# An Introduction to Formal Real Analysis, Rutgers University, Fall 2025, Math 311H

Lecture 22: Uniformity

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This text is automatically generated by LLM from "Real Analysis, The Game", Lecture 22

**SOCRATES:** I just noticed something about that last level.

SIMPLICIO: Ugh. Ok, what was it?

SOCRATES: I don't know, you tell me.

**SIMPLICIO:** We proved that  $x^2 - 1$  was continuous everywhere. So what?

**SOCRATES:** Right. How did we do it? What  $\delta$  did we choose, once  $\varepsilon$  was

given?

**SIMPLICIO:** Are you getting senile, old man? We chose  $\delta = \varepsilon/(2|x|+1)$ .

**SOCRATES:** Anything interesting about that?

**SIMPLICIO:** What, that it has an x in it? So what? We had no other choice but to choose  $\delta$  depending on x. We took y near x,  $|y-x| < \delta$ , and computed that |f(y) - f(x)| was  $|y-x| \cdot |y+x|$ . The first factor is good, since it's less than  $\delta$ ; in the second factor, since y is near x, then |y+x| has size about  $2 \cdot |x|$ , and we added one just to be safe.

**SOCRATES:** Ok, let's put a pin in this and come back to it later. Here's a question: suppose I have a sequence of continuous functions  $f_n$ , and suppose  $f_n$  converges to some limit function F. That is, for every x, the sequence of real numbers  $n \mapsto f_n(x)$  converges to F(x). What can you tell me about F?

**SIMPLICIO:** Is F continuous? Wait, I've fallen into this trap before. I even remember my counterexample from Lecture 1: Just take  $f_n(x) = x^n$  on

[0, 1]. Each  $f_n$  is continuous, but the limiting function is discontinuous at x = 1.

**SOCRATES:** Exactly! So mere pointwise convergence isn't enough. But let's pretend that it was and see what goes wrong with our proof of continuity.

**SIMPLICIO:** Ok, so you want me to try (and fail) to prove that F is continuous at some point x. Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we need to find  $\delta > 0$  such that for all y with  $|y - x| < \delta$ , we have  $|F(y) - F(x)| < \varepsilon$ .

**SOCRATES:** Right. Go on.

**SIMPLICIO:** Since  $f_n$  converges to F pointwise, for our given x and  $\varepsilon$ , we can find some big enough N such that for all  $n \geq N$ , we have  $|f_n(x) - F(x)| < \varepsilon/3$ .

**SOCRATES:** Yes. And?

**SIMPLICIO:** Now, since  $f_N$  is continuous at x, we can find some  $\delta > 0$  such that for all y with  $|y - x| < \delta$ , we have  $|f_N(y) - f_N(x)| < \varepsilon/3$ .

**SOCRATES:** Good so far. Now, what would you like to do next?

**SIMPLICIO:** Well, I want to show that  $|F(y) - F(x)| < \varepsilon$  for y close to x. I can use the triangle inequality:  $|F(y) - F(x)| \le |F(y) - f_N(y)| + |f_N(y) - f_N(x)| + |f_N(x) - F(x)|$ .

**SOCRATES:** Excellent! And what can you say about each of these three terms?

**SIMPLICIO:** Well, the middle term is less than  $\varepsilon/3$  by our choice of  $\delta$ . The last term is less than  $\varepsilon/3$  by our choice of N. So if I can make the first term less than  $\varepsilon/3$ , I'm done!

**SOCRATES:** And can you?

**SIMPLICIO:** Hmm... I need  $|F(y) - f_N(y)| < \varepsilon/3$ . Since  $f_n$  converges to F at the point y, I can find some M (which might depend on y) such that for  $n \ge M$ , we have  $|f_n(y) - F(y)| < \varepsilon/3$ . Uh oh...

**SOCRATES:** What's the problem?

**SIMPLICIO:** The problem is that my N was chosen to work at the specific point x, but now I need it to work at this other point y too! And y could be **any** point near x, so I'd need N to work at all of these points near x simultaneously.

**SOCRATES:** Yeah, so what? No matter which y you pick, you can always find some M that works for that y.

**SIMPLICIO:** But that's exactly the problem! The M I find depends on which y I'm looking at. For one y, I might need M = 100. For another y nearby, I might need M = 1000. And for yet another y, I might need M = 10000.

SOCRATES: So?

