Analys i en variabel

SF1673 (HT25)

Contents

1. The Real Numbers

1.1. Reals

1.1.1. Prerequisites

Theorem 1.1.1 (Induction)

Let $S \subseteq \mathbb{N}$. If
(i) $1 \in S$, and
(ii) $n \in S \Longrightarrow n+1 \in S$ (inductive step),

then $S = \mathbb{N}$.

Definition 1.1.2 (Injective/Surjective/Bijective)

$f : X \to Y$ is *injective* (or one-to-one) if $x_1 \neq x_2 \Longrightarrow f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ or equivalently if $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Longrightarrow x_1 = x_2$.

f is *surjective* if $\forall y \ \exists x : f(x) = y$.

f is *bijective* if is both injective and surjective or equivalently if each y is mapped to exactly one x.

1.1.2. Comparison

Definition 1.1.3 (Equality)

$a = b \Longleftrightarrow (\forall \varepsilon > 0 \Rightarrow |a - b| < \varepsilon)$

Theorem 1.1.4 (Triangle Inequalities)

(i) $|a + b| \leq |a| + |b|$
(ii) $|a - b| \leq |a - c| + |c - b|$
(iii) $|a - b| \geq \| a| - |b\|$

The reverse triangle inequality (iii) is seldom used.

1.1.3. Bounds

Axiom 1.1.5 (Supremum Property or Axiom of Completeness)

Every bounded, non-empty set of real numbers has a least upper bound.

Note

The same does not apply for the rationals.

Definition 1.1.6 (Least Upper Bound)

Assume $s \in \mathbb{R}$ is an upper bound for a set $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. Then,

$$s = \sup A \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists a \in A : s - \varepsilon < a.$$

1.2. Cardinality

Definition 1.2.1 (Cardinality)

A has the same *cardinality* as B if there exists a bijective $f : A \to B$.

Definition 1.2.2 (Countable/Uncountable)

A is *countable* if $\mathbb{N} \sim A$. Otherwise, A is *uncountable* if there are infinite elements or *finite* if there are finite elements.

Theorem 1.2.3 (Countability of $\mathbb{Q}$, $\mathbb{R}$)

$\mathbb{Q}$ is countable.

Proof. Let $A_1 = \{0\}$ and let

$$A_n = \{\pm p/q : p, q \in \mathbb{N}_+, \gcd(p, q) = 1, p + q = n\}$$

for all $n \geq 2$. Each A_n is finite and every rational numbers appears in exactly one set. □

$\mathbb{R}$ is uncountable.

Proof. Cantor's diagonalization method. □

$\mathbb{I}$ is uncountable.

Proof. $\mathbb{I} = \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ where $\mathbb{Q}$ is countable. □

Theorem 1.2.4 (Density of $\mathbb{Q}$ in $\mathbb{R}$)

(i) $\forall a < b \in \mathbb{R} \ \exists r \in \mathbb{Q} : a < r < b$
(ii) $\forall y \in \mathbb{R} \ \exists (r_n) \in \mathbb{Q} : (r_n) \to y$

1.3. Topology

1.3.1. Points

Definition 1.3.1 (Limit Point)

x is a *limit point* of A if every $V_\varepsilon(x)$ intersects A at some point other than x.

Theorem 1.3.2 (Sequential Limit Point)

x is a limit point of A if $x = \lim a_n$ for some $(a_n) \subseteq A : a_n \neq x \ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem 1.3.3 (Nested Interval Property)

The intervals $\mathbb{R} \supseteq I_1 \supseteq I_2 \supseteq I_3 \supseteq \cdots$ all contain a point $a = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n$.

1.3.2. Open and Closed Sets

Definition 1.3.4 (Open/Closed Set)

$A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is *open* if $\forall a \in A \ \exists V_\varepsilon(a) \subseteq A$ or equivalently if its complement is closed.

$A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is *closed* if it contains its limit points or equivalently if its complement is open.

Theorem 1.3.5 (Clopen Sets)

$\mathbb{R}$ and $\emptyset$ are *clopen* (both opened and closed).

Theorem 1.3.6 (Unions/Intersections)

The union of open (closed) sets is open (closed).

The intersection of finitely many open (closed) sets is open (closed).

