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1. Riemann Integration

Recall that we are using the notation S[a, b] the vector space of all step functions on [a,b] and $\mathcal{R}[a,b]$ for the vector space of Riemann integrable functions on the [a, b].

Proposition 1. If f is a bounded function on the closed bounded interval [a,b] then f is integrable if and only if all $\varepsilon > 0$ there are step functions $\varphi, \psi \in \mathcal{S}[a,b]$ such that

$$\varphi \leq f \leq \psi$$

and

$$\int_{a}^{b} (\psi - \varphi) \, dx < \varepsilon.$$

Problem 1. Prove this. *Hint:* We outlined the proof in class.

To use this we need to be able to construct some step functions that approximate a given bounded function well. Here we need a little bit more notation.

Definition 2. Let [a,b] be a closed bounded interval. Then a **partition** of [a,b] is a list of points $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \cdots < x_n = b$. We denote it by $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$. We also use the notation

$$\Delta x_j = x_j - x_{j-1}.$$

(See Figure 1.)

$$a = \begin{matrix} x_0 & x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & x_4 & x_5 & x_6 = b \\ \text{Figure 1. A partition of the interval } [a,b] \text{ into } n = 6 \text{ pieces.} \\ \text{The j-th interval } [x_{j-1},x_j] \text{ has length } \Delta x_j = x_j - x_{j-1}. \end{matrix}$$

If f is a monotone increasing function on [a, b] and $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is a partition of [a, b] define two step functions by $\varphi_{f, \mathcal{P}}(b) = f(b)$,

$$\varphi_{f,\mathcal{P}}(x) = f(x_{j-1})$$
 for $x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j)$

and $\psi_{f,\mathcal{P}}(b) = f(b)$

$$\psi_{f,\mathcal{P}} = f(x_j)$$
 for $x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j)$.

See Figure 2

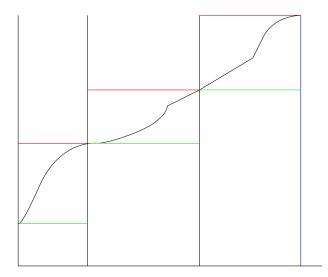


FIGURE 2. A monotone increasing function on [a, b] and a partition, \mathcal{P} , with n = 3 showing the lower step function $\varphi_{f,\mathcal{P}}$ (in green) and the upper step function $\psi_{f,\mathcal{P}}$ (in red).

Proposition 3. If f is monotone increasing on [a,b] then for any partition, \mathcal{P} , of [a,b], with the notation above,

$$\varphi_{f,\mathcal{P}} \leq f \leq \psi_{f,\mathcal{P}}$$

on [a,b].

Problem 2. Prove this.

Definition 4. Given a positive integer n and a closed bounded interval [a, b] the **uniform partition** of [a, b] into n sub-intervals is the partition $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ with

$$x_j = a + j\left(\frac{b-a}{n}\right)$$

for j = 0, 1, ..., n. Note in this case all the lengths, Δx_j of the sub-intervals $[x_{j-1}, x_j]$ have the same value $\Delta x = \Delta x_j = (b-a)/n$.

Now let us consider the monotone increasing function f on the interval [a,b] with the uniform partition, \mathcal{P} , of [a,b] with n=4. Then $\Delta x = \Delta x_j = (b-a)/4$ and $\varphi_{f,\mathcal{P}} \leq f \leq \psi_{f,\mathcal{P}}$. Also

$$\int_{a}^{b} \varphi_{f,\mathcal{P}}(x) \, dx = \left(f(x_0) + f(x_1) + f(x_2) + f(x_3) \right) \Delta x$$

and

$$\int_{a}^{b} \psi_{f,\mathcal{P}}(x) \, dx = \left(f(x_1) + f(x_2) + f(x_3) + f(x_4) \right) \Delta x.$$

Thus

$$\int_{a}^{b} (\psi_{f,\mathcal{P}}(x) - \psi_{f,\mathcal{P}}(x)) \ dx = (f(x_4) - f(x_0)) \ \Delta x = (f(b) - f(a)) \ \Delta x$$

There is nothing special about n = 4 in this:

Problem 3. Show that if f is monotone increasing on [a,b], n is a positive integer and $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ is the uniform partition of [a,b] into n sub-intervals, then, with the notation above,

$$\int_a^b \left(\psi_{f,\mathcal{P}}(x) - \varphi_{f,\mathcal{P}}(x)\right) dx = \left(f(b) - f(a)\right) \Delta x = \frac{(f(b) - f(a))(b - a)}{n}. \ \Box$$

Theorem 5. If f is a monotone function on the closed bounded interval [a, b], then f is integrable on [a, b].

