

Last time:

$f^{(n)}(x)$ exist $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$
 $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

- Assume $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a smooth function. (C^∞)

Then for any $N \geq 0$ integer, $\forall x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

N -th order Taylor expansion:

$$P_{x_0, N}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n.$$

the unique degree ($\leq N$) polynomial, such that

$$P^{(k)}(x_0) = f^{(k)}(x_0) \quad \forall k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

- Taylor Theorem:

$$f(x) - P_{x_0, N}(x) = \underbrace{\frac{f^{(N+1)}(\xi)}{(N+1)!} (x - x_0)^{N+1}}_{\text{Remainder term.}}$$

here, the derivative is evaluated at ξ .

ξ is a point between x and x_0 .

$$\left(\begin{array}{l} x < \xi < x_0, \text{ or} \\ x_0 < \xi < x \end{array} \right)$$

Today: Taylor Series ($N \rightarrow \infty$). of f at x_0 .

$$P_{x_0}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n.$$

warning: ① given an input $x \in \mathbb{R}$, the series may not be convergent

② even if the series is convergent, ^{for $x \in \mathbb{R}$} it may not equal to $f(x)$.

Power series: series of the form: $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n \cdot (x - x_0)^n$

- Radius of convergence R :

$R = \sup \{ r \geq 0, \text{ s.t. if } |x - x_0| \leq r, \text{ the}$

series converges. }.

it may ~~app~~ happen that the series is convergent only for $x = x_0$, then $R = 0$.

or ~~the~~ the series converges for all x , then $R = \infty$.

Theorem (3.xx. Rudin) ^{section "power series"}

Let $\alpha = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |C_n|^{\frac{1}{n}}$. Let $R = \frac{1}{\alpha}$.

Then • if $|x - x_0| < R$, the series converges.

• if $|x - x_0| > R$, the series diverges.

Pf: Use root test for convergences.

If $|x - x_0| < R$, then for $\sum C_n (x - x_0)^n$,

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |C_n (x - x_0)^n|^{\frac{1}{n}} = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} (|C_n|^{\frac{1}{n}} \cdot |x - x_0|)$$

$$= |x - x_0| \cdot \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} |C_n|^{\frac{1}{n}} = \frac{|x - x_0|}{R} < 1.$$

$\therefore$ convergent by root test.

The divergent case is exercise.

#

Ex: (1). $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$. Taylor expansion at $x=0$.

instead of computing $f^{(n)}(0)$, we use

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots$$

$$\forall |x| < 1.$$

(if $x=1$, LHS = $\frac{1}{0}$, RHS = $1+1+1+\dots$, neither side is a real number.

if $x=-1$, LHS = $\frac{1}{2}$, RHS = $1-1+1-1+\dots$ not convergent.)

• Since RHS is valid in a neighborhood of $x=0$,
 $\therefore$ this is the Taylor expansion around $x=0$.

• Taylor expand around $x_0 = -1$, we can define,

$$u = x - x_0 = x + 1, \quad \text{then} \quad x = u - 1.$$

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \frac{1}{1-(u-1)} = \frac{1}{2-u} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1-\frac{u}{2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(1 + \frac{u}{2} + \left(\frac{u}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{u}{2}\right)^3 + \dots \right)$$

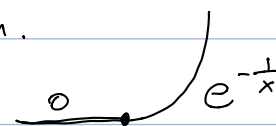
for $|\frac{u}{2}| < 1$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} (x-x_0) + \frac{1}{2^3} (x-x_0)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} (x-x_0)^n + \dots$$

$x_0 = -1$.

Ex 2: • Let $\varphi(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq 0 \\ e^{-\frac{1}{x}} & x > 0. \end{cases}$ smooth.

$$\varphi^{(n)}(0) = 0, \quad \forall n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$



• Taylor series of φ at $x=0$ is

$$P_{x_0}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi^{(n)}(0)}{n!} (x)^n = 0. \neq \varphi(x).$$

• In general, if $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} C_n (x-x_0)^n$ for $|x-x_0| < R$.

then $f(x) = \varphi(x-x_0)$, would have the same Taylor series at x_0 .

Def: A smooth function $f: (a,b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is

real analytic, if $\forall x_0 \in (a,b)$, $f(x) = \sum_n C_n \cdot (x-x_0)^n$

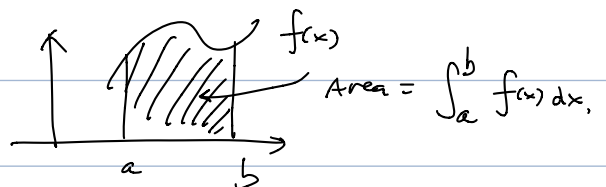
for x in some neighborhood of x_0 .

Prop: In fact, near x_0 , $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x-x_0)^n$.

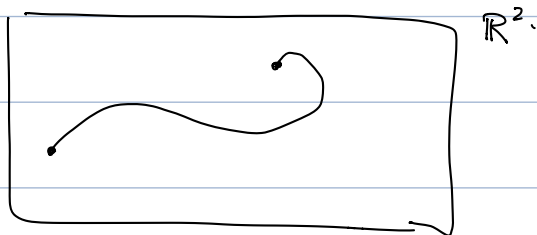
• Riemann - Stieltjes integral. (another useful notion)
Lebesgue integral.

- Motivation: compute the area of certain irregular shape. e.g. area of a disk.

area underneath a curve



- compute the length of a curve.