**SIMPLICIO:** So my original N was fixed at the beginning - it only depends on x and  $\varepsilon$ . But now I need this same fixed N to work for all possible values of y near x. There's no guarantee that my fixed N is bigger than all the different M's I'd need for different y's!

**SOCRATES:** Ah, I see. So you're saying that even though  $f_n(y) \to F(y)$  for each individual y, there might not be a single N that makes the convergence happen "fast enough" simultaneously for all y in a neighborhood?

**SIMPLICIO:** Exactly! The convergence might be happening at wildly different rates at different points. At some points it might converge quickly, at others very slowly.

**SOCRATES:** Interesting. So what kind of convergence would you need to make this proof work?

**SIMPLICIO:** I'd need the convergence to be... uniform over the whole space? Or at least uniform over neighborhoods? So that I can find a single N that works for all points at once, not just point by point.

**SOCRATES:** Precisely! You've just discovered why we need the concept of **uniform convergence**. Shall we make this precise?

**SIMPLICIO:** Yes! What exactly do we mean by "uniform convergence"?

**SOCRATES:** You tell me.

**SIMPLICIO:** Well, I said that I need a single N that works for all points at once. So instead of saying "for each y, there exists M such that for  $n \ge M$ , we have  $|f_n(y) - F(y)| < \varepsilon/3$ ", I need to say "there exists N such that for all y and all  $n \ge N$ , we have  $|f_n(y) - F(y)| < \varepsilon/3$ ".

**SOCRATES:** Exactly! So uniform convergence means: for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists N such that for all  $n \geq N$  and for all x in our domain, we have  $|f_n(x) - F(x)| < \varepsilon$ .

**SIMPLICIO:** Got it! The key difference is the *order of quantifiers*. In pointwise convergence, we have "for all x, there exists N" - the N can depend on x. In uniform convergence, we have "there exists N such that for all x" - the same N must work for every point.

**SOCRATES:** Perfect! This is *exactly* what Cauchy got **wrong** in his first attempt at proving that limits of continuous functions were continuous; he was missing uniformity! Ready to work on the proof?

SIMPLICIO: Yes, let's do it!

# Level 1: Continuous Composition

Some things with continuous functions are easy. (Some things are not; see the next level!)

### The Result

**Theorem** (Cont\_Comp): The composition of continuous functions is continuous.

If  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  are both continuous functions, then their composition  $f \circ g$  is also continuous.

#### The Intuition

This result makes intuitive sense: if g is continuous at a point x, then small changes in x produce small changes in g(x). Similarly, if f is continuous at g(x), then small changes in g(x) produce small changes in f(g(x)). Chaining these together, small changes in x should produce small changes in f(g(x)).

# The Proof Strategy

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we want to find  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - c| < \delta$  implies  $|(f \circ g)(x) - (f \circ g)(c)| < \varepsilon$ .

Since  $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$ , we need  $|f(g(x)) - f(g(c))| < \varepsilon$ .

**Step 1**: Use the continuity of f at g(c) with tolerance  $\varepsilon$  to get  $\varepsilon_1 > 0$  such that  $|y - g(c)| < \varepsilon_1$  implies  $|f(y) - f(g(c))| < \varepsilon$ .

**Step 2**: Use the continuity of g at c with tolerance  $\varepsilon_1$  to get  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - c| < \delta$  implies  $|g(x) - g(c)| < \varepsilon_1$ .

**Step 3**: Now if  $|x-c| < \delta$ , then  $|g(x)-g(c)| < \varepsilon_1$ , which means  $|f(g(x))-f(g(c))| < \varepsilon$ .

# Your Challenge

Prove that the composition of continuous functions is continuous:

FunCont f  $\rightarrow$  FunCont g  $\rightarrow$  FunCont (f  $\circ$ g)

### The Formal Proof

```
Statement Cont_Comp (f g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) (hf : FunCont f) (hg : FunCont g) : FunCont (f \circ g) := by intro x \varepsilon h\varepsilon choose \varepsilon1 \varepsilon1pos h\varepsilon1 using hf (g x) \varepsilon h\varepsilon choose \delta \deltapos h\delta using hg x \varepsilon1 \varepsilon1pos use \delta, \deltapos intro t ht specialize h\delta t ht apply h\varepsilon1 (g t) h\delta
```

## Understanding the Proof

This proof follows exactly the strategy outlined above. We use the continuity of f at the point g(x) to get an intermediate tolerance  $\varepsilon_1$ , then use the continuity of g at x with this tolerance to get our final  $\delta$ . The composition property ensures that the chain of approximations works correctly.