Problem 4. Prove this. *Hint*: With out loss of generality assume f is monotone increasing (if f is monotone decreasing replace f by -f). Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and let n be a positive integer such that

$$\frac{(f(b) - f(a))(b - a)}{n} < \varepsilon$$

and use Proposition 1 and the last problem.

Theorem 6. Let f be a continuous function on [a,b]. Then f is integrable on [a,b].

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. As f is continuous on the closed bounded set [a,b] it is uniformly continuous on [a,b]. Thus there is an $\delta > 0$ such that for $x,y \in [a,b]$.

$$|x - y| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{b - a}.$$

Let n be a positive integer such that

$$\frac{b-a}{n} = \Delta x < \delta$$

and let $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be the uniform partition of [a, b] into n sub-intervals. Set

$$m_j = \inf\{f(x) : x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\} = \min\{f(x) : x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\},\$$

 $M_j = \sup\{f(x) : x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\} = \max\{f(x) : x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\}$

where the infimum is achieved as a minimum and the supremum is achieved as a maximum because continuous functions on closed bounded sets achieve their maximums and minimums. Define step functions φ and ψ on [a,b] $\varphi(b) = \psi(b) = f(b)$ and

$$\varphi(x) = m_j$$
 for $x_{j-1} \le x < x_j$
 $\psi(x) = M_j$ for $x_{j-1} \le x < x_j$.

Then

$$\varphi < f < \psi$$

and

$$\int_{a}^{b} (\varphi(x) - \psi(x)) dx = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (M_j - m_j) \left(\frac{b - a}{n}\right).$$

As f is continuous on the closed bounded interval $[x_{j-1}, x_j]$, f achieves its maximum and minimum on this interval. Thus there are $\alpha_j, \beta_j \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]$ with $f(\alpha_j) = m_j$ and $f(\beta_j) = M_j$. But then $|\alpha_j - \beta_j| \leq \Delta x < \delta$ and therefore

$$M_j - m_j = |f(\beta_j) - f(\alpha_j)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{b - a}.$$

Thus

$$\int_{a}^{b} (\varphi(x) - \psi(x)) dx = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (M_j - m_j) \left(\frac{b-a}{n}\right) < \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} \left(\frac{b-a}{n}\right) = \varepsilon$$

and the result now follows from Proposition 1.

Lemma 7. Let $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$, then

$$|\max\{\alpha, 0\} - \max\{\beta, 0\}| \le |\alpha - \beta|.$$

Problem 5. Prove this by splitting it into the four cases (i) $\alpha, \beta \geq 0$, (ii) $\alpha \geq 0, \beta < 0$, (iii) $\alpha < 0, \beta \geq 0$, and (iv) $\alpha, \beta < 0$. This is not to be handed in.

Proposition 8. If $f \in \mathcal{R}[a,b]$ then so is $g = \max\{f,0\}$.

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ Let φ and ψ be step functions on [a,b] such that $\varphi \leq f \leq \psi$ and $\int_a^b (\psi - \varphi) dx < \varepsilon$. Then

$$\varphi_0 = \max\{0, \varphi\}, \qquad \psi_0 = \max\{0, \psi\}$$

are step functions, $\varphi_0 \leq \max\{f, 0\} \leq \psi_0$ and $0 \leq \psi_0 - \varphi_0 \leq \psi - \varphi$. Thus, using Lemma 7,

$$\int_{a}^{b} (\psi_{0} - \varphi_{0}) dx \le \int_{a}^{b} (\psi - \varphi) dx < \varepsilon$$

and so $\max\{f,0\}$ is integrable by Proposition 1.

