Calculus 1 - 11

Definite integral

The Riemann integral

- **Definition.** A partition of an interval [a, b] is a finite set $P = \{x_0, x_1, ..., x_n\}$ such that $a = x_0 < x_1 < ... < x_{n-1} < x_n = b$.
- **Definition.** Assume that f : [a, b] $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and $P = \{x_0, x_1, ..., x_n\}$ is a partition of [a, b]. Let m_k := inf {*f*(*x*) : *x* ∈ [*x*_{*k*-1}, *x_k*]} *M_k* := sup { $f(x)$: *x* ∈ [x_{k-1} , x_k]}

k=1

The **lower Darboux sum** of f with respect to P is s_P = \sum *n* $m_k(x_k - x_{k-1}).$

The **upper Darboux sum** of *f* with respect to *P* is S_P = $\left\langle \right\rangle$ *n* $M_k(x_k - x_{k-1}).$

k=1 The **Riemann sum** of *f* with respect to *P* is σ_P = \sum *k*=1 *n* $f(c_k)$ $(x_k - x_{k-1})$, where

 $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ is arbitrary. The points c_k are called the **evaluation points**.

Statement. $s_P \leq \sigma_P \leq S_P$ for all partitions *P*.

Proof. It follows from the fact that $m_k \le f(c_k) \le M_k$ on each subinterval $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$.

Definition. Let P_1 and P_2 be partitions of [a, b]. If P_2 contains all points of P_1

and some additional points then P_2 is a refinement of P_1 .

Theorem. If P_2 is a refinement of P_1 then $s_{P_1} \leq s_{P_2}$ and $S_{P_1} \leq S_{P_2}$, that is, by refining a partition, the lower Darboux sum cannot decrease and the upper Darboux sum cannot increase.

Theorem. $s_{P_1} \leq S_{P_2}$ for any partitions P_1 and P_2 of [*a*, *b*], that is, any lower Darboux sum is less than or equal to any upper Darboux sum.

Proof. Let $P_3 = P_1 \cup P_2 \implies P_3$ is a refinement of P_1 and $P_2 \implies s_{P_1} \le s_{P_2} \le s_{P_3} \le s_{P_4}$

Definition. Assume that f : $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded. The **lower Darboux integral** of f is \int_a b f = sup {s_P : P is a partition of [*a* ,*b*]}. The **upper Darboux integral** of f is \int_a ${}^{\mathit{b}}$ f = inf {S_P : P is a partition of [*a* , *b*]}.

Consequence: *a b*_{*f*} ≤ \int_a^b *b f*

Definition. If f : [a , b] \longrightarrow $\mathbb R$ is bounded and $I = \int_a^b$ $\int_a^b f = \int_a^b$ *b f* then *f* is **Riemann integrable** on [*a*, *b*]. In this case the Riemann integral of *f* on [*a*, *b*] is denoted as $I = \int_{a}$ $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$ or $I = \int_{a}^{b}$ *b f*. (*f* is called the integrand.)

Notation. *R*[*a*, *b*] denotes the set of those functions that are Riemann integrable on [*a*, *b*]

Remark. If f : [a , b] \longrightarrow $\mathbb R$ is not bounded on [a , b] or bounded but \int_a $\int_a^b f < \int_a^b$ *b f* then *f* is not Riemann integrable on [*a*, *b*].

Example: Let $f(x) = c \in \mathbb{R}$, \int_{a} *b c* dx = ?

$$
s_P = \sum_{k=1}^n m_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^n c(x_k - x_{k-1}) = c(b - a),
$$

\n
$$
S_P = \sum_{k=1}^n M_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^n c(x_k - x_{k-1}) = c(b - a) \text{ for all partitions } P.
$$

\n
$$
\int_a^b f = \sup \{ s_P \} = c(b - a) = \inf \{ S_P \} = \int_a^b f \implies \int_a^b c \, dx = c(b - a)
$$

Example: The Dirichlet function $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \cap \mathbb{Q} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] \setminus \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$ is bounded, and for all partitions P of [0, 1], $s_P = 0$ and $S_P = 1$ $\Rightarrow \int_a$ $\int_a^b f = 0$ and \int_a^b $\int f=1$ \Rightarrow *f* is not integrable on [0, 1].

