

24/3/23

UNIT - 4

RIEMANN INTEGRATION [COND]

Rolle's theorem:

Theorem:

Let f be continuous real valued fun on closed bounded interval $[a, b]$. If maximum value for f is attained at c where $a < c < b$ and if $f'(c)$ exists then $f'(c) = 0$.

Proof:

Suppose the contrary i.e., $f'(c) \neq 0$.

If $f'(c) > 0$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = f'(c) > 0$

and so $\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} > 0$ for $0 < |x - c| < \delta_1$, where δ_1 is suitable possible no. $x \in [c, c + \delta_1]$ then $x - c > 0$ and hence $f(x) - f(c) > 0$

This contradicts the hypothesis, f attains maximum at c . If $f'(c) < 0$

Then $\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} < 0$ for $0 < |x - c| < \delta_2$

If $x \in [c - \delta_2, c]$ then $x - c < 0$ and hence

$$f(x) - f(c) > 0$$

which again contradiction

Hence, $f'(c) = 0$.

Rolle's theorem:

Statement:

Let f be continuous real valued fun on closed bounded interval $[a, b]$ with $f(a) = f(b) = 0$. If $f'(x)$ exist $\forall x$ in (a, b) then there is some point $c \in (a, b)$ where $f'(c) = 0$

Proof:

If f is identically zero on $[a, b]$ then theorem is obvious.

Let $f(x) \neq 0$ if $f(x) > 0$ for some $x \in (a, b)$ the maximum value of f on $[a, b]$ will not be attained at a (or) b .

Since $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ hence f will attain its maximum value at some $c \in (a, b)$.

By theorem,

Let f be continuous real valued fun on closed bounded interval $[a, b]$ if the maximum value for f is attained at c when $a < c < b$ & if $f'(c)$ exist then $f'(c) = 0$.

Hence $f'(c) = 0$

If $f(x) < 0$ for some x in (a, b) the minimum value of f in $[a, b]$ will not be attained at a (or) b .

Since $f(a) = f(b) = 0$

Hence f will attained minimum value at some $c \in (a, b)$.

$\therefore f'(c) = 0$.

Darbou's property:

If f has derivative at every point of $[a, b]$ then f' takes on every value b/w $f'(a)$ & $f'(b)$

Proof:

It is sufficient to consider case in which $f'(a) < f'(b)$. then if

$f'(a) < \gamma < f'(b)$ we must show that $\exists c \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(c) = \gamma$.

Let $g(x) = f(x) - \gamma x \quad (a \leq x \leq b)$

$g'(x) = f'(x) - \gamma \quad (a \leq x \leq b)$

Then since $g'(x)$ exist $\forall x \in [a, b]$ by theorem,

^e If real valued fun f has derivative at point $c \in R'$, then f is continuous at c .

Show that g is continuous on $[a, b]$

Hence by theorem,

^e If real valued fun f is continuous on closed bounded interval $[a, b]$ f attains max & min value at point of $[a, b]$.

g takes on mini value at some point $c \in [a, b]$.

But $g'(a) = f'(a) - \gamma < 0$ and so g cannot attain its mini value at a .

III^y Since $g'(b) = f'(b) - \gamma > 0$, g cannot attain its mini value at b .

Thus, $\exists a < c < b$ such that g attains its mini value at c .

Hence, $g'(c) = 0$.

$$g'(c) = f'(c) - \gamma = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f'(c) - \gamma = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f'(c) = \gamma.$$

1. Find suitable point c of Rolle's theorem for $f(x) = (x-a)(x-b)$, $a \leq x \leq b$.

Soln:

$$f(x) = (x-a)(x-b)$$

$$= x^2 - bx - ax + ab$$

$$f'(x) = 2x - (a+b)$$

By Rolle's theorem, $f'(c) = 0$

$$2c - (a+b) = 0$$

$$2c = a+b$$

$$c = \frac{a+b}{2}$$

$\therefore$ The value clearly lies in $a \leq x \leq b$.