This implies a good deal more because of the following elementary result.

Lemma 9. For real numbers a, b the following hold

$$\begin{aligned} \min\{a,0\} &= -\max\{-a,0\}, \\ |a| &= \max\{a,0\} + \max\{-a,0\}, \\ \max\{a,b\} &= a + \max\{0,b-a\}, \\ \min\{a,b\} &= a + \min\{0,b-a\}. \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Left to reader (and you don't have to turn these in). We did enough of this type of thing last term that I believe you can do it. \Box

Proposition 10. If f and g are integrable on [a,b] then so are |f|, $\min\{f,g\}$ and $\max\{f,g\}$.

Proof. This follows easily from Proposition 8 and Lemma 9.

Lemma 11. If f is integrable on [a,b] then so is f^2 .

Problem 6. Prove this. *Hint*: As $f^2 = |f|^2$ and |f| is also integrable by replacing f by |f| we can assume $f \geq 0$. As f is integrable it is bounded, say $0 \leq f \leq B$ on [a,b]. Also as f is integrable on [a,b] for $\varepsilon > 0$ there is are step functions φ, ψ such that

$$\varphi \le f \le \psi$$

and

$$\int_{a}^{b} (\psi - \varphi) \, dx < \frac{\varepsilon}{2B}.$$

By replacing φ by $\max\{0, \varphi\}$ and ψ by $\min\{\psi, B\}$ we can assume $0 \le \varphi$ and $\psi \le B$. Then φ^2 and ψ^2 are step functions and

$$\varphi^2 \le f^2 \le \psi^2$$

and

$$0 \le \psi^2 - \varphi^2 = (\psi + \varphi)(\psi - \varphi) \le (\psi + \psi)(\psi - \varphi) \le (B + B)(\psi - \varphi).$$

You should now be able to show

$$\int_{a}^{b} (\psi^2 - \varphi^2) \, dx < \varepsilon$$

so that Proposition 1 applies.

Proposition 12. If f and g are integrable on [a,b] then so is the product fg.

Problem 7. Prove this. *Hint:* Show

$$fg = \frac{(f+g)^2 - (f-g)^2}{4}$$

and use Lemma 11.

2. The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

Proposition 13. If a < b < c and f is integrable on [a, c] then the restrictions $f|_{[a,b]}$ and $f|_{[b,c]}$ are integrable on [a,b] and [b,c] respectively and

$$\int_a^c f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx + \int_b^c f(x) dx.$$

Proof. We have shown for any bounded function on [a, c] that

$$\overline{\int_{a}^{c}} f(x) dx = \overline{\int_{a}^{b}} f(x) dx + \overline{\int_{b}^{c}} f(x) dx,$$

$$\underline{\int_{a}^{c}} f(x) dx = \underline{\int_{a}^{b}} f(x) dx + \underline{\int_{b}^{c}} f(x) dx.$$

As f is integrable on [a, c]

$$\int_{a}^{c} f(x) dx = \overline{\int}_{a}^{c} f(x) dx$$

$$= \underline{\int}_{a}^{c} f(x) dx$$

$$= \underline{\int}_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \underline{\int}_{b}^{c} f(x) dx$$

$$\leq \overline{\int}_{a}^{b} f(x) dx + \overline{\int}_{b}^{c} f(x) dx$$

$$= \overline{\int}_{a}^{c} f(x) dx$$

$$= \int_{a}^{c} f(x) dx.$$

Thus equality must hold at all the intermediate inequalities. Therefore

$$\underline{\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx} = \overline{\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx} \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{\int_{b}^{c} f(x) dx} = \overline{\int_{b}^{c} f(x) dx}$$

which implies the restrictions $f|_{[a,b]}$ and $f|_{[b,c]}$ are integrable. The rest follows from

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \overline{\int}_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{b}^{c} f(x) dx = \overline{\int}_{b}^{c} f(x) dx$$

and that equality holds in the displayed inequality.

Proposition 14. Let f be integrable on [a,b] and let $[\alpha,\beta] \subseteq [a,b]$. The f is integrable on $[\alpha,\beta]$.