Necessary and sufficient conditions for Riemann integrability

Definition. The **mesh** or **norm of a partition** is the maximal distance between adjacent points in the partition: $\Delta P = \max_{k \in \{1,\dots,n\}} (x_k - x_{k-1}).$

Statement. Assume that f : [a , b] $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and (P_n) is a sequence of partitions of [a , b]. If $\lim_{n\to\infty} \Delta P_n = 0$ then $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_{P_n} = \int_{\Omega}$ *b*_{*n*} f and $\lim_{n \to \infty} S_{P_n} = \int_a^b$ *b f*

Statement. a) If
$$
\exists \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx \implies
$$
 for all partition sequences (P_n) for which $\lim_{n \to \infty} \Delta P_n = 0$:
\n
$$
\lim_{n \to \infty} s_{P_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} s_{P_n} = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx.
$$

\nb) If (P_n) is a partition sequence for which $\lim_{n \to \infty} \Delta P_n = 0$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} s_{P_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} S_{P_n} = I$
\n
$$
\implies \exists \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = I.
$$

Definition. Assume that f : [a , b] $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and $P = \{x_0, x_1, ..., x_n\}$ is a partition of [a , b]. Then the oscillation sum of *f* related to the partition *P* is

$$
O_P = \sum_{k=1}^n (M_k - m_k) (x_k - x_{k-1}) = S_P - s_P.
$$

Theorem (Riemann's criterion for integrability). Assume that $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded.

f is integrable on $[a, b] \iff$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a partition *P* such that $O_P = S_P - S_P < \varepsilon$.

Proof.
$$
\Rightarrow
$$
 : Assume that *f* is integrable and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exist partitions P_1 and P_2 such that
\n
$$
0 \le S_{P_2} - \int_0^{b} f \le \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ and } 0 \le \underline{\int_a^b} f - s_{P_1} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.
$$
\nLet $P = P_1 \cup P_2$ (*P* is a common refinement of P_1 and P_2). Then $s_{P_1} \le s_P \le S_P \le S_{P_2}$, so
\n
$$
0 \le O_P = S_P - s_P \le S_{P_2} - s_{P_1} = \left(S_{P_2} - \int_a^b f \left(\frac{f}{a} - s_{P_1}\right) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon
$$

 \Leftarrow : For any partition *P*, $s_P \leq \int_a$ *b*_{*f*} ≤ \int_a^b b *f* ≤ *S_P*, so $0 \leq \int_{a}$ $\int_{a}^{b} f - \int_{a}^{b}$ $\int_a^b f \leq S_p - s_p = O_p < \varepsilon$ for all $\varepsilon > 0 \implies \int_a^b g$ $\int_{a}^{b} f = \int_{a}^{b}$ *b f*, that is, *f* is integrable.

Remark. Recall that the **Riemann sum** of *f* with respect to the partition *P* is

$$
\sigma_P = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) (x_k - x_{k-1}),
$$
 where the evaluation points $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ are arbitrary and $s_P \le \sigma_P \le S_P$ for all partitions P .

Theorem. Assume that f : [a, b] \rightarrow R is bounded. Then

1.
$$
\exists \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = I \implies
$$
 for all partition sequences (P_n) for which $\lim_{n \to \infty} \Delta P_n = 0$:
\n $\lim_{n \to \infty} \sigma_{P_n} = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = I$ (independent of the choice of the evaluation points).
\n2. $\exists \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = I \iff$ there exists a partition sequence (P_n) for which $\lim_{n \to \infty} \Delta P_n = 0$
\nand $\exists \lim_{n \to \infty} \sigma_{P_n} = I$ (independent of the choice of the evaluation points).

Remark. The proof of part 1. is obvious, since $s_{P_n} \leq \sigma_{P_n} \leq S_{P_n}$ and $\lim_{n \to \infty} s_{P_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} S_{P_n} = I$.

Remark. It is important that the limit exists independent of the choice of $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ in the Riemann sum. For example, assume that *f* is the Dirichlet function on [*a*, *b*] and (P_n) is a sequence of partitions for which $\lim_{n\to\infty} \Delta P_n = 0$.

