# DIFFERENTIATION AND INTEGRATION

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1. The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

**Theorem 1.1** (Fundamental Theory of Calculus). (i) Suppose that f is continuous on [a, b] and let

$$F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) \, dt.$$

Then F is differentiable on (a, b) and F'(x) = f(x).

(ii) Suppose that f is continuous and F is any antiderivative of f. Then

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

Motivated by the Fundamental Theorem, ask the following questions:

- (1) Suppose that f is integrable on [a, b] with indefinite integral  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ . Does this imply that F is differentiable a.e. and F' = f a.e.?
- (2) What conditions on a function F guarantee that f(x) = F'(x) a.e. ad that  $F(x) = F'(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{0} F'(x) dx$

$$F(b) - F(a) = \int_{a}^{a} F'(x) \, dx?$$

The first question motivates the following more general question about integrable (or locally integrable) functions in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . If f is integrable on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , is it true that

$$\lim_{m(B) \to 0, x \in B} \frac{1}{m(B)} \int_{B} f(y) \, dy = f(x)$$

for a.e. x? Here B is a ball in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , and m(B) is the Lebesgue measure of B.

The second question leads to several new classes of functions: the functions of bounded variation and absolutely continuous functions.

### 2. The Lebesgue Differentiation Theorem

Our first result will be the Lebesgue Differentiation Theorem.

**Theorem 2.1.** If f is integrable on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then

$$\lim_{m(B)\to 0, x\in B} \frac{1}{m(B)} \int_B f(y) \, dy = f(x)$$

for a.e. x.

Synopsis of Stein and Shakarchi, 3.1-3.3.

2.1. The Hardy-Littlewood Maximal Function. On the way to the proof we introduce a very important function in harmonic analysis, the Hardy-Littlewood Maximal Function. If f is integrable on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then

$$f^*(x) = \sup_{x \in B} \frac{1}{m(B)} \int_B |f(y)| \, dy.$$

Here the supremum goes over all balls containing x. Remarkably,  $f^*$  has the following properties:

- (i)  $f^*$  is measurable
- (ii)  $f^*$  is finite a.e.
- (iii)  $f^*$  satisfies the weak-type estimate

$$m\left\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : f^*(x) > \alpha\right\} \le \frac{3^d}{\alpha} \|f\|_{L^1(\mathbb{R}^d)}.$$

The estimate (iii) on the maximal function means that  $f^*$  is "almost  $L^1$ ." The proof requires the Vitali covering lemma.

**Lemma 2.2.** Suppose that  $\{B_i\}_{i=1}^N$  is a finite collection of open balls in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . There is a sub-collection  $B_{i_1}, \ldots, B_{i_k}$  of disjoint open balls so that

$$m\left(\bigcup_{\ell=1}^{N} B_{\ell}\right) \leq 3^{d} \sum_{j=1}^{k} m(B_{i_{j}}).$$

The proof of Theorem 2.1 makes use of the facts that  $L^1$  functions can be approximated by continuous functions in  $L^1$  norm and that the conclusion of Theorem 2.1 is true for continuous functions. The set of points for which averages converge is called the *Lebesgue set*.

2.2. Convolution with Good Kernels. Convolutions of functions with "good kernels" are a kind of averaging. A collection of "good kernels" is a set of functions  $K_{\delta}(x)$  indexed by  $\delta > 0$  with the following properties:

(i)  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} K_{\delta}(x) \, dx = 1$ (ii)  $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} |K_{\delta}(x)| \, dx \leq A$ (iii) For every  $\eta > 0$ ,

$$\lim_{\delta \to 0} \int_{|x| \ge \eta} |K_{\delta}(x)| \, dx = 0.$$

It can be shown that if f is integrable, then  $K_{\delta} * f$  converges to f as  $\delta \to 0$  at each point of continuity of f.

To study convolution with Lebesgue integrable functions, we will consider a more families of kernels called *approximations to the identity*. These satisfy (i) above and

- (ii')  $|K_{\delta}(x)| \leq A\delta^{-d}$  for all  $\delta > 0$ (iii')  $|K_{\delta}(x)| \leq A\delta/|x|^{d+1}$  for all  $\delta > 0$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

We'll show that If  $\{K_{\delta}\}_{\delta>0}$  is an approximation to the identity, then  $(K_{\delta} *$  $f(x) \to f(x)$  as  $\delta \to 0$  for all x in the Lebesgue set of f.

(1) 
$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} = \Delta u \\ u(x,0) = f(x) \end{cases}$$

where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and t > 0. This equation has solution

$$u(x,t) = \frac{1}{(4\pi t)^{d/2}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} e^{-|x-y|^2/4t} f(y) \, dy.$$

The fact that  $u(x,t) \to f(x)$  as  $t \to 0$  follows from the fact that the family of functions

$$K_{\delta}(x) = \frac{1}{(4\pi t)^{d/2}} e^{-|x|^2/4t}$$

are an approximation to the identity.

The Laplace equation on the upper half-plane is the boundary value problem

(2) 
$$\begin{cases} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}\right)u = 0\\ u(x,0) = f(x) \end{cases}$$

has solution

$$u(x,y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} P(x-x',y) f(x') \, dx'$$

where

$$P(x,y) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{y}{x^2 + y^2}.$$

The fact that  $u(x,y) \to f(x)$  as  $y \to 0$  for a.e. x follows from the fact that the family of functions

$$K_y(x) = P(x, y)$$

are an approximation of the identity.

## 3. Functions of Bounded Variation

A function F on [a, b] is of bounded variation if there is a fixed M > 0 so that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{N} |F(t_j) - F(t_{j-1})| \le M$$

for all partitions  $\{t_0, \ldots, t_N\}$  of [a, b]. We will prove:

**Theorem 3.1.** If F is of bounded variation on [a, b], then F is differentiable almost everywhere.

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### 4. Absolutely Continuous Functions

A function F on [a, b] is absolutely continuous if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  so that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{N} |F(b_k) - F(a_k)| < \varepsilon \text{ whenever } \sum_{k=1}^{N} |b_k - a_k| < \delta.$$

Note that F absolutely continuous implies that F is of bounded variation. Note that, if  $f(x) = \int_a^x f(y) \, dy$  for an integrable function, then F is absolutely continuous. We will prove:

**Theorem 4.1.** Suppose F is absolutely continuous on [a, b]. Then F' exists for almost every x in [a, b] and is integrable. Moreover

$$F(x) - F(a) = \int_{a}^{x} F'(y) \, dy.$$

Conversely, if f is integrable on [a, b], there is an absolutely continuous function F so that F'(x) = f(x) for a.e. x, and  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(y) \, dy$ .