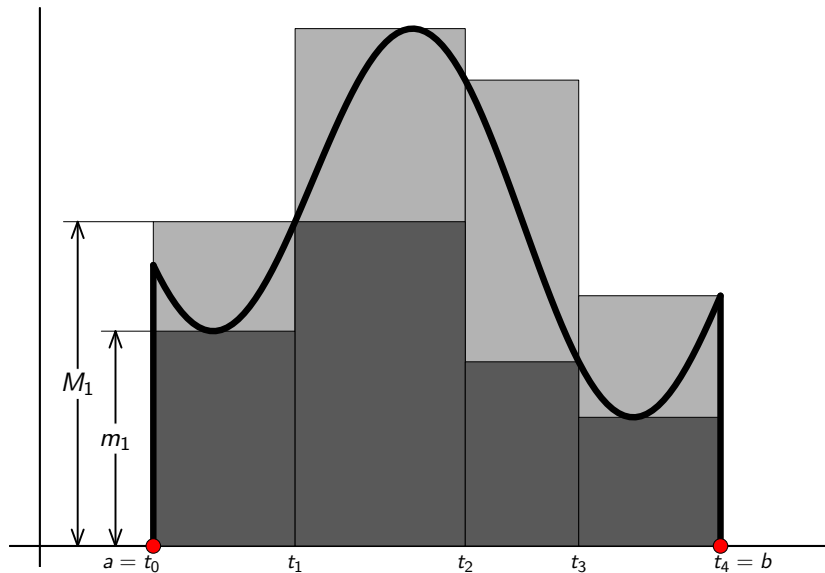


## Upper sum

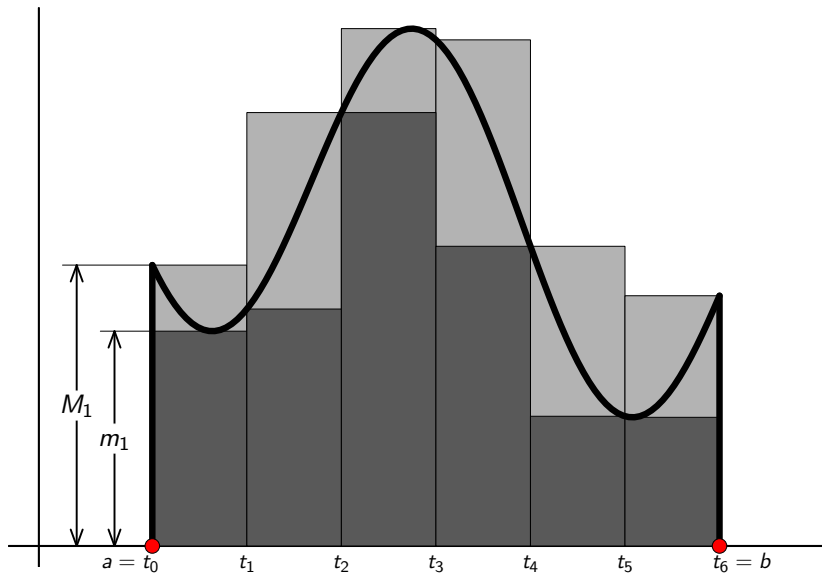




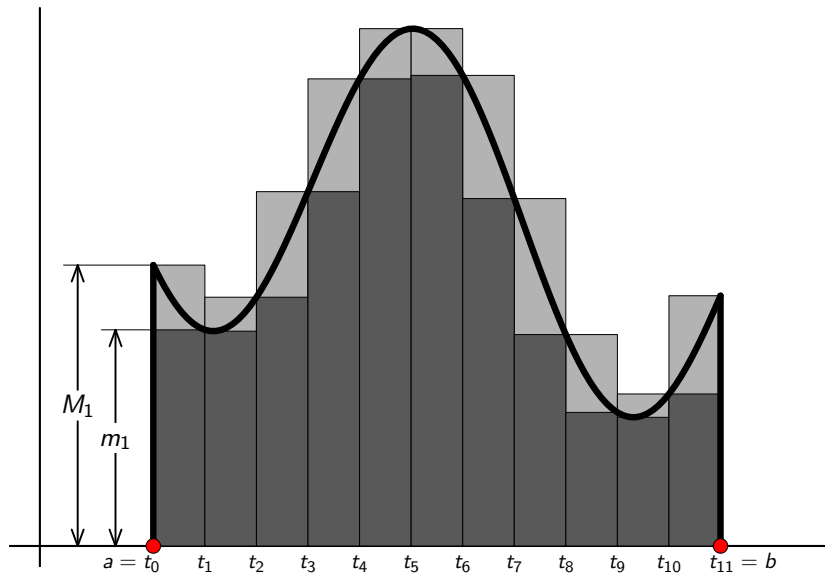
## Lower and upper sums



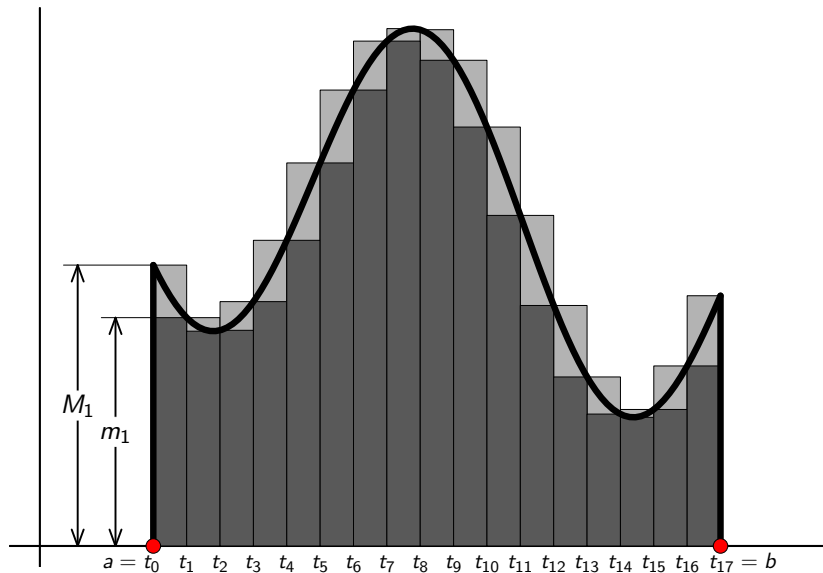
# Lower and upper sums



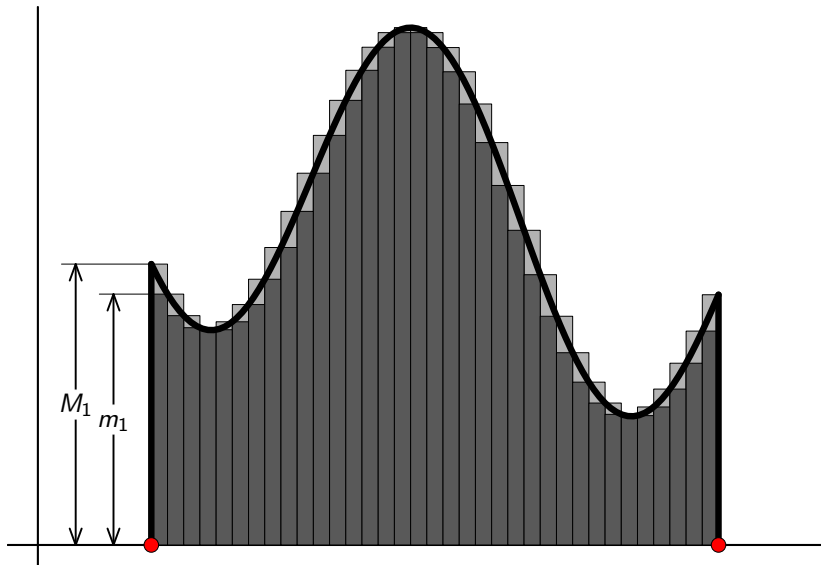
## Lower and upper sums



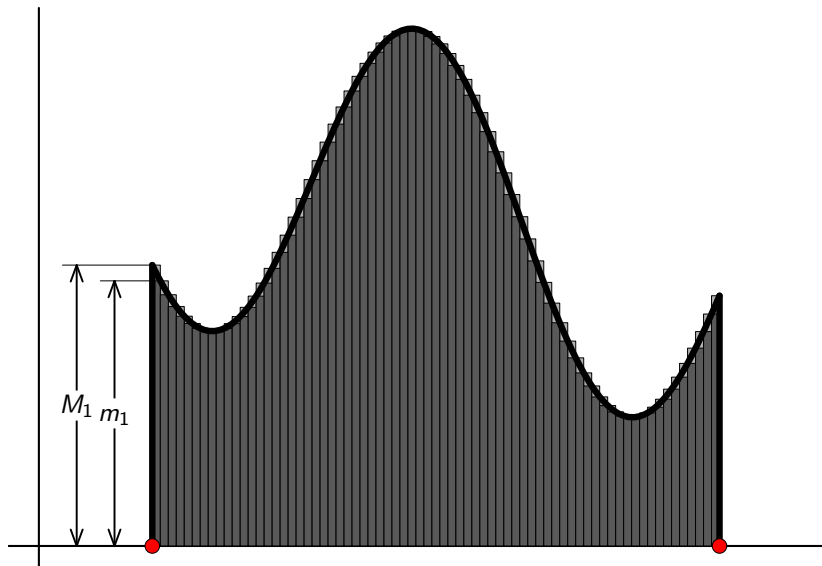
## Lower and upper sums



# Lower and upper sums



# Lower and upper sums



# Rigorous development of the integral

## 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  $i^{\text{th}}$  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  $P = \{t_0, \dots, t_n\}$  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

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



# Rigorous development of the integral

*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 essential in order to be sure that all the  $m_i$  and  $M_i$  are well-defined.
- It is also essential that the  $m_i$  and  $M_i$  be defined as inf's and sup's (rather than maxima and minima) because  $f$  was not assumed to be continuous.

# Rigorous development of the integral

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

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

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

$\therefore$  For any 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

- Go to  
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- Click on **Math 3A03**
- Click on **Take Class Poll**
- Fill in poll **Integrals: Lower and Upper Sums**
- .