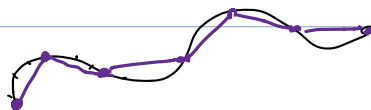
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Method: use approximation by nice regular objects, and then take limit.

Example (when approximation fails, i.e. limit does not exist):

- (1) length of a curve.

- sample points on the curve and approximate the curve by



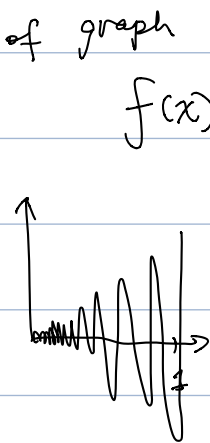
segments.

- Hope the total length of the segments converge as "more sampling points" are taken.

- Fractal curve. (Mandelbrot set)
- space filling curve of a square.

- or, the length. $f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x=0 \\ x \cdot \sin(\frac{1}{x^2}) & x > 0. \end{cases}$

$x \in [0, 1]$



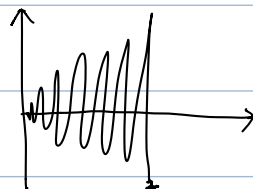
continuous

length of the graph $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + f'(x)^2} dx$.

$$\begin{aligned} x > 0. \quad f'(x) &= \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) + x \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{x^3}\right) \cos\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \\ &= \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) - \frac{1}{x^2} \cdot \cos\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right). \end{aligned}$$

near $x=0$, $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} \left| \cos\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \right| dx$ not convergent.

(2). $\int_0^1 x \cdot \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) dx = ?$ does it make sense?

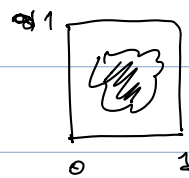


$$\int_0^1 x \left(2 + \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \right) dx < \int_0^1 x \cdot 3 dx$$

✓

Ans: yes.
 $\int_a^b f dx$
 exists, if
 f is continuous on
 $[a, b]$.

$$\int_0^1 x \cdot 1 \, dx$$

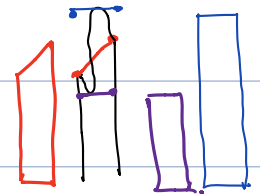
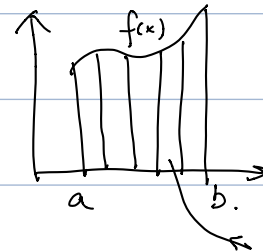


$$S \subset [0,1]^2$$

$$\text{Area}(S) = ?$$

• Roughly speaking:

- cut the area under the graph of f into thin stripes.



- approximate each strip by something regular

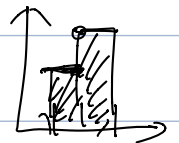
- then take limit as we use more & more stripes.

• Def: A partition P of interval $[a, b]$, is

$$a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \leq x_3 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b.$$

We define $\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$. $i=1, \dots, n$.

- For Riemann-integral, we consider any $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that is bounded (not necessarily continuous).



- Given a bounded real valued function $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

given a partition $P = (a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_{n-1} \leq x_n = b)$.

we define

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \cdot \Delta x_i$$

$$M_i = \sup \{ f(x) \mid x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i] \}$$

$$\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}.$$

$$\bullet L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i$$

$$m_i = \inf \{ f(x) \mid x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i] \}$$

$\mathcal{P}$ ← curly font capital P

$$\bullet U(f) := \inf U(P, f)$$

$\mathcal{P}$: partition of $[a, b]$

also denoted as

$$\int_a^b f dx$$

$$L(f) := \sup_{\mathcal{P} \dots} L(P, f)$$

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

We say f is integrable, if $U(f) = L(f)$.

Simple facts: if $m \leq f(x) \leq M$, $\forall x \in [a, b]$,
then $\forall \mathcal{P}$ partition.

$$\underline{m} \cdot (b-a) \leq L(P, f) \leq U(P, f) \leq M(b-a)$$

• A generalization:

• Let $\alpha: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be
a monotone increasing function.

Riem. $\int f(x) dx$
Stieltjes replaces dx
by something
more general.

• Given a partition $P = \{a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b\}$
define $\Delta \alpha_i = \alpha(x_i) - \alpha(x_{i-1}) \geq 0$.

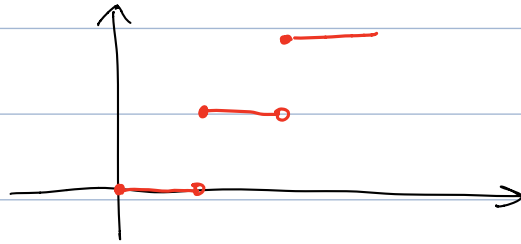
• Repeat the previous definitions, $\Delta x_i \mapsto \Delta \alpha_i$.

we get $\mathcal{U}(P, f, \alpha)$, $\mathcal{L}(f, \alpha)$. ---

If $\mathcal{U}(P, \alpha) = \mathcal{L}(P, \alpha)$, we say f is
Riemann - Stieltjes integrable w.r.t. α . Integral is
and write. $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$. $\int f(x) d\alpha(x)$.

Ex: (1) $\alpha(x) = x$, this reduces to Riemann integral.

(2) $\alpha(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$



then. if f is continuous. then.

$$\int f(x) d\alpha(x) = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} f(n).$$

we can talk about summation & integral in the
same framework.