

A Study of Integration of Functions with Values in Certain Known Spaces



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ABSTRACT

Functional integration is a set of mathematical and physical findings in which the scope of an integral is no longer a vacuum, but a field of functions. Probability, the test of partial differt equations, and the integral approach to the quantum dynamics of particles and fields are practical integrals.

Keywords: Functional Integration, Integral, Spaces

INTRODUCTION

There is a function to incorporate into an ordinary integral (integrand) and a space area to incorporate it (integration field). The integration method includes inserting the integrand values for any aspect in the integration domain. A restricted method where the area of interconnected operations is separated into smaller and smaller regions is important to render this protocol rigorous. The meaning of the integrand cannot be too much for each small area, so the integrand may be substituted for a single value. The field of integration is a field of functions in a functional integral. The integrate returns a value to be applied for each function. Strict implementation of this protocol raises problems which remain the topics of current research [1].

In an article of 1919, Percy John Daniell and Norbert Wiener established a functional integration in a series of studies which culminated in his Brownian motion article of 1921. They also developed a systematic procedure for assigning likelihood to the random direction of a particle (now known as Wiener). The path integral, useful for the estimation of the quantical properties of the processes, was developed by Richard Feynmann. The classical notion of the particular trajectory for a particle is substituted in Feynman's extensive direction by the infinite sum of classical directions, each of which has its classic properties weighed differently [2].

In quantizing strategies in theoretical physics, functional integration is central. In order to evaluate the propensities of quantum electrodynamics and the standard model of particle physics, the algebraic properties of functional integrals are used.

FUNCTIONAL INTEGRATION

Whereas normal Riemann integration summarizes the $f(x)$ function over a continuous x spectrum, function integration

sums up the $G[f]$ function which can be called to be a "function" over a continuous range (or space) of the Function f . Many usable elements cannot be specifically measured, but can be tested using disruption approaches. A mechanical integral formal description is

$$\int G[f][Df] \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G[f] \prod_x df(x).$$

In certain cases, though, the functions $f(x)$ may be written in a number of orthogonal functions, such as $f(x) = f_n H_n(x)$, and then the definition becomes[3]

$$\int G[f][Df] \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \cdots \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} G(f_1, f_2, \dots) \prod_n df_n,$$

This is a little more comprehensible. The integral with the capital D has been proven to be a practical integral. Sometimes, the function f is written in a square bracket: $[Df]$ or $D[f]$.

Integration of functions with values in a Riesz space

In this study, meanings of components for functions with values are provided in a Riesz field. The concept started when I heard about the Bochner Integrative (which is a part of functions with Banach values) and Riesz Spaces. The goal of this study was to find a useful description of integration for Riesz-space functions with values not a Banach space. The Riemann integral was the original effort to describe an integral for functions with Riesz values. The theory is that some functions from above and below will approximate a function f . The use of basic functions in order to estimate a function f soon became obvious to the classic Lebesgue integral for R-evaluated functions (classical Lebesgue integral, see Convention and Notation). This is since simple functions are restricted, such that if there are simple functions, s function f is restricted, t with $s \geq f \geq t$.[4]

INTEGRATION OF FUNCTIONS WITH VALUES IN LOCALLY CONVEX SUSLIN SPACES

Birkhoff [1], Bochner [2], Pettis[11] and others [10] have generalised the principle of Lebesgue integral to work with values in a Banach space. The extension of Pettis' concept of integral spaces to typically convex spaces, needed by today's analyses, does not give a challenge, nor does the proof of fundamental property and numerous convergence theorems raise new problems. At present, however, theory appears to neglect parameters that are readily applicable to evaluate whether a given vector value function is summable. From the following it can be inferred in this article that this deficiency is partly due to the absence of a suitable concept of measurability in the case of nonmetrisable convex spaces.[5] Also for Banach spaces it is known that an Integral may present pathologies which render it less suitable for use in the field of analysis without clear measurability assumptions. The principle of 'poor measurability' requires very good cohesive characteristics in the locally convex Suslin spaces (Theorem 1 (§ 2) and Lemma B (article 3)) and is adequate for all purposes. In addition, Suslin spaces are locally convex and the properties of which were recently explained by L. There is a great deal of Schwartz [13]. Almost all separable spaces in analyses appear to be Suslin spaces.