# Level 2: Uniform Convergence

As we've discussed several times, pointwise convergence of functions is not enough to preserve continuity. However, there is a stronger notion of convergence, called uniform convergence, which does preserve continuity.

#### The Definition

**Definition (UnifConv):** Let  $f_n$  be a sequence of functions, that is  $f: \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}$ , and let F be the hypothetical limit function. We say that  $f_n$  converges to F uniformly if:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N, \forall n \geq N, \forall x, |f_n(x) - F(x)| < \varepsilon$$

```
def UnifConv (f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) (F : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) : Prop := \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \mathbb{N}, \forall \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}, \forall \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R}, \forall \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R} | \forall \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{
```

## Pointwise vs. Uniform Convergence

The key difference between pointwise and uniform convergence is the order of quantifiers:

```
Pointwise convergence: \forall x, \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N, \forall n \geq N, |f_n(x) - F(x)| < \varepsilon
Uniform convergence: \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N, \forall n \geq N, \forall x, |f_n(x) - F(x)| < \varepsilon
```

In pointwise convergence, the choice of N can depend on both the point x and the tolerance  $\varepsilon$ . In uniform convergence, we must find a single N that works for all points x simultaneously, given only the tolerance  $\varepsilon$ .

#### The Main Theorem

**Theorem** (Cont\_of\_UnifConv): If a sequence of functions  $f_n$  converges uniformly to F, and each  $f_n$  is continuous, then F is continuous.

This is the theorem that makes uniform convergence so important: it preserves continuity, whereas pointwise convergence does not.

# Proof Strategy: The $\varepsilon/3$ Trick

To prove that F is continuous at a point x, given  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we want to show  $|F(y) - F(x)| < \varepsilon$  for y near x.

We use the triangle inequality to write:

$$|F(y) - F(x)| \le |F(y) - f_N(y)| + |f_N(y) - f_N(x)| + |f_N(x) - F(x)|$$

Our goal is to make each of these three terms less than  $\varepsilon/3$ :

**Term 1**:  $|F(y) - f_N(y)| < \varepsilon/3$  - This comes from uniform convergence **Term 2**:  $|f_N(y) - f_N(x)| < \varepsilon/3$  - This comes from continuity of  $f_N$  **Term 3**:  $|f_N(x) - F(x)| < \varepsilon/3$  - This also comes from uniform convergence

The crucial point is that uniform convergence gives us a single N that makes both terms 1 and 3 small *simultaneously* for all points, including our specific x and nearby y.

## Your Challenge

Prove that the uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous:

```
(\forall \ n, \ {\tt FunCont} \ ({\tt f} \ n)) 	o {\tt UnifConv} \ {\tt f} \ {\tt F} 	o {\tt FunCont} \ {\tt F}
```

### The Formal Proof

```
Statement Cont_of_UnifConv (f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) (hf : \forall n,
   FunCont (f n))
     (F : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) (hfF : UnifConv f F) : FunCont F := by
intro x \varepsilon h\varepsilon
choose N hN using hfF (\varepsilon / 3) (by bound)
choose \delta h\delta_1 h\delta_2 using hf N x (\varepsilon / 3) (by bound)
use \delta, h\delta_1
intro y hy
have h1 : |F y - F x| \le |f N y - F y| + |f N y - f N x|
   + |f N x - F x| := by
     rewrite [show F y - F x = (F y - f N y) + ((f N y - f N y))
        f N x) + (f N x - F x)) by ring_nf]
    have f1 : |(F y - f N y) + ((f N y - f N x) + (f N x))|
         - F x)) | <
          |(F y - f N y)| + |((f N y - f N x) + (f N x - F x)|
              x))| := by apply abs_add
    have f2 : |((f N y - f N x) + (f N x - F x))| \le |f N
         y - f N x | + | f N x - F x | :=
         by apply abs_add
     have f3 : |F y - f N y| = |f N y - F y| := by apply
        abs_sub_comm
```

```
linarith [f1, f2, f3] have h2: |f N y - F y| < \varepsilon / 3:= by apply hN N (by bound) y have h3: |f N x - F x| < \varepsilon / 3:= by apply hN N (by bound) x have h4: |f N y - f N x| < \varepsilon / 3:= by apply h\delta_2 y hy linarith [h1, h2, h3, h4]
```

## Understanding the Proof

The proof follows our  $\varepsilon/3$  strategy exactly, but the triangle inequality step (h1) deserves special attention:

**Step 1**: We use uniform convergence to choose N such that  $f_N$  is within  $\varepsilon/3$  of F at all points.

**Step 2**: We use the continuity of  $f_N$  to choose  $\delta$  such that  $f_N(y)$  is within  $\varepsilon/3$  of  $f_N(x)$  when y is within  $\delta$  of x.