Problem 8. Prove this. *Hint*: $[\alpha, \beta] = [a, \beta] \cap [\alpha, b]$ and Proposition 13. \square

It is useful to define $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ even in the cases where a = b and b < a.

Definition 15. For any function f define

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = 0.$$

If b < a and f is integrable on [b, a] define

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = -\int_{b}^{a} f(x) dx.$$

Proposition 16. If f is integrable on the interval $[x_1, x_2]$ and $a, b, c \in [x_1, x_2]$ then, with the definitions above,

$$\int_{a}^{c} f(x) \, dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx + \int_{b}^{c} f(x) \, dx.$$

Proof. This is just checking case by case (i.e. $a \le b \le c$, $a \le c \le b$ etc.) and is left to the reader. And please do not hand it in.

Proposition 17. Let f(x) be integrable on [a,b] and let $F:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

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

then F is Lipschitz. That is there is a constant M such that for all $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$,

$$|F(x_2) - F(x_1)| \le M|x_2 - x_1|$$

and therefore F is continuous on [a,b].

Problem 9. Prove this. *Hint:* As f is integrable on [a, b], it is bounded on [a, b], say $|f(x)| \leq M$ on [a, b]. Without loss of generality we can assume that $x_1 \leq x_2$. Then

$$|F(x_2) - F(x_1)| = \left| \int_a^{x_2} f(t) dt - \int_a^{x_1} f(t) dt \right| = \left| \int_{x_1}^{x_2} f(t) dt \right| \le \int_{x_1}^{x_2} |f(t)| dt$$

and it should be easy from here.

Theorem 18 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus Form 1). Let f be integrable on [a,b]. Define new function $F:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ by

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt.$$

If f is continuous at the point $x \in (a,b)$, then the derivative of F exists at x and

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

Problem 10. Prove this. *Hint:* First note

$$1 = \frac{1}{h} \int_{x}^{x+h} 1 \, dt.$$

Multiply by f(x) to get

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{h} \int_{x}^{x+h} f(x) dt$$

Also note

$$F(x+h) - F(x) = \int_{a}^{x+h} f(t) dt - \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt = \int_{x}^{x+h} f(t) dt.$$

Combining some of these formulas we get

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

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. As f is continuous at x there is a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|t - x| < \delta \implies |f(t) - f(x)| < \varepsilon.$$

Put this all together to show

$$|h| < \delta \implies \left| \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} - f(x) \right| < \varepsilon$$

and explain why this shows F'(x) = f(x).

Theorem 19 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus Form 2). Let f be continuous on [a,b] and let F be continuous on [a,b] and differentiable (a,b) with F'=f on (a,b). Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(t) dt = F(b) - F(a) = F \bigg|_{a}^{b}.$$

Problem 11. Prove this. *Hint:* Let

$$G(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt - F(x)$$

and show G'(x) = 0 for $x \in (a, b)$.

Corollary 20. If f is continuous on [a,b] and F is any anti-derivative of f on [a,b] (that is F'(x) = f(x) for $x \in [a,b]$), then

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

Problem 12. Prove this.

Definition 21. Let f be integrable on [a, b]. Then the **average value** of f on [a, b] is

$$\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx.$$

Theorem 22 (The First Mean Value Theorem for Integrals). If f is continuous on [a,b], then it achieves its average value. That is there is a $\xi \in (a,b)$ with

$$f(\xi) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx.$$

Problem 13. Prove this. *Hint*: As f is continuous on the closed bounded set [a,b], it achieves its maximum and minimum on this interval. Let $m=\min\{f(x):x\in[a,b]\}$ and $M=\max\{f(x):x\in[a,b]\}$ and let $\alpha,\beta\in[a,b]$ such that $f(\alpha)=m$ and $f(\beta)=M$. Now

$$f(\alpha) = m = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b m \, dx \le \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

and

$$f(\beta) = M = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b M \, dx \ge \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) \, dx$$

and recall the intermediate value theorem.