INTEGRATION OF FUNCTIONS

This content includes a clear guide to integration methods, which are one of the most complicated measurement fields. Many fully-worked models are used for implementing integration approaches and illustrating strategies for solving problems. The subjects are immediately tutored. Each page includes essential concepts and formulas which are demonstrated in depth by typical problems.[6]

- Antiderivatives and Initial Value Problems
- The Indefinite Integral and Basic Rules of Integration. Table of Integrals
- Integration by Substitution
- Integration by Parts

- Integration by Completing the Square
- Partial Fraction Decomposition
- Integration of Rational Functions
- Integration of Irrational Functions
- Weierstrass Substitution
- Trigonometric Integrals
- Integration of Hyperbolic Functions
- Integrals of Vector-Valued Functions
- Trigonometric and Hyperbolic Substitutions
- Riemann Sums and the Definite Integral
- The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus
- Trapezoidal Rule
- Simpson's Rule
- Improper Integrals

THE INTEGRATION OF FUNCTIONS OF A SINGLE VARIABLE

The issue in the following pages is, often, what is called the 'indefinite integration' problem, or the 'finding of a function with a differential coefficient. These definitions have been ambiguous and confusing to some degree, and our issue needs to be more clearly described before we begin. Let us say that $f(x)$ is a continuous function for the actual variable x at the moment. We want to define or correct the equation by a function y whose derivative is $f(x)$. [7]

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f(x).$$

A quick contemplation reveals that a variety of aspects of this dilemma can be examined. Firstly, we would like to know if there is a functor, if the equation (1) still has a solution, if the solution exists, is unique and if there is more than one, what relationship there are between various solutions. The answers to these questions are found in a portion of the function theory of a real variable concerned with 'definite components.' The definite part [8]

$$y = \int_a^x f(t) dt,$$

The limit of a certain amount is known as a solution of equation (1). Further

$$y + C,$$

Where C is a constant arbitrary, it is also a solution that takes all (1) alternatives into account (3). These findings are clear to us. The concerns we are grappling with have a somewhat different character. They are questions about the functional form of y , if $f(x)$ depends on a specified form. Often it is said that 'seeking an actual expression for y when $f(x)$ is given' is the issue of an infinite inclusion. However, this argument remains incomplete. The theory of some integrals not only provides us with facts that a solution occurs, but also with an expression for it, an expression in the form of a limit. Precisely if we impose sweeping limitations as regards feature classes and modes of speech, the issue of infinite

Integration can only be described [9].

Suppose $f(x)$ is part of a specific F function class. Then we can question if you yourself are a member of F , or can express yourself in functions which are members of F according to a simple standard expression mode. To take a trivial example, we could conclude that F is the polynomial class with rational coefficients: the answer will be that in all situations you yourself are an F -member. Our option of (1) a class or a class and (2) a typical "mode of speech" depends on the range or complexity of our dilemma. For the purposes of this tract, we shall take F as the class of basic functions, a class that will be specifically described in the following portion, and our mode to express it directly, in finite terms, i.e. in formulas with no passages to a certain extent. We require one or two extra tentative feedback. In the 'integrative calculus' * the tract's subject matter is a chapter, but in no respects does it rely on a direct integration principle. An equation like this

$$y = \int f(x) dx$$

The entire sign shall only be considered as another form of writing (1) for technological ease and without any significant alteration of statement, may be eliminated throughout it. The x variable can be dynamic in general. But a reader who is ignorant of the analytical function principle and who considers x as real and x as valid or complicated functions in a real variable can appreciate the tract. The functions we work with are always the same except for some unique values of x . We would simply disregard these x values. The value of such a

$$\int \frac{dx}{x} = \log x$$

No one has the effect of getting an infinity of $1/x$ and the $\log x$ of $x = 0$. [10]

ELEMENTARY FUNCTIONS AND THEIR CLASSIFICATION

A fundamental function is a part of the function class that includes

- (i) Rational functions,
- (ii) algebraical functions, explicit or implicit,
- (iii) The exponential function e^x ,
- (iv) The logarithmic function $\log x$,
- (v) All functions which can be defined by means of any finite combination of the symbols proper to the preceding four classes of functions.

A few remarks and examples may help to elucidate this definition.

1. Any finite mixture of primary operations of addition, multiplication and division operating at vector x is a rational function. Any logical function of x can be represented in the form of elementary algebra.

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0x^m + a_1x^{m-1} + \dots + a_m}{b_0x^n + b_1x^{n-1} + \dots + b_n},$$

If m and n are positive integrals, the a and b are constants and there is no general factor of the numerator and denominator. This is the normal type of logical function, which we shall follow. It is difficult to remember that in no way can these constants be logical or algebraic or real numbers in determining a rational function. Thus

$$\frac{x^2 + x + i\sqrt{2}}{x\sqrt{2} - e} \quad \frac{x^2 + x + i\sqrt{2}}{x\sqrt{2} - e}$$

Is a rational function.