If c_k is rational: σ_{P_n} = \sum *k*=1 *n* $1 \cdot (x_k - x_{k-1}) = 1 \cdot (b - a) \longrightarrow b - a$ If c_k is irrational: σ_{P_n} = \sum *k*=1 *n* $0 \cdot (x_k - x_{k-1}) = 0 \longrightarrow 0$

 \Rightarrow the Dirichlet function is not integrable on any interval.

Sufficient conditions for Riemann integrability

Theorem. If *f* is monotonic and bounded on [*a*, *b*] then *f* is Riemann integrable on [*a*, *b*].

Proof. Assume that *f* is **monotonically increasing**.

- 1) If $f(a) = f(b)$ then *f* is constant, so $f \in R[a, b]$.
- 2) If $f(a) < f(b)$ then we show that for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a partition P such that the oscillation sum $O_P = S_P - S_P < \varepsilon$.

3) Let $P = \{x_0, x_1, ..., x_n\}$ be a partition with mesh

$$
\Delta P = \max_{k \in \{1,\ldots,n\}} (\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_{k-1}) < \delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{f(b) - f(a)} > 0.
$$

4) Then for the oscillation sum we get that

$$
O_P = S_P - s_P = \sum_{k=1}^n (M_k - m_k) (x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^n (f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})) (x_k - x_{k-1}) < \delta \sum_{k=1}^n (f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})) = \delta(f(b) - f(a)) = \varepsilon.
$$

Theorem. If f : $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous then *f* is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$.

Proof. 1) We prove that for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a partition P such that

the oscillation sum $O_P = S_P - S_P < \varepsilon$.

2) *f* is continuous on [*a*, *b*] \Rightarrow *f* is bounded and also uniformly continuous on [*a*, *b*].

$$
\Rightarrow \text{ for } \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} > 0 \text{ there exists } \delta > 0 \text{ such that } \forall x, y \in [a, b],
$$
\n
$$
\left| \begin{array}{c} x - y \\ \hline \end{array} \right| < \delta \Rightarrow \left| \begin{array}{c} f(x) - f(y) \\ \hline \end{array} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{\sqrt{2}}.
$$

- *b* **-** *a* 3) Let *P* = {*x*₀, *x*₁, ..., *x*_{*n*}} be a partition with mesh Δ*P* = $\max_{k \in \{1,...,n\}} (x_k - x_{k-1}) < δ$.
	- 4) *f* is continuous on $[x_{k-1}, x_k] \implies$ by the extreme value theorem *f* has a minimum for some $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ and a maximum for some $d_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$, $let f(c_k) = m_k, f(d_k) = M_k.$
	- 5) Then obviously $\left| d_k c_k \right| < \delta$, so for the oscillation sum we get that

$$
O_P = S_P - S_P = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (M_k - m_k) (x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (f(d_k) - f(c_k)) (x_k - x_{k-1}) =
$$

=
$$
\sum_{k=1}^{n} \left| f(d_k) - f(c_k) \right| (x_k - x_{k-1}) < \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} (x_k - x_{k-1}) =
$$

=
$$
\frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (x_k - x_{k-1}) = \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} (b-a) = \varepsilon.
$$

Theorem. If f : [a , b] $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and continuous except finitely many points then *f* is Riemann integrable on [*a*, *b*].

- **Proof.** 1) We prove it in the case of one point. Let $c \in [a, b]$ and assume that *f* is continuous on $[a, b] \setminus \{c\}$. Let $K > 0$ be such that $|f(x)| \leq K$ for all $x \in [a, b]$. We show that for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a partition *P* such that $O_P < \varepsilon$.
	- 2) If $c \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}$ $\frac{\varepsilon}{8 K}$ > *a* then let $c_1 = c - \frac{\varepsilon}{8 K}$ and let P_1 be a partition of [*a*, c_1] such that $O_{P_1} < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$ 4 . Such a partition exists since *f* is continuous on [*a*, *c*1]. If $c - \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}$ $\frac{1}{8}$ \le *a* then let *c*₁ = *a* and *P*₁ = {*a*}. 3) If $c + \frac{c}{c}$ $\frac{\varepsilon}{8}$ < *b* then let $c_2 = c + \frac{\varepsilon}{8}$ $\frac{\varepsilon}{8 K}$ and let P_2 be a partition of [*c*₂, *b*] such that $O_{P_2} < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$ 4 . Such a partition exists since f is continuous on $[c_2, b]$. If $c + \frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}$ $\frac{1}{8}$ \times *b* then let *c*₂ = *b* and *P*₂ = {*b*}.
		- 4) Then $P = P_1 \cup P_2$ is a suitable choice.