1.3.3. Compactness

Definition 1.3.7 (Compact)

A set K in a topological space is *compact* if every open cover has a finite subcover.

Theorem 1.3.8 (Heine–Borel)

A set $K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.

Note

Compactness is like a generalization of closed intervals.

2. Limits

2.1. Sequences

Definition 2.1.1 (Sequence)

A *sequence* is a function whose domain is $\mathbb{N}$.

Definition 2.1.2 (Convergence)

A sequence *converges* to a if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0\ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq N \Longrightarrow |a_n - a| < \varepsilon$$

or equivalently if for any $V_{\varepsilon}(a)$ there exists a point in the sequence after which all terms are in $V_{\varepsilon}(a)$. In other words if every ε-neighborhood contains all but a finite number of the terms in (a_n).

We write this $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim a_n = a$ or $a_n \to a$.

Example. Template of a typical convergence proof:
(i) Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be arbitrary.
(ii) Propose an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ (found before writing the proof).
(iii) Assume $n \geq N$.
(iv) Show that $|a_n - a| < \varepsilon$.

Theorem 2.1.3 (Uniqueness of Limits)

The limit of a sequence, if it exists, is unique.

2.1.1. Bounded

Definition 2.1.4 (Bounded)

A sequence is *bounded* if $\exists M > 0 : |a_n| < M\ \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Theorem 2.1.5 (Convergent)

Every convergent sequence is bounded.

If a sequence is monotone and bounded it converges.

Subsequences of a convergent sequence converge to the same limit.

Theorem 2.1.6 (Bolzano–Weierstrass)

Every bounded sequence contains a convergent subsequence.

2.1.2. Cauchy

Definition 2.1.7 (Cauchy Sequence)

A sequence (a_n) is a *Cauchy sequence* if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0\ \exists N \in \mathbb{N} : m, n \geq N \Longrightarrow |a_n - a_m| < \varepsilon.$$

Theorem 2.1.8 (Cauchy Criterion)

A sequence converges if and only if it is a Cauchy sequence.

2.2. Series

Definition 2.2.1 (Infinite Series)

Let $(a_j)_{j=0}^{\infty}$ and let $(s_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$. The sum of the infinite series is defined as

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j = \lim_{n \to \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{j=0}^{n} a_j.$$

If $a_j \geq 0$ for every j we say that the series is *positive*.

Caution

Beware of treating infinite series like elementary algebra, e.g., by rearranging terms.

Theorem 2.2.2 (Cauchy Criterion for Series)

The series $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k$ converges if and only if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0\ \exists N : n > m > N \Longrightarrow |a_m + a_{m+1} + \cdots + a_{n-1} + a_n| < \varepsilon.$$

Corollary 2.2.2.1 (Series Term Test)

If $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ converges, then $a_k \to 0$. However, the reverse implication is false.

Theorem 2.2.3

The series $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 1/j$ is divergent.

Proof.

□

Theorem 2.2.4

The series $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 1/j^p$ converges if and only if $p > 1$.

Proof.

□

Theorem 2.2.5 (Ratio Test)

Let (a_n) be a sequence of positive terms and define

$$L = \limsup_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|.$$

Then:
(i) If $L < 1$, the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges.
(ii) If $L > 1$ (including $L = \infty$), the series diverges.
(iii) If $L = 1$, the test is inconclusive.

Theorem 2.2.6 (Cauchy Condensation Test)

Let (a_n) be a decreasing sequence of non-negative real numbers. Then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges if and only if $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^n a_{2^n}$ converges.

Theorem 2.2.7

Let $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j$ and $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j$ be positive series with terms such that

$$\lim_{j \to \infty} \frac{a_j}{b_j} = K$$

for some $K \neq 0$. Then, $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j$ converges if and only if $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} b_j$ converges.

Theorem 2.2.8 (Comparison Test)

Let (a_k) and (b_k) satisfy $0 \leq a_k \leq b_k$. Then,
(i) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k)$ converges if $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (b_k)$ converges.
(ii) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (b_k)$ diverges if $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k)$ diverges.

Theorem 2.2.9 (Alternating Series Test)

Let (a_n) satisfy
(i) $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq \cdots \geq a_n \geq a_{n+1} \geq \cdots$ and
(ii) $(a_n) \to 0$.
Then, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n$ converges.

