

MATH 321 Notes

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Quotes of the day: 01/08/2024 by Dr. Joshua Zahl

“Sometimes MVT stands for most valuable theorem.”

“ \LaTeX is the language math is written in.”

1 320 Review

Definition: Differentiable at point

Recall for some $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $c \in [a, b]$, we say that f is **differentiable at** c if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$ exists (as a real number); we denote this by $f'(c)$.

This is a very elementary definition of what it means for something to be differentiable, but we look a bit deeper into what it means for the limit of a function. In particular, consider the case of the limit mentioned in the definition; what does it mean for this limit to exist?

- It satisfies the $\varepsilon - \delta$ definition of a limit.
- c is a limit point in $[a, b]$; in a metric space this means that any ball about the point c has a non empty intersection with the set $[a, b]$.
- $g(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$ is a function with domain $[a, b] \setminus \{c\}$.

We might ask ourselves why go through all these layers of abstraction, when the high school definition of a limit works. Well, we have to make sure that the high school definition is consistent with what we have laid out so far: for any $c \in (a, b)$, the high school definition is just fine, but back then we had to separately check the end-points $c = a$ and $c = b$ with one sided limits, which we don't have to do when we satisfy one of the things laid out above. Hence, it is worth to delve into the abstraction.

Definition: Differentiable on a set

If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at *every* point $c \in [a, b]$, then we say f is differentiable on $[a, b]$, and this gives us a new function $f' : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

Furthermore, we can keep iterating this definition: if f' is differentiable at $c \in [a, b]$, we write $f''(c) = (f')'(c)$.

Notation 1. Some alternate notations for derivatives are:

- $f(c), f'(c), f''(c), \dots$
- $f^{(0)}(c), f^{(1)}(c), f^{(2)}(c), \dots, f^{(k)}(c).$

Food for thought 1. Why have co-domain \mathbb{R} ? Why not \mathbb{C} , or some arbitrary field F ? Why not a general set/metric space?

Similarly, why make the domain a closed interval? Why not a more general subset of \mathbb{R} , or even \mathbb{C} ? Why not a general set/metric space?

We cannot really have a notion of a derivative in a topological space, because in a TS we have no notion of a distance, only open and closed sets, so it does not really make sense to be talking about the rate of change of something as we get closer to a point. This is not a complete answer, but it's hard to give a better answer at this point in time. If we google a topological derivative, there might be some constructions that come close, but nothing that is a true generalization of a derivative using arbitrary topological spaces.

Theorem: Rolle's theorem

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable with $f(a) = f(b)$. Then, there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$.

We go on to showcase one of the more important theorems in differentiation:

Theorem: Taylor's theorem

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $n \geq 0$ be an integer. Suppose that f is $(n + 1)$ times differentiable on $[a, b]$. Let x_0 and x be points in $[a, b]$ with $x_0 \neq x$. Then, there exists a point c strictly between x_0 and x such that

$$f(x) = \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!} (x - x_0)^k}_{P_n(x)} + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1}. \quad (\dagger)$$

Call $P_n(x)$ the “degree n Taylor expansion of f around x_0 ”.

Note (Choice of notation). While choosing notation, we have many things competing for the “attention” of the notation; for example in case of $P_n(x)$, technically it is dependent on n, f, x_0 , so it should be $P_n^{f, x_0}(x)$, but this is clunky. As we do more math, we get better with choosing what information notation should encode, and what can be omitted. In this particular case, we would generally know the f and x_0 and the more important part that needs to be encoded is the degree.

Food for thought 2. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is infinitely differentiable. Suppose $f^{(k)}(0) = 0$ for all k ; is it true that f must be the zero function?

Quotes of the day: 01/10/2024

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Figure 1: Visualization of points in Taylor's theorem.

Proof. We start by noting that for $n = 0$, eq. (\dagger) says $f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(c)(x - x_0)$.

Define $A \in \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x) - P_n(x) = \frac{A}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1}.$$

Our goal here is to show that there exists a c between x_0 and x such that $f^{(n+1)}(c) = A$.

$$\text{Define } g(t) = f(t) - P_n(t) - \frac{A}{(n+1)!} (t - x_0)^{n+1}.$$



Figure 2: Visualization of how we shrink the interval to possibly apply Rolle's theorem.

Observe

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_0) &= f(x_0) - P_n(x_0) \\ &= f(x_0) - f(x_0) - 0 \\ &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

so $g(x) = 0$ by definition of A . Hence, for $j = 0, \dots, n$,

$$\begin{aligned} g^{(j)}(x_0) &= f^{(j)}(x_0) - P_n^{(j)}(x_0) - \frac{d^j}{dt^j} \left\{ \frac{A}{(n+1)!} (t - x_0)^{n+1} \right\} \Big|_{t=x_0} \\ &= f^{(j)}(x_0) - f^{(j)}(x_0) - 0 \\ &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

which tells us that $g^{(n+1)}(t) = f^{(n+1)}(t) - 0 - A$. Now, our goal is to find a c such that $g^{(n+1)}(c) = 0$.

