

$f$  has a derivative of order  $m-1$  on  $I$ , i.e.,  
 $f^{(m-1)}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  exists (we define  $f^{(0)} := f$ ).

If  $f^{(m-1)}$  is differentiable at  $\xi \in I$ , we say that  
 $f$  is  $m$ -times differentiable at  $\xi$  and call

$f^{(m)}(\xi) := (f^{(m-1)})'(\xi)$  the derivative of order  $m$   
of  $f$  at  $\xi$ . If  $f^{(m)}(\xi)$  exists at every  $\xi \in I$ ,  
 we say that  $f$  is  $m$ -times differentiable on  $I$   
 and call  $f^{(m)}: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  its derivative of order  $m$   
on  $I$ .

Moreover, we define

$$C_m(I) := \{ f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : f \text{ is } m\text{-times differentiable} \\ \text{on } I \text{ and } f^{(m)} \text{ is continuous on } I \}$$

"set of  $m$ -times continuously differentiable  
 functions on  $I$ ",

$$C_\infty(I) := \bigcap_{m=0}^{\infty} C_m(I) \quad \text{"set of smooth} \\ \text{functions on } I \text{"}$$

Remarks i) We have  $f^{(0)} = f$ ,  $f^{(1)} = f'$ ,  $f^{(2)} = f''$ .

ii)  $C_0(I)$  is the set of continuous functions  
 on  $I$ .

Definition. Let  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   $n$ -times differentiable on  $I$ , for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , and let  $x_0 \in I$ . Then

$$T_n(x) := \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} f^{(k)}(x_0) (x-x_0)^k$$

is the  $n$ -th-order Taylor polynomial of  $f$  centered at  $x_0$ .

Theorem 42. (Taylor's Theorem).

Let  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be  $(m+1)$ -times differentiable on  $I$  for some  $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , and let  $x_0 \in I$  and  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Then for  $x \in I$  we have  $f(x) = T_m(x) + R_m(x)$ ,

where the remainder is given by

$$R_m(x) = \frac{1}{m!p} f^{(m+1)}(x_0 + v(x-x_0)) (1-v)^{m+1-p} (x-x_0)^{m+1}$$

for some  $v = v(x, x_0, m, p) \in (0, 1)$ .

Proof. Let  $x, x_0 \in I$  with  $x \neq x_0$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{N}_0$  and  $p \in \mathbb{N}$ .

We define for  $t \in I$

$$G(t) := f(x) - \sum_{k=0}^m \frac{1}{k!} f^{(k)}(t) (x-t)^k, \quad g(t) := (x-t)^p.$$

$$\Rightarrow G(x) = g(x) = 0, \quad G(x_0) = R_m(x),$$

$$G'(t) = -\frac{1}{m!} f^{(m+1)}(t) (x-t)^m, \quad g'(t) = -p(x-t)^{p-1}.$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{R_n(x)}{(x-x_0)^p} = \frac{R_n(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{-G'(x_0)}{-g'(x_0)} = \frac{G'(x) - G'(x_0)}{g(x) - g(x_0)}$$

$$\stackrel{\text{Thm 39}}{=} \frac{G'(\xi)}{g'(\xi)} \quad \text{for some } \xi \text{ between } x_0 \text{ and } x,$$

which we write as  $\xi = x_0 + v(x-x_0)$  for some  $v \in (0,1)$ .

$$\Rightarrow \frac{R_n(x)}{(x-x_0)^p} = \frac{-f^{(n+1)}(x_0 + v(x-x_0)) (x-x_0 - v(x-x_0))^n}{-n! p (x-x_0 - v(x-x_0))^{p-1}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n! p} f^{(n+1)}(x_0 + v(x-x_0)) (1-v)^{n+1-p} (x-x_0)^{n+1-p}. \quad \square$$

As an application of Taylor's Theorem we obtain the following sufficient condition for local extrema.

Theorem 43. Let  $f \in C_2(a,b)$  and suppose that  $\xi \in (a,b)$  with  $f'(\xi) = 0$  and  $f''(\xi) \neq 0$ .

Then  $f$  has a local maximum at  $\xi$  if  $f''(\xi) < 0$ , and  $f$  has a local minimum at  $\xi$  if  $f''(\xi) > 0$ .

