

Real Analysis II Notes

B. Math(Hons.) 1st years

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Lecture 1, January 24

[Note: ■ marks the end of a proof, i.e., QED. If used immediately after a statement to be proved, indicates that the proof is trivial and left as an exercise to the reader]

Assumptions:

- \mathbb{N} , the set of all natural numbers, is defined by $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, \dots\}$.
- \mathbb{Z} , the set of all integers, is defined the usual way.
- \mathbb{Z}_+ , the set of all non-negative integers, is defined by $\mathbb{Z}_+ = \{0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$.
- Any function $f: [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ shall always be bounded.

1.1 Partitions

Definition 1.1.1. A partition P of $I = [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ is a set of reals $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ for some $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n$$

We shall denote the interval $[x_{j-1}, x_j]$ by the expression I_j .

Definition 1.1.2. If $I = (a, b)$ or $(a, b]$ or $[a, b)$ or $[a, b]$, we define

$$|I| = b - a$$

We shall informally refer to $|I|$ as the *length* of I .

Claim 1.1.1. If $P = \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n = b\}$ is a partition of $I = [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$,

$$|I| = \sum_{i=1}^n |I_i|$$

■

Claim 1.1.2. If P and \tilde{P} are both partitions of an interval $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$, so is $P \cup \tilde{P}$. ■

Definition 1.1.3.

- 1) We define $\mathcal{P}[a, b]$ to be the set of all partitions (not just those of a fixed cardinality) of $[a, b]$. If the interval is clear from the context, we shall suppress it, writing $\mathcal{P}[a, b]$ as \mathcal{P} .
- 2) Let $f: [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a (bounded) function. Given a partition $P = \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n = b\}$ of an interval $I = [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$, we define

$$M_j = \sup_{x \in I_j} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad m_j = \inf_{x \in I_j} f(x)$$

for all $1 \leq j \leq n$. We also define

$$M = \sup_{x \in I} f(x) \quad \text{and} \quad m = \inf_{x \in I} f(x)$$

Claim 1.1.3. If $S_1 \subset S_2 \subset \mathbb{R}$,

$$\sup S_1 \leq \sup S_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \inf S_1 \geq \inf S_2$$

■

Corollary 1.1.3.1. Using the notation of item 2 of definition 1.1.3,

$$m \leq m_j \leq M_j \leq M$$

for all $1 \leq j \leq n$.

Proof. After choosing S_1 and S_2 to be the relevant images of f (see definition 1.1.3), the statement follows trivially. ■

Definition 1.1.4. Given an interval $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$, we define $\mathcal{B}[a, b]$ to be the set of all bounded functions from $[a, b]$ to \mathbb{R} .

Definition 1.1.5. Let $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$ and let $P = \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n = b\} \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$. Then, using the notation of item 2 of definition 1.1.3, the **upper Riemann sum** of f with respect to P is defined as

$$U(f; P) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i |I_i|$$

and the **lower Riemann sum** of f with respect to P is defined as

$$L(f; P) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i |I_i|$$

Claim 1.1.4. Both $U(f; P)$ and $L(f; P)$ must exist.

Proof. The maxima and minima exist because $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$, and the sums exist because P has finitely many elements (also called nodes). ■

Theorem 1.1.5. Using the notation of definitions 1.1.5 and 1.1.3, given a function $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$,

$$m(b-a) \leq L(f; P) \leq U(f; P) \leq M(b-a)$$

for all $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$.

Proof. Let $P = \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n = b\}$. For all $1 \leq i \leq n$, using corollary 1.1.3.1

$$m|I_i| \leq m_i|I_i| \leq M_i|I_i| \leq M|I_i|$$

Summing up over all $1 \leq i \leq n$, we obtain the desired inequality. ■

Corollary 1.1.5.1. For all $P \in \mathcal{P}$, $L(f; P)$ and $U(f; P)$ are bounded by $m(b-a)$ and $M(b-a)$. ■

Definition 1.1.6. Suppose that $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$. We define the **lower Riemann integral** of f on $[a, b]$ to be

$$\int_a^b f = \sup\{L(f, P) : P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]\}$$

and **upper Riemann integral** of f on $[a, b]$ to be

$$\overline{\int_a^b f} = \inf\{U(f, P) : P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]\}$$

Note that both integrals must exist, since they are defined as the supremums/infimums of sets that by corollary 1.1.5.1 are bounded, and because the reals are complete.