Remark. If *f*, g : [a, b] \longrightarrow R, *f* is Riemann integrable and $f(x) = g(x)$ except finitely many points in [a , b] then g is Riemann integrable and \int_a $\int_{a}^{b} f = \int_{a}^{b}$ *b g*.

Newton-Leibniz formula

Theorem (First fundamental theorem of calculus, Newton-Leibniz formula).

If f : $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann integrable and F : $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an antiderivative of *f*, that is, $F'(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, then

$$
\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) = [F(x)]_a^b
$$

Proof. Let (P_n) be a partition sequence of [*a*, *b*] such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} \Delta P_n = 0$.

For all
$$
k \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}
$$
, *F* is continuous on $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ and differentiable on (x_{k-1}, x_k) , so
by Lagrange's mean value theorem there exists $x_{k-1} < c_k < x_k$ such that

$$
\frac{F(x_k) - F(x_{k-1})}{x_k - x_{k-1}} = F'(c_k) = f(c_k) \implies F(x_k) - F(x_{k-1}) = f(c_k) (x_k - x_{k-1})
$$

$$
\implies F(b) - F(a) = (F(x_1) - F(x_0)) + (F(x_2) - F(x_1)) + ... + (F(x_n) - F(x_{n-1})) =
$$

$$
= \sum_{k=1}^{n} (F(x_k) - F(x_{k-1})) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(c_k) (x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sigma_{P_n}
$$

 \Rightarrow $F(b) - F(a) = \sigma_{P_n}$

Taking the limits of both sides: $\lim_{n\to\infty}(F(b)-F(a))=\lim_{n\to\infty}\sigma_{P_n}$

 The left-hand side is independent of *n* and since *f* is integrable then the limit of the right-hand side is the integral of *f*, so

$$
F(b)-F(a)=\int_a^b f(x)\,\mathrm{d} x.
$$

Remark. The geometrical meaning of \int_a^b *b f* is the signed area under the graph of *f* on [*a*, *b*].

Remark. Both conditions of the theorem are important as the following examples show.

Examples

Example 1. Let
$$
F(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x^2} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}
$$
, then $F'(x) = f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x \sin \frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{2}{x} \cos \frac{1}{x^2} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$.
f has an antiderivative, however, $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$ doesn't exist, since *f* is not bounded.

Example 1. \int_0^1 ⁵ sign (x² – 5 x + 6) dx exists, since *f* is continuous except 2 points. However, by Darboux's theorem, *f* doesn't have an antiderivative, since *f* has jump discontinuities.

Properties of Riemann integrable functions

Definition. If $f \in R[a, b]$ $\Big|_b$ $\int_{0}^{a} f(x) dx := - \int_{a}^{b}$ $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$, \int_{a}^{c} $\int_a^a f(x) dx := 0$

Theorem. Let $f, g \in R[a, b]$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

(1)
$$
\lambda f
$$
, $f + g$, $f - g \in R[a, b]$ and $\int_a^b \lambda f = \lambda \int_a^b f$, $\int_a^b (f \pm g) = \int_a^b f \pm \int_a^b g$
\n(2) $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [a, b] \implies f \in R[\alpha, \beta]$
\n(3) $a < c < b \implies \int_a^b f = \int_a^c f + \int_c^b f$
\n(4) $f(x) \le g(x) \forall x \in [a, b] \implies \int_a^b f(x) dx \le \int_a^b g(x) dx$
\n(5) $|f| \in R[a, b] \implies \int_a^b f(x) dx \le \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$
\n(6) $\inf_{[a, b]} f \le \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f \le \sup_{[a, b]} f$