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_0) &= 0, g(x) = 0 \text{ by Rolle's theorem, there exists } c_1 \text{ between } x_0 \text{ and } x \text{ such that } g'(c_1) = 0. \\ g'(x_0) &= 0, g'(x) = 0 \text{ by Rolle's theorem, there exists } c_2 \text{ between } x_0 \text{ and } c_1 \text{ such that } g''(c_2) = 0. \\ &\vdots \\ g^{(n)}(x_0) &= 0, g^{(n)}(x) = 0 \text{ by Rolle's theorem, there exists } c_{n+1} \text{ between } x_0 \text{ and } c_n \text{ such that } g^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1}) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, set $c := c_{n+1}$ to conclude the proof. □



Figure 3: Visualization of the iterative process to find c_{n+1} .

Example 1. Why is Taylor's theorem so useful? We look at a few examples which illustrate this: set $x_0 = 0$,

1. f is a polynomial of degree D ; $P_n(t)$ will be the first terms of f up to degree n .

2. If $f(t) = e^t$, we get

$$P_n(t) = \frac{1}{0!} + \frac{t}{1!} + \frac{t^2}{2!} + \frac{t^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{t^n}{n!}.$$

3. If $f(x) = \sin x$, we get

$$P_n(t) = 0 + t + 0 - \frac{t^3}{3!} + 0 + \frac{t^5}{5!} + \dots$$

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Recall food for thought 2: for a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ or $f : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, given that $f(0) = 0$, and $f^{(k)}(0) = 0$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, must it be true that $f(t) = 0$ for all t ?

Solution. If we apply Taylor's theorem, we get

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

where the $P_n(x)$ term dies, but clearly the remainder term here could behave in unexpected ways (like blowing up), which would then be a function that fits our specification but is not identically zero. \square

Consider an example:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ e^{-1/x} & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}.$$

For $x > 0$, by applying chain rule, we get that $f^{(k)}(x) = Q(x)e^{-1/x}$, where $Q(x)$ is rational function in x . This function is in fact infinitely differentiable at the origin (good exercise); the intuition behind this is that the exponential function will always beat any rational function in decay at the origin, and the derivative at the origin will always be zero. However, just from Taylor's theorem, it would appear that the function is not zero at the origin, which in this case is not true. The point here is that while Taylor's theorem can aid in reconstructing a function by only using information about it at the origin, it can at times be misleading, and isn't as strong as it might seem.

2 The Riemann and Riemann-Stieltjes Integral

2.1 The Riemann integral

Definition: Partition

A *partition* of $[a, b]$ is a finite set $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ with $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$.

For $i = 1, \dots, n$, let $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$. For $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ bounded, define

$$M_i = \sup\{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\} \\ m_i = \inf\{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\};$$

also, define

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i \\ L(\mathcal{P}, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i.$$

We define

$$\text{Upper Riemann integral : } \int_a^b f dx = \sup_{\mathcal{P}} U(\mathcal{P}, f) \\ \text{Lower Riemann integral : } \int_a^b f dx = \inf_{\mathcal{P}} L(\mathcal{P}, f);$$

the sup and inf are taken over all partitions of $[a, b]$.

Definition: Riemann integrable

We say $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **Riemann integrable** if $\inf_{\mathcal{P}} U(\mathcal{P}, f) = \sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(\mathcal{P}, f)$, in which case we denote this number by $\int_a^b f dx$, and we say that $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$: set of Riemann integrable functions on $[a, b]$.

A natural question that follows is what kinds of functions are Riemann integrable? We look at an example:

Example 2. Let $[a, b] = [0, 1]$, $f(x) = x$. If $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$ is a partition, $M_i = x_i$, $m_i = x_{i-1}$.

Consider $\mathcal{P} = \left\{0, \frac{1}{n}, \frac{2}{n}, \dots, \frac{n}{n}\right\}$. In this case,

$$\begin{aligned} U(\mathcal{P}, f) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{\frac{i}{n}}_{M_i} \frac{1}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n i \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{1}{2} n(n+1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2n}. \end{aligned}$$

In particular,

$$\overline{\int_0^1 x dx} \leq \inf \left\{ \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2n} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} L(\mathcal{P}, f) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i-1}{n} \frac{1}{n} \\ &= \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{1}{2} n(n-1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2n}. \end{aligned}$$

In particular,

$$\int_0^1 x dx \geq \frac{1}{2}.$$

At this point, we cannot really conclude that it is Riemann integrable, since we still need the inequality $U(\mathcal{P}, f) \leq L(\mathcal{P}, f)$, which we have not proved yet. However, rather than proving this, we will now define the Riemann-Stieltjes integral first, prove it for that, and we get it for the Riemann integral as a special case.

