

# MAT139 Notes

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# 1 Integration

The integral of  $f$  is the area under the graph of  $f$ . The proper definition follows from the development of helper definitions and theorems, which are collected below.

## 1.1 Infimum and Supremum

**Definition 1.1.1** (Bounds). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbf{R}$  is *bounded above* if there exists a number  $b \in \mathbf{R}$  such that for all  $a \in A$ ,  $a \leq b$ . Here,  $b$  is called an *upper bound* of  $A$ . Likewise,  $A$  is *bounded below* if there exists some  $b \in \mathbf{R}$  such that for all  $a \in A$ ,  $a \geq b$ . Here,  $b$  is *lower bound* of  $A$ .

**Definition 1.1.2** (Infimum). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ . A real number  $i$  is the *infimum*, or *greatest lower bound* of  $A$  if:

- (i)  $i$  is a lower bound of  $A$ ;
- (ii) if  $b$  is any lower bound of  $A$ , then  $i \geq b$ .

We write  $i = \inf A$  to denote that  $i$  is the infimum of  $A$ .

**Definition 1.1.3** (Supremum). Let  $A \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ . A real number  $c$  is the *supremum*, or *least upper bound* of  $A$  if:

- (i)  $c$  is an upper bound of  $A$ ;
- (ii) if  $b$  is any upper bound for  $A$ , then  $c \leq b$ .

We write  $c = \sup A$  to denote that  $c$  is the supremum of  $A$ .

When discussing functions, the supremum and infimum of a function  $f$  are the supremum and infimum of its *range*.

## 1.2 Sums and Sigma Notation

**Definition 1.2.1** (Sigma Notation). Let  $m$  and  $n$  be integers, and  $a_m, a_{m+1} + \dots + a_n$  be real numbers. The *sum* of  $a_m, a_{m+1}, \dots, a_n$  is defined as

$$a_m + a_{m+1} + \dots + a_n = \sum_{i=m}^n a_i$$

A summation can be thought of as a simple additive for-loop, which adds the value of the indexed variable  $a_i$  to a running total. Just like a for-loop, the letter  $i$  is a bound variable, and can be replaced with any other letter.

The notation is most comfortably read (at least by myself) as follows: “the sum as  $i$  goes from  $m$  to  $n$  of  $a_i$ .”

**Proposition 1.2.1** (Properties of sums). Suppose  $c, a_i$ , and  $b_i$  are real numbers for  $i = m, m+1, \dots, m_n$ , where  $n$  is an integer. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad & \sum_{i=m}^n (c \cdot a_i) = c \sum_{i=m}^n a_i \\ \text{(ii)} \quad & \sum_{i=m}^n (a_i + b_i) = \sum_{i=m}^n a_i + \sum_{i=m}^n b_i \end{aligned}$$

**Example 1.2.1.** The sum

$$3 + 9 + 15 + 21 + 27 + 33 + \dots + 297 + 303$$

can be expressed in the following, equivalent ways:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad & \sum_{i=1}^{51} 3(2i-1) \\ \text{(ii)} \quad & \sum_{i=7}^{57} (2i-3) \\ \text{(iii)} \quad & 3 \sum_{i=0}^{50} (2i+1) \\ \text{(iv)} \quad & 3 \sum_{n=0}^{50} (2n+1) \end{aligned}$$

### 1.3 Partitions, Heights, and Sums

To construct our rectangles, we must first talk about *partitions*:

**Definition 1.3.1** (Partitions). A *partition* of an interval  $[a, b]$  is a finite set  $P$  such that

$$P = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$$

where  $x_0 = a, x_n = b$ , and  $x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n$ .

The points in  $P$  need not be equidistant; for example, a possible partition of the interval  $[1, 2]$  is  $\{1, 1.2, 1.314, \phi, 1.9, 2\}$ . Therefore, our rectangles can have varying widths.

Next, we need to define the heights of our rectangles. This requires a two-pronged approach; our rectangles can either be big enough to completely cover the curve, or be small enough to be completely covered by the curve.

**Definition 1.3.2.** For each sub-interval  $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$  of  $P$ , where  $i \geq 1$ , define

$$\begin{aligned} m_i &= \inf\{f(x) \mid x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\} \\ M_i &= \sup\{f(x) \mid x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\} \end{aligned}$$

(No visuals; I hate TikZ. Sorry, future me.)