Definition 2.2.10 (Absolutely Convergent)

A series $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j$ is *absolutely convergent* if $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} |a_j|$ is convergent.

Theorem 2.2.11

If a series is absolutely convergent then it is convergent.

Theorem 2.2.12 (Geometric Series)

If $|x| < 1$, then

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x^j = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

since

$$s_n = \sum_{j=0}^{n} x^j = \frac{1 - x^{n+1}}{1-x}.$$

2.3. Functions

Theorem 2.3.1 (Function Limit)

Given $f : A \to \mathbb{R}$ with the limit point c,
(i) $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = L$ is equivalent to
(ii) If $\forall (x_n) \subseteq A : (x_n \neq c$ and $x_n \to c)$ it follows that $f(x_n) \to L$.

Note

In the $\varepsilon\delta$-definition of limits, the additional restriction that $0 < |x - a|$ is just a way to say $x \neq c$.

Definition 2.3.2 (Infinite Limit)

Given a limit point $c \in D_f$, we say that $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = \infty$ if

$$\forall M\ \exists \delta > 0 : 0 < |x - c| < \delta \Longrightarrow f(x) \geq M.$$

2.4. Continuity

2.4.1. Existence

Theorem 2.4.1 (Continuity)

The following are equivalent:
(i) $f : A \subseteq \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is *continuous* at $c \in A$.
(ii) $\forall \varepsilon > 0\ \exists \delta > 0 : |x - c| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(c)| < \varepsilon$, where $x \in A$.
(iii) $\forall V_{\varepsilon}(f(c))\ \exists V_{\delta}(c) : x \in V_{\delta}(c) \cap A \Longrightarrow f(x) \in V_{\varepsilon}(f(c))$
(iv) $x_n \to c$, where $(x_n) \subseteq A$, implies $f(x_n) \to f(c)$.
If c is a limit point of A:
(v) $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = f(c)$, also written $\lim_{h \to 0} f(c+h) - f(c) = 0$.
Note that (ii) defines (i). Mostly (v) is used in practice.

Corollary 2.4.1.1 (Isolated Continuity)

All functions are continuous at isolated points.

Theorem 2.4.2 (Dirichlet Discontinuous)

The Dirichlet function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = 1$ if $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $f(x) = 0$ if $x \in \mathbb{I}$ is discontinuous everywhere.

Definition 2.4.3 (Uniform Continuity)

We say f is *uniformly continuous* on I if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0\ \exists \delta > 0 : x, y \in \mathbb{R}, |x - y| < \delta \Longrightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon.$$

Theorem 2.4.4

If a function is uniformly continuous, it is also continuous.

Theorem 2.4.5 (Heine–Cantor)

If f is continuous and defined on a compact set K, then it is also uniformly continuous on K.

2.4.2. Composition

Theorem 2.4.6 (Composition)

Given $f : A \to B$ and $g : B \to \mathbb{R}$ with $f(A) \subseteq B$, if f is continuous at $c \in A$ and g is continuous at $f(c) \in B$, then $g \circ f$ is continuous at c.

Theorem 2.4.7 (Composition Limit)

If f is continuous at y and $\lim_{x \to c} g(x) = y$, then

$$\lim_{x \to c} f(g(x)) = f\left(\lim_{x \to c} g(x)\right) = f(y).$$

2.4.3. Results

Theorem 2.4.8 (Intermediate Value)

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then for any y between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, there exists some $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = y$.

Theorem 2.4.9 (Weierstrass Extreme Value)

If f is continuous on the compact set K, then f attains a maximum and a minimum value on K.

3. Calculus

3.1. The Derivative

3.1.1. Differentiation

Definition 3.1.1 (Derivative at a Point)

Let $f : A \to \mathbb{R}$ and c a limit point of A. If

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

exists (finite), we say f is *differentiable* at c.