Proof. Applying Thm 42 with  $m=1$ ,  $p=2$ ,  $x_0 = \xi$  to  $f$ , gives us

$$f(x) = f(\xi) + f'(\xi)(x-\xi) + \frac{1}{2} f''(\xi + v(x-\xi)) (x-\xi)^2$$

$$= f(\xi) + \frac{1}{2} f''(\xi + v(x-\xi)) (x-\xi)^2 \quad \text{for some } v \in (0,1).$$

As  $f''$  is continuous and  $\neq 0$  at  $\xi$ , we find

a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $f''(\xi + v(x - \xi)) < 0$ ,  $x \in \mathcal{U}_\delta(\xi)$ ,  
 if  $f''(\xi) < 0$ , and  $f''(\xi + v(x - \xi)) > 0$ ,  $x \in \mathcal{U}_\delta(\xi)$ ,  
 if  $f''(\xi) > 0$ .  $\square$

Another application of Taylor's Theorem leads to power series representations of  $C^\infty$ -functions.

Definition. Let  $f \in C^\infty(a, b)$ , where  $-\infty \leq a < b \leq \infty$ , and let  $x_0 \in (a, b)$ . The power series

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} f^{(k)}(x_0) (x - x_0)^k$$

is called the Taylor series of  $f$  centered at  $x_0$ .

Moreover, the function  $f$  is real-analytic at  $x_0$  if there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} f^{(k)}(x_0) (x - x_0)^k, \quad x \in \mathcal{U}_\delta(x_0).$$

Remark. A function  $f \in C^\infty(a, b)$  is real-analytic

at  $x_0 \in (a, b) \iff f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n(x)$  on  $\mathcal{U}_\delta(x_0)$ ,

where  $T_n(x)$  is the Taylor polynomial of  $n$ -th order of  $f$  centered at  $x_0$ .

Examples. i) Not every smooth function is real-analytic: Consider  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-1/x^2}, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{and } x_0 = 0.$$

It is not difficult to show that  $f \in C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$  with  $f^{(k)}(0) = 0$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$ , so that

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} f^{(k)}(0) x^k = 0 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ while } f(x) \neq 0 \text{ for } x \neq 0.$$

ii) Let  $f: (-1, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = \log(1+x)$ , and  $x_0 = 0$ .

$$\text{Then } f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}, f''(x) = \frac{-1}{(1+x)^2}, f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{(-1)^2 \cdot 2}{(1+x)^3}.$$

$$\Rightarrow f^{(k)}(x) = \frac{(-1)^{k-1} (k-1)!}{(1+x)^k}, k \geq 1, \Rightarrow f \in C^\infty((-1, \infty))$$

$$\Rightarrow f^{(k)}(0) = (-1)^{k-1} (k-1)!, k \geq 1.$$

We show that  $f$  is real-analytic. To this end, we

write  $f(x) = T_m(x) + R_m(x)$  with

$$T_m(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m \frac{1}{k!} f^{(k)}(0) x^k = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k} x^k.$$

$0 \leq x \leq 1$ : From Thm 42 with  $p = m+1$  we obtain

$$|R_m(x)| = \left| \frac{1}{(m+1)!} f^{(m+1)}(\sigma x) x^{m+1} \right| = \frac{1}{m+1} \left( \frac{x}{1+\sigma x} \right)^{m+1} \rightarrow 0, m \rightarrow \infty.$$

$-1 < x < 0$ : From Thm 42 with  $p = 1$  we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} |R_m(x)| &= \left| \frac{1}{m!} f^{(m+1)}(\sigma x) (1-\sigma)^m x^{m+1} \right| \\ &= \underbrace{\left( \frac{1-\sigma}{1+\sigma x} \right)^m}_{\in (0,1)} \frac{|x|^{m+1}}{1+\sigma x} \rightarrow 0, m \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$  For  $x \in (-1, 1]$  we have

$$\log(1+x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k} x^k \quad \text{"Mercator series"}$$

In particular:  $\log 2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k-1}}{k}$ .

iii) Let  $f: (-1, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = (1+x)^\alpha$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  fixed.

Then, by a similar reasoning as in ii), we can show that for  $x \in (-1, 1)$

$$(1+x)^\alpha = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \binom{\alpha}{k} x^k, \quad \text{"Binomial series"}$$

where  $\binom{\alpha}{k} := \frac{1}{k!} f^{(k)}(0) = \frac{1}{k!} \alpha(\alpha-1)\cdots(\alpha-k+1)$ .

# Chapter 5. Integration

Integration evolved over centuries from geometric and physical considerations related to the determination of areas and volumes.

Definition. Let  $[a, b]$ ,  $a < b$ , be a compact interval.

By a partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  we mean a set of points  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_m$  with  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_m = b$ .

Suppose  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a bounded function.