2.2 The Riemann-Stieltjes integral

Let $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be (weakly) monotone increasing; let $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$.

For $i = 1, \dots, n$, let $\Delta\alpha_i = \alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1})$ (if $\alpha(x) = x$, then $\Delta\alpha_i = \Delta x_i$). For $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ bounded, define

$$\begin{aligned} U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta\alpha_i \\ L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta\alpha_i. \end{aligned}$$

Define

$$\text{Upper Riemann-Stieltjes integral : } \int_a^b f d\alpha = \inf_{\mathcal{P}} U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha)$$

$$\text{Lower Riemann-Stieltjes integral : } \int_a^b f d\alpha = \sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha).$$

Definition: Riemann-Stieltjes integrable

We say $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **Riemann-Stieltjes integrable** if $\inf_{\mathcal{P}} U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha)$, in which case we denote this number by $\int_a^b f d\alpha$, and we say that $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$: set of Riemann-Stieltjes integrable functions on $[a, b]$.

Does $\alpha(x)$ always have to be continuous? We look at an example:

Example 3. Consider

$$\alpha(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq 0 \\ 1 & x > 0 \end{cases},$$

what does the integral $\int_{-1}^1 f d\alpha$ look like? It is literally just $f(0)$ (it is like the Dirac- δ “function”), and this showcases the power of the Riemann-Stieltjes integral, because $\alpha(x)$ does not have to be continuous.

Quotes of the day: Dr. Joshua Zahl 01/15/2024

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Definition: Refinement and common refinement (Rudin 6.3)

Let \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{P}^* be partitions of $[a, b]$. We say \mathcal{P}^* is a **refinement** of \mathcal{P} if $\mathcal{P} \subseteq \mathcal{P}^*$.

If \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 are partitions of $[a, b]$, their **common refinement** is the partition $\mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$.

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.4

Let \mathcal{P}^* is a refinement of \mathcal{P} . Then, $L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \leq L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha)$.

Proof. Middle inequality we have seen before (follows from the definition of inf and sup.) Proving the leftmost inequality is equivalent to proving the rightmost inequality, so we will just prove the leftmost one.

The only interesting case is when $\mathcal{P} \subsetneq \mathcal{P}^*$, since if they’re the same set, we just get equality. So it suffices to prove the inequality when \mathcal{P}^* has one additional point (the minimum for two sets to not be the same one; this can be extended to any number of points by induction.) Let the additional point be x^* , and let it be between two points x_i and x_{i+1} of \mathcal{P} .

We proceed by comparing the two lower sums $L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha)$ and $L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha)$:

$$\begin{aligned} L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) &= \sum_{j=1}^n m_j \Delta \alpha_j \\ L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) &= \sum_{j=1}^i m_j \Delta \alpha_j + (\inf \{f(x) : x \in [x_i, x^*]\}) (\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_i)) \\ &\quad + (\inf \{f(x) : x \in [x^*, x_{i+1}]\}) (\alpha(x_{i+1}) - \alpha(x^*)) \\ &\quad + \sum_{j=i+2}^n m_j \Delta \alpha_j. \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned}
L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) &= \left(\inf_{x \in [x_i, x^*]} f(x) \right) (\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_i)) + \left(\inf_{x \in [x^*, x_{i+1}]} f(x) \right) (\alpha(x_{i+1}) - \alpha(x^*)) - m_{i+1} \Delta \alpha_{i+1} \\
&\geq \left(\inf_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x) \right) (\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_i)) + \left(\inf_{x \in [x_i, x_{i+1}]} f(x) \right) (\alpha(x_{i+1}) - \alpha(x^*)) - m_{i+1} \Delta \alpha_{i+1} \\
&= m_{i+1} (\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_i) + \alpha(x_{i+1}) - \alpha(x^*)) - m_{i+1} \Delta \alpha_{i+1} \\
&= m_{i+1} \Delta \alpha_{i+1} - m_{i+1} \Delta \alpha_{i+1} = 0.
\end{aligned}$$

□

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.5

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded, and $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotone increasing. Then,

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha \leq \overline{\int_a^b f d\alpha}.$$

Proof. Let \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 be partitions of $[a, b]$; hence, let $\mathcal{P}^* = \mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$. By theorem 6.4, $L(\mathcal{P}_1, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha)$. Hence,

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha = \sup_{\mathcal{P}_1} L(\mathcal{P}_1, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha).$$

Since this is true for every \mathcal{P}_2 ,

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha \leq \inf_{\mathcal{P}_2} U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha) = \overline{\int_a^b f d\alpha}.$$

□

Note. This was the missing piece that we required to show that $\int_0^1 x dx = \frac{1}{2}$.