2. Thus the fun $f(x) = \sin x$, $0 \leq x \leq \pi$ satisfy Rolle's theorem.

soln:

$$f(x) = \sin x$$

$$\Rightarrow f(0) = \sin 0 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow f(\pi) = \sin \pi = 0 \text{ satisfies Rolle's theorem.}$$

By theorem, $f'(c) = 0$

$$\cos c = 0$$

$$c = \cos^{-1}(0)$$

$$c = \pi/2$$

3. P.T. there is no value k such that $x^3 - 3x + k = 0$ has two distinct roots in $[0, 1]$.

soln:

Let us assume that $f(x) = x^3 - 3x + k$ becomes zero at $x = a$ & $x = b$ in $[0, 1]$ with $a \neq b$ & for some k .

Hence by Rolle's theorem $\exists c \in [a, b]$ such that $f'(c) = 0$

$$f'(c) = 3c^2 - 3$$

$$3c^2 - 3 = 0$$

$$3c^2 = 3$$

$$c^2 = 1$$

$$c = \pm 1$$

This contradiction becoz $c \in [a, b]$ & $0 < a < b < 1$.

$\therefore$ There is no k such that equ

$x^3 - 3x + k = 0$ has two distinct roots in $[0, 1]$.

14. If f is defined by $f(x) = x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} (x \neq 0)$, $f(0) = 0$ then f has derivative at each pt of $(-\infty, \infty)$ & $f'(0) = 0$. But f' is continuous at 0.

Soln:

$$f(x) = x^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$$

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

$\therefore$ For $x \neq 0$, $f'(x)$ exist

To show that $f'(0)$ exist, we have for $x \neq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} &= \frac{x^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)}{x} \\ &= x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \left| \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} \right| \leq |x| \quad \& \quad \text{it follows}$$

$$\text{that } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} \right] = 0$$

$$\text{Thus } f'(0) = 0.$$

$\therefore$ Thus we have shown that $f'(x)$ exist $\forall x$ but f' is continuous (not) at 0.

P.T. if $\frac{a_0}{n+1} + \frac{a_1}{n} + \dots + \frac{a_{n-1}}{2} + a_n = 0$ then $a_0 x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} x$ has one root b/w 0 & 1.

Soln:

Consider,

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0 x^{n+1}}{n+1} + \frac{a_1 x^n}{n} + \dots + \frac{a_{n-1} x^2}{2} + a_n x$$

Then $f(0)=0$ & $f(1) = \frac{a_0}{n+1} + \frac{a_1}{n} + \frac{a_{n-1}}{2} + a_n$

By hypothesis,

$f(x)$ is polynomial

Hence, it is continuous on $[0,1]$ & differentiable on (a,b) .

Hence by theorem: $\exists c \in (a,b)$ such that $f'(c)=0$

Now, $f(x) = \frac{a_0 x^{n+1}}{n+1} + \frac{a_1 x^n}{n} + \dots + \frac{a_{n-1} x^2}{2} + a_n x$

$$f'(x) = \frac{a_0(n+1)x^n}{n+1} + \frac{a_1 n x^{n-1}}{n} + \dots + \frac{a_{n-1} 2x}{2} + a_n$$

$$f'(x) = a_0 x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} x + a_n = 0 \text{ for } c \in [0,1].$$

Hence, $a_0 x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + a_{n-1} x + a_n = 0$ has at least one root b/w 0 & 1.

Law of mean:

Statement:

If f is continuous fun on closed bounded interval $[a,b]$ & if $f'(x)$ exist $\forall x$ in $[a,b]$, then $\exists c$ in (a,b) such that

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

Proof:

Let h be defined as $h(x) = f(x) - f(a)$

$$h(x) = f(x) - f(a) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} (x - a) \quad (a \leq x \leq b)$$

Clearly $h(x)$ is continuous $a \leq x \leq b$ & $h'(x)$ exist for $a \leq x \leq b$.