# Rigorous development of the integral

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

- More generally, if  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are any two partitions of  $[a, b]$ , it ought to be true that

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

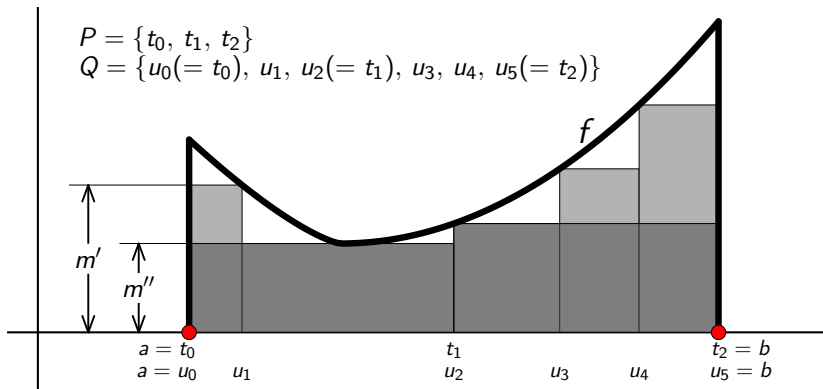
because  $L(f, P_1)$  should be  $\leq$  area of  $R(f, a, b)$ , and  $U(f, P_2)$  should be  $\geq$  area of  $R(f, a, b)$ .

- 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  $P_1, P_2 \dots$

# Rigorous development of the integral

## 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  $U(f, P) \geq U(f, Q)$ .



# Rigorous development of the integral

## Proof of Partition Lemma

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

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

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

where

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

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 ...*

# Rigorous development of the integral

## Proof of Partition Lemma (cont.)

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

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

$\therefore$  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 ...*

# Rigorous development of the integral

## 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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore m_k(t_k - t_{k-1}) &= m_k(t_k - u + u - t_{k-1}) \\ &= m_k(u - t_{k-1}) + m_k(t_k - u) \\ &\leq m'(u - t_{k-1}) + m''(t_k - u), \end{aligned}$$

... continued ...



# Rigorous development of the integral

## 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  $\ell$  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  $U(f, P) \geq U(f, Q)$  is similar: check!)



# Rigorous development of the integral

## Theorem (Partition Theorem)

Let  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  be any two partitions of  $[a, b]$ . If  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$  then

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

## 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

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



# Rigorous development of the integral

Important inferences that follow from the **partition theorem**:

- For any partition  $P'$ , the upper sum  $U(f, P')$  is an upper bound for the set of all lower sums  $L(f, P)$ .

$$\therefore \sup \{L(f, P) : P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\} \leq U(f, P') \quad \forall P'$$

$$\therefore \sup \{L(f, P)\} \leq \inf \{U(f, P)\}$$

$\therefore$  For any partition  $P'$ ,

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

- 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

- Go to [https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main\\_login.php](https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php)
- Click on **Math 3A03**
- Click on **Take Class Poll**
- Fill in poll **Integrals:  $\sup \{L(f, P)\} < \inf \{U(f, P)\} ?$**
- .



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

# Announcements

- **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)
  - Friday 12:30–1:30 (HH 207)

# Poll

- Go to [https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main\\_login.php](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!)**
- .

# Rigorous development of the integral

## Example

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

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

Consider any partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$ .

If  $P = \{t_0, \dots, t_n\}$  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 **any** partition  $P$ .

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

*Can we define “area of  $R(f, a, b)$ ” for such a weird function?*

Yes, but not in this course!



# Rigorous development of the integral

## Definition (Integrable)

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

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

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 unique number with this property.

# Rigorous development of the integral

## ■ *Notation:*

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \quad \text{means precisely the same as} \quad \int_a^b f.$$

- The symbol “ $dx$ ” has no meaning in isolation just as “ $x \rightarrow$ ” has no meaning except in  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ .
- 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:
  - 1 If  $f(x) \equiv c$  then  $f$  is **integrable** on  $[a, b]$  and  $\int_a^b f = c \cdot (b - a)$ .
  - 2 The **weird example** function is not **integrable**.

# Rigorous development of the integral

- 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.

# Rigorous development of the integral

## Theorem (Equivalent " $\varepsilon$ - $P$ " criterion for integrability)

A bounded function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  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)

Note: 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.

# Rigorous development of the integral

Proof of equivalence of “sup = inf” and “ $\varepsilon$ - $P$ ” definitions of integrability.

( $\implies$ ) Suppose the bounded function  $f$  is integrable, i.e.,

$$\begin{aligned} & \sup\{L(f, P) : P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\} \\ &= \inf\{U(f, P) : P \text{ a partition of } [a, b]\} = \int_a^b f \end{aligned}$$

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , since  $\int_a^b f$  is the least upper bound of the lower sums, there is a partition  $P_1$  such that

$$\int_a^b f = \sup_{P'}\{L(f, P')\} < L(f, P_1) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2},$$

i.e., such that 
$$-L(f, P_1) < -\int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \quad (\heartsuit)$$

... continued...

# Rigorous development of the integral

Proof of equivalence of “ $\sup = \inf$ ” and “ $\varepsilon$ - $P$ ” definitions of integrability.

