

# Real Analysis II

## Chapter 7 Calculus

### 7.1 Sets of Measure Zero

**Definition 7.1A** The subset  $E$  of  $\mathbf{R}$  is said to be of **measure zero** if for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a finite or a countable number of open intervals  $I_1, I_2, \dots$  such that

$$E \subset \cup_n I_n \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_n |I_n| < \epsilon.$$

**Theorem 7.1 B** If each of the subsets  $E_1, E_2, \dots$  of  $\mathbf{R}$  is of measure zero, then  $\cup_n E_n$  is also of measure zero.

**Corollary 7.1C** Every countable set is of measure zero. In particular the set of rational numbers is of measure zero.

**Definition 7.1D** A statement is said to **hold at almost every point of**  $[a, b]$  (or **almost everywhere in**  $[a, b]$ ), if the set of points of  $[a, b]$  at which the statement does not hold is of measure zero.

**Notation** It is common to write a.e for almost everywhere. Thus " $f$  is continuous almost everywhere in  $[a, b]$ " can be written as " $f$  is continuous a.e in  $[a, b]$ ."

### 7.2 Definition of the Riemann Integral

**Definition 7.2A** Let  $I$  be a bounded interval of real numbers and let  $f$  be a bounded function defined on  $I$ . We define  $M[f; I]$  and  $m[f; I]$  by

$$M[f; I] = \sup_{x \in I} f(x)$$
$$m[f; I] = \inf_{x \in I} f(x)$$

**Definition 7.2B** A **subdivision** of the closed bounded interval  $[a, b]$  we mean a finite subset  $\{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  of  $[a, b]$  such that

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n = b.$$

If  $\sigma$  and  $\tau$  are two subdivisions of  $[a, b]$ , we say that  $\tau$  is a **refinement** of  $\sigma$  if  $\sigma \subset \tau$ .

If  $\sigma = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  is a subdivision of  $[a, b]$ , then the closed intervals

$$I_1 = [x_0, x_1], \quad I_2 = [x_1, x_2], \quad \dots \quad I_n = [x_{n-1}, x_n]$$

are called the **components** of  $\sigma$ .

**Definition 7.2C** Let  $f$  be a bounded function on  $[a, b]$  and let  $\sigma$  be a subdivision of  $[a, b]$  with components  $I_1, I_2, \dots, I_n$ . We define  $U[f; \sigma]$ , called the **upper sum for  $f$  corresponding to  $\sigma$** , by

$$U[f; \sigma] = \sum_{k=1}^n M[f; I_k] |I_k|.$$

Here  $|I_k|$  is the length of  $I_k$  which is given by  $|I_k| = x_k - x_{k-1}$ .

The **lower sum for  $f$  corresponding to  $\sigma$** , denoted by  $L[f; \sigma]$  is defined by

$$L[f; \sigma] = \sum_{k=1}^n m[f; I_k] |I_k|.$$

**Remarks.** 1) For any subdivision  $\sigma$  we have  $L[f; \sigma] \leq U[f; \sigma]$

2) If  $f$  is continuous and positive on  $[a, b]$ , then  $U[f; \sigma]$  is the area of the  $n$  rectangles each of which has one the  $I_k$  as base and whose height is equal to the maximum value of the function on the interval  $I_k$ . In other words,  $U[f; \sigma]$  is the sum of the areas of the "circumscribed rectangles". Similarly,  $L[f; \sigma]$  is the sum of the area of the "inscribed rectangles". (Draw a graph to show this)

**Lemma 7.2D** Let  $f$  be a bounded function on  $[a, b]$ . Then every upper sum for  $f$  is greater than or equal to every lower sum for  $f$ . That is, if  $\tau$  and  $\sigma$  are any two subdivisions of  $[a, b]$ , then

$$U[f; \sigma] \geq L[f; \tau].$$

**Remarks.** 1) It follows that

$$g.l.b U[f; \tau] \geq l.u.b L[f; \sigma]$$

where the g.l.b and the l.u.b are taken over all subdivisions of  $[a, b]$ . (This assumption will be in effect throughout the chapter.)

**Definition 7.2E** Let  $f$  be a bounded function on  $[a, b]$ . We define the **upper integral of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$**  by

$$\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = g.l.b U[f; \tau]$$

We define the **lower integral of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$**  by

$$\underline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = l.u.b L[f; \tau]$$

It is common to denote upper integrals and lower integrals of  $f$ , respectively, by

$$\overline{\int_a^b} f \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{\int_a^b} f.$$

**Remarks.** 1) For any bounded function  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  we have

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

For continuous functions, we will show that upper integral and lower integrals are equal.