Then, $h(a) = 0 = h(b)$ & h obeys hypothesis of Rolle's theorem.

Hence, $h'(c) = 0$ for some $c \in (a, b)$ but

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

$$f'(c) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = 0$$

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

Theorem:

f is continuous real valued fun on interval J & if $f'(x) > 0 \forall x$ in J except possibly the end points of J (if there are any) then f is strictly increasing on J (& hence f is one-one).

Proof:

If $(a, b) \in J$ with $a < b$ we have by law of mean $f(b) - f(a) = (b - a) f'(c)$ for some c b/w a & b . But $f'(c) > 0$ $f(a) < f(b)$

By hypothesis & hence $f(b) - f(a) > 0$ i.e., if $a < b$ then $f(a) < f(b)$.

Hence proved.

Generalized law of mean:

Statement:

Let f & g be continuous function on the closed bounded interval $[a, b]$ with $g(a) \neq g(b)$. If both f & g have derivative at each point of (a, b) & $f'(t)$ & $g'(t)$ are not both equal to zero for any $t \in (a, b)$ then $\exists$ point $c \in (a, b)$ such that
$$\frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}$$

Proof:

$$\text{Let } h(x) = f(x) - f(a) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} [g(x) - g(a)]$$

then $h(a) = 0$, $h(b) = 0$ & h satisfies the other hypothesis of Rolle's theorem.

Hence, $h'(c) = 0$ for some $c \in (a, b)$

$$h'(x) = f'(x) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} g'(x)$$

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

$$f'(c) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} g'(c) = 0$$

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

If $g'(c)$ were 0 then $f'(c)$ would be zero. contradicting our hypothesis.

Hence, $g'(c) \neq 0$

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

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

Hence proved.

1. Calculate value of c for which $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$

for each of following pairs of fun. $f(x) = x$,
 $g(x) = x^2$, $a = 0$, $b = 1$.

Soln:

$$f(0) = 0, \quad g(0) = 0$$

$$f(1) = 1, \quad g(1) = 1$$

$$f'(x) = 1 \Rightarrow f'(c) = 1$$

$$g'(x) = 2x \Rightarrow g'(c) = 2c$$

$$\frac{1}{2c} = \frac{1-0}{1-0}$$

$$\frac{1}{2c} = 1$$

$$1 = 2c$$

$$c = 1/2$$

$f(x) = \sin x$, $g(x) = \cos x$, $[-\pi/2 \leq x \leq 0]$.

$$f(-\pi/2) = \sin(-\pi/2)$$

$$= -\sin \pi/2$$

$$= -1$$

$$f(0) = 0$$

$$g(-\pi/2) = \cos(-\pi/2) = 0$$

$$g(0) = \cos(0) = 1$$

$$f'(x) = \cos x \Rightarrow g'(x) = -\sin x$$

$$f'(c) = \cos c \quad g'(c) = -\sin c$$

$$\frac{\cos c}{-\sin c} = \frac{0 - (-1)}{1 - 0}$$

$$-\cot c = 1$$

$$c = \cot^{-1}(-1)$$

$$c = -\pi/4 \quad \therefore c = -\pi/4$$

If $f'(x) = 0 \forall x$ in (a, b) P.T. f is constant on (a, b)

Proof:

Let x be any point of interval (a, b) .

We suppose that $f'(x) = 0$ in (a, b)
 Since $f'(x)$ exist in (a, b)

The condition of mean value theorem are satisfied in (a, b) & in particular a, x

Hence applying mean value theorem in (a, x) we have $f'(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$ where $a < c < x$ but $f'(c) = 0$

By hypothesis,

$$\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = 0$$

$$f(x) - f(a) = 0$$

$$f(x) = f(a) \forall x \text{ in } (a, b)$$

$\Rightarrow f(x)$ is constant.

Fundamental theorem of Calculus.

First fundamental theorem of calculus:

If f is continuous on the closed bounded interval $[a, b]$ and if $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ ($a \leq x \leq b$) then $F'(x) = f(x)$ ($a \leq x \leq b$).