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.6

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded, and $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotone increasing. Then $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b] \iff$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists \mathcal{P} such that $U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon$.

Proof. By hypothesis,

$$\sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \int_a^b f d\alpha = \inf_{\mathcal{P}} U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha).$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$, then there exists a partition \mathcal{P}_1 such that

$$L(\mathcal{P}_1, f, \alpha) > \int_a^b f d\alpha - \frac{\varepsilon}{2},$$

and there exists \mathcal{P}_2 such that

$$U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \int_a^b f d\alpha.$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$. By theorem 6.4,

$$L(\mathcal{P}_1, f, \alpha) \leq L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha).$$

Hence,

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon.$$

The other direction follows from definition.

□

Quotes of the day: Dr. Joshua Zahl 01/17/2023

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Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.8

Let $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotone increasing, and let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$, i.e., $C([a, b]) \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$.

Proof. Given that f is continuous, since $[a, b]$ is compact, f is uniformly continuous. Hence, for all $\varepsilon_1 > 0$, there exists some $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$ for all x, y with $|x - y| < \delta$.

Thus, if \mathcal{P} is a partition with $\Delta x_i < \delta$ for all i , then $M_i - m_i < \varepsilon_1$ for all i . Hence,

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \leq \varepsilon_1 \sum_{i=1}^n \Delta \alpha_i = \varepsilon (\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)).$$

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, select ε_1 sufficiently small, such that $\varepsilon_1 (\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)) < \varepsilon$. Choose \mathcal{P} as above for the corresponding ε_1 . We have shown that for $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a partition \mathcal{P} , such that $U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon$. Therefore, by theorem 6.6, $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. \square

Food for thought 3. Can we describe/characterize $\mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$ or $\mathcal{R}[a, b]$?

Turns out there is a nice bi-conditional statement to characterize these sets, but we need to develop some more machinery before we can do so.

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.9

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotone (increasing or decreasing), $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotone increasing, and continuous. Then $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$.

Proof. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$; by the intermediate value theorem, there exists a partition \mathcal{P} such that $\Delta \alpha_i = \frac{\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)}{n}$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$. Note that

$$\begin{aligned} U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta \alpha_i \\ &= \frac{\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i). \end{aligned}$$

Suppose, without loss of generality, f is monotone increasing; we have $M_i = f(x_i)$ and $m_i = f(x_{i-1})$, so

$$\begin{aligned} U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) &= \frac{\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})) \\ &= \frac{\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)}{n} (\cancel{f(x_1)} - f(x_0) + \cancel{f(x_2)} - \cancel{f(x_1)} + \cancel{f(x_3)} - \cancel{f(x_2)} + \dots + f(x_n) - \cancel{f(x_{n-1})}) \\ &= \left(\frac{\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)}{n} \right) (f(x_n) - f(x_0)) \\ &= \left(\frac{\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)}{n} \right) (f(a) - f(b)) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \underbrace{(\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)) (f(b) - f(a))}_{\in \mathbb{R}}, \end{aligned}$$

so given $\varepsilon > 0$, pick $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\left| \frac{1}{n} (\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)) (f(b) - f(a)) \right| < \varepsilon.$$

For such a function, $|U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha)| < \varepsilon$. By theorem 6.6, $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. \square

Note (f monotone decreasing). In this case, the proof is pretty much the same; not tricky to work out the details.

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.10

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded and continuous at all but finitely many points. Let $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotone increasing, and continuous at every point where f is not continuous. Then, $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$.

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We will now prove theorem 6.10:

Proof. Let $N := \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |f|$; this is finite since f is bounded. Let $\mathcal{E} := \{e_1, \dots, e_k\}$ be the set of points where f is discontinuous.

Let $\varepsilon_1 > 0$. Since α is continuous at each $e_i \in \mathcal{E}$, we can pick $u_i < e_i < v_i$, where $u_i, v_i \in [a, b]$, such that $0 \leq \alpha(v_i) - \alpha(u_i) < \varepsilon_1$. The inequalities can be equality if $e_i = a$ or $e_i = b$.

Let $\mathcal{K} := [a, b] \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^k (u_i, v_i)$. Since \mathcal{K} is closed and bounded, it is compact. Furthermore, since f is continuous on \mathcal{K} , it is uniformly continuous on \mathcal{K} : for all $x, y \in \mathcal{K}$ with $|x - y| < \delta$, we have $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon_1$.