Similarly, there is a partition  $P_2$  such that

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

Therefore, putting together inequalities  $(\diamond)$  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?*

Hint: Recall the **partition lemma** ...

... continued...

# Rigorous development of the integral

Proof of equivalence of “ $\sup = \inf$ ” and “ $\varepsilon$ - $P$ ” definitions of integrability.

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

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, P) - L(f, P) &\leq U(f, P_2) - L(f, P_1) \\ &< \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} - \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon, \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

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

... continued ...

# Rigorous development of the integral

Proof of equivalence of "sup = inf" and " $\epsilon$ - $P$ " 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.*,  $0 \leq \inf_{P'} \{U(f, P')\} - \sup_{P'} \{L(f, P')\} \leq U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \epsilon$ .

But by hypothesis, such a partition  $P$  can be found for any given  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Therefore,  $\inf_{P'} \{U(f, P')\} = \sup_{P'} \{L(f, P')\}$ . □



# Rigorous development of the integral

## Example

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

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

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

Note: 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  
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$$\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

# Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 9  
Integration III  
Monday 27 January 2025

# Announcements

- **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 “ $\epsilon$ - $P$ ” definition of integrable.
- Note: 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  $\epsilon$ - $P$  definition.

# Poll

- Go to [https://www.childsmath.ca/childs/forms/main\\_login.php](https://www.childsmath.ca/childs/forms/main_login.php)
- Click on **Math 3A03**
- Click on **Take Class Poll**
- Fill in poll **Integrals: Integrable vs Continuous vs Differentiable**
- .

# 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 bounded). 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

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

which we can do because  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

# Integral theorems

## Proof that continuous $\implies$ integrable (cont.)

Since  $f$  is continuous on the closed interval  $[a, b]$ , 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 uniformly 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  $\delta$ , 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

*... continued ...*

## Integral theorems

Proof that continuous  $\implies$  integrable (cont.)

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

$$\therefore M_i - m_i \leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)} < \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

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

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, P) - L(f, P) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i)(t_i - t_{i-1}) \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} \sum_{i=1}^n (t_i - t_{i-1}) = \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} (b-a) = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$





# Properties of the integral

## 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

$$\int_a^b f = \int_a^c f + \int_c^b f. \quad (\heartsuit)$$

(a good exercise)

This theorem motivates these definitions:

$$\int_a^a f = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{if } a > b \quad \text{then} \quad \int_a^b f = - \int_b^a f.$$

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

# Properties of the integral

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

$$\mathbf{1} \quad \int_a^b (f + g) = \int_a^b f + \int_a^b g;$$

$$\mathbf{2} \quad \int_a^b cf = c \int_a^b f.$$

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

# Properties of the integral

## 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)

### Note:

- There is no “product rule” for integrals. While  $f$  and  $g$  integrable does imply  $fg$  integrable, we cannot 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*.

# Properties of the integral

## Lemma (Integral bounds)

Suppose  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ . If  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$  then

$$m(b - a) \leq \int_a^b f \leq M(b - a).$$

## Proof.

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore m(b - a) &\leq \sup\{L(f, P)\} = \int_a^b f = \inf\{U(f, P)\} \\ &\leq M(b - a). \end{aligned}$$



# Properties of the integral

## 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.,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} F(x) = F(x_0)$ . If  $x \in (x_0, b]$  then

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

... continued ...

# Properties of the integral

## 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

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

from which the **integral bounds lemma** implies

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

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

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

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



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

# Announcements

- [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.

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

## Theorem (First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus – FFTC)

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

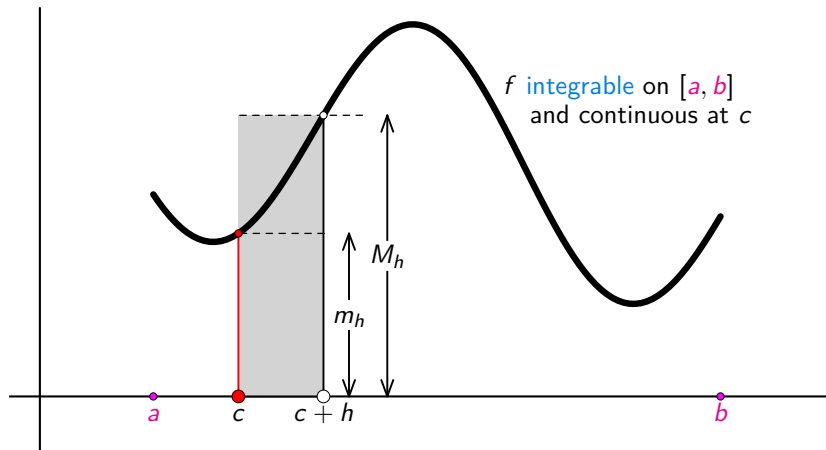
$$F(x) = \int_a^x f.$$

If  $f$  is continuous at  $c \in [a, b]$ , then  $F$  is differentiable at  $c$ , and

