

Then Date: \_\_\_\_\_

~~Chapter 7~~

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( \sup_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) - \inf_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \right) (x_i - x_{i-1})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( f(x_{i-1}) - f(x_i) \right) \frac{b-a}{n}$$

$$= \frac{b-a}{n} \left( f(x_0) - f(x_1) + f(x_1) - f(x_2) \right.$$

$$\left. + f(x_2) - f(x_3) + f(x_3) - f(x_4) + \dots - f(x_n) \right)$$

$$= \frac{b-a}{n} \left( f(x_0) - f(x_n) \right) = \frac{(b-a)(f(a) - f(b))}{n}$$

Choose  $n$  to be greater than

$$\frac{(b-a)(f(a) - f(b))}{\epsilon}$$

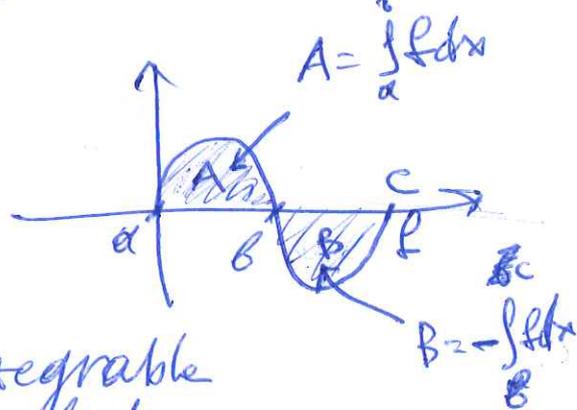
Then

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) < \frac{(b-a)(f(a) - f(b))}{\epsilon} \epsilon = \epsilon$$

This means  $f$  is integrable.  $\square$

Note. If  $f$  is increasing, then  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$ .

Remark. One interpretes the Riemann integral as the signed area under the graph.



Theorem. 1) If  $f$  is <sup>integrable</sup> bounded on  $[a, b]$  and  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  then ~~the~~  $kf$  is integrable and

$$\int_a^b kf(x) dx = k \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

2) If  $f, g$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then so is  $f+g$  and

$$\int_a^b (f+g) dx = \int_a^b f dx + \int_a^b g dx.$$

3) If  $f, g$  integrable and  $f \leq g$  on  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\int_a^b f dx \leq \int_a^b g dx.$$

4) If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $[b, c]$ , then it is integr. on  $[a, c]$  and

$$\int_a^c f dx = \int_a^b f dx + \int_b^c f dx.$$

5) If  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then so is  $|f|$  and

$$\left| \int_a^b f dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f| dx.$$

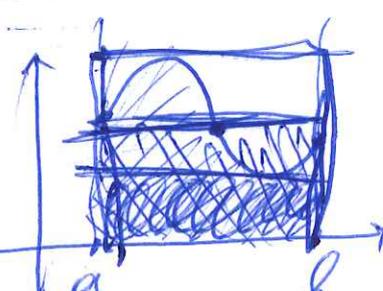
Proof. Straight forward.  $\square$

Theorem (Mean value theorem (MVT)).

If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then there exists  $c \in [a, b]$  s.t.

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

Proof.

If  $f$  is constant on  $[a, b]$ ,  then the statement is obvious.

Assume it's not constant. Denote

$$m = \inf_{x \in [a, b]} f(x), \quad M = \sup_{x \in [a, b]} f(x). \text{ Because}$$

$f$  is contin., there are  $x_m, x_M \in [a, b]$

s.t.  $f(x_m) = m$  and  $f(x_M) = M$ . We

may assume  $x_m < x_M$ . Then apply IUT

on  $[x_m, x_M]$ .

Observe that

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a).$$

Then  $\frac{\int_a^b f dx}{b-a} \in [m, M]$ .

Now,  $f(x_m) = m$  and  $f(x_M) = M$ ,  
so IVT implies the existence of  
 $c \in [x_m, x_M]$  s.t.

$$f(c) = \frac{\int_a^b f(x) dx}{b-a}, \quad \text{or}$$

$$\int_a^b f dx = f(c)(b-a). \quad \square$$

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Def.  $F$  is ~~the~~ an antiderivative  
(a primitive) of  $f$  if  $F' = f$ .

Theorem (Fundamental theorem of calculus).

Assume  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

Define  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ . Then  $F$  is an  
antiderivative of  $f$  and

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

Proof.

Note.  $F$  