We now prove a somewhat stronger version of the second form of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

Theorem 23. Let F be continuous on [a,b] assume that F is differentiable on (a,b) and let

$$f(x) = F'(x)$$

on [a,b]. Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) \, dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

(This differs from Theorem 19 as we are only assuming that f is integrable rather than continuous.)

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. As f is integrable there are step functions φ and ψ on [a,b] with

(1)
$$\varphi \le f \le \psi$$
 and $\int_a^b f \, dx - \varepsilon \le \int_a^b \varphi \, dx \le \int_a^b \psi \, dx \le \int_a^b f \, dx + \varepsilon$.

We can assume there is a partition $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ such that if $I_j = [x_{j-1}, x_j)$ then

$$\varphi = \sum_{j=1}^{n} m_j \chi_{I_j}, \qquad \psi = \sum_{j=1}^{n} M_j \chi_{I_j}.$$

We write F(b) - F(a) as a telescoping sum:

$$F(b) - F(a) = F(x_n) - F(x_0) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1}))$$

As F is differentiable on $[x_{j-1}, x_j]$ we can apply the mean value theorem to get that there is a $\xi_j \in (x_{j-1}, x_j)$ with

$$F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1}) = F'(\xi_j)(x_j - x_{j-1}) = f(\xi_j)(x_j - x_{j-1}) = f(\xi_j)|I_j|.$$

Combining these equations gives

$$F(b) - F(a) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1})) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(\xi_j) |I_j|.$$

But $\varphi \leq f \leq \psi$ which implies $m_j \leq f(\xi_j) \leq M_j$ and thus

$$\int_{a}^{b} \varphi \, dx = \sum_{j=1}^{n} m_{j} |I_{j}| \le F(b) - F(a) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(\xi_{j}) |I_{j}| \le \sum_{j=1}^{n} M_{j} |I_{j}| = \int_{a}^{b} \psi \, dx.$$

Combining this with the inequalities (1) gives

$$\int_{a}^{b} f \, dx - \varepsilon \le F(b) - F(a) \le \int_{a}^{b} f \, dx + \varepsilon.$$

As $\varepsilon > 0$ was arbitrary this gives $F(b) - F(a) = \int_a^b f \, dx$ as required. \square

Problem 14. To see that Theorem 23 really is stronger than Theorem 19 we need to show that there is a function F on an interval [a, b] such that f = F' exists and is integrable on (a, b) but with f not continuous on (a, b). Let

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \cos(1/x), & x \neq 0; \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Show that F is differentiable at all points of \mathbb{R} , and f = F' is bounded on [-1,1], but f is not continuous at x=0. As f is continuous at all points other than 0 it is integrable on [-1,1].

We can now give the familiar integration by parts formula.

Theorem 24 (Integration by Parts). Let u and v continuous on [a, b], differentiable on (a, b), with u' and v' integrable on [a, b]. Then

$$\int_{a}^{b} u(x)v'(x) \, dx = u(x)v(x) \Big|_{x=a}^{b} - \int_{a}^{b} u'(x)v(x) \, dx.$$

Problem 15. Prove this. *Hint:* This follows from the product rule and the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus in the form

$$\int_{a}^{b} \left(u(x)v(x) \right)' dx = u(x)v(x) \Big|_{x=a}^{b}.$$

You do have to worry a bit about if the integrals involved exist. Theorem 12 should help here. $\hfill\Box$

We now use integration by parts to give another form of the remainder in Taylor's Theorem.

Lemma 25. Let f be k+1 times differentiable on an open interval (α, β) and assume that $f^{(k+1)}$ is integrable. Then for $a, x \in (\alpha, \beta)$ we have

$$\int_{a}^{x} \frac{(x-t)^{k-1}}{(k-1)!} f^{(k)}(t) dt = \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^{k} + \int_{a}^{x} \frac{(x-t)^{k}}{k!} f^{(k+1)}(t) dt.$$

Problem 16. Prove this. *Hint*: Use integration by parts with $v'(t) = \frac{(x-t)^{k-1}}{(k-1)!}$ and $u = f^{(k)}(t)$.