**Step 3**: The key insight is the algebraic rewrite:

$$F(y) - F(x) = [F(y) - f_N(y)] + [f_N(y) - f_N(x)] + [f_N(x) - F(x)]$$

**Step 4**: We apply the triangle inequality twice:

$$|F(y) - F(x)| = |[F(y) - f_N(y)] + [f_N(y) - f_N(x) + f_N(x) - F(x)]|$$
(1)  

$$\leq |F(y) - f_N(y)| + |f_N(y) - f_N(x) + f_N(x) - F(x)|$$
(2)  

$$\leq |F(y) - f_N(y)| + |f_N(y) - f_N(x)| + |f_N(x) - F(x)|$$
(3)

**Step 5**: We also use the symmetry  $|F(y) - f_N(y)| = |f_N(y) - F(y)|$  to match our uniform convergence bounds.

**Step 6**: Finally, each term is bounded by  $\varepsilon/3$ , giving us  $|F(y)-F(x)|<\varepsilon$ .

# Level 3: Integration

Now we can move on to integration. Let's warm up with definitions that you already know from calculus, and a simple example.

#### **New Definitions**

**Riemann Sum** with *right* endpoints:

RiemannSum
$$(f, a, b, N) = \frac{b-a}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} f\left(a + \frac{(i+1)(b-a)}{N}\right)$$

```
noncomputable def RiemannSum (f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) (a b : \mathbb{R}) (N : \mathbb{N}) : \mathbb{R} := (b - a) / N * \sum i \in range N, f (a + (i + 1) * (b - a) / N)
```

**HasIntegral**: A function f has integral I from a to b if the sequence of Riemann sums converges to I:

```
def HasIntegral (f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) (a b : \mathbb{R}) (I : \mathbb{R}) : Prop := SeqLim (fun N \mapsto RiemannSum f a b N) I
```

**IntegrableOn**: A function f is integrable on [a, b] if there exists some integral value:

```
def IntegrableOn (f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}) (a b : \mathbb{R}) : Prop := 
∃ I, SeqLim (fun N \mapsto RiemannSum f a b N) I
```

# Helpful Theorems for Summation

To compute Riemann sums, we'll need several theorems about finite sums:

- $\bullet$  sum\_add\_distrib:  $\sum_{i \in s} (f(i) + g(i)) = \sum_{i \in s} f(i) + \sum_{i \in s} g(i)$
- sum\_const:  $\sum_{i \in s} c = c \cdot |s|$
- card\_range:  $|\{0, 1, \dots, n-1\}| = n$
- $\bullet$  sum\_div:  $\sum_{i \in s} (f(i)/c) = (\sum_{i \in s} f(i))/c$
- $\bullet$  sum\_mul:  $\sum_{i \in s} (f(i) \cdot c) = (\sum_{i \in s} f(i)) \cdot c$
- $\bullet$  sum\_range\_add\_one:  $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (i+1) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$

# Computing $\int_a^b x \, dx$

We want to show that the function f(x) = x is integrable on the interval [a, b] where a < b, and compute its integral.

From calculus, we expect:

$$\int_{a}^{b} x \, dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$$

## The Riemann Sum Calculation

The Riemann sum for f(x) = x with N subintervals is:

$$RiemannSum(x, a, b, N) = \frac{b - a}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left( a + \frac{(i+1)(b-a)}{N} \right)$$
(4)

$$= \frac{b-a}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \left( a + \frac{(i+1)(b-a)}{N} \right)$$
 (5)

$$= \frac{b-a}{N} \left[ Na + \frac{b-a}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} (i+1) \right]$$
 (6)

$$= (b-a)a + \frac{(b-a)^2}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} i$$
 (7)

$$= (b-a)a + \frac{(b-a)^2}{N^2} \cdot \frac{N(N+1)}{2}$$
 (8)

$$= (b-a)a + \frac{(b-a)^2(N+1)}{2N}$$
 (9)

$$= (b-a)a + \frac{(b-a)^2}{2} + \frac{(b-a)^2}{2N}$$
 (10)

As  $N \to \infty$ , this approaches:

$$(b-a)a + \frac{(b-a)^2}{2} = a(b-a) + \frac{(b-a)^2}{2} = ab - a^2 + \frac{b^2 - 2ab + a^2}{2} = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$$

# Your Challenge

Prove that f(x) = x is integrable on [a, b] for a < b:

IntegrableOn (fun  $x \mapsto x$ )a b

**Hint**: Use  $(b^2 - a^2)/2$  as your proposed integral value. The key step is showing that the Riemann sum approaches this limit.