Definition 1.1.7. Suppose that $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$. We say that f is **Riemann integrable** on $[a, b]$ if

$$\int_a^b f = \overline{\int_a^b f}$$

We also define the **Riemann integral** of f on $[a, b]$ to be

$$\int_a^b f := \int_a^b f = \overline{\int_a^b f}$$

The remainder of the notes covering the material done in Lecture 1 overlaps with the notes covering the material done in Lecture 2, so there is no point in reproducing it here.

Lecture 2, January 26

2.1 Properties of Lower and Upper Riemann Sums

Proposition 2.1.1. Let $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$ and let $P, \tilde{P} \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, if $\tilde{P} \supset P$ then

$$L(f, P) \leq L(f, \tilde{P}) \leq U(f, \tilde{P}) \leq U(f, P)$$

Proof. We prove it for the case $\tilde{P} = P \cup \{c\}$. Suppose $c \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]$ where $P = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. Then we can write

$$U(f, \tilde{P}) = \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k \neq i}}^n M_k \Delta x_k + \tilde{M}_i(c - x_i) + \tilde{M}_{i+1}(x_{i+1} - c) \quad (2.1)$$

where $\tilde{M}_i = \sup\{f(x) : x \in [x_i, c]\}$ and $\tilde{M}_{i+1} = \sup\{f(x) : x \in [c, x_{i+1}]\}$. Now since

$$[x_i, c], [c, x_{i+1}] \subset [x_i, x_{i+1}]$$

its obvious that $\tilde{M}_i \leq M_i$ and $\tilde{M}_{i+1} \leq M_i$. But then from equation (2.1) we get that

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, \tilde{P}) &\leq \sum_{\substack{k=1 \\ k \neq i}}^n M_k \Delta x_k + M_i(c - x_i) + M_i(x_{i+1} - c) \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n M_k \Delta x_k \\ &= U(f, P) \end{aligned}$$

Now by induction it easily follows that for any $\tilde{P} \supset P$, we have $U(f, \tilde{P}) \leq U(f, P)$. The proof of the other part is similar, just that in place of \tilde{M}_i and \tilde{M}_{i+1} we will be working with \tilde{m}_i and \tilde{m}_{i+1} , where $\tilde{m}_i = \inf\{f(x) : x \in [x_i, c]\}$ and $\tilde{m}_{i+1} = \inf\{f(x) : x \in [c, x_{i+1}]\}$, and we will use that fact that $\tilde{m}_i, \tilde{m}_{i+1} \geq m_i$.

Now since for any $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, we have $L(f, P) \leq U(f, P)$, we get that

$$L(f, P) \leq L(f, \tilde{P}) \leq U(f, \tilde{P}) \leq U(f, P)$$

which completes the proof. ■

Corollary 2.1.1.1. Let $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$ and $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, then

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

Proof. We take $\tilde{P} = P \cup Q$, then we have $\tilde{P} \supset P$ and $\tilde{P} \supset Q$ then using **Proposition 2.1.1**, we get that

$$L(f, P) \leq L(f, \tilde{P}) \leq U(f, \tilde{P}) \leq U(f, Q)$$

which completes the proof. ■

Corollary 2.1.1.2. Let $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f \leq \overline{\int_a^b f}$$

Proof. From **Corollary 2.1.1.1**, we know that for any $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, we have $L(f, P) \leq U(f, Q)$. Now fix Q thus we get that $U(f, Q)$ is an upper bound for $L(f, P)$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, hence

$$\int_a^b f = \sup\{L(f, P) : P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]\} \leq U(f, Q)$$

But then we get that $\int_a^b f$ is a lower bound for $U(f, Q)$ for all $Q \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, thus we get that

$$\int_a^b f \leq \inf\{U(f, Q) : Q \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]\} = \overline{\int_a^b f}$$