Let $\{y_i\} \subseteq \mathcal{K}$ be a set of points such that for every $x \in \mathcal{K}$, there is an index i such that $y_i \leq x \leq y_{i+1}$, and $0 < y_{i+1} - y_i < \delta$. Also, let $\mathcal{P} := \{u_i, v_i\}_{i=1}^k \cup \{y_i\} \cup \{a, b\}$ (might have to re-order to put these in increasing order). Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) &= \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta \alpha_i \text{ (for interval } [x_{i-1}, x_i]) \\ &\leq \underbrace{k(2N)\varepsilon_1}_{[u_i, v_i] \text{ intervals}} + \underbrace{\varepsilon_1 (\alpha(b) - \alpha(a))}_{[y_{i-1}, y_i] \text{ intervals}}. \end{aligned}$$

Given $\varepsilon > 0$, choose ε_1 such that

$$k(2N)\varepsilon_1 + \varepsilon_1 (\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)) < \varepsilon;$$

we use the partition \mathcal{P} . Therefore, we have shown that $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. \square

Food for thought 4. What if f and α are both discontinuous at a common point? If $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$ always? Does it depend on f and α ? Or is this never true?

Solution. Consider the case

$$f(x) = \alpha(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0 \\ 1 & x \geq 0 \end{cases}.$$

Let $\mathcal{P} = \{-1 = x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n = 1\}$ be the partition on the interval $[-1, 1]$. There are two cases that we need to consider here: if we look at

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta \alpha_i,$$

the only interesting term is the one about the point of discontinuity (the origin); we can choose our partition to be such that the origin is between two points of the partition, but if we work this out, we get that $M_k - m_k = 1 - 0 = 1$, and $\alpha_k - \alpha_{k-1} = 1$, so

$f \notin \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. In this case that zero is one of the partition points, we end up getting the same thing, so this function turns out to not be Riemann-Stieltjes integrable with this integrator.

However, while keeping f the same, if we slightly change α to be

$$\alpha(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq 0 \\ 1 & x > 0 \end{cases},$$

and we let the origin be one of the partition points, we see that over the interval $[s, 0]$, where $s \in \mathcal{P}$,

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^n (M_i - m_i) \Delta \alpha_i = (1 - 0)(0 - 0) = 0,$$

so this in fact is now Riemann-Stieltjes integrable. It is still Riemann-Stieltjes integrable if we consider an interval of the form $[0, t]$ for $t \in \mathcal{P}$.

This is particularly interesting because if we compute the integral $\int_{-1}^1 f d\alpha$, we get that it evaluates to zero, which means in this case, even though it is integrable, the integrator was unable to detect the step up in the function. So we conclude that if the function and the integrator share a point of discontinuity, then sometimes the function is still Riemann-Stieltjes integrable. However, funny things happen in such situations. \square

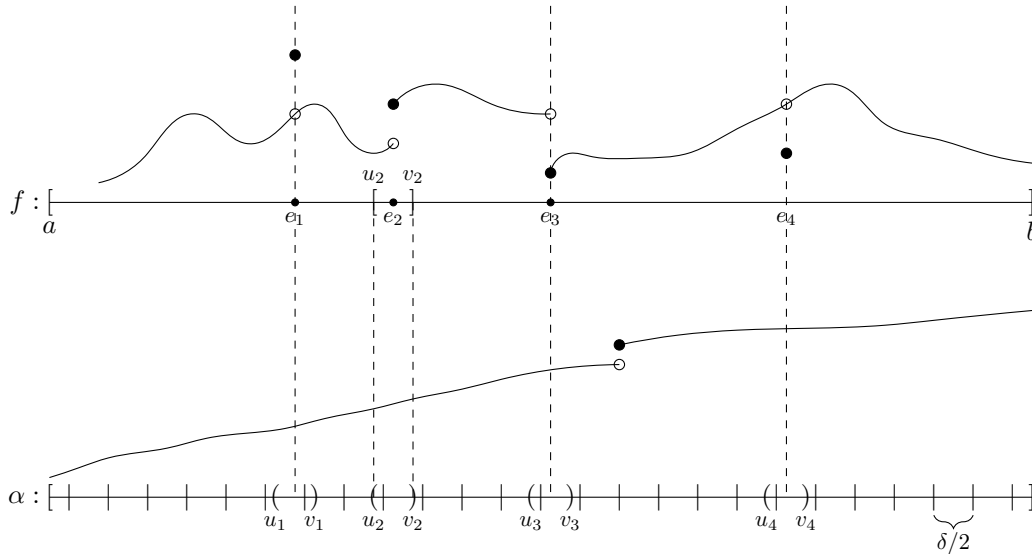


Figure 4: “Proof by picture” for the theorem.

