## Contents

- Riemann Integration 1 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus. 5 12
- Definition of the logarithm and exponential functions.

## 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

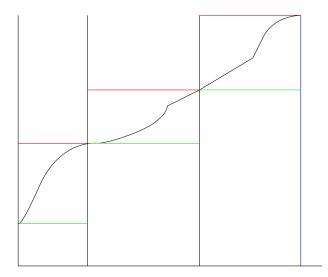


FIGURE 2. A monotone increasing function on [a, b] and a partition,  $\mathcal{P}$ , with n = 3 showing the lower step function  $\varphi_{f,\mathcal{P}}$  (in green) and the upper step function  $\psi_{f,\mathcal{P}}$  (in red).

**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,  $\Delta x_j$  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  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  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  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  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  $\varphi, \psi$  such that

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

and

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

By replacing  $\varphi$  by  $\max\{0, \varphi\}$  and  $\psi$  by  $\min\{\psi, B\}$  we can assume  $0 \le \varphi$  and  $\psi \le B$ . Then  $\varphi^2$  and  $\psi^2$  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  $\varphi$  and  $\psi$  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  $(\alpha, \beta)$  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  $(\alpha,\beta)$  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.