Now the question that arises is whether $\mathcal{B}[a, b] = \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, i.e., are all bounded functions Riemann integrable? And as it turns out this is not true, consider the following counter example. ■

Counter Example 2.1.2. Consider the **Dirichlet function** $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

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

Clearly $f \in \mathcal{B}[0, 1]$. But note that for any partition $P = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\} \in \mathcal{P}[0, 1]$, we have

$$I_j \cap \mathbb{Q} \neq \emptyset \text{ and } I_j \cap \mathbb{Q}^c \neq \emptyset, \forall j = 1, \dots, n-1$$

where $I_j = [x_j, x_{j+1}]$. And hence we trivially get that

$$L(f, P) = 0 \text{ and } U(f, P) = 1, \forall P \in \mathcal{P}[0, 1]$$

and hence we get that

$$\int_0^1 f = 0 \neq 1 = \overline{\int_0^1 f}$$

and thus we get that $f \notin \mathcal{R}[0, 1]$.

We conclude this section with two examples.

Example 2.1.3. The set of Riemann integrable functions on $[a, b]$ is non-empty. Consider $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x) = c$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, where c is any real number. Then it's trivial to show that

$$L(f, P) = U(f, P) = c(b - a), \forall P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$$

Thus, we obviously have $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, in particular we get that $\int_a^b f = c(b - a)$.

Example 2.1.4. Can we find a function $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$ such that $f \notin \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ but $|f| \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$? Consider $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows

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

Then it's trivial to show that $f \notin \mathcal{R}[0, 1]$ (the proof is exactly same as the arguments given in **Counter Example 2.1.2**), whereas $|f|$ is simply a constant function, and from **Example 2.1.3**, it follows that $|f| \in \mathcal{R}[0, 1]$.

Lecture 5, February 4

Let $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$. We have already shown that for any partition $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, we have

$$L(f, P) \leq S(f, P) \leq U(f, P) \quad (5.2)$$

5.1 Riemann Sums as a tool for computing integrals

Definition 5.1.1. Given $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$, we say that

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} S(f, P) = \lambda \quad (5.3)$$

for some $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, if for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|S(f, P) - \lambda| < \epsilon$$

for all $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, and tag set T_P , such that $\|P\| < \delta$.

Observe that whenever the limit in equation (5.3) exists, the limit is unique, and hence our definition does not have any ambiguity.

Theorem 5.1.1. Let $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$. Then $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, if and only if there exists a $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} S(f, P) = \lambda$$

in this case we have $\int_a^b f = \lambda$.

Proof. Let $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, and suppose $\lambda = \int_a^b f$. Fix $\epsilon > 0$. Then from **Darboux Criterion** we get that there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \epsilon$$

for all $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ such that $\|P\| < \delta$. Then note that

$$L(f, P) > U(f, P) - \epsilon \geq \int_a^b f - \epsilon = \lambda - \epsilon$$

$$U(f, P) < L(f, P) + \epsilon \leq \int_a^b f + \epsilon = \lambda + \epsilon$$

Then from equation (5.2) we get that

$$\lambda - \epsilon < L(f, P) \leq S(f, P) \leq U(f, P) < \lambda + \epsilon$$

Hence, we get that $|S(f, P) - \lambda| < \epsilon$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ and tag set T_P , such that $\|P\| < \delta$.

Conversely, suppose

$$\lim_{\|P\| \rightarrow 0} S(f, P) = \lambda$$

Then for $\epsilon > 0$, we get there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $|S(f, P) - \lambda| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ for all $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ and tag set T_P , such that $\|P\| < \delta$. Suppose $P = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$, and let $M_j = \sup_{x \in I_j} f(x)$ where $I_j = [x_{j-1}, x_j]$ for $j = 1, \dots, n$. Then note that from properties of supremum of a set we get that $\forall \epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\zeta_j \in I_j$ such that

$$M_j - \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)} < f(\zeta_j) \leq M_j$$

So if we choose our tag set to be the set of all these ζ_j 's, we get that

$$\begin{aligned} S(f, P) &= \sum_{j=1}^n f(\zeta_j) \Delta x_j \\ &> \sum_{j=1}^n \left(M_j - \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)} \right) \Delta x_j \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n M_j \Delta x_j - \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)} \sum_{j=1}^n \Delta x_j \\ &= U(f, P) - \frac{\epsilon}{2} \end{aligned}$$