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.11

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded, and $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotone increasing. Suppose $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. Suppose $m \leq f(x) \leq M$ for all $x \in [a, b]$. Let $\varphi : [m, M] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous; then $\varphi \circ f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$.

Proof. Given in Rudin. \square

Theorem: Properties of the Riemann-Stieltjes integral (Baby Rudin 6.12)

Let $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotonically increasing, and $f, f_1, f_2 : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be functions satisfying $f, f_1, f_2 \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$.

a) Linearity: $f_1 + f_2 \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$ and $\int_a^b (f_1 + f_2) d\alpha = \int_a^b f_1 d\alpha + \int_a^b f_2 d\alpha$. For $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $cf \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$ and $\int_a^b cf d\alpha = c \int_a^b f d\alpha$.

b) Weak positivity/non-negativity: If $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f d\alpha \geq 0$.

If $f_1(x) \leq f_2(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f_1 d\alpha \leq \int_a^b f_2 d\alpha$.

c) For $c \in [a, b]$, $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, c]$ and $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[c, b]$, and

$$\int_a^c f d\alpha + \int_c^b f d\alpha = \int_a^b f d\alpha.$$

d) Boundedness: If $|f| \leq M$, then $\left| \int_a^b f d\alpha \right| \leq M (\alpha(b) - \alpha(a))$.

e) Let $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be monotone increasing, and $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying $f \in \mathcal{R}_{\alpha_1}[a, b]$ and $f \in \mathcal{R}_{\alpha_2}[a, b]$. Then, $f \in \mathcal{R}_{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}[a, b]$, and

$$\int_a^b f d(\alpha_1 + \alpha_2) = \int_a^b f d\alpha_1 + \int_a^b f d\alpha_2.$$

If $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $f \in \mathcal{R}_{c\alpha_1}[a, b]$, and $\int_a^b f d(c\alpha_1) = c \int_a^b f d\alpha_1$.

Proof. The proof is given on page 128 of Baby Rudin; it's not very involved, so can be treated as an exercise as well. \square

Recall $\mathcal{C}([a, b])$, the space of continuous functions $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Define $\|f\|_{\mathcal{C}([a, b])} = \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x)|$. Hence, the metric is $d(f, g) = \|f - g\|_{\mathcal{C}([a, b])}$. We say that the pair $(\mathcal{C}([a, b]), \|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{C}([a, b])})$ is a *normed vector space*.

Property a) of theorem 6.12 says: If $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is monotone increasing, then the function $T(f) = \int_a^b f d\alpha$ is a linear function from the vector space $\mathcal{C}([a, b])$ to \mathbb{R} . Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} T(f + g) &= T(f) + T(g) \\ T(cf) &= cT(f). \end{aligned}$$

Property d) says that T is bounded, i.e., $|T(f)| \leq (\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)) \|f\|_{\mathcal{C}([a, b])}$.

Notation 2. People sometimes write Tf instead of $T(f)$, however it's the same thing. For example, in linear algebra, we write Mv where M is a matrix and v is a vector, but this is technically $M(v)$.

Property b) says that T is non-negative, i.e., if $f \in \mathcal{C}([a, b])$ with $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in [a, b]$. Then $Tf \geq 0$.

In functional analysis (MATH 421), and more generally in Physics, we want to study linear functions whose domain is $\mathcal{C}([a, b])$ (or more general), and whose co-domain is \mathbb{R} (or more often \mathbb{C}). Functions of this type are called “linear operators” or “linear functionals”.

Theorem: Riesz Representation Theorem 1.0

Let $T : \mathcal{C}([a, b]) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be linear, bounded, and non-negative. Then, there exists a unique monotone increasing $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, such that $Tf = \int_a^b f d\alpha$.

We want to find a better version of the theorem where we can drop the non-negative hypothesis:

Theorem: Riesz Representation Theorem 2.0

Let $T : \mathcal{C}([a, b]) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be linear and bounded. Then, there exist two monotone increasing functions $\alpha, \beta : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$T(f) = \int_a^b f d\alpha - \int_a^b f d\beta = \int_a^b f d(\alpha - \beta).$$

Note (Extension of the definition of the Riemann-Stieltjes integral). Note that for monotone increasing α, β , $\alpha - \beta$ is not necessarily monotonically increasing, so we would have to change the definition of the Riemann-Stieltjes integral from monotonically increasing α to α that is the difference of monotonically increasing functions. However, we don't really need to get into that since we can just write it as the first equality shown above.

Quotes of the day: Dr. Joshua Zahl 01/24/2024

“I love nitpicking, because math is meant to be precise.”