Integration by parts

Theorem. If f and g are continuously differentiable on [a , b] then \int_a *b*_{*a*} $f' \cdot g = [f g]_a^b - \int_a^b g f(x) dx$ *b f g*'

Integration by substitution

Theorem. If *g* is continuously differentiable, strictly monotonic,
$$
[a, b] \subset D_g
$$
 and *f* is continuous on $[a, b]$ then
$$
\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{g^{-1}(a)}^{g^{-1}(b)} f(g(t)) g'(t) dt.
$$

Example. $I = \int^{ln2} \sqrt{e^x - 1} dx = ?$ 0 **Solution.** Substitution: $t = \sqrt{e^x - 1} \implies x = x(t) = \ln(t^2 + 1)$ $x'(t) =$ $\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{t^2 + 1}$ $\cdot 2 t \implies dx = \frac{2 t}{2}$ $t^2 + 1$ dt

The bounds will change: $x_1 = 0 \implies t_1 = \sqrt{e^0 - 1} = 0$ $x_2 = \ln 2 \implies t_2 = \sqrt{e^{\ln 2} - 1} = \sqrt{2 - 1} = 1$

$$
I = \int_0^{\ln 2} \sqrt{e^x - 1} \, dx = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} t \cdot \frac{2t}{t^2 + 1} \, dt = \int_0^1 \frac{2t^2}{t^2 + 1} \, dt = \int_0^1 \frac{2(t^2 + 1) - 2}{t^2 + 1} \, dt = \int_0^1 \left(2 - \frac{2}{t^2 + 1}\right) dt =
$$
\n
$$
= [2t - 2 \arctg t]_0^1 = (2 \cdot 1 - 2 \arctg 1) - (0 - 0) = 2 - \frac{\pi}{2}
$$

Lebesgue's theorem

Definition. We say that the set $A \subset \mathbb{R}$ has **Lebesgue measure 0** if for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exist

sequences (x_n) and (y_n) such that $x_n \le y_n$, $A \subset \left[\begin{array}{c} \end{array} \right]$ *n*=1 ∞ $[x_n, y_n]$ and \sum *n*=1 ∞ $(y_n - x_n) < \varepsilon$.

 (That is, *A* can be covered with countably many intervals such that their total length is less than ε .)

Examples. 1) Any countable set of $\mathbb R$ has Lebesgue measure 0, for example $\mathbb N$, $\mathbb Z$ or $\mathbb Q$.

2) The Cantor set is defined in the following way. Let $C_0 = [0, 1]$.

 C_1 is obtained from C_0 by deleting the open middle third from C_0 , that is,

$$
C_1 = \left[0, \frac{1}{3}\right] \cup \left[\frac{2}{3}, 1\right].
$$

 C_2 is obtained from C_1 by deleting the open middle thirds from C_1 , that is, $C_2 = |0,$ 1 9 $|| \cdot ||$ 2 9 , 1 3 \mathbb{H} the \mathbb{H} 2 3 , 7 9 \mathbb{I} \mathbb{I} 8 9 , 1

Continuing this process, C_{n+1} is obtained from C_n by deleting the open middle thirds of each of these intervals. The Cantor set is *C* = *Cn*.

n ∈

It can proved that the Cantor set is uncountable but has Lebesgue measure 0.

Theorem (Lebesgue). The function f : [a , b] \rightarrow R is Riemann integrable if and only if it is bounded and the set of discontinuities of *f* has Lebesgue measure 0.

Remark. If f : [a , b] \longrightarrow R is monotonic then *f* has at most countably many discontinuities (and they are jump discontinuities), so by Lebesgue's theorem *f* is Riemann integrable.

Example*. The Riemann function is defined as

$$
f: \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}, f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \\ \frac{1}{q} & \text{if } x = \frac{p}{q} \text{ where } p \in \mathbb{Z}, \text{ and } q \in \mathbb{N}^+ \text{ are coprimes} \end{cases}
$$

Prove that

a) $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = 0 \ \forall \ a \in \mathbb{R};$

a) *f* is continuous at all irrational numbers;

b) *f* is discontinuous at all rational numbers.