But now since

$$\lambda - \frac{\epsilon}{2} < S(f, P) < \lambda + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

for all $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ and tag set T_P , such that $\|P\| < \delta$, we get that

$$U(f, P) - \frac{\epsilon}{2} < S(f, P) < \lambda + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \Rightarrow U(f, P) < \lambda + \epsilon$$

and

$$\lambda - \frac{\epsilon}{2} < S(f, P) \leq U(f, P) \Rightarrow U(f, P) > \lambda - \epsilon$$

hence, combining everything we get that

$$|U(f, P) - \lambda| < \epsilon, \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b] \text{ such that } \|P\| < \delta \quad (5.4)$$

Now using similar arguments its easy to show that

$$|L(f, P) - \lambda| < \epsilon, \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b] \text{ such that } \|P\| < \delta \quad (5.5)$$

Thus from equation (5.4) and (5.5) we get that

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) \leq |U(f, P) - \lambda| + |L(f, P) - \lambda| < 2\epsilon$$

for all $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ such that $\|P\| < \delta$, hence from **Darboux's criterion** it follows that $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, and finally since

$$\lambda - \epsilon < L(f, P) \leq \int_a^b f \leq U(f, P) < \lambda + \epsilon$$

It follows that $\int_a^b f = \lambda$, which completes the proof. ■

Theorem 5.1.1 is a nice tool for computing integrals, if we already know that $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$.

Theorem 5.1.2. Suppose $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ and $\{P_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ such that $\|P_n\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, P_n) = \int_a^b f$$

Proof. Since $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, using **Darboux criterion** we get that for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$, such that

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \epsilon, \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b] \text{ such that } \|P\| < \delta$$

Now since $\|P_n\| \rightarrow 0$, thus for all $\delta > 0$, there exists an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\|P_n\| < \delta, \forall n > N$. Thus, we get

$$U(f, P_n) - L(f, P_n) < \epsilon, \quad \forall n > N$$

But then we get that

$$\left(U(f, P_n) - \int_a^b f \right) + \left(\int_a^b f - L(f, P_n) \right) < \epsilon, \quad \forall n > N$$

Note that $U(f, P_n) - \int_a^b f \geq 0$ and $\int_a^b f - L(f, P_n) \geq 0$, hence we have

$$0 \leq U(f, P_n) - \int_a^b f < \epsilon \quad \text{and} \quad 0 \leq \int_a^b f - L(f, P_n) < \epsilon \quad \forall n > N \quad (5.6)$$

Thus from equation (5.6), we conclude that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L(f, P_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U(f, P_n) = \int_a^b f$$

Finally from **Squeeze theorem** we get that

$$\int_a^b f = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L(f, P_n) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, P_n) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U(f, P_n) = \int_a^b f$$

and hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, P_n) = \int_a^b f$, which completes the proof. ■

Note: The limit $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, P_n) = \int_a^b f$ does not depend on the tag set, so we can choose our favourite tag set for computing the integral, given that we know that the function is Riemann integrable.

Suppose we know that $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, then consider the following partition

$$a = x_0 < x_1 = x_0 + \frac{1}{n}(b-a) < x_2 = x_0 + \frac{2}{n}(b-a) < \dots < x_n = x_0 + (b-a) = b$$

Then note that if $P = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$, then $\|P\| = \frac{b-a}{n}$, thus we get that $\|P\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. And since $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ we know that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, P_n) = \int_a^b f$$

Now we choose the tag set to be the points $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}\}$, then we get that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n f \left(a + \frac{j-1}{n}(b-a) \right) \right) = \int_a^b f \quad (5.7)$$

Thus, if we know that the function is Riemann integrable then the integral can be written as a limit of **Newton sums**.

5.2 What else can we say about the set $\mathcal{R}[a, b]$?

Observe that the set of bounded functions on $[a, b]$, i.e., $\mathcal{B}[a, b]$ forms a vector space over the field of real numbers, with addition on $\mathcal{B}[a, b]$ as sum of functions, and scalar multiplication as product of a function with a real number.