$$F'(c) = f(c).$$

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

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

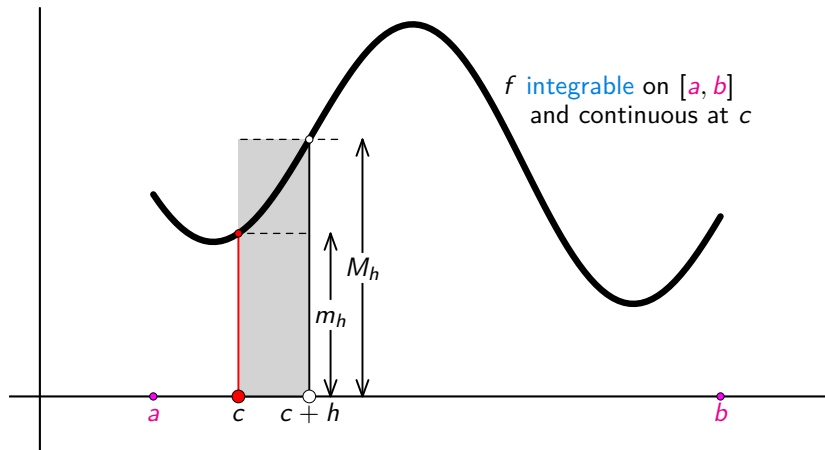


$$F(c+h) - F(c) \simeq f(c+h) \cdot h$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(c+h) = f(c)$$

$$\implies \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} = f(c)$$

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

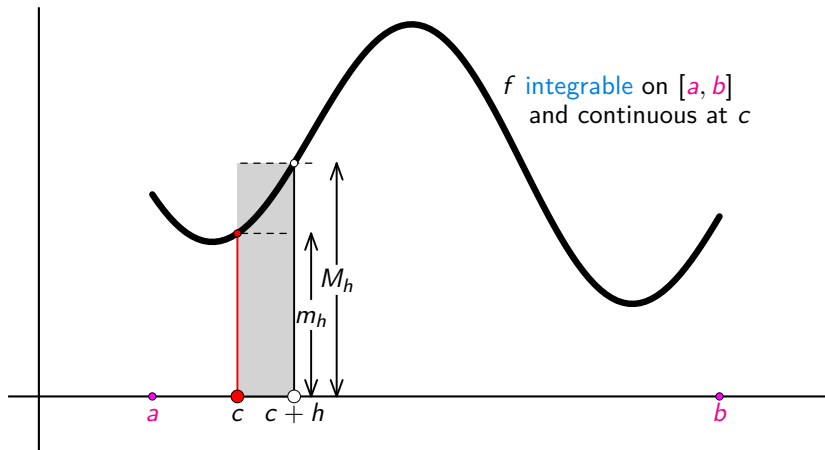


$$F(c+h) - F(c) \simeq f(c+h) \cdot h$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(c+h) = f(c)$$

$$\implies \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} = f(c)$$

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

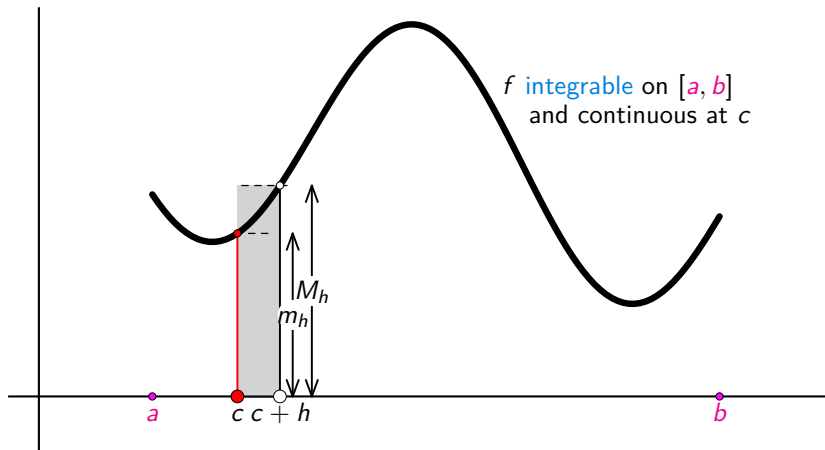


$$F(c+h) - F(c) \simeq f(c+h) \cdot h$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(c+h) = f(c)$$

$$\implies \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} = f(c)$$

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus



$$F(c+h) - F(c) \simeq f(c+h) \cdot h$$

and  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(c+h) = f(c)$

$$\implies \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} = f(c)$$

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

## Proof of First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Suppose  $c \in [a, b)$ , and  $0 < h \leq b - c$ . 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

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

*... continued ...*

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

## Proof of First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus (cont.)

and hence

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

This inequality is true for any integrable function. However, because  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ , we have

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

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

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

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



# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

## 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).  
 $\implies F' = f = g'$ .

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

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

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

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

# Poll

- Go to  
[https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main\\_login.php](https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php)
- Click on **Math 3A03**
- Click on **Take Class Poll**
- Fill in poll **Integrals: Fundamental Theorem of Calculus**
- .

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

## Theorem (Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)

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

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

### Notes:

- 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).

# Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

## Proof of Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

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

$$g(t_i) - g(t_{i-1}) = g'(x_i)(t_i - t_{i-1}) = f(x_i)(t_i - t_{i-1}).$$

Define  $m_i$  and  $M_i$  as usual. Then  $m_i \leq f(x_i) \leq M_i \forall i$ , so

$$m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) \leq f(x_i)(t_i - t_{i-1}) \leq M_i(t_i - t_{i-1}),$$

$$\text{i.e., } m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) \leq g(t_i) - g(t_{i-1}) \leq M_i(t_i - t_{i-1}).$$

$$\therefore \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(t_i - t_{i-1}) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n (g(t_i) - g(t_{i-1})) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n M_i(t_i - t_{i-1})$$

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

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

# Announcements

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

# Last time...

## *Rigorous development of the integral*

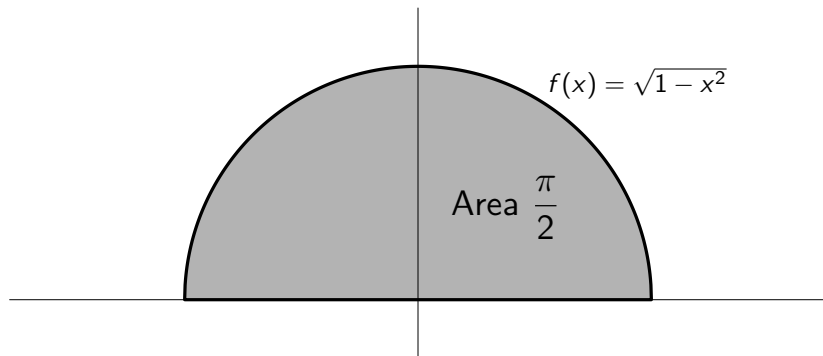
- First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.
- Corollary to FFTC.
- Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.
- What can we do with the integral?



# Poll

- Go to  
[https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main\\_login.php](https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php)
- Click on **Math 3A03**
- Click on **Take Class Poll**
- Fill in poll **What is  $\pi$  ?**
- .

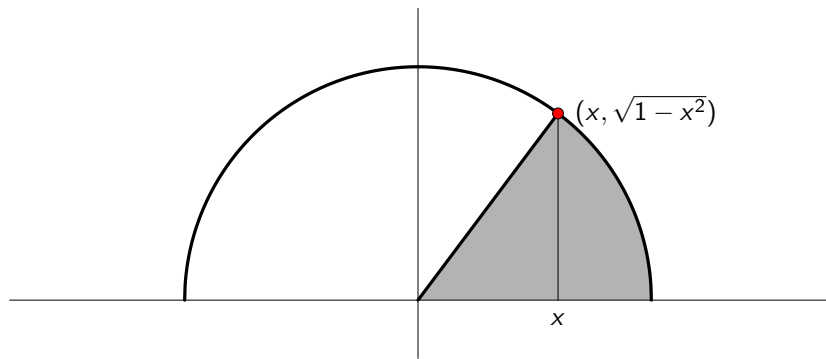
# What is $\pi$ ?



## Definition

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

# What are cos and sin ?

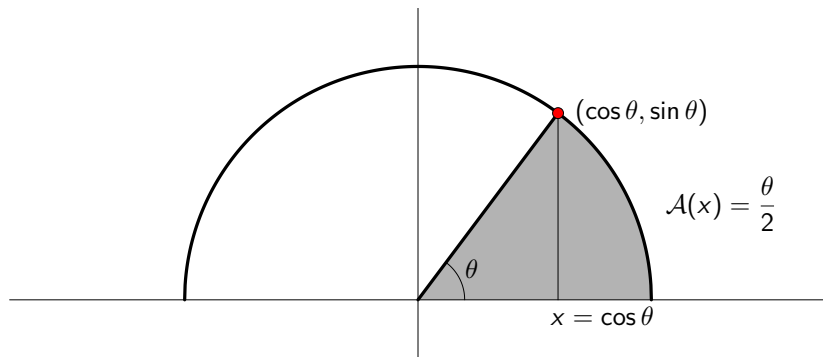


## Definition (Sectoral area)

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

Note:  $\mathcal{A}(-1) = \pi/2$ ,  $\mathcal{A}(1) = 0$ .

# What are cos and sin ?



Length of circular arc swept out by angle  $\theta$ :  $\theta$

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

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  $\sqrt{1 - (\cos \theta)^2}$ .

We must prove: 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  $\mathcal{A}(y) = x/2$ :*

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

Uniqueness:  $\mathcal{A}$  is differentiable on  $(-1, 1)$  and  $\mathcal{A}'(x) < 0$  on  $(-1, 1)$ .  
 $\therefore$  On  $(-1, 1)$ ,  $\mathcal{A}$  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  $\cos x = \cos(x \bmod 2\pi)$  and  $\sin x = \sin(x \bmod 2\pi)$ .

# 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  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $f'' + f = 0$ ,  $f(0) = a$  and  $f'(0) = b$ , then  $f = a \cos + b \sin$ .
- 5 For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

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

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

Something deep that you know enough to prove

## Extra Challenge Problem: Prove that $\pi$ is irrational.

Hint: Suppose  $\pi^2 = \frac{a}{b}$ , for  $a, b \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Show that the smallest positive root of  $\sin$  is irrational.