Theorem 3.1.2 (Chain Rule)

Let $f : X \to Y$ and $g : Y \to \mathbb{R}$. If f is differentiable at $c \in X$ and g is differentiable at $f(c) \in Y$, then $g \circ f$ is differentiable at c with

$$(g \circ f)'(c) = g'(f(c))f'(c).$$

Theorem 3.1.3 (Basic Derivatives)

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(\arcsin x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \qquad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(\sin x) = \cos x$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(\arccos x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \qquad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(\cos x) = -\sin x$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(\arctan x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \qquad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(\tan x) = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(\operatorname{arccot} x) = -\frac{1}{1+x^2} \qquad \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(\ln|x|) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}(x^a) = ax^{a-1} \quad (a \neq 0) \qquad (f^{-1})'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(x)} \quad (y = f(x), f'(x) \neq 0)$$

Theorem 3.1.4 (L'Hôpital's Rule)

Let f and g be differentiable on an open interval containing c (except possibly at c), with $g'(x) \neq 0$ near c. Suppose
(i) $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = \lim_{x \to c} g(x) = 0$ (or both $\pm\infty$), and
(ii) $\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$ exists (or $\pm\infty$).

Then

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L.$$

Proof of the zero case. Assume the limits are zero.

Let the functions be differentiable on the open interval (c, x). Then, rewriting and applying Theorem 3.1.10 gives

$$\lim_{x\to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{g(x) - g(c)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f'(p)}{g'(p)} = \lim_{p \to c} \frac{f'(p)}{g'(p)}$$

for some p between c and x. □

Proof of the infinity case. The proof is too complicated. □

Important

This is only an implication, not an equivalence, so there may exist some other solution if this method fails.

3.1.2. Function Character

Theorem 3.1.5 (Fermat's or Interior Extremum)

Let $f : (a,b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable at the local extremum $c \in (a, b)$. Then $f'(x) = 0$.

However, note that a zero-derivative point may also be a stationary point of inflection.

Theorem 3.1.6 (Darboux's)

If f is differentiable on $[a, b]$ and if y lies strictly between $f'(a)$ and $f'(b)$, then $\exists c \in (a, b) : f'(c) = y$.

In other words, if f is differentiable on an interval, then f' satisfies the Intermediate Value Property (IVP).

Proof. Assume that $f'(a) < y < f'(b)$.

Let $g(x) = f(x) - yx$ with $g'(x) = f'(x) - y$. Note that $f'(c) = y$ if $g'(c) = 0$ for some $c \in (a, b)$.

Theorem 2.4.9 states that g must have a minimum point $c \in [a, b]$. More precisely $c \in (a, b)$ since, from the assumption, $g'(a) < 0$ and $g'(b) > 0$. Furthermore, $g'(c) = 0$ according to Theorem 3.1.5. □

Theorem 3.1.7 (Newton's Method)

Find roots to a differentiable function $f(x)$.

Given x_n with the coordinates $(x_n, f(x_n))$, the tangent line is given by

$$T(x) = f'(x_n)(x - x_n) + f(x_n)$$

and intersects the x-axis at

$$T(x_{n+1}) = 0 \iff x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}.$$

The method fails if it iterates endlessly or $f'(x_n) = 0$.

3.1.3. The Mean Value Theorems

Let f and g be continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b).

Theorem 3.1.8 (Rolle's)

$$f(a) = f(b) \Longrightarrow \exists c \in (a, b) : f'(c) = 0$$

Proof. $f(x)$ is bounded and $f'(x) = 0$ at its interior extreme points. □

Theorem 3.1.9 (Mean Value)

$$\exists c \in (a, b) : f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

Proof. Let the signed distance d between the function value f and the secant y through a and b be

$$d(x) = f(x) - y(x) = f(x) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a) - f(a)$$

and note that $d(a) = d(b) = 0$. Then apply Theorem 3.1.8. □

Theorem 3.1.10 (Generalized Mean Value)

$$\exists c \in (a, b) : [f(b) - f(a)]g'(c) = [g(b) - g(a)]f'(c)$$

If g' is never zero on (a, b), then the above can be stated as

$$\frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}.$$

Proof. Let $h = f(x)[g(b) - g(a)] - g(x)[f(b) - f(a)]$ and then apply Theorem 3.1.8. □

3.2. Function Graphs

Tip (Sketching Graphs)