Proof:

Let $x \in [a, b]$ be fixed if $h \neq 0$ and $x+h \in [a, b]$. we have,

$$\begin{aligned} F(x+h) - F(x) &= \int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt \\ &= \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \rightarrow \textcircled{1} \end{aligned}$$

Since f is continuous on closed bounded interval $[x, x+h]$ then there pt of $[x, x+h]$ at which f attains maximum value M and minimum value m .

i.e., $m \leq f(t) \leq M$ ($x \leq t \leq x+h$) and

$f(t_1) = m$, $f(t_2) = M$ for some t_1, t_2 in $[x, x+h]$

then we have

$$\int_x^{x+h} m dt \leq \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \leq \int_x^{x+h} M dt$$

$$\text{i.e., } mh \leq \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \leq Mh.$$

and finally $m \leq \theta \leq Mh$

$$\text{where } \theta = \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt$$

By known theorem,
that must be point $c(h)$ in $[x, x+h]$ such that $f[c(h)] = \theta$.

Thus, we have show that if $h > 0$. $\exists c(h)$ in $[x, x+h]$ such that

$$f[c(h)] = \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt$$

From ①, we get

$$\frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = f[c(h)] \rightarrow ②$$

But clearly $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} c(h) = x$

Thus as $h \rightarrow 0$ the RHS of ② has limit $f(x)$.

Since, f is continuous at x .

Hence, the LHS of ② approaches $F'(x)$ as

$$F'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} = f(x).$$

Theorem:

If $f \in R[a, b]$ if $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$, ($a \leq x \leq b$)

and if f is continuous at $x_0 \in [a, b]$ then $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$.

Proof:

For $h > 0$, let I_n denote the interval $[x_0, x_0 + h]$. Then with

$$\omega[f; I_n] = M[f, I_n] - m[f, I_n]$$

$$\text{where, } M[f, I_n] = \text{l.u.b. } f(x); \\ x \in I_n$$

$$m[f, I_n] = \text{g.l.b. } f(x) \\ x \in I_n$$

we have,

$$|f(t) - f(x_0)| < \omega[f, I_n] \text{ where } t \in I_n$$

$$- \omega[f; I_n] \leq f(x) - f(x_0) \leq \omega[f; I_n]$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_0) - \omega[f; I_n] \leq f(t) \leq f(x_0) + \omega[f; I_n] \quad (t \in I_n)$$

Hence, we have integrating b/w x_0 and $x_0 + h$.

$$h[f(x_0) - \omega[f; I_n]] \leq \int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} f(t) dt$$

$$\leq h[f(x_0) + \omega[f; I_n]]$$

$$\text{i.e., } f(x_0) - \omega[f; I_n] \leq \int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} f(t) dt \\ \leq f(x_0) + \omega[f; I_n]$$

But,

$$\frac{F(x_0+h) - F(x_0)}{h} = \frac{1}{h} \int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} f(t) dt$$

we get,

$$f(x_0) - \omega[f; I_n] \leq \frac{F(x_0+h) - F(x_0)}{h} \\ \leq f(x_0) + \omega[f; I_n] \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

But since by hypothesis, f is continuous at x_0 , we have

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \omega[f; I_n] = 0 \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

Taking $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0}$ in $\textcircled{1}$ and using $\textcircled{2}$

we get,

$$f(x_0) \leq F'(x_0) \leq f(x_0)$$

$$F'(x_0) = f(x_0).$$

Theorem:

If $f'(x) = 0$ for every x in closed bounded interval $[a, b]$ then f is constant on $[a, b]$ i.e., $f(x) = c$ ($a \leq x \leq b$) for some $c \in \mathbb{R}$

Proof:

For any x with $a \leq x \leq b$

By theorem,

Let f be a real valued function f has derivative at point $c \in \mathbb{R}$ then f is continuous at c .

f is continuous on interval $[a, b]$. By law of mean $\exists c \in [a, b]$ such that

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

But by hypothesis $f'(c) = 0$

Thus $f(x) = f(a) + 0$ in $[a, b]$

and theorem is proved with $c = f(a)$.