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.13

Let $f, g \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. Then

(a) Then $fg \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$.

(b) Then $|f| \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$, and $\left| \int_a^b f d\alpha \right| \leq \int_a^b |f| d\alpha$.

(a) *Proof.* By theorem 6.11, $\alpha(x) = x^2, (f+g)^2, (f-g)^2 \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. By theorem 6.12(a), $(f+g)^2 - (f-g)^2 = 4fg \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. Finally, by theorem 6.12(a), for $c = \frac{1}{4}$, $fg \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. □

(b) *Proof.* By theorem 6.11, $\alpha(x) = |x|, |f| \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$. Let $c = \operatorname{sgn} \int_a^b f d\alpha$, so $\left| \int_a^b f d\alpha \right| = c \int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_a^b cf d\alpha \leq \int_a^b |f| d\alpha$ (by theorem 6.12(a)). □

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.15

Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded. Let $s \in (a, b)$ and suppose f is continuous at s . Let

$$\alpha(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq s \\ 1 & x > s \end{cases}.$$

Then, $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$, and $\int_a^b f d\alpha = f(s)$.

Proof. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, x_2, x_3\}$ where $a = x_0$, $s = x_1$, $b = x_3$. Then, $U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^3 M_i \Delta\alpha_i = M_2 = \sup_{x \in [x_1, x_2]} f(x)$ and $L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \sum_{i=1}^3 m_i \Delta\alpha_i = m_2 = \inf_{x \in [x_1, x_2]} f(x)$. Since f is continuous at s , for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists δ such that if $|x - y| < \delta$, then $|f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$, so let $x_2 \in (x_1, x_1 + \delta)$. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{x \in [x_1, x_2]} f(x) &\leq f(x_1) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \Rightarrow M_2 \leq f(x_1) + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\ \inf_{x \in [x_1, x_2]} f(x) &\geq f(x_1) - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \Rightarrow m_2 \geq f(x_1) - \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $M_2 - m_2 \leq \varepsilon$. □

Food for thought 5. How would we change the proof if $f(x) = 1$ or $x \geq s$? We would get the same result, but would need to change the roles of x_1, x_2 . If defined at neither, then probably $s \in [x_1, x_2]$. This step function is quite important in electrical engineering; it even has a special name:

Definition: Heavyside step function

$$I(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \leq 0 \\ 1, & x > 0 \end{cases}.$$

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.16

Let $\{c_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ be positive real numbers with $\sum_{n=1}^\infty c_n < \infty$. Let $[a, b]$ be an interval, and let $\{s_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \subseteq (a, b)$ be distinct points.

Let $\alpha(x) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty c_n I(x - s_n)$ (a bunch of steps at s_n by c_n). Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous, so $f \in \mathcal{R}_\alpha[a, b]$ (always true if f is continuous and α is monotone increasing). Then

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha = \sum_{n=1}^\infty c_n f(s_n).$$

Note. We know that both the integral and sum exist because the sum converges, and f is bounded.

Proof. Let $R_N = \int_a^b f d\alpha - \sum_{n=1}^\infty c_n f(s_n)$. Our goal is to show that for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists N_0 such that for all $n \geq N_0$, $|R_N| < \varepsilon$.

So, fix N , let $\alpha_1 = \sum_{n=1}^N c_n I(x - s_n)$, $\alpha_2 = \sum_{n=N+1}^\infty c_n I(x - s_n)$. By theorem 6.12(c), $\int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_a^b f d\alpha_1 + \int_a^b f d\alpha_2$, and

$f \in \mathcal{R}_{\alpha_1}[a, b]$, $f \in \mathcal{R}_{\alpha_2}[a, b]$ since f is continuous. Hence,

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha_1 = \sum_{n=1}^N \int_a^b f(x) d[c_n I(x - s_n)] = \sum_{n=1}^N c_n f(s_n),$$

by theorem 6.15. Therefore, $R_N = \int_a^b f d\alpha_2$. Let $K = \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |f|$. By theorem 6.12(b), $\int_a^b f d\alpha_2 \leq K \int_a^b 1 d\alpha_2 = K[\alpha_2(b) - \alpha_2(a)] = K \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} c_n \rightarrow 0$ as $N \rightarrow \infty$.

In summary, we wrote the difference as the sum of a main term and a tail term, and showed that the tail term goes to zero. We could make this more formal using ε 's, but we were out of time. \square

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.19

Let $\varphi : [A, B] \rightarrow [a, b]$ be a strictly increasing, surjective, and continuous function.

Let $\alpha : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be our monotone increasing integrator, and let $f \in \mathcal{R}_{\alpha}[a, b]$.