Theorem 26 (Taylor's Theorem with Integral form of the Remainder). Let f be n+1 times differentable on (α,β) and assume that $f^{(n+1)}$ is integrable. Then for $a,x\in(\alpha,\beta)$

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x - a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x - a)^n + R_n(x)$$

where the remainder term $R_n(x)$ is given by

$$R_n(x) = \int_a^x \frac{(x-t)^n}{n!} f^{(n+1)}(t) dt.$$

Problem 17. Prove this. Hint: Note that Lemma 25 can be rewritten as

$$R_{k-1}(x) = \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^k + R_k(x)$$

and by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus and integration by parts

$$f(x) - f(a) = \int_{a}^{x} f'(t) dt$$

$$= -\int_{a}^{x} (-1)f'(t) dt$$

$$= -\int_{a}^{x} \left(\frac{d}{dt}(x-t)\right) f'(t) dt$$

$$= -\frac{d}{dt}(x-t)f'(t)\Big|_{t=a}^{x} + \int_{a}^{x} (x-t)f''(t) dt$$

$$= f(a)(x-a) + R_{1}(x).$$

Now use induction.

Theorem 27 (Change of Variable Formula). Let the map x = u(t) map the interval [c, d] into the interval [a, b] and assume that u'(t) is integrable on [c, d]. Then for any continuous function f on [a, b]

$$\int_{u(c)}^{u(d)} f(x) \, dx = \int_{c}^{d} f(u(t))u'(t) \, dt.$$

Problem 18. Prove this. *Hint:* Do this in steps

- (a) Explain why both the integrals exist.
- (b) Define F on [a, b] by

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(y) \, dy$$

and explain why

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$
 and $\int_{u(c)}^{u(d)} f(x) dx = F(u(d)) - F(u(c)).$

(c) On [c,d] define

$$G(t) = F(u(t)).$$

By the chain rule

$$G'(t) = F'(u(t))u'(t) = f(u(t))u'(t)$$

and so by Theorem 23

$$\int_{c}^{d} f(u(t))u'(t) dt = \int_{c}^{d} G'(t) dt = G(d) - G(c).$$

(d) Put the pieces above together to finish the proof.

3. Definition of the logarithm and exponential functions.

Define a function $L:(0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$ by

$$L(x) = \int_{1}^{x} \frac{dx}{x}.$$

We know this should be the natural logarithm, but we now verify directly from its definition that it has the correct properties.

Proposition 28. The derivative of L is

$$L'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

and thus L is strictly increasing. Therefore L is one-to-one (that is injective).

Proof. By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

$$L'(x) = \frac{1}{x} > 0$$

as x > 0 which implies L is strictly increasing.

Proposition 29. Let a, b > 0 then

$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{dx}{x} = L(b/a).$$

Problem 19. Prove this. *Hint:* In the integral $\int_a^b \frac{dx}{x}$ do the change of variable x = at to get

$$\int_{a}^{b} \frac{dx}{x} = \int_{1}^{b/a} \frac{dt}{t}.$$

Proposition 30. If a, b > 0 then

$$L(ab) = L(a) + L(b).$$

Problem 20. Prove this. *Hint:*

$$L(ab) = \int_1^{ab} \frac{dx}{x} = \int_1^a \frac{dx}{x} + \int_a^{ab} \frac{dx}{x}$$

and use Proposition 29.

The last Proposition and induction yield:

Corollary 31. If a > 0 and n is a positive integer

$$L(a^n) = nL(a).$$

Proposition 32. The function $L:(0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$ is a bijection.

Problem 21. Prove this. *Hint:* Recall the saying that L is a bijection is just saying that it is one-to-one and onto. We have already seen that L is injective. To see that it is surjective (that is onto) note that L(2) > 0 and L(1/2) < 0. Also for a positive integer n

$$L(2^n) = nL(2)$$
 and $L(1/2^n) = nL(1/2)$.

If y_0 is any real number we can find (by Archimedes' principle) a positive integer n such that

$$nL(1/2) < y_0 < nL(2)$$
.

Also we know that L is continuous (why?). Now you should be able to show that there is a $x_0 \in (0, \infty)$ with $L(x_0) = y_0$.