- Associativity and commutativity follows trivially.
- Additive identity is the zero function, and obviously we have $\mathbf{0} \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$, and multiplicative identity is 1.
- And if $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$, then since $|f| = |-f|$, we get that $-f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$, and since $f + (-f) = \mathbf{0}$, we get that additive inverse exists for all $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$.
- Distributive properties hold trivially.

Also, it's not difficult to show that if $f : [a, b] \rightarrow [c, d]$ and $g : [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that both $f, g \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$, then $g \circ f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$.

The next question that arises immediately is can we say $\mathcal{R}[a, b]$ is a vector space over the field of real numbers? Well, with similar operations as in case of $\mathcal{B}[a, b]$, again it's not very difficult to show that indeed $\mathcal{R}[a, b]$ is a vector space over the field of real numbers. Now consider the function $\mathcal{I} : \mathcal{R}[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$\mathcal{I}(f) = \int_a^b f, \quad \forall f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b] \quad (5.8)$$

Theorem 5.2.1. Suppose $\mathcal{I} : \mathcal{R}[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as in equation (5.8), then following conditions are true

- (i) For all $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f, g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ we have

$$\mathcal{I}(rf + sg) = r\mathcal{I}(f) + s\mathcal{I}(g)$$

i.e., \mathcal{I} is a **linear functional**.

- (ii) \mathcal{I} preserves the order, i.e., if $f, g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ and we have $f(x) \leq g(x), \forall x \in [a, b]$, then

$$\mathcal{I}(f) \leq \mathcal{I}(g)$$

- (iii) Let $c \in (a, b)$ then we have

$$\mathcal{I}(f) = \int_a^c f + \int_c^b f$$

Proof.

- (i) Let $f, g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, we will first show that $f + g \in \mathcal{R}$. Note the since $f, g \in \mathcal{R}$, then using **theorem 5.1.1** we get for $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta_1 > 0$ and $\delta_2 > 0$, such that

$$\left| S(f, P) - \int_a^b f \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b] \text{ such that } \|P\| < \delta_1$$

$$\left| S(g, P) - \int_a^b g \right| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b] \text{ such that } \|P\| < \delta_2$$

choose $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$, then we get that

$$\begin{aligned}
\left| S(f+g, P) - \int_a^b f - \int_a^b g \right| &= \left| \left(S(f, P) - \int_a^b f \right) + \left(S(g, P) - \int_a^b g \right) \right| \\
&\leq \left| S(f, P) - \int_a^b f \right| + \left| S(g, P) - \int_a^b g \right| \\
&\stackrel{(1)}{<} \epsilon
\end{aligned}$$

where the (1) holds $\forall P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ such that $\|P\| < \delta$. Hence, we have shown that $f+g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, and in particular we have

$$\int_a^b (f+g) = \int_a^b f + \int_a^b g \quad (5.9)$$

Finally its enough to show that if $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, then $rf \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ for all $r \in \mathbb{R}$. But this is not difficult to prove as it can be easily seen that

$$S(rf, P) = rS(f, P)$$

and hence

$$\left| S(rf, P) - r \int_a^b f \right| = |r| \left| S(f, P) - \int_a^b f \right| \stackrel{(1)}{<} |r|\epsilon$$

where (1) holds for all $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, such that $\|P\| < \delta$, from here we can conclude that $rf \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, and in particular we have shown that

$$\int_a^b rf = r \int_a^b f \quad (5.10)$$

Hence, using equation (5.9) and (5.10) we get that if $f, g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, then $rf, sg \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, and hence $rf + sg \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, and in particular we have

$$\mathcal{I}(rf + sg) = \int_a^b (rf + sg) = r \int_a^b f + s \int_a^b g = r\mathcal{I}(f) + s\mathcal{I}(g)$$

Thus we have proved that $I : \mathcal{R}[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, is a **linear functional**.