Now that we can talk about the widths and heights of both small and big rectangles, we can define their sums like so:

**Definition 1.3.3** (Upper and Lower Sums). Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ , and consider a partition  $P = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$  of  $[a, b]$ . The *lower sum* of  $f$  with respect to  $P$  is given by

$$L_f(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(x_i - x_{i-1})$$

Similarly, the *upper sum* is defined as

$$U_f(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i(x_i - x_{i-1})$$

(I prefer Tyler's notation for denoting upper/lower sums to Alfonso's, so I've used it here. Functionally, they are the same).

**Remark.** By virtue of their definitions, it is easy to see that  $M_i \geq m_i$  for all  $i \geq 1$ . Which means that for any partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$ ,  $U_f(P) \geq L_f(P)$ .

A partition with 10 elements may allow us to calculate upper and lower sums which are decent but imprecise estimates of a function's integral. If we were to keep our 10-element partition, and add 90 more points to it such that the original partition is a *subset* of the new one, we could potentially get a much better estimate of the integral. This is the motivation behind a *refinement*.

**Definition 1.3.4** (Refinements). Let  $P$  be a partition of  $[a, b]$ . A partition  $Q$  of  $[a, b]$  is called a *refinement* of  $P$  if  $P \subseteq Q$ .

The following properties follow intuitively from the definitions stated earlier. The first assures that refinements do indeed make upper sums smaller (or unchanged) and lower sums larger (or unchanged).

**Lemma 1.3.1.** If  $Q$  is a refinement of  $P$ , then  $L(f, P) \leq L(f, Q)$  and  $U(f, P) \geq U(f, Q)$ .

The next lemma states that all upper sums are greater than or equal to all lower sums.

**Lemma 1.3.2.** Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ . Then, for any partitions  $P_1, P_2$  of  $[a, b]$ ,  $L(f, P_1) \leq U(f, P_2)$ .

## 1.4 The Integral

The idea so far has been to take finer and finer partitions of  $[a, b]$ , and to calculate the upper and lower sums of  $f$  with respect to these partitions. If the upper and lower sums converge to the same value, we say that  $f$  is *integrable* on  $[a, b]$ , and that value is the integral of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ .

**Definition 1.4.1.** Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a bounded function, and let  $\mathcal{P}$  be the set of all partitions of  $[a, b]$ . The *upper integral* of  $f$  is

$$\overline{I}_a^b(f) = \sup\{L(f, P) \mid P \in \mathcal{P}\}$$

The *lower integral* of  $f$  is

$$\underline{I}_a^b(f) = \inf\{U(f, P) \mid P \in \mathcal{P}\}$$

**Remark.** By Lemma 1.2.2, it is clear that  $\overline{I}_a^b(f) \geq \underline{I}_a^b(f)$ .

This brings us to the following paraphrase of the above paragraph:

**Definition 1.4.2** (Integrability). Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a bounded function. If  $\overline{I}_a^b(f) = \underline{I}_a^b(f)$ , then we say that  $f$  is *integrable* on  $[a, b]$ , and we denote the integral as  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ .

## 1.5 Integrable and Non-Integrable Functions

We use the following theorem without proof:

**Theorem 1.5.1** (Continuity  $\implies$  Integrability). If  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is continuous, then  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

The fact that non-continuous functions can be integrable is demonstrated by the following example:

**Example 1.5.1.** Let  $f$  be a function defined as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

Prove that  $f$  is integrable on  $[-1, 1]$ .

*Proof.* Let  $f$  be the function defined above. Suppose  $P$  is an arbitrary partition of  $[-1, 1]$ . Clearly,  $m_i = 0$  for all  $i \geq 1$ . Thus,

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i(x_i - x_{i-1}) = 0.$$

Since  $L(f, P) = 0$  for all partitions  $P$  of  $[-1, 1]$ , we have that  $\underline{I}_{-1}^1(f) = \sup\{0\} = 0$ .

Now, consider the upper sums. Since  $M_i = 1$  for all  $i \geq 1$ , we have that

$$0 < U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i(x_i - x_{i-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n 1 \cdot (x_i - x_{i-1}) \leq 2$$

for all partitions  $P$  of  $[-1, 1]$ . Thus,  $\overline{I}_{-1}^1(f) = \inf\{(0, 2]\} = 0$ . We have shown

that  $\overline{I}_{-1}^1(f) = \underline{I}_{-1}^1(f) = 0$ , so  $f$  is integrable on  $[-1, 1]$ , as needed.  $\square$

Below is an example of a function which is *not integrable*:

**Example 1.5.2.** Let  $f$  be a function defined as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in \mathbf{Q} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \mathbf{Q} \end{cases}$$

(What a surprise!)

*Proof.* I'm too lazy to reproduce it here, but the proof is in the videos. (We've used a sneaky proof tactic here, called *proof by cubersome reference*.)  $\square$