— **Information**
(i) symmetries
(ii) split into cases
(iii) domain → vertical asymptotes
(iv) factorize → oblique asymptotes & roots
(v) first and second derivative and their roots
(vi) sign tables
(vii) calculate interesting points: intersection with y-axis, defined non-differentiable points, local extremums, endpoints, inflection points

— **Sketching**
(i) axes
(ii) symmetries
(iii) asymptotes
(iv) interesting points
(v) curves

3.2.1. Asymptotes

Definition 3.2.1 (Asymptote)

The line $y = kx + m$ is an *oblique* asymptote of f if

$$\lim_{x\to\infty} (f(x) - (kx + m)) = 0.$$

The line $x = c$ is a *vertical* asymptote of f if

$$\lim_{x \to c+} f(x) = \pm\infty \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \to c-} f(x) = \pm\infty.$$

The line $y = b$ is a *horizontal* asymptote of f if

$$\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = b \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \to -\infty} f(x) = b.$$

Theorem 3.2.2 (Oblique Asymptote)

If $f(x)$ has an oblique asymptote $y = kx + m$, then

$$k = \lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{f(x)}{x}$$

and

$$m = \lim_{x \to \infty} (f(x) - kx).$$

3.2.2. Convexity

Theorem 3.2.3 (Convexity)

Let f be twice differentiable on (a, b). Then, $f''(x) \geq 0$ if and only if f is convex on (a, b).

Definition 3.2.4 (Concave)

On $[a, b]$, a function $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is *concave* if $-f$ is convex.

3.3. Taylor's Theorem

Theorem 3.3.1 (Taylor's)

Suppose f is continuously differentiable n times on $[a, b]$ and $n + 1$ times on (a, b). Fix $c \in [a, b]$. Then,

$$f(x) = P_n(x) + R_n(x),$$

where the *Taylor polynomial* of degree n around c is

$$P_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!}(x - c)^k$$

and the *Lagrange remainder* of degree n around c is

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}(x - c)^{n+1}$$

for some ξ strictly between c and x.

Note that other remainder forms exist.

Proof. Let $h = x - c$ be the deviation from the point. Then,

$$f(x) = f(c + h) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!}h^k + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}h^{n+1} = p_n(h) + r_n(h),$$

where $p_n(h)$ and $r_n(h)$ correspond to $P_n(x)$ and $R_n(x)$.

Define

$$F_{n,h}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(k)}(t)}{k!}(c + h - t)^k,$$

with $F_{n,h}(c) = p_{n(h)}$ and $F_{n,h}(c + h) = f(c + h)$, and derivative

$$F'_{n,h}(\xi) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{n!}(c + h - \xi)^n.$$

Also let

$$g_{n,h}(t) = (c + h - t)^{n+1},$$

with $g_{n,h}(c) = h^{n+1}$ and $g_{n,h}(c + h) = 0$ and

$$g'_{n,h}(\xi) = -(n+1)(c + h - \xi)^n.$$

Theorem 3.1.10 gives

$$\frac{F_{n,h}(c+h) - F_{n,h}(c)}{g_{n,h}(c+h) - g_{n,h}(c)} = \frac{F'_{n,h}(\xi)}{g'_{n,h}(\xi)}$$

for some ξ between c and $c + h$. Substituting,

$$\frac{f(c+h) - p_n(h)}{0 - h^{n+1}} = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)(c + h - \xi)^n/n!}{-(n+1)(c + h - \xi)^n}$$

so

$$f(c + h) - p_n(h) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\xi)}{(n+1)!}h^{n+1}.$$

Hence

$$f(c + h) = p_n(h) + r_n(h)$$

or in x-notation

$$f(x) = P_n(x) + R_n(x)$$

with ξ strictly between c and x. □

Definition 3.3.2 (Radius of Convergence)

Fix x and let $R_n(x)$ be the remainder to a Taylor polynomial around a point c. The *radius of convergence* is the greatest r such that

$$|x - c| < r \Longrightarrow \lim_{n\to\infty} R_n(x) = 0,$$

which implies that $f(x) = P_\infty(x)$.