# What are log and exp ?

Consider the function

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

*What exactly is this function?*

In our mathematically naïve previous life, we just assumed 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  $10^x$  and  $\log_{10}(x)$  defined for irrational  $x$  ?*

Let's review what we know...



# What are log and exp ?

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

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

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

$$10^0 \cdot 10^n = 10^{0+n} = 10^n \implies 10^0 = 1$$

$$10^{-n} \cdot 10^n = 10^0 = 1 \implies 10^{-n} = \frac{1}{10^n}$$

$$\underbrace{10^{1/n} \cdots 10^{1/n}}_{n \text{ times}} = 10^{\underbrace{1/n \cdots 1/n}_{n \text{ times}}} = 10^1 = 10 \implies 10^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{10}$$

# What are log and exp ?

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

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

Now we're stuck. *How do we extend this scheme to irrational  $x$ ?*

**We need a more sophisticated idea.**

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

$$f(x + y) = f(x) \cdot f(y), \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R},$$

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 all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  ?*



Mathematics  
and Statistics

$$\int_M d\omega = \int_{\partial M} \omega$$

# Mathematics 3A03 Real Analysis I

Instructor: David Earn

Lecture 12  
Integration VI  
Wednesday 5 February 2025

# Announcements

- [Assignment 2](#) solutions are posted.

# Last time...

- Rigorous definition of trig functions.
- Working towards rigorous definition of  $10^x$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# What are log and exp ?

One approach is to insist that  $f$  is *differentiable*.

Then we can compute

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) \cdot f(h) - f(x)}{h} \\ &= f(x) \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h) - 1}{h} = f(x) \cdot f'(0) \equiv \alpha f(x) \end{aligned}$$

So  $f'(x) = \alpha f(x)$ , *i.e.*, we have  $f'$  in terms of unknowns  $f$  and  $\alpha$ .  
*So what?!?*

Let's look at the inverse function,  $f^{-1}$  (think "log<sub>10</sub>"):

$$(f^{-1})'(x) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(x))} = \frac{1}{\alpha f(f^{-1}(x))} = \frac{1}{\alpha x}$$

*Holy \$#@%! We have a simple formula for the derivative of  $f^{-1}$ !*

# What are log and exp ?

Since we want  $\log_{10} 1 = 0$ , we should define  $\log_{10} x$  as  $(1/\alpha) \int_1^x t^{-1} dt$ . *Great idea, but we don't know what  $\alpha$  is.*

So, let's ignore  $\alpha$  ...

(and hope that what we end up with is log to some "natural" base).

## Definition (Logarithm function)

If  $x > 0$  then

$$\log x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt.$$

This function is strictly increasing ( $\log'(x) > 0$  for all  $x > 0$ ) and hence one-to-one, so we can now define:

## Definition (Exponential function)

$$\exp = \log^{-1}.$$

# What are log and exp ?

With these rigorous definitions of **log** and **exp**, we can prove the following as theorems:

- 1 If  $x, y > 0$  then  $\log(xy) = \log x + \log y$ .
- 2 If  $x, y > 0$  then  $\log(x/y) = \log x - \log y$ .
- 3 If  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $x > 0$  then  $\log(x^n) = n \log x$ .
- 4 For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\exp'(x) = \exp(x)$ .
- 5 For all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\exp(x + y) = \exp(x) \cdot \exp(y)$ .
- 6 For all  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\exp(x) = [\exp(1)]^x$ .

The last theorem above motivates:

## Definition

$$\begin{aligned} e &\equiv \exp(1), \\ e^x &\equiv \exp(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}. \end{aligned}$$



# What are log and exp ?

We can now give a rigorous definition of  $10^x$  for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .  
In fact, we can do this for any  $a > 0$ .

## Definition ( $a^x$ )

If  $a > 0$  and  $x$  is any real number then

$$a^x \equiv e^{x \log a}.$$

We then have the following theorems for any  $a > 0$ :

- 1  $(a^x)^y = a^{xy}$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- 2  $a^0 = 1$ ;  $a^1 = a$ ;
- 3  $a^{x+y} = a^x \cdot a^y$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- 4  $a^{-x} = 1/a^x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- 5 if  $a > 1$  then  $a^x$  is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}$ ;
- 6 if  $0 < a < 1$  then  $a^x$  is decreasing on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

## Using the integral to define useful functions rigorously

- Just as we defined  $10^x$  via the definition of  $\log x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$ , we could have defined the trigonometric functions starting from

$$\arcsin x = \int_0^x \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-t^2}} dt, \quad -1 < x < 1,$$

rather than the definition of  $\cos$  via  $\mathcal{A}(x)$ . Many common functions are defined as integrals of rational functions of square roots.

- Any compositions of trig functions, log, exp, rational functions and radicals, are called *elementary functions*.
- Most functions that turn up a lot in applications can be defined rigorously via integrals of elementary functions. Such functions are collectively called *special functions*.

# Poll

- Go to  
[https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main\\_login.php](https://www.childsmath.ca/childsa/forms/main_login.php)
- Click on **Math 3A03**
- Click on **Take Class Poll**
- Fill in poll **What kind of number is  $e$  ?**
- .