Theorem:

If $f'(x) = g'(x) \forall x$ in closed bounded interval $[a, b]$ then $f - g$ is constant i.e., $f(x) = g(x) + c$ ($a \leq x \leq b$) some $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof:

W.H.T.

If f & g both have derivative then

$$(f - g)'(x) = f'(x) - g'(x) \forall x \text{ in } [a, b]$$

Hence by hypothesis

$$(f - g)'(x) = 0 \forall x \in [a, b]$$

Hence by above theorem,

$f - g$ is continuous.

i.e., $f(x) = g(x) + c$ ($a \leq x \leq b$) for some $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Second fundamental theorem of calculus:

If f is continuous function on the closed bounded interval $[a, b]$ and if $\phi'(x) = f(x)$ ($a \leq x \leq b$) then $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \phi(b) - \phi(a)$.

Proof:

we have $\phi'(x) = f(x)$ ($a \leq x \leq b$) $\rightarrow$ ①

If we have

$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ then by first fundamental theorem of calculus.

$$F'(x) = f(x) \quad (a \leq x \leq b) \rightarrow \text{②}$$

From ① & ②, we get

$$\phi'(x) \neq x \text{ in } [a, b]$$

$$F'(x) = f(x) \quad (a \leq x \leq b)$$

Hence by above theorem

Integrating we get

$$F(x) = \phi(x) + c \quad (a \leq x \leq b) \text{ for some } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$F(b) - F(a) = [\phi(b) + c] - [\phi(a) + c]$$

$$= \phi(b) - \phi(a)$$

$$\text{But } F(a) = \int_a^a f(t) dt = 0$$

Thus, $F(b) = \phi(b) - \phi(a)$

But $F(b) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$

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

$\therefore$ Hence proved.

Change of variable:

Theorem:

Let ϕ be real valued function on closed bounded interval $[a, b]$ such that ϕ' is continuous on $[a, b]$. Let $A = \phi(a)$, $B = \phi(b)$ then if f is continuous on $\phi([a, b])$ we have

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

Proof:

Since f is continuous function on closed bounded interval $\phi([a, b])$.

Then by first fundamental theorem of calculus there is function F such that $F'(x) = f(x)$, $x \in \phi([a, b])$.

Let $G(u) = F[\phi(u)]$ for $(a \leq u \leq b)$

then by chain rule,

$$G'(u) = F'[\phi(u)] \phi'(u)$$

$$= f[\phi(u)]\phi'(u) \quad (a \leq u \leq b)$$

using 2nd fundamental theorem on calculus, we get,

$$\int_a^b f[\phi(u)]\phi'(u)du = \int_a^b G'(u)du$$

$$= G(b) - G(a)$$

$$= F[\phi(b)] - F[\phi(a)]$$

$$= F(B) - F(A)$$

$$= \int_A^B F'(x)dx$$

$$= \int_A^B F(x)dx$$

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

1) Evaluate $\int_1^2 x^3 dx$.

Soln:

$$\text{Let } f(x) = x^3 \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2$$

then f is continuous on $[a, b]$

$$\text{Further if } F(x) = \frac{x^4}{4} \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2$$

$$F'(x) = x^3 = f(x)$$

By 2nd fundamental theorem,

$$\int_1^2 x^3 dx = F(2) - F(1)$$

$$= \frac{2^4}{4} - \frac{1^4}{4}$$

$$= \frac{16}{4} - \frac{1}{4}$$

$$= \frac{15}{4}$$

2. If f is continuous func on $[0, 1]$ P.T. $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} f(\sin u) \cos u du$. If result then for the interval $[\pi, 3\pi/2]$ on RHS? Explain.