Because the function $L:(0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$ is bijective, it has an inverse $E:\mathbb{R}\to(0,\infty)$. As L is strictly increasing, continuous, and differentiable with $L'(x)\neq 0$ for all x theorems from earlier this term imply that E is strictly increasing, continuous, and differentiable.

Proposition 33. The function E satisfies E(0) = 1 and

$$E'(x) = E(x).$$

Problem 22. Prove this. *Hint*: L(1) = 0. And as L and E are inverses of each other L(E(x)) = x for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Therefore $\frac{d}{dx}L(E(x)) = 1$. Use the chain rule and that we know the derivative of L.

Proposition 34. For all real numbers x

$$E(-x) = \frac{1}{E(x)}.$$

Problem 23. Prove this. *Hint:* There are several ways to do this. One is to take the derivative of E(x)E(-x) and show it is zero. Anther is to note that L(a) + L(1/a) = L(1) = 0

Proposition 35. For all real numbers a, b

$$E(a+b) = E(a)E(b).$$

Problem 24. Prove this. *Hint:* One way is to deduce this from the property $L(\alpha\beta) = L(\alpha) + L(\beta)$ of L. Anther is to show that the derivative of the function

$$f(x) = E(x+a)E(-x)$$

is zero and therefore f is constant.

Proposition 36. If n is any integer, positive or negative, and t is any real number

$$E(nt) = E(t)^n$$

If m is a positive integer then

$$E\left(\frac{1}{m}t\right)^m = E(t)$$

and thus $E(\frac{1}{m}t)$ is the positive m-th root of E(t).

Problem 25. Prove this.

In light of Proposition 36 If r is a rational number, say r = n/m with m, n integers and m > 0, then for a positive number a we can define

$$a^r = a^{n/m} = (a^n)^{1/m}$$

where $(a^n)^{1/m}$ is the positive m-th root of a^n . We would also like to define a^r when r is irrational. Note that when r = m/n and a = E(t), then Proposition 36 shows us that

(2)
$$a^r = E(t)^{n/m} = (E(t)^n)^{1/m} = E(nt)^{1/m} = E\left(\frac{1}{m}nt\right) = E(rt).$$

But E(rt) makes sense for all real numbers r. We now formalize all this.

Definition 37. We now officially define logarithm of a positive number x to be

$$\ln(x) = L(x) = \int_1^x \frac{dt}{t},$$

the number e to be

$$e = E(1)$$

and for any real number x we define the power e^x by

$$e^x = E(x)$$
.

Definition 38. Let a > 0. Then for any real number r define

$$a^r = e^{r \ln(a)}$$
.

(Note if $a = E(t) = e^t$ then $\ln(a) = t$ and this becomes $a^r = e^{r \ln(a)} = e^{rt} = E(rt)$ which agrees with our preliminary definition (2).)

Proposition 39. If a > 0 and r = n/m is a rational number with m > 0, then

$$a^r = (a^n)^{1/m}$$

so that our definition agrees with what it should be on the rational numbers.

Proposition 40. With these definition the following hold

(a) If a > 0 then for all $r, s \in \mathbb{R}$

$$a^r a^s = a^{r+s}, \quad \frac{a^r}{a^s} = a^{r-s}.$$

and,

$$(a^r)^s = a^{rs}.$$

(b) If $r \in \mathbb{R}$ and a, b > 0 then

$$a^r b^r = (ab)^r$$
.

Problem 27. Prove this.

Proposition 41. Let r be a real number and on define $f:(0,\infty)\to(0,\infty)$ by

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

Then f is differentiable and

$$f'(x) = rx^{r-1}.$$

Problem 28. Prove this. *Hint:* We know that $E(x) = e^x$ is differentiable with derivative E'(x) = E(x) and that $\ln(x)$ is differentiable with $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(x) = 1/x$. Thus $f(x) = e^{r \ln(x)} = E(r \ln(x))$ is a composition of differentiable functions. Use the chain rule to derive the formula for f'(x).

Proposition 42. Let a be a positive real number and define $g: \mathbb{R} \to (0, \infty)$ by

$$g(x) = a^x.$$

Then g is differentiable and

$$g'(x) = \ln(a)a^x.$$

Problem 29. Prove this.