Solution. If $q \in \mathbb{N}^+$ is fixed then the set $\mathbb{Z} \cdot$ 1 *q* = *k q* : *k* ∈ does not have any real limit points. *p*

Therefore a finite union of such sets, $A_n = \{$ *q* : *p* ∈ **Z**, *q* ∈ {1, 2, ..., *n*} { does not have any \lim it points either. If $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus A_n$ the $| f(x) |$ < 1 $\frac{1}{n}$, so for all $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = 0$.

 \Rightarrow *f* is continuous at all irrational points and has a removable discontinuity at all rational points.

The Riemann function is bounded and the set of discontinuities is countable, so it has Lebesgue measure 0 \Longrightarrow *f* is Riemann integrable and $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = 0$.

The integral function

Definition. Assume that *f* is Riemann integrable on [*a*, *b*]. Then the function

$$
F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) \, \mathrm{d}t, \; x \in [a, b]
$$

is called the **integral function** of *f*.

Theorem (Second fundamental theorem of calculus).

Assume that *f* is Riemann integrable on [*a*, *b*] and $F(x) = \int_a^b$ *x f*(*t*) dt, *x* ∈ [*a*, *b*]. Then

1. *F* is Lipschitz continuous on [*a*, *b*].

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

Proof. 1. Let *K* = sup [*a*,*b*] $f(x)$. If $K = 0$ then $f = 0$ so $F = 0$ is Lipschitz continuous.

If $K \neq 0$ then $0 < K \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\delta(\varepsilon) = \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ *K* . If $x, y \in [a, b]$ such that $| x - y | < \delta$ then $\left| F(x) - F(y) \right| = \left| \right|_{a}$ $\int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt - \int_{a}^{y}$ $\int_{t}^{y} f(t) dt$ = \int_{y}^{y} $\left| \int_{y}^{x} f(t) dt \right| \leq \left| \int_{y}^{y}$ $\int_{y}^{x} |f(t)| dt \leq \int_{y}^{x}$ K dt $\vert \leq$ $\leq K |x-y| < K \delta = \varepsilon \implies F$ is Lipschitz continuous.

2.
$$
F'(x_0) = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{F(x) - F(x_0)}{x - x_0} = f(x_0) \text{ if for all } \varepsilon > 0 \text{ there exists } \delta > 0 \text{ such that}
$$

$$
\left| \frac{F(x) - F(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f(x_0) \right| < \varepsilon \text{ if } 0 < |x - x_0| < \delta.
$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Since *f* is continuous at x_0 then $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon$ if $|x - x_0| < \delta$. Then with this δ

x

x

$$
\left| \frac{F(x) - F(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f(x_0) \right| = \left| \frac{F(x) - F(x_0) - f(x_0)(x - x_0)}{x - x_0} \right| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{x - x_0} \right| =
$$
\n
$$
= \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x (f(t) - f(x_0)) dt}{x - x_0} \right| \le \frac{\left| \int_{x_0}^x |f(t) - f(x_0)| dt \right|}{\left| x - x_0 \right|} \le \frac{\left| \int_{x_0}^x \varepsilon dt \right|}{\left| x - x_0 \right|} = \frac{\left| \varepsilon(x - x_0) \right|}{\left| x - x_0 \right|} = \varepsilon.
$$

Consequence.

1. If *f* is continuous on [*a*, *b*] and $F(x) = \int_a^b$ *x f*(*t*) dt, *x* ∈ [*a*, *b*] then *F* ' (*x*) = *f*(*x*) ∀ *x* ∈ [*a*, *b*].