Theorem 3.3.3 (Common Maclaurin Series)

The following functions have a Maclaurin series with radius of convergence $r = \infty$:

$$e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots$$

$$\sin x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{\{2k+1\}}}{(2k+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots$$

$$\cos x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{\{2k\}}}{(2k)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots$$

$$\arctan x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{x^{\{2k+1\}}}{2k+1} = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \cdots \quad (|x| \leq 1)$$

$$\ln(1 + x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{\{k+1\}} \frac{x^k}{k} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \cdots \quad (|x| < 1)$$

$$(1 + x)^a = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{a}{k} x^k \quad (|x| < 1)$$

3.3.1. Function Order

Definition 3.3.4 (Big O at Infinity)

Let f and g be defined on (c, ∞). We say that f belongs to the set O of g as $x \to \infty$, writing $O(g(x))$, if there exists M and x_0 such that

$$|f(x)| \leq M|g(x)|,$$

for every $x > x_0$.

Definition 3.3.5 (Big O at a Point)

Let f and g be defined on a neighborhood of c. We say that f belongs to the set O of g around c, writing $O(g(x))$, if there exists M and $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|f(x)| \leq M|g(x)|$$

for every $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta)$.

Theorem 3.3.6 (Big O Behavior)

If $h(x) = O(f(x))$ and $k(x) = O(g(x))$ (same limiting regime), then $h(x)k(x) = O(f(x)g(x))$.

If $m \leq n$ then as $x \to 0$, $x^n = O(x^m)$ so $O(x^m) + O(x^n) = O(x^m)$. As $x \to \infty$, $x^m = O(x^n)$ so $O(x^m) + O(x^n) = O(x^n)$.

Theorem 3.3.7

Let $f(x) : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ and fix $c \in [a, b]$. Suppose f is continuously differentiable n times on $[a, b]$ and $n + 1$ times on (a, b). Then,

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(k)}(c)}{k!}(x - c)^k + O(|x - c|^{n+1}) \text{ as } x \to c.$$

Furthermore, the coefficients $f^{(k)}(c)/k!$ are unique to each $(x - c)^k$.

3.4. The Riemann Integral

3.4.1. Definition

Definition 3.4.1 (Partition)

A *partition* of $[a, b]$ is a finite set

$$P = \{x_0, x_1, \cdots, x_n\}$$

such that

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n = b,$$

The partition P has *subintervals*

$$[x_{i-1}, x_i] \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

of which the length of the largest is its *mesh* or *norm*

$$\|P\| = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} (x_i - x_{i-1}).$$

A smaller such is indicative of a finer partition.

Let $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be bounded. We now define its definite integral.

Definition 3.4.2 (Darboux Integral)

Define the *lower sum*

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\inf\{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\})(x_i - x_{i-1}).$$

and the *upper sum*

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\sup\{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\})(x_i - x_{i-1})$$

The function f is *Darboux integrable* if $\sup_P L(f, P) = \inf_P U(f, P)$. The common value is denoted as the *definite integral* $\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x$.

Definition 3.4.3 (Alternative Darboux Integral)

Let Φ and Ψ be the *lower and upper step functions* such that

$$\Phi(x) \leq f(x) \leq \Psi(x) \quad \forall x \in [a, b],$$

forming the *lower integral*

$$L(f) = \sup\left\{ \int_a^b \Phi(x)\,\mathrm{d}x : \Phi \text{ is a lower step function to } f \right\}$$

and the *upper integral*

$$U(f) = \inf\left\{ \int_a^b \Psi(x)\,\mathrm{d}x : \Psi \text{ is an upper step function to } f \right\}$$

which, if equal, give the definite integral.

Note that the integral of a step function is simply its signed area.

Definition 3.4.4 (Riemann Integral)

From a partition P of $[a, b]$ pick *sample points*

$$t_i \in [x_{i-1}, x_i], \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

and form the (tagged) *Riemann sum*

$$S(f, P, (t_i)) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(t_i)(x_i - x_{i-1}).$$

We say f is *Riemann integrable* if there exists $L \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0\ \exists \delta > 0 : \|P\| < \delta \Longrightarrow |S(f, P, (t_i)) - L| < \varepsilon$$

for every choice of sample points (t_i). In that case we write

$$L = \int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x\,.$$

Theorem 3.4.5

The Darboux and Riemann integrals are equivalent.

Theorem 3.4.6 (Integrability)

Let $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be bounded.