- (ii) Let $f, g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ such that $f(x) \leq g(x)$, $\forall x \in [a, b]$, then consider a sequence of partitions $\{P_n\} \subset \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ such that $\|P_n\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then using **theorem 5.1.2**, we get that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, P_n) = \mathcal{I}(f) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(g, P_n) = \mathcal{I}(g)$$

then for any $P_n \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ and for any tag set $T_{P_n} = \{\zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_n\}$ we get that

$$S(f, P_n) = \sum_{j=1}^n f(\zeta_j) \Delta x_j \leq \sum_{j=1}^n g(\zeta_j) \Delta x_j = S(g, P_n)$$

and hence we get that

$$\mathcal{I}(f) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(f, P_n) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S(g, P_n) = \mathcal{I}(g)$$

- (iii) Let $c \in (a, b)$. We first need to show that if $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, then $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, c]$ and $f \in \mathcal{R}[c, b]$ for all $c \in [a, b]$. Now since $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ **Cauchy criterion** tells us that for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a partition $P_\epsilon \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ such that for all $P \supset P_\epsilon$, we have

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \epsilon$$

Now without loss of generality we can assume that $c \in P$ (otherwise we can simply work with $P \cup \{c\}$). Let

$$P = \{a = x_0, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i = c, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n = b\}$$

and consider $P_1 = \{x_0, \dots, x_i\}$ and $P_2 = \{x_i, \dots, x_n\}$, then we have $P_1 \in \mathcal{P}[a, c]$ and $P_2 \in \mathcal{P}[c, b]$ and further $P = P_1 \cup P_2$. Now observe that

$$L(f, P) = L(f, P_1) + L(f, P_2) \quad \text{and} \quad U(f, P) = U(f, P_1) + U(f, P_2)$$

Then we get that

$$\underbrace{(U(f, P_1) - L(f, P_1))}_{\geq 0} + \underbrace{(U(f, P_2) - L(f, P_2))}_{\geq 0} = U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \epsilon \quad (5.11)$$

Thus from equation (5.11), we deduce that

$$U(f, P_1) - L(f, P_1) < \epsilon \quad \text{and} \quad U(f, P_2) - L(f, P_2) < \epsilon \quad (5.12)$$

Now since equation (5.12), will hold for any partition P', P'' finer than P_1, P_2 respectively we can conclude that $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, c]$ and $f \in \mathcal{R}[c, b]$, so $\int_a^c f$ and $\int_c^b f$ are well-defined. Finally, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f &\geq L(f, P) \\ &= L(f, P_1) + L(f, P_2) \\ &> (U(f, P_1) - \epsilon) + (U(f, P_2) - \epsilon) \\ &= (U(f, P_1) + U(f, P_2)) - 2\epsilon \\ &\geq \left(\int_a^c f + \int_c^b f \right) - 2\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

and on the other hand we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f &\leq U(f, P) \\ &= U(f, P_1) + U(f, P_2) \\ &< (L(f, P_1) + L(f, P_2)) + 2\epsilon \\ &\leq \left(\int_a^c f + \int_c^b f \right) + 2\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Hence, we have shown that for all $\epsilon > 0$, we have

$$\left| \int_a^b f - \left(\int_a^c f + \int_c^b f \right) \right| < 2\epsilon$$

and hence, we can conclude that

$$\mathcal{J}(f) = \int_a^b f = \int_a^c f + \int_c^b f$$

■

Lecture 6, February 7

Note that the first theorem described in JDS's version of the notes for the lecture on February 7th is included in Theorem [5.2.1](#), Lecture 5 of this document, and is thus not reproduced here.

Theorem 6.0.2. If $B \subset \mathbb{R}$ is a bounded set, $\widehat{B} := \{|x - y| : x, y \in B\}$ is also bounded, and

$$\sup \widehat{B} = \sup B - \inf B$$

Proof. There exists ■

Lecture 8, February 14

(Valentine's Special)

8.1 Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Definition 8.1.1. Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, and let $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. A differentiable function F is called **antiderivative** or **primitive** of f on S , if

$$f(x) = F'(x), \forall x \in S$$

Example 8.1.1. Let $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by $f(x) = x$, $\forall x \in [0, 1]$ then $F(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + c$ is a antiderivative of f on $[0, 1]$, where c is a fixed real number. Thus clearly antiderivatives are not unique, since if F is an antiderivative of f on some set S , then so is $F' := F + c$, where c is any real number.