2. Every continuous function has an antiderivative.

Examples

Example 1. Calculate the derivatives of the following functions:

a)
$$
F(x) = \int_0^x \sin t^2 dt
$$
, $x \ne 0$ b) $G(x) = \int_0^{x^3} \sin t^2 dt$ c) $H(x) = \int_{x^2}^{x^3} \sin t^2 dt$

Solution. a)
$$
F'(x) = \sin x^2
$$
, since $f(t) = \sin(t^2)$ is continuous.
b) $G(x) = F(x^3) \implies G'(x) = F'(x^3) \cdot 3x^2 = \sin((x^3)^2) \cdot 3x^2 = \sin(x^6) \cdot 3x^2$
c) $H(x) = \int_0^{x^3} \sin t^2 dt - \int_0^{x^2} \sin t^2 dt = F(x^3) - F(x^2) \implies H'(x) = \sin(x^6) \cdot 3x^2 - \sin(x^4) \cdot 2x$
Example 2. $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\int_0^{x} \arctan t^2 dt}{x^2} = ?$

Solution. The limit has the form $\frac{0}{0}$ and the numerator is differentiable since

$$
f(t) = \arctan t^2 \text{ is continuous}
$$
\n
$$
\implies \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\int_0^x \arctan t^2 dt}{x^2} \stackrel{L^H}{=} \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\arctan x^2}{2x} \stackrel{L^H}{=} \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\frac{1}{1+x^4} \cdot 2x}{2} = 0
$$

Applications

Area

Example. Calculate the area of the unit circle.

Solution. The equation of the circle with radius *r* = 1 centered at the origin is

*x*² + *y*² = 1 ⟹ *y*² = 1 - *x*² ⟹ *y* = ± 1 - *x*² -1.0 -0.5 0.5 1.0 -1.0 -0.5 0.5 1.0 1 - *x*² - 1 - *x*²

The area of the unit circle is $A = 2 \int_{-1}^{1}$ $\sqrt{1-x^2}$ dx

Substitution:
$$
x = x(t) = \sin t \implies t = \arcsin x
$$

\n
$$
x'(t) = \frac{dx}{dt} = \cos t \implies dx = \cos t \, dt
$$
\nThe bounds will change: $x_1 = -1 \implies t_1 = \arcsin(-1) = -\frac{\pi}{2}$
\n
$$
x_2 = 1 \implies t_2 = \arcsin 1 = \frac{\pi}{2}
$$

$$
\Rightarrow A = 2 \int_{-1}^{1} \sqrt{1 - x^2} \, dx = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} 2 \sqrt{1 - (\sin t)^2} \cos t \, dt = 2 \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos t \cdot \cos t \, dt
$$

$$
= \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} 2 \cos^2 t \, dt = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} (1 + \cos 2 t) \, dt = \left[t + \frac{\sin 2 t}{2} \right]_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2}
$$

$$
= \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\sin \pi}{2} \right) - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\sin (-\pi)}{2} \right) = \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + 0 \right) - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2} + 0 \right) = \pi
$$

Arc length

Theorem. Assume that f : [a , b] \longrightarrow R is continuously differentiable. Then the arc length of the graph of *f* is $L = \int_a$ $\int_a^b \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx$.

Remark. Let $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < ... < x_n = b$ be a partition. If f is differentiable then by Lagrange's mean value theorem there exists c_k ∈ (x_{k-1} , x_k) such that $m = f'(c_k)$, where m is the slope of the secant line connecting the points $(x_{k-1}, f(x_{k-1}))$ and $(x_k, f(x_k))$. So the arc length can be approximated by the sum $\,\rangle\,$ *k*=1 $\frac{n}{\sqrt{1 + (f'(c_k))^2}} (x_k - x_{k-1})$, which is the Riemann sum of the function $\sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2}$. If *f* is continuously differentiable then the arc length of the graph of *f* is

$$
L = \int_{a}^{b} \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^{2}} dx.
$$

Example. Calculate the arc length of the unit circle.

Solution. Let
$$
f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}
$$
 if $x \in [-1, 1]$.
\n
$$
f'(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}}(-2x) = -\frac{x}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}
$$
\n
$$
\implies \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} = \sqrt{1 + \frac{x^2}{1 - x^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{1 - x^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}
$$
\nThe arc length of the unit circle is
\n
$$
L = 2 \int_{-1}^{1} \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} dx = 2 \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} dx = 2 \lim_{a \to -1 + b \to 1^-} \int_{a}^{b} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} dx =
$$
\n
$$
= 2 \lim_{a \to -1 + b \to 1^-} [\arcsin x]_a^b = 2 \lim_{a \to -1 + b \to 1^-} (\arcsin b - \arcsin a) =
$$
\n
$$
= 2 (\arcsin 1 - \arcsin (-1)) = 2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right) = 2 \pi
$$

Volume of solids of revolutions

Theorem. Assume that f : $[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and nonnegative and the graph of *f* is rotated about the *x* axis. Then the volume of this solid of revolution is $V = \pi \int_a^b$ \int ^{*b*} f ²(*x*) dx.