2) If  $f$  is defined on  $[0, 1]$  by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \text{ is rational} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational,} \end{cases}$$

then

$$\overline{\int_0^1} f = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \underline{\int_0^1} f = 0.$$

**Definition 7.2F** If  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$ , we say that  $f$  is **Riemann integrable on**  $[a, b]$  if

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

In this case, we define the **Riemann integral of  $f$  over**  $[a, b]$  as

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f = \underline{\int_a^b f} \leq \overline{\int_a^b f}.$$

The class of all Riemann integrable functions is denoted by  $\mathcal{R}[a, b]$

**Theorem 7.2G** Let  $f$  be a bounded function on  $[a, b]$ . Then  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  if and only if, for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a subdivision  $\sigma$  of  $[a, b]$  such that

$$U[f; \sigma] < L[f; \sigma] + \epsilon.$$

### 7.3 Existence of the Riemann Integral

**Theorem 7.3A** Let  $f$  be a bounded function on  $[a, b]$ . Then  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  if and only if  $f$  is continuous at almost every point of  $[a, b]$ .

### 7.4 Properties of the Riemann Integral

**Theorem 7.4 A** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  and  $a < c < b$ , then  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, c]$ ,  $f \in \mathcal{R}[c, b]$  and

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

**Theorem 7.4B** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  and  $\lambda$  is any real number, then  $\lambda f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  and

$$\int_a^b \lambda f = \lambda \int_a^b f.$$

**Theorem 7.4C** If  $f, g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ , then  $f + g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  and

$$\int_a^b (f + g) = \int_a^b f + \int_a^b g.$$

**Lemma 7.4D** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  and if

$$f(x) \geq 0$$

almost everywhere in  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\int_a^b f \geq 0.$$

**Corollary 7.4E** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  and if

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

almost everywhere in  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\int_a^b f \geq \int_a^b g.$$

**Corollary 7.4F** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ , then  $|f| \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$  and

$$\left| \int_a^b f \right| \leq \int_a^b |f|.$$

**Remark** If  $b < a$ , then we define

$$\int_a^b f \quad \text{to be} \quad - \int_b^a f.$$

## 7.5 Derivative

**Definition 7.5A** Let  $f$  be defined on an interval  $J$ . If  $c \in J$ , we say that  $f$  has a derivative at  $c$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$

exists. If this limit exists, we denote it by  $f'(c)$ . We also say that  $f$  is **differentiable at  $c$** . We may also say that  $f'(c)$  **exists**. Note that the above limit could be restated as

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h}$$

**Theorem 7.5B** If  $f$  has a derivative at  $c$ , then  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ .

**Remark** If  $f$  is not continuous at  $c$  then  $f$  is not differentiable at  $c$ . On the other hand, the function  $f(x) = |x|$  is continuous at  $c = 0$  but not differentiable at  $c = 0$ .

**Theorem 7.5 C** If  $f$  and  $g$  both have derivative at  $c$ , then do  $f + g$ ,  $f - g$ ,  $fg$ , and

$$\begin{aligned} (f + g)'(c) &= f'(c) + g'(c) \\ (f - g)'(c) &= f'(c) - g'(c) \\ (fg)'(c) &= f'(c)g(c) + f(c)g'(c) \end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, if  $g(c) \neq 0$ , then  $f/g$  has derivative at  $c$  and

$$\left( \frac{f}{g} \right)'(c) = \frac{f'(c)g(c) - f(c)g'(c)}{g(c)^2}.$$

**Theorem 7.5 D(Chain Rule)** If  $g$  has derivative at  $c$  and  $f$  has derivative at  $g(c)$ , then  $f \circ g$  has derivative at  $c$  and

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

**Theorem 7.5 E** Let  $f$  be one-to-one function and let  $\phi$  be the inverse of  $f$ . If  $f$  is continuous at  $c$  and if  $\phi$  has derivative at  $d = f(c)$  with  $\phi'(d) \neq 0$ , then  $f'(c)$  exists and

$$f'(c) = \frac{1}{\phi'(d)}.$$

## 7.6 Rolle's Theorem

**Theorem 7.6 A** Let  $f$  be a continuous function on  $[a, b]$ . If the maximum value of  $f$  is attained at  $c \in (a, b)$  and if  $f'(c)$  exists, then  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Theorem 7.6 B** Let  $f$  be a continuous function on  $[a, b]$ . If the minimum value of  $f$  is attained at  $c \in (a, b)$  and if  $f'(c)$  exists, then  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Theorem 7.6 C (Rolle's Theorem)** Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  with  $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ . If  $f'(x)$  exists for every  $x \in (a, b)$ , then there exists some point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Theorem 7.6 E** If  $f$  has derivative at every point of  $[a, b]$ , then  $f'$  takes on every value between  $f'(a)$  and  $f'(b)$ .