The function is integrable if and only if:
(i) $\forall \varepsilon > 0\ \exists P : U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \varepsilon$.
(ii) $\forall (P_n) : \|P_n\| \to 0 \Longrightarrow U(f, P_n) - L(f, P_n) \to 0$.
(iii)
$$\forall \varepsilon > 0\ \exists \Phi, \Psi : \int_a^b \Psi(x)\,\mathrm{d}x - \int_a^b \Phi(x)\,\mathrm{d}x < \varepsilon,$$
where Φ and Ψ are lower and upper step functions.

The function is integrable if:
(iii) f is *monotone* on $[a, b]$
(iv) (Lebesgue criterion for Riemann integrability)

f is *continuous* on $[a, b]$ except at
- finitely many points or
- countably many points where it has removable or jump discontinuities.

That is, the set of discontinuities has Lebesgue measure zero.

Theorem 3.4.7 (Fundamental Theorems of Calculus)

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then the two theorems follow:
(i) Let $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)\,\mathrm{d}t$ for $x \in [a, b]$. Then, F is continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on (a, b), and $F'(x) = f(x)$.
(ii) If $F'(x) = f(x)$ for $x \in (a, b)$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = F(b) - F(a).$$

3.4.2. Properties

Theorem 3.4.8 (Linearity)

If f, g are integrable and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$\int_a^b (\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x))\,\mathrm{d}x = \alpha \int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x + \beta \int_a^b g(x)\,\mathrm{d}x\,.$$

Theorem 3.4.9 (Additivity of the Interval)

If $c \in (a, b)$ and f integrable on $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = \int_a^c f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x + \int_c^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x\,.$$

It follows that $\int_a^a f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = 0$ and $\int_b^a f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = -\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x\,.$

Theorem 3.4.10 (Order / Comparison)

If f, g integrable and $f(x) \leq g(x)$ on $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x \leq \int_a^b g(x)\,\mathrm{d}x\,.$$

Corollary 3.4.10.1 (Positivity)

If $f(x) \geq 0$ on $[a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x \geq 0$. Moreover, if f is continuous and the integral is 0, then $f \equiv 0$.

Theorem 3.4.11 (Bounding by a Supremum)

If $|f(x)| \leq M$ on $[a, b]$, then

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x \right| \leq M(b - a).$$

Theorem 3.4.12 (Absolute Value / Triangle)

If f integrable, then $|f|$ integrable and

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)|\,\mathrm{d}x\,.$$

Theorem 3.4.13 (Products and Composition)

If f, g integrable, then fg is integrable.

If f integrable and φ continuous on a set containing $f([a, b])$, then $\varphi \circ f$ is integrable.

Theorem 3.4.14 (Uniform Limit)

If (f_n) are integrable on $[a, b]$ and $f_n \to f$ uniformly, then f is integrable and

$$\int_a^b f_n(x)\,\mathrm{d}x \to \int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x\,.$$

Theorem 3.4.15 (Mean Value for Integrals)

If f is continuous on $[a, b]$,

$$\exists \xi \in (a, b) : \int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = f(\xi)(b - a).$$

Theorem 3.4.16 (Generalized Mean Value for Integrals)

If f is continuous and g is integrable and does not change sign on $[a, b]$,

$$\exists \xi \in (a, b) : \int_a^b f(x)g(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = f(\xi) \int_a^b g(x)\,\mathrm{d}x\,.$$

3.4.3. Techniques

Theorem 3.4.17 (Change of Variables / Substitution)

Let $u = \varphi(x)$ with φ continuously differentiable and strictly monotone on $[a, b]$. If f is continuous on $[\varphi(a), \varphi(b)]$, then

$$\int_a^b f(\varphi(x))\varphi'(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = \int_{\varphi(a)}^{\varphi(b)} f(u)\,\mathrm{d}u\,.$$

Theorem 3.4.18 (Integration by Parts)

If f, g are continuously differentiable on $[a, b]$, then

$$\int_a^b f'(x)g(x)\,\mathrm{d}x = [f(x)g(x)]_a^b - \int_a^b f(x)g'(x)\,\mathrm{d}x\,.$$

3.5. Ordinary Differential Equations