# Approximation by Polynomial Functions

## Definition (Taylor polynomial)

If  $f$  is  $n$  times differentiable at  $a$  then the **Taylor polynomial of degree  $n$  for  $f$  at  $a$**  is

$$P_{n,a}(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \cdots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x - a)^n.$$

## Theorem (Taylor's theorem)

Suppose  $f', \dots, f^{(n+1)}$  are defined on  $[a, x]$ , and that  $R_{n,a}(x)$  is defined by  $f(x) = P_{n,a}(x) + R_{n,a}(x)$ . Then

$$R_{n,a}(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}(x - a)^{n+1}, \quad \text{for some } \xi \in (a, x). \quad (\heartsuit)$$

Note: The form of the remainder term here is known as the **Lagrange form** of the remainder.

# Approximation by Polynomial Functions

## Proof of Taylor's Theorem.

Let's prove this by induction, starting from the base case,  $n = 0$ . For  $n = 0$ , the statement of Taylor's theorem is:

*Suppose  $f'$  is defined on  $[a, x]$ , and that  $R_{0,a}(x)$  is defined by  $f(x) = P_{0,a}(x) + R_{0,a}(x)$ . Then*

$$R_{0,a}(x) = f'(\xi)(x - a), \quad \text{for some } \xi \in (a, x).$$

But  $P_{0,a}(x) = f(a)$ , so the claim for  $n = 0$  is that

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(\xi)(x - a), \quad \text{for some } \xi \in (a, x).$$

Thus, for  $n = 0$ , Taylor's Theorem reduces to the **Mean Value Theorem**! So the base case ( $n = 0$ ) is true.

*... continued ...*

# Approximation by Polynomial Functions

## Proof of Taylor's Theorem.

Now suppose  $n \geq 1$ . By the induction hypothesis, we have

$$R_{n-1,a}(x) = \frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n!}(x-a)^n, \quad \text{for some } \xi \in (a, x).$$

From this, how can we infer something related to  $(\heartsuit)$ ? By definition,

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= P_{n,a}(x) + R_{n,a}(x) = P_{n-1,a}(x) + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + R_{n,a}(x) \\ &= \left[ P_{n-1,a}(x) + R_{n-1,a}(x) \right] + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + \left[ R_{n,a}(x) - R_{n-1,a}(x) \right] \\ \therefore 0 &= \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + R_{n,a}(x) - R_{n-1,a}(x) \\ &= \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + R_{n,a}(x) - \frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n!}(x-a)^n, \quad \text{for some } \xi \in (a, x). \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $R_{n,a}(x) = \left[ \frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n!} - \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} \right] (x-a)^n$ , so  $R_{n,a}(a) = 0$ .

In fact,  $R_{n,a}^{(k)}(a) = 0 \quad \forall k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1.$  *... continued ...*

# Approximation by Polynomial Functions

## Proof of Taylor's Theorem.

Now, since  $a < x$ , proving (♥) is equivalent to proving

$$\frac{R_{n,a}(x)}{(x-a)^{n+1}} = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}, \quad \text{for some } \xi \in (a, x). \quad (\spadesuit)$$

To make the notation less cumbersome, write  $G(x) = (x-a)^n$  (and note that  $G^{(k)}(a) = 0 \forall k = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ ).

Then, for any  $x > a$ , we have

$$\frac{R_{n,a}(x)}{G(x)} = \frac{R_{n,a}(x) - R_{n,a}(a)}{G(x) - G(a)} = \frac{R'_{n,a}(\xi_1)}{G'(\xi_1)} \quad \exists \xi_1 \in (a, x)$$

by Cauchy MVT (proved in [Assignment 1](#)). Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{R'_{n,a}(\xi_1)}{G'(\xi_1)} &= \frac{R'_{n,a}(\xi_1) - R'_{n,a}(a)}{G'(\xi_1) - G'(a)} = \frac{R''_{n,a}(\xi_2)}{G''(\xi_2)} \quad \exists \xi_2 \in (a, \xi_1) \subset (a, x) \\ &= \dots = \frac{R_{n,a}^{(n+1)}(\xi_{n+1})}{G^{(n+1)}(\xi_{n+1})} \quad \exists \xi_{n+1} \in (a, \xi_n) \subset (a, x) \end{aligned}$$

# Approximation by Polynomial Functions

## Proof of Taylor's Theorem.

But

$$R_{n,a}^{(n+1)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx^{n+1}} \left( R_{n,a}(x) \right) = \frac{d}{dx^{n+1}} \left( f(x) - P_{n,a}(x) \right) = \left( f^{(n+1)}(x) - 0 \right)$$

and

$$G^{(n+1)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx^{n+1}} \left( (x-a)^{n+1} \right) = (n+1)!$$

Therefore,

$$\frac{R_{n,a}(x)}{(x-a)^{n+1}} = \frac{R_{n,a}^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{G^{(n+1)}(\xi)} = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!} \quad \exists \xi \in (a, x),$$

which verifies (♥), as required. □

Note: From Taylor's theorem with  $a = 0$  and  $f = \exp$ , it follows that  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + R_n(x)$ , where  $R_n(x) = \frac{e^t}{(n+1)!}$  for some  $t \in (0, x)$ .