Soln:

Let f be continuous func on $[0, 1]$

Let $\phi(u) = \sin u$. we have,

$$\phi(0) = 0, \quad \phi(\pi/2) = 1$$

Since $\phi'(u) = \cos u$ is continuous on $[0, \pi/2]$ and since f is continuous on

$$\phi\left(\left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]\right) = [0, 1]$$

By change of variable

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

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} f(\sin u) \cos u du.$$

we also observe that $\phi(\pi) = 0$, $\phi(3\pi/2) = 1$ since ϕ' is continuous on

$[\pi, 9\pi/2]$ we would also have $\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \int_{\pi}^{9\pi/2} f(\sin u) \cos u \, du$ provided that f is continuous on $[-1, 1]$ which is image of $[\pi, \frac{9\pi}{2}]$ under ϕ .

Thus, $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{x} \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sqrt{\sin u} \cos u \, du \quad \text{is true.}$$

Taylor's theorem:

Derive the Taylor series for function

Suppose that for all x in some interval J the function f may be expressed as

$$f(x) = A_0 + A_1(x-a) + A_2(x-a)^2 + \dots + A_n(x-a)^n + \dots \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

where $a \in J$ we say that equ $\textcircled{1}$ is an expansion of f in power of $x-a$.

If we set $x=a$ in $\textcircled{1}$ we get

$$f(a) = A_0$$

Differentiate both sides of equ $\textcircled{1}$

w.r.t. ' x ' we get,

$$f'(x) = 0 + A_1 + 2A_2(x-a) + \dots + nA_n(x-a)^{n-1} + \dots \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

so that $f'(a) = A_1$

Again diff equ $\textcircled{2}$ w.r.t. ' x ' we get

$$f''(x) = 0 + 2A_2 + \dots + n(n-1)A_n (x-a)^{n-2} + \dots \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

so that $f''(a) = A_2$.

In general for any $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
we have

$$f^{(n)}(x) = n! A_n + (n+1)n \dots 2 (A_{n+1})(x-a) + (n-2)(n+1)(n) \dots 3 A_{n+2} (x-a)^2 + \dots$$

If $x=a$ in above

$$f^{(n)}(a) = n! A_n$$

$$\Rightarrow A_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} \quad n = 0, 1, \dots$$

$\therefore$ equ $\textcircled{1}$ becomes

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots$$

$$\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n + \dots \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$$

The series equ $\textcircled{4}$ is called
Taylor series about $x=a$ for func f .

Maclaurian series:

The Taylor series about $x=a$
for function is

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots +$$

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

where R_{n+1} is remainder.

If $a=0$, $f(x) = f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!} x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!} x^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$ is called the Maclaurian series for f .

Lemma:

Let f be real valued function on interval $[a, a+h]$ such that $f^{(n+1)}(x)$ exist for every $x \in [a, a+h]$ and $f^{(n+1)}$ is continuous

on $[a, a+h]$.
$$R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t) dt$$

$$(x \in [a, a+h]; k=0, 1, \dots, n)$$

then $R_k(x) - R_{k+1}(x) = \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k \quad [x \in [a, a+h]];$

$k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. The same result holds if $h < 0$ and $[a, a+h]$ is replaced as $[a+h, a]$.

Proof:

$$R_{k+1}(x) = \frac{1}{k!} \int_a^x (x-t)^k f^{(k+1)}(t) dt$$

$$\begin{aligned} [u &= (x-t)^k & dv &= f^{(k)}(t) \\ du &= -k(x-t)^{k-1} dt & v &= f^{(k)}(t) \end{aligned}$$

$$[u dv = uv - \int v du]$$

$$= \frac{1}{k!} \left[(x-t)^k f^{(k)}(t) \right]_a^x - \int_a^x f^{(k)}(t) - k(x-t)^{k-1} dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{k!} \left[(x-x)^k f^{(k)}(x) - (x-a)^k f^{(k)}(a) \right] + \frac{k}{k!} \int_a^x (x-t)^{k-1} f^{(k)}(t) dt.$$

$$= -\frac{1}{k!} (x-a)^k f^{(k)}(a) + \frac{k}{k(k-1)!} \int_a^x (x-t)^{k-1} f^{(k)}(t) dt$$

$$= -\frac{(x-a)^k}{k!} f^{(k)}(a) + \frac{1}{(k-1)!} \int_a^x (x-t)^{k-1} f^{(k)}(t) dt$$

$$R_{k+1}(x) = -\frac{(x-a)^k}{k!} f^{(k)}(a) + R_k(x)$$

$$R_k(x) - R_{k+1}(x) = \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k$$