2. An explicit algebraic function is described by some finite combination of the four primary operations and any limited number of root extraction operations. Thus

$$\frac{\sqrt{1+x} - \sqrt[3]{1-x}}{\sqrt{1+x} + \sqrt[3]{1-x}}, \quad \sqrt{x + \sqrt{x + \sqrt{x}}}, \quad \left(\frac{x^2 + x + i\sqrt{2}}{x\sqrt{2} - e} \right)^{\frac{2}{3}}$$

Explicit functions are algebraic. And so is $x^{m/n}$ (i.e. $\sqrt[n]{x^m}$) for some integral m and n values. In the opposite.

$$x^{\sqrt{2}}, \quad x^{1+i}$$

are not at all algebraic functions, nor transcendental functions, since the aid of exponentials and logarithms determines irrational or complex powers.

Any explicit algebraic role of x satisfies an equation

$$P_0y^n + P_1y^{n-1} + \dots + P_n = 0$$

The polynomials in x are whose coefficients. So it is , for example, the function

$$y = \sqrt{x} + \sqrt{x + \sqrt{x}}$$

Satisfies the equation

$$y^4 - (4y^2 + 4y + 1)x = 0.$$

The opposite is not valid, since it is seen to have no explicit algebraic roots of their coefficients in general equations higher than 4. The equation gives a clear definition

$$y^5 - y - x = 0.$$

Therefore, an implicit algebraic function, including the formal algebraic function type, are taken into account.

3. An algebraic function of x is a function that meets a balance

$$P_0y^n + P_1y^{n-1} + \dots + P_n = 0$$

The polynomials in x are whose coefficients. Let us mark the left hand side of (1) of a polynomial by P(x , y) So there are two alternatives for every given P(x , y) polynomial. Either the sum of two polynomials of the same form, either the P(x, y), cannot either be represented, or is not a mere constant. P(x, y) is stated to be reducible and irreducible in the first case. Thus

$$y^4 - x^2 = (y^2 + x)(y^2 - x)$$

Is reducible, while both $y^2 + x$ and $y^2 - x$ are irreducible.

It is stated that equation (1) is reducible or irreducible since it is reducible or irreducibles on the left side. The rational alternative of a set of irreducible equations will still substitute a reducible equation. Consequently, reducible equations are only of secondary value and the equation of (1) is still expected to be irreducible. A normal algebraic feature of x is except in a small number of poles or branch points. May D be any closed domain in the x plane that is clearly associated, without a branch point. So in D there are n and n different functions that fulfil the equation (1). These n functions are classified as (1) roots in D . Thus if we write

$$x = r(\cos \theta + i \sin \theta),$$

where $-\pi < \theta \leq \pi$, then the roots of

$$y^2 - x = 0,$$

In the domain

$$0 < r_1 \leq r \leq r_2, \quad -\pi < -\pi + \delta \leq \theta \leq \pi - \delta < \pi,$$

are \sqrt{x} and $-\sqrt{x}$, where

$$\sqrt{x} = \sqrt{r}(\cos \frac{1}{2}\theta + i \sin \frac{1}{2}\theta).$$

The ties between the numerous roots of (1) are most significant in function theory *. We just need the two that follow for our present purposes.

(i) Any symmetric polynomial in the roots y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n of (1) is a rational function of x .

(ii) Any symmetric polynomial in y_2, y_3, \dots, y_n is a polynomial in y_1 with coefficients which are rational functions of x .

The first suggestion emerges from the equations directly

$$\sum y_1 y_2 \dots y_s = (-1)^s (P_{n-s}/P_0) \quad (s = 1, 2, \dots, n).$$

We see that to prove the second

$$\sum y_2 y_3 \dots y_s = \sum y_1 y_2 \dots y_{s-1} - y_1 \sum y_2 y_3 \dots y_{s-1},$$

So that the theorem is true for $\sum y_2 y_3 \dots y_s$ if it is true for $\sum y_2 y_3 \dots y_{s-1}$. It is certainly true for

$$y_2 + y_3 + \dots + y_n = (y_1 + y_2 + \dots + y_n) - y_1.$$

CONCLUSION

Mathematical development is, in general, a gradual phase. Its development and advancement are scarcely substantially different from natural historical lines. That is why, in hindsight, we seem to appreciate much of those inventions that have evolved well beyond us and have risen to integrate and enrich our science's mainstream. This creation was the great fortune and great accomplishment, as he initiated a step in the field of integration, now appropriately called after him, in the early 1920s.

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