The natural question that arises now is do all functions have antiderivatives?

Example 8.1.2. Consider $f : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as follows

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then f doesn't have any antiderivative. To see this observe if f indeed had an antiderivative F , then we would have

$$F'(x) = f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

But then by **Darboux's theorem**¹, we would get that $\forall c \in (0, 1)$, there exists a $\eta \in [-1, 1]$ such that $f(\eta) = F'(\eta) = c$ (Contradiction! since range of f is simply $\{0, 1\}$).

Thus its evident from **example 8.1.2**, that there are functions which do not have any antiderivatives. Later we will see that for any continuous function there always exists an antiderivative, this will follow as a consequence of **Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus**. But first we look at the **First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus**.

¹**Darboux's theorem:** Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function such that $f'(a) \neq f'(b)$, then for any c in between $f'(a)$ and $f'(b)$, there exists $\eta \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(\eta) = c$.

8.1.1 First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Theorem 8.1.3. Let $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, and suppose F is an antiderivative of f on (a, b) , then

$$\int_a^b f = F(b) - F(a)$$

Proof. Let $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$, suppose $P = \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{n-1}, x_n = b\}$ where $x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n$. Then observe that we can write

$$F(b) - F(a) = \sum_{j=1}^n (F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1}))$$

But then since F is antiderivative of f on (a, b) , we have F is differentiable on (a, b) , and hence using **Mean Value Theorem** we get that

$$\begin{aligned} F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1}) &= F'(\zeta_j)(x_j - x_{j-1}) \\ &= f'(\zeta_j)\Delta x_j \end{aligned}$$

for some $\zeta_j \in (x_{j-1}, x_j)$. Hence, we get that

$$L(f, P) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n f(\zeta_j)\Delta x_j = \sum_{j=1}^n (F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1})) = \sum_{j=1}^n f(\zeta_j)\Delta x_j \leq U(f, P)$$

and thus, we have shown that

$$L(f, P) \leq F(b) - F(a) \leq U(f, P) \quad \forall P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b] \quad (8.13)$$

but then from properties of supremum and infimum of a set we deduce that

$$\int_a^b f \leq F(b) - F(a) \leq \overline{\int_a^b f}$$

But since $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, we get that $\int_a^b f = \int_a^b f = \overline{\int_a^b f}$, and thus we have proved that

$$\int_a^b f = F(b) - F(a)$$

■

Thus **theorem 8.1.3** tells us that, if we already known the antiderivative of the function f , we can easily compute its integral.

8.1.2 Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

Theorem 8.1.4. Let $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, and define the function $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, as

$$F(x) := \int_a^x f(t) dt, \quad \forall x \in [a, b] \quad (8.14)$$

then the following statements are true:

- (i) $F \in \mathcal{C}[a, b]$.
- (ii) If f is continuous at $x_0 \in (a, b)$, then F is differentiable at x_0 , and in particular we have $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$.
- (iii) If f is continuous from right at a , then F has right-hand derivative at a , and we have $F'_+(a) = f(a)$. Similarly if f is continuous from left at b , then F has left-hand derivative at b , and we have $F'_-(b) = f(b)$.

Proof.

(i) Let $M = \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x)|$, let $x, y \in [a, b]$, then we have

$$|F(x) - F(y)| = \left| \int_y^x f(t) dt \right|$$

Now note that from $-M \leq f(t) \leq M$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow - \int_y^x M dt &\leq \int_y^x f(t) dt \leq \int_x^y M dt \\ \Rightarrow -M(x - y) &\leq \int_y^x f(t) dt \leq M(x - y) \\ \Rightarrow \left| \int_y^x f(t) dt \right| &\leq M|x - y| \end{aligned}$$

and hence we get that

$$|F(x) - F(y)| \leq M|x - y|$$

and hence, F from here we can easily see that $F \in \mathcal{C}[a, b]$, and we further conclude that F is in fact **Lipschitz continuous**.