Define $g := f \circ \varphi : [A, B] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and $\beta := \alpha \circ \varphi : [A, B] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Hence, $g \in \mathcal{R}_{\beta}[A, B]$ and

$$\int_A^B g d\beta = \int_a^b f d\alpha.$$

Example 4. Let $\alpha(x) = x$, and φ is differentiable. Then $d\beta = \varphi'(x) dx$, i.e.,

$$\int_a^b f d\alpha = \int_{\varphi^{-1}(a)}^{\varphi^{-1}(b)} f(x) \varphi'(x) dx$$

Proof. Partitions $\mathcal{P} := \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n = b\}$ of $[a, b]$, and partitions \mathcal{Q} of $[A, B]$ are in 1-1 correspondence via $x_i = \varphi(y_i)$.

We have $\alpha(x_i) = \alpha \circ \varphi(y_i) = \beta(y_i)$, and

$$\{f(x) : x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]\} = \{g(y) : y \in [y_{i-1}, y_i]\}.$$

Hence, $U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = U(\mathcal{Q}, g, \beta)$ and $L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = L(\mathcal{Q}, g, \beta)$. For all $\varepsilon > 0$, since $f \in \mathcal{R}_{\alpha}[a, b]$ there exists a partition \mathcal{P} of $[a, b]$ such that $U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon$. Therefore, $U(\mathcal{Q}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{Q}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon$, and $g \in \mathcal{R}_{\beta}[A, B]$.

Finally,

$$\int_A^B g d\beta = \inf_{\mathcal{Q}} U(\mathcal{Q}, g, \beta) = \inf_{\mathcal{P}} U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \int_a^b f d\alpha.$$

\square

Note (About the properties of φ). Without φ being strictly increasing, surjective, and continuous in the theorem hypothesis, we won't get a 1-1 correspondence between the partition \mathcal{P} and the partition \mathcal{Q} .

Theorem: Baby Rudin 6.20

Let $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$. For $x \in [a, b]$, define $F(x) := \int_a^x f(t) dt$, $F(a) := 0$. Then, F is continuous on $[a, b]$. If $c \in [a, b]$, and f is continuous at c , then F is differentiable at c , and the derivative of $F'(c) = f(c)$.

Proof. Continuity: Let $K = \sup_{t \in [a, b]} |f(t)|$. By theorem 6.12(c), for $a \leq x \leq y \leq b$,

$$F(y) - F(x) = \int_a^y f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt = \int_x^y f(t) dt.$$

Thus,

$$|F(y) - F(x)| = \left| \int_x^y f(t) dt \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(t)| dt \leq \int_a^b k dt = K(y - x).$$

Hence, for every $\varepsilon > 0$, select $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{k}$ (or $\delta = \varepsilon$ if $k = 0$); if $|x - y| < \delta$, $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$.

Differentiability at c: Suppose $c \neq b$, i.e., $c \in [a, b)$. Let us compute $\lim_{h \searrow 0} \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h}$.

For $h > 0$, we have

$$\left| \frac{1}{h} [F(c+h) - F(c)] - f(c) \right| = \left| \frac{1}{h} \int_c^{c+h} f(t) dt - f(c) \right|.$$

Here we exploit a trick, where we write $f(c) = \frac{1}{h} \int_c^{c+h} f(c) dt$. Hence, we have

$$\left| \frac{1}{h} [F(c+h) - F(c)] - f(c) \right| = \left| \frac{1}{h} \int_c^{c+h} [f(t) - f(c)] dt \right| \leq \frac{1}{h} \int_c^{c+h} |f(t) - f(c)| dt.$$

Since f is continuous at c , for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all $y \in [a, b]$ with $|y - c| < \delta$, we have $|f(c) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$. Hence, for $h < \delta$, we have

$$\frac{1}{h} \int_c^{c+h} |f(t) - f(c)| dt < \frac{1}{h} \int_c^{c+h} \varepsilon dt = \varepsilon,$$

i.e., for all $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all $0 < h < \delta$,

$$\left| \frac{1}{h} (F(c+h) - F(c)) - f(c) \right| < \varepsilon \Rightarrow \lim_{h \searrow 0} \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} = f(c).$$

If $c \neq a$, i.e., if $c \in (a, b]$, an identical argument shows $\lim_{h \nearrow 0} \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} = f(c)$. □

Food for thought 6. If f is *not* continuous at c , is F

- (a) *Never* differentiable at c .
- (b) Maybe differentiable (depends on f and c).
- (c) Always differentiable.

The answer to this should be (b) Maybe differentiable, since we could have a removable discontinuity, which the Riemann integral cannot see, so it will be just fine: If $f(x) = g(x)$ *except* at one point, then $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b g(x) dx$. In contrast if it was even a jump discontinuity, f fails to be continuous, and hence it does not work.