

MATH3210 - SPRING 2022 - SECTION 001

CHAPTERS 5 AND 6 - REVIEW SHEET

HOW TO USE THIS REVIEW SHEET

On the exam or problems, you may use any of the definitions and theorems stated on the review sheet, *unless you are explicitly asked to prove a theorem listed here*. Any unnamed theorem you may use without citing. If you use a named theorem, cite that theorem by name when invoking its conclusions. Please don't hesitate to ask questions. I've proofread this, but typos may still lurk!

1. INTEGRATION

Definition 1. Let $I = [a, b]$ be a closed interval. A *partition* of I is a finite set $\mathcal{P} = \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n = b\}$, which are thought of as "cut points" for breaking up I into smaller subintervals. If \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} are partitions, we say that \mathcal{P} is refined by \mathcal{Q} , or that \mathcal{Q} refines \mathcal{P} , if $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{Q}$ (ie, \mathcal{Q} cuts up the interval at the points of \mathcal{P} , and maybe more).

Definition 2. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function, and \mathcal{P} be a partition of $[a, b]$. Then define

$$U(f, \mathcal{P}) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} M_k(x_{k+1} - x_k), \quad \text{where } M_k = \sup_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} f(x)$$
$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} m_k(x_{k+1} - x_k), \quad \text{where } m_k = \inf_{x \in [x_k, x_{k+1}]} f(x)$$

$U(f, \mathcal{P})$ and $L(f, \mathcal{P})$ are the *upper and lower sum approximations* for f . Then define

$$\int_a^b f dx = \inf_{\mathcal{P}} U(f, \mathcal{P}) \quad \int_a^b f dx = \sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(f, \mathcal{P})$$

We say that f is *integrable* if $\int_a^b f dx = \int_a^b f dx$

Theorem 1. Let $I = [a, b]$, \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{Q} be partitions of I such that \mathcal{Q} refines \mathcal{P} , and $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function. Then

$$L(f, \mathcal{P}) \leq L(f, \mathcal{Q}) \leq \int_a^b f dx \leq \int_a^b f dx \leq U(f, \mathcal{Q}) \leq U(f, \mathcal{P}).$$

Theorem 2. Let $I = [a, b]$ and $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a bounded function. The following are equivalent:

- f is integrable
- For any $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a partition \mathcal{P} of I such that $U(f, \mathcal{P}) - L(f, \mathcal{P}) < \varepsilon$
- There exists a sequence of partitions \mathcal{P}_n of I such that $U(f, \mathcal{P}_n) - L(f, \mathcal{P}_n) \rightarrow 0$
- There exists a real number A and a sequence of partitions \mathcal{P}_n of I such that $U(f, \mathcal{P}_n) \rightarrow A$ and $L(f, \mathcal{P}_n) \rightarrow A$.

Theorem 3. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is monotone (either increasing or decreasing), then f is integrable.

Theorem 4. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, then f is integrable.

The following theorem is informally stated and has more precise statements in the book. It is important to understand when you can use it, but the formal statements are less important:

Theorem 5.

- Integration is linear (ie, $\int f + g = \int f + \int g$, and $\int cf = c \int f$ whenever f and g are integrable, and $c \in \mathbb{R}$).
- Integration is order-preserving (ie, if f and g are integrable and $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all x , then $\int f \leq \int g$).
- u -substitution and integration by parts are valid integration techniques and can be phrased as formal identities.
- If f is integrable on $[a, b]$, f is integrable on any subinterval.
- Integrals may be split up along intermediate break points (ie, $\int_a^b f = \int_a^c f + \int_c^b f$).

Theorem 6 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus I). *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function such that f' exists and is integrable on (a, b) . Then*

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

Theorem 7 (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus II). *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be integrable, and define $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$. Then F is uniformly continuous on $[a, b]$, and differentiable wherever f is continuous. In fact, if f is continuous at $x \in (a, b)$, then $F'(x) = f(x)$.*

2. INFINITE SUMS AND POWER SERIES

Definition 3. A *series* is an expression of the form $\sum_{k=\ell}^{\infty} a_k$, where $\{a_k\}$ a sequence. ℓ is called the *starting index*, and is usually $\ell = 0$ or $\ell = 1$. A series has an associated sequence of *partial sums* $s_n = \sum_{k=\ell}^n a_k$. We say that the series

- *converges* if the sequence of partial sums s_n converges
- *converges absolutely* if the sequence $s_n^+ = \sum_{k=\ell}^n |a_k|$ converges
- *converges conditionally* if it converges, but does not converge absolutely

Theorem 8 (Term test). *If a series $\sum_{k=\ell}^{\infty} a_k$ converges, then $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = 0$.*

Theorem 9 (Comparison test). *Let b_k be a sequence of positive numbers.*

- *If $\sum_{k=\ell}^{\infty} b_k$ converges, $\{a_k\}$ and $K \in \mathbb{N}$ are such that $|a_k| \leq b_k$ for every $k \geq K$, then $\sum_{k=\ell}^{\infty} a_k$ converges absolutely.*
- *If $\sum_{k=\ell}^{\infty} b_k$ diverges and a_k is a sequence such that $a_k \geq b_k$ for all k , then $\sum_{k=\ell}^{\infty} a_k$ diverges.*

Theorem 10 (Integral test). *Let $f : [1, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a decreasing, positive function and $a_n = f(n)$, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges if and only if $\lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^T f(t) dt$ converges.*

Definition 4. If $\{f_k\}$ is a sequence of functions defined on a common interval I , the series associated to f_k is the expression $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k$. We say that $g_n = \sum_{k=1}^n f_k$ is the sequence of partial sums, and that the series

- converges (pointwise) if for every $x \in I$, $g_n(x)$ converges
- converges uniformly if g_n converges uniformly

Each of these two modes has the associated notions of pointwise, absolute convergence (if $g_n^+(x) := \sum_{k=1}^n |f_k(x)|$ converges to a function) and uniform, absolute convergence (if g_n^+ converges uniformly).

Theorem 11. If $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k$ converges uniformly to a function F , then $\int_a^b F(x) dx = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_a^b f_k(x) dx$.

Definition 5. If c_k is a sequence of real numbers, the power series associated to c_k centered at $a \in \mathbb{R}$ is the series $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k(x-a)^k$. The *radius of convergence* of f is defined to be

$$R = \left(\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} |c_k|^{1/k} \right)^{-1}.$$

Theorem 12. A power series converges absolutely to an infinitely differentiable function on the interval $(a-R, a+R)$, where R is its radius of convergence. Furthermore, the convergence is uniform on any closed interval $[b, c] \subset (a-R, a+R)$. We also have that:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k c_k (x-a)^{k-1} \\ \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_k}{k+1} (b-a)^{k+1} \end{aligned}$$

Finally, $f^{(k)}(x) = k! \cdot c_k$.

Theorem 13. Let $f : (a-R, a+R) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be $(n+1)$ -times differentiable, and

$$p_n(x) := \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k$$

be the n th order Taylor approximation. Then for every $x \in (a-R, a+R)$, there exists c between a and x such that

$$f(x) = p_n(x) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x-a)^{n+1}.$$