Remark. If $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < ... < x_n = b$ is a partition then the volume can be approximated by the sum \rangle *k*=1 $\frac{n}{\lambda}(x_k - x_{k-1})$ π $f^2(c_k)$ where c_k ∈ [x_{k-1} , x_k] is arbitrary.

 (Geometrically it means that the volume can be approximated by the sum of volumes of cylinders.)

This is the Riemann sum of the function $\pi f^2(x)$, so if *f* is continuous then the volume is \int ^{*b*} f ²(*x*) dx.

Surface area of solids of revolutions

Theorem. Assume that f : [a , b] $\rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuously differentiable and nonnegative and the graph of *f* is rotated about the *x* axis. Then the surface area of this solid of revolution is $A = 2 \pi \int_a$ $\int_{f(x)}^{b} \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^{2}} dx$.

Remark. If $a = x_0 < x_1 < x_2 < ... < x_n = b$ is a partition then the surface area of the solid of revolution can be approximated by the sum

$$
\sum_{k=1}^n \pi(f(x_{k-1})+f(x_k)) \, \sqrt{1+(f'(c_k))^2} \, (x_k-x_{k-1})
$$

where $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ exists by the Lagrange intermediate value theorem if *f* is differentiable. (Geometrically it means that the surface area can be approximated by the sum of lateral surfaces of truncated cones.)

If *f* is continuously differentiable then $f(x_{k-1}) + f(x_k) \approx 2 f(c_k)$, so the above sum will be the Riemann sum of the function 2 $\pi f(x)$ $\sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2}$. Therefore if *f* is continuously differentiable then the surface area is $A = 2 \pi \int_a^b$ $\int_{f(x)}^{b} \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^{2}} dx$.

Exercise

Let *f*(*x*) = $\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}$, −*r* ≤ *x* ≤ *r*. Rotating the graph of *f* about the *x* axis, we get a sphere with radius *r*. Calculate the volume and surface area of the sphere.

Solution: 1. The volume can be calculated as $V = \pi \int_a^b$ \int ^{*b*} f ²(*x*) dx The integrand is $(f(x))^2 = r^2 - x^2$ The volume is $V = π \int_{-r}^{r} (r^2 - x^2) dx = π \left[r^2 x - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]$ 3 -*r r* = $=\pi \left(\frac{r^3}{r^3} - \frac{r^3}{r^3} \right)$ $\left(-r^3 + \frac{r^3}{3}\right) = \frac{4r^3 \pi}{3}$ 3 2. The surface area can be calculated as $A = 2 \pi \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \; \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} \; \mathrm{d}x$ *a* The derivative of *f* is $f'(x) = ((r^2 - x^2)^{\frac{1}{2}})' = \frac{1}{r^2}$ 2 $(r^2 - x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (-2x) =$ *x* $r^2 - x^2$ \implies 1 + $(f'(x))^2 = 1 + \frac{x^2}{x^2}$ $\frac{x^2}{r^2 - x^2} = \frac{r^2 - x^2 + x^2}{r^2 - x^2}$ $\frac{-x^2 + x^2}{r^2 - x^2} = \frac{r^2}{r^2 - x^2}$ $r^2 - x^2$ The integrand is $f(x)$ $\sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} = \sqrt{r^2 - x^2} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{r^2}{2r^2}}$ $\frac{1}{r^2 - x^2} = r$ The surface area is $A = 2 \pi \int_{-r}$ $\int r^r dx = 2 \pi \cdot [r \, x]_{-r}^r = 2 \pi (r^2 - (-r^2)) = 4 \, r^2 \pi$

Additional exercises: Chapter 5, from page 86: https://math.bme.hu/~tasnadi/merninf_anal_1/anal1_gyak.pdf