Taylor's formula with the integral form of the remainder:

Statement:

Let f be real valued fun on $[a, h]$ such that $f^{(n+1)}$ exist for every $x \in [a, a+h]$.

and $f^{(n+1)}$ is continuous on $[a, a+h]$ then

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots +$$

$$\frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n + R_{n+1}(x) \quad (x \in [a, a+h]) \text{ where}$$

$$R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t) dt. \text{ The same result}$$

hold if $h < 0$ & $[a, a+h]$ is replaced by

$[a+h, a]$.

Proof:

W.K.T.

$$R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t) dt \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

$$R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t) dt \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

$$R_n(x) = R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n \rightarrow \textcircled{3}$$

Put $n=0$ in equ $\textcircled{2}$

$$\textcircled{2} \Rightarrow R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t) dt$$

$$R_1(x) = \int_a^x f'(t) dt$$
$$= [f(t)]_a^x$$

$$R(x) = f(x) - f(a) \rightarrow \textcircled{4}$$

Put $n=1, 2, \dots, n$ in equ $\textcircled{2}$

$$R_1(x) - R_2(x) = \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a)$$

$$R_2(x) - R_3(x) = \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2$$

$$R_n(x) - R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$$

Adding all the above equⁿ.

$$R_1(x) - R_2(x) + R_2(x) - R_3(x) + \dots + R_n(x) - R_{n+1}(x)$$

$$= \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$$

$$R_1(x) - R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$$

$$R_1(x) = \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n + R_{n+1}(x)$$

W.K.T.

$$R_1(x) = f(x) - f(a)$$

$$f(x) - f(a) = \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n + R_{n+1}(x)$$

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n + R_{n+1}(x)$$

i.e., the Taylor series is converges to $f(x)$.

Theorem:

Let ϕ be continuous real valued fun on closed bounded interval $[a, b]$. Let g be continuous fun on $[a, b]$ such that $g(t) \geq 0$ ($a \leq t \leq b$) then $\exists$ no. c with $a \leq c \leq b$ such that $\int_a^b \phi(t) g(t) dt = \phi(c) \int_a^b g(t) dt$.

Proof:

The continuous fun ϕ on compact interval $[a, b]$ attains maximum value M and a minimum value m .

Then, since $g(t) \geq 0 \forall t$

$$m \int_a^b g(t) dt \leq \int_a^b \phi(t) g(t) dt \leq M \int_a^b g(t) dt \rightarrow \textcircled{1}$$

If g is identically zero then theorem is obvious.

Let us assume that $g(t) > 0$ for some t , so that $\int_a^b g(t) dt > 0$

From equ $\textcircled{1}$, we get

$$m \leq \theta \leq M \text{ where } \theta = \frac{\int_a^b \phi(t) g(t) dt}{\int_a^b g(t) dt} \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

Since M and m are in range of ϕ .

i.e., θ in the range of ϕ .

i.e., $\phi(c) = \theta$ for some $c \in [a, b]$

$$\textcircled{2} \Rightarrow \phi(c) = \frac{\int_a^b \phi(t) g(t) dt}{\int_a^b g(t) dt}$$

$$\int_a^b \phi(t)g(t)dt = \phi(c) \int_a^b g(t)dt.$$

Taylor's formula with Lagrange's form of remainder:

Let f be real valued function on $[a, a+h]$ such that $f^{(n+1)}(x)$ exist for every $x \in [a, a+h]$ and $f^{(n+1)}$ is continuous on $[a, a+h]$ then if $x \in [a, a+h] \nexists$ no. c with $a \leq c \leq x$ such that
$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1}$$

same result holds if $h < 0$ and $[a, a+h]$ is replaced by $[a+h, a]$.