## 7.7 The Mean Value Theorem

**Theorem 7.7 A (The Mean Value Theorem)** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then there exists a point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

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

**Theorem 7.7 B** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$  and if  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is strictly increasing on  $[a, b]$ .

**Theorem 7.7 C (Generalized Mean Value Theorem)** If  $f, g$  are continuous on  $[a, b]$ ,  $g(a) \neq g(b)$ , if  $f, g$  are both differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , and if  $f'(x)$  and  $g'(x)$  are not both zero for any  $x \in (a, b)$ , then there exists a point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

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

## 7.8 The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

**Theorem 7.8 A (The First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus)** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , and if

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt,$$

for each  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $F'(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

**Theorem 7.8 C** If  $f'(x) = 0$  for every  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f(x) = f(a)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

**Theorem 7.8 D** If  $f'(x) = g'(x)$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , then there exists a constant  $C$  such that

$$f(x) = g(x) + C \quad \text{for all } x \in [a, b].$$

**Theorem 7.8 E (The Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus )** If  $f$  is a continuous function on  $[a, b]$  and if

$$\Phi'(x) = f(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in (a, b),$$

then

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

**Theorem 7.8 G** Let  $\phi$  be a function on  $[a, b]$  such that  $\phi'$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Let  $A = \phi(a)$  and  $B = \phi(b)$ . Then, if  $f$  is continuous on  $\phi([a, b])$ , we have

$$\int_A^B f(x) dx = \int_a^b f[\phi(u)]\phi'(u) du.$$

## 7.9 Improper Integral

**Definition** Suppose  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, s]$  for every  $s > a$ . We define

$$F(s) = \int_a^s f(x) dx.$$

We say

$$\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$$

is convergent to  $A$  if

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} F(s) = A$$

If  $\int_a^\infty f(x) dx$  does not converge, we say it **diverges**.

**Example**

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} dx \quad \text{converges while} \quad \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx \quad \text{diverges.}$$

**Remark.** If

$$\int_a^\infty f \quad \text{and} \quad \int_a^\infty g$$

converge, then so does

$$\int_a^\infty (f \pm g),$$

and

$$\int_a^\infty (f \pm g) = \int_a^\infty f \pm \int_a^\infty g$$

We also have

$$\int_a^\infty \lambda f = \lambda \int_a^\infty f.$$

**Definition** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, s]$  for every  $s > a$  and if

$$\int_a^\infty |f(x)| dx$$

converges, we say that

$$\int_a^\infty f$$

**converges absolutely**

If

$$\int_a^\infty f$$

converges but

$$\int_a^\infty |f|$$

diverges, we say that **converges conditionally**.

**Example** The improper integral

$$\int_\pi^\infty \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$$

converges conditionally. (For the proof see page 213-214 of the text.)

**Theorem 7.9 A** The improper integral

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x} dx$$

diverges.

**Theorem 7.9 B** Let  $f$  be a decreasing function on  $[1, \infty]$  such that  $f(x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$ . Then

$$\int_1^\infty f$$

converges if and only if

$$\sum_{n=1}^\infty f(n)$$

converges.

**Definition** We define

$$\int_{-\infty}^a f(x) dx = \lim_{s \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-s}^a f(x) dx$$

provided the limit exists. If the limit exists we say

$$\int_{-\infty}^a f$$

converges and if the limit does not exist, we say the

$$\int_{-\infty}^a f$$

diverges.

## 7.10 Improper Integral (Continued)

**Defintion** Suppose  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a + \epsilon, b]$  for every  $\epsilon$  such that  $0 < \epsilon < b - a$  but  $f \notin \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ . Define

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

We say the **improper integral**

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

**converges** to  $A$  if

$$\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} F(\epsilon) = A.$$

If the limit does not exist, we say

$$\int_a^b f$$

**divegres.**

An improper integral of the form

$$\int_a^b f$$

is called an **improper intgeral of second kind.**

**Example**

$$\int_0^1 (1/\sqrt{x}) dx \quad \text{converges while} \quad \int_0^1 (1/x^2) dx \quad \text{diverges.}$$

**Theorem 7.10 A** The improper intgeral

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x}$$

is divergent.

**Example** Show that the improper intgeral

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$$

is convergenet.

**Remrak** There are other types of improper integrals that do not fall under either of the first or the second kind. For example, the improper integral

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x^2}$$

is neither of fisrt kind or secon kind. Hoeweever, we can break it up in the form

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x^2} = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} + \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{x^2}.$$

In general if, for a fixed  $b > a$ ,  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a + \epsilon, b]$  for every  $\epsilon$  such that  $0 < \epsilon < b - a$  but  $f \notin \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ , we define

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