(ii) Observe that we can write

$$\frac{F(x) - F(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f(x_0) = \frac{1}{x - x_0} \int_{x_0}^x (f(t) - f(x_0)) dt$$

But then since f is continuous at x_0 , we have for all $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$, such that

$$|f(t) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon, \quad \forall t \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$$

and hence for $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{F(x) - F(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f(x_0) \right| &= \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \left| \int_{x_0}^x (f(t) - f(x_0)) dt \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \int_{x_0}^x |f(t) - f(x_0)| dt \\ &\stackrel{(1)}{<} \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \int_{x_0}^x \epsilon dt \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|x - x_0|} \cdot |x - x_0| \cdot \epsilon = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

where (1) is true because for $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$, we have $t \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$. Hence, if x_0 is a point continuity of f , we have F is differentiable at x_0 , and further we have $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$.

(iii) Now if f is continuous from right at a , then similar arguments as in part (ii), will work, just that we in this case we have to work on an interval $(a, a + \delta)$, for some $\delta > 0$. The proof for f is continuous from left at b , is also similar (in this case we will have to work on an interval $(b - \delta, b)$ for some $\delta > 0$).

■

Corollary 8.1.4.1. Let $f \in \mathcal{C}[a, b]$, then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_a^x f(t) dt \right) = f(x), \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$$

Proof. Directly follows from **theorem 8.1.4**. ■

Example 8.1.5. Consider $f : [0, 2] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then it is obvious that $f \in \mathcal{R}[0, 2]$. Now the function $F(x) := \int_0^x f(t) dt$, where $x \in [0, 2]$ can be easily computed, and we get

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}$$

But then we easily observe that $F \in \mathcal{C}[0, 2]$, but evidently F is not differentiable at 1, which is in fact the point of discontinuity of f .

8.2 Integration By Parts

Theorem 8.2.1. Let $f, g \in \mathcal{D}[a, b]$, and further assume that $f', g' \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x)g'(x) dx + \int_a^b f'(x)g(x) dx = f(b)g(b) - f(a)g(a) \quad (8.15)$$

Proof. Set $u = fg$, then since $f, g \in \mathcal{D}[a, b]$, we have $g \in \mathcal{D}[a, b]$, and in particular we have $u' = fg' + f'g$, then from **first fundamental theorem of calculus 8.1.3**, we get that

$$\int_a^b u'(x) dx = u(b) - u(a)$$

but then observe that from **linearity of integral (theorem 5.2.1 (i))** we get that

$$\int_a^b f(x)g'(x) dx + \int_a^b f'(x)g(x) dx = f(b)g(b) - f(a)g(a)$$

which completes the proof. ■

8.3 Change of Variable in a Riemann Integral

Theorem 8.3.1. Let $u \in \mathcal{D}[a, b]$, and $u' \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ and suppose $f \in \mathcal{C}[u([a, b])]$ then

$$\int_a^b f(u(x))u'(x) dx = \int_{u(a)}^{u(b)} f(x) dx \quad (8.16)$$

Proof. First of all note that if u is a constant function, then the theorem holds trivially. So we assume that u is not a constant function.

Now since $f \in \mathcal{C}[u([a, b])]$ (note that $u([a, b])$ is a closed interval, since u is a continuous function, hence image of $[a, b]$ under u is also a closed interval), so we have $f \circ u \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$. Also since $u' \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, we get that $(f \circ u) \cdot u' \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$, hence $\int_a^b f(u(x))u'(x) dx$ is well defined.

Now $\forall x \in u([a, b])$ we define

$$F(x) := \int_{u(a)}^x f(t) \, dt$$

then by **second fundamental theorem of calculus** 8.1.4, we get $F'(x) = f(x)$, $\forall x \in [a, b]$.

Also observe that from **chain rule** we get that

$$(F \circ u)'(t) = F'(u(t))u'(t) = f(u(t))u'(t)$$

and finally we get that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(u(x))u'(x) \, dx &= \int_a^b (F \circ u)'(x) \, dx \\ &\stackrel{(1)}{=} F(u(b)) - F(u(a)) \\ &\stackrel{(2)}{=} \int_{u(a)}^{u(b)} f(x) \, dx \end{aligned}$$

where (1) follows from **first fundamental theorem of calculus** 8.1.3, and (2) follows from the fact that $F(u(a)) = 0$. ■