Proof:

Applying above theorem in the interval $[a, x]$ we have

$$\int_a^x \phi(t)g(t)dt = \phi(c) \int_a^x g(t)dt$$

we take $\phi = f^{(n+1)}$ and $g(t) = \frac{(x-t)^n}{n!}$

so that $g(t) \geq 0$

$$R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x (x-t)^n f^{(n+1)}(t)dt$$

$$= \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{n!} \int_a^x (x-t)^n dt$$

$$= \left[\frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{n!} \frac{(x-a)^{n+1}}{(n+1)(x-a)} \right]_a^x$$

$$= \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{n!} \left[-0 + \frac{(x-a)^{n+1}}{n+1} \right]$$

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

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

Thus,

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots$$

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

Taylor's formula with cauchy form of remainder.

Let f be real valued function on $[a, a+h]$ such that $f^{(n+1)}(x)$ exist for every $x \in [a, a+h]$ and $f^{(n+1)}$ is continuous on $[a, a+h]$ then if $x \in [a, a+h]$ $\exists$ no. c with $a \leq c \leq x$ such that $f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x-c)^n (x-a)$.

Proof:

The Taylor's formula with Lagrange

form of remainder

we have,

$$R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x f^{(n+1)}(t)(x-t)^n dt$$

Take $\phi(t) = f^{(n+1)}(t)(x-t)^n$ & $g(t) = 1$

By theorem,

$$R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^x f^{(n+1)}(c)(x-c)^n dt$$

$$= \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n \int_a^x dt$$

$$= \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n [t]_a^x$$

$$R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n (x-a) \text{ for some } c \in I$$

$\therefore$ The Taylor's formula with Cauchy form of remainder.

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n +$$

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

1. Find the Taylor series about $x=2$ for $f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1$ ($-\infty < x < \infty$) p.T. Taylor series converges to $f(x)$ for every real x .

Soln:

$$f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1$$

$$f(x) = x^3 + 2x + 1 \Rightarrow f(2) = 13$$

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 + 2 \Rightarrow f'(2) = 14$$

$$f''(x) = 6x \Rightarrow f''(2) = 12$$

$$f'''(x) = 6$$

Taylor series is

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n$$

$$= f(2) + \frac{f'(2)}{1!} (x-2) + \frac{f''(2)}{2!} (x-2)^2 + \frac{f'''(2)}{3!} (x-2)^3$$

$$= 13 + 14(x-2) + \frac{12}{2!} (x-2)^2 + \frac{6}{3!} (x-2)^3$$

$$= 13 + 14x - 28 + 6(x^2 + 4 - 4x) + x^3 - 3x^2(2) + 3(2)^2x - 2^3$$

$$= 6x^2 + 9 - 8 + x^3 - 6x^2 + 12x + 14x - 24x$$

$$= x^3 + 2x + 1.$$

$\therefore$ The Taylor series converges to $f(x)$.

2. Write Taylor series formula with Lagrange form of remainder $f(x) = \log(1+x)$

$(-1 < x < \infty)$, $a = 2$, $n = 4$.

Soln:

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots +$$

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

$$f(x) = \log(1+x) \Rightarrow f(2) = \log 3$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x} \Rightarrow f'(2) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{-1}{(1+x)^2} \Rightarrow f''(2) = -\frac{1}{9}$$

$$f'''(x) = \frac{2}{(1+x)^3} \Rightarrow f'''(2) = \frac{2}{27}$$

$$f(x) = \log 3 + \frac{1}{3} (x-2) - \frac{1}{9} (x-2)^2 + \frac{2}{27} (x-2)^3 + \dots$$