### The Formal Proof

```
Statement \{a \ b : \mathbb{R}\}\ (hab : a < b) :
    IntegrableOn (fun x \mapsto x) a b := by
use (b^2-a^2)/2
intro \varepsilon h\varepsilon
have bnd : 0 < 2 * \varepsilon / (b - a) ^ 2 := by bound
have bndinv : 0 < 1 / (2 * \varepsilon / (b - a)^2) := by bound
choose N hN using ArchProp bnd
use N
intro n hn
have hn': (N : \mathbb{R}) \leq n := by exact_mod_cast hn
have Npos : (0 : \mathbb{R}) < \mathbb{N} := \text{by linarith } [\text{bndinv}, h\mathbb{N}]
have npos : (0 : \mathbb{R}) < n := by linarith [Npos, hn']
have f1 : (fun N => RiemannSum (fun x => x) a b N) n - (
   b^2 - a^2 - a^2 = (b-a)^2 / (2 * n) := by
  change ((b - a) / n * ( i \in range n, (a + (i + 1) * (
     b - a) / n))) - (b^2 - a^2) / 2 = _
  rewrite [show \sum i \in \text{range n}, (a + (i + 1) * (b - a) /
    (\sum i \in range n, a) +
    \sum i \in range n, ((i + 1) * (b - a) / n) by apply
        sum_add_distrib]
  rewrite [show \sum i \in range n, a = #(range n) \cdot a by
     apply sum_const]
  rewrite [show #(range n) = n by apply card_range]
  rewrite [show \sum i \in \text{range n}, ((i + 1) * (b - a) / n) =
       \sum i \in \text{range } n, (i + 1) * (b - a)) / n by rewrite
      [← sum_div]; rfl]
  rewrite [show (\sum i \in range n, (i + 1) * (b - a)) / n =
       (\sum i \in range n, (i + 1 : \mathbb{R})) * (b - a) / n by
     rewrite [\( \sum_mul \]; rfl]
  rewrite [show \sum i \in range n, ((i : \mathbb{R}) + 1) = n * (n +
     1) / 2 by apply sum_range_add_one]
  field_simp
  ring_nf
rewrite [f1]
```

```
have f2 : 0 \le (b - a) ^2 / (2 * n) := by bound rewrite [abs_of_nonneg f2] field_simp field_simp at hN have f3 : 2 * \varepsilon * n \le 2 * \varepsilon * n := by bound rewrite [show 2 * \varepsilon * n = 2 * n * \varepsilon by ring_nf] at f3 linarith [hN, f3]
```

## Understanding the Proof

The proof strategy is to show that the difference between the *n*-th Riemann sum and  $(b^2 - a^2)/2$  is exactly  $(b - a)^2/(2n)$ , which approaches 0 as  $n \to \infty$ .

Key steps in the computation (f1):

**Step 1**: We expand the definition of the Riemann sum and separate the sum using sum\_add\_distrib.

Step 2: We evaluate  $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} a = n \cdot a$  using sum\_const and card\_range.

Step 3: We factor out constants from the second sum using sum\_div and sum\_mul.

Step 4: We apply the crucial identity  $\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} (i+1) = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  from sum\_range\_add\_one

**Step 5**: Through field simplification and ring normalization, we show that:

RiemannSum
$$(x, a, b, n) - \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2} = \frac{(b - a)^2}{2n}$$

**Convergence argument**: Since we need  $\left|\frac{(b-a)^2}{2n}\right| < \varepsilon$ , this is equivalent to  $n > \frac{(b-a)^2}{2\varepsilon}$ . The Archimedean property guarantees we can find such an N, and the proof shows that for all  $n \geq N$ , the error bound holds.

and the proof shows that for all  $n \ge N$ , the error bound holds. This completes the proof that  $\int_a^b x \, dx = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$  using the formal definition of Riemann integration.

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