We define

$$M_i := \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x), \quad m_i := \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x), \quad i = 1, \dots, m,$$

$$U(P, f) := \sum_{i=1}^m M_i (x_i - x_{i-1}), \quad L(P, f) := \sum_{i=1}^m m_i (x_i - x_{i-1}),$$

"upper sum"

"lower sum"

and

$$\int_a^b * f(x) dx := \inf \{ U(P, f) : P \text{ is partition of } [a, b] \},$$

"upper Riemann integral"

$$\int_a^b * f(x) dx := \sup \{ L(P, f) : P \text{ is partition of } [a, b] \},$$

"lower Riemann integral"

If  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b {}^* f(x) dx$ , then we say that the function  $f$  is Riemann-integrable on  $[a, b]$  and the Riemann-integral of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  is defined as

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx := \int_a^b {}^* f(x) dx.$$

Moreover, we define the set

$$\mathcal{Q}([a, b]) := \{ f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : f \text{ is Riemann-integrable} \}$$

and introduce the conventions

$$\int_a^a f(x) dx := 0, \quad \int_b^a f(x) dx = - \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad (a < b).$$

Remarks. i) For every bounded function  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

we have  $\int_a^b {}^* f(x) dx, \int_a^b f(x) dx \in \mathbb{R}$

and  $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b {}^* f(x) dx$ .

ii) Not every bounded function is Riemann-integrable, e.g., consider  $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} 1, & x \in \mathbb{Q} \cap [0, 1] \\ 0, & \text{else} \end{cases}, \quad \text{then we have}$$

$$\int_0^1 {}^* f(x) dx = 1 \quad \text{but} \quad \int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0.$$

iii) It is not important which letter we choose

to represent the variable of integration:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(t) dt = \int_a^b f(\alpha) d\alpha = \dots$$

Example. Let  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \gamma_1, & x = a \\ c, & a < x < b \\ \gamma_2, & x = b \end{cases}$ ,

where  $\gamma_1, \gamma_2$  and  $c$  are fixed real constants.

For any partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} U(P, f) &= \max\{\gamma_1, c\} (x_1 - a) + \sum_{i=2}^{m-1} c (x_i - x_{i-1}) + \max\{\gamma_2, c\} (b - x_{m-1}) \\ &= \max\{\gamma_1, c\} (x_1 - a) + c (x_{m-1} - x_1) + \max\{\gamma_2, c\} (b - x_{m-1}) \end{aligned}$$

As  $x_1$  can be chosen arbitrarily close to  $a$ , and  $x_{m-1}$  can be chosen arbitrarily close to  $b$ , we obtain

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq c(b-a). \text{ Similarly, we obtain}$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \geq c(b-a), \text{ which shows that } f \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$$

$$\text{with } \int_a^b f(x) dx = c(b-a).$$

Definition. Let  $P$  and  $P^*$  be partitions of  $[a, b]$ .

We say that  $P^*$  is a refinement of  $P$  if every point of  $P$  is a point of  $P^*$ .

Given two partitions  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  of  $[a, b]$ , we

call  $P^* = P_1 \cup P_2$  their common refinement.

Theorem 44. Let  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be bounded, and let  $P, P^*$  be partitions of  $[a, b]$  such that  $P^*$  is a refinement of  $P$ . Then

$$L(P, f) \leq L(P^*, f) \text{ and } U(P^*, f) \leq U(P, f).$$

Proof. We only show the first inequality. To this end, it is sufficient to consider the case that  $P^*$  contains just one point more than  $P$ . Let this point be  $x^*$  and suppose that  $x^* \in (x_{j-1}, x_j)$ , where  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$  are the points of  $P$ .

Then we have

$$m_j = \inf_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]} f(x) \leq \min \left\{ \inf_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x^*]} f(x), \inf_{x \in [x^*, x_j]} f(x) \right\},$$

$$\text{and thus } L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i (x_i - x_{i-1})$$

$$= \sum_{\substack{i=1 \\ i \neq j}}^n m_i (x_i - x_{i-1}) + \underbrace{m_j (x_j - x^*)}_{\leq \inf_{x \in [x^*, x_j]} f(x) (x_j - x^*)} + \underbrace{m_j (x^* - x_{j-1})}_{\leq \inf_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x^*]} f(x) (x^* - x_{j-1})}$$

$$\leq L(P^*, f). \quad \square$$

Theorem 45 Let  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be bounded. Then we have  $f \in \mathcal{R}([a, b])$  if and only if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$  such that

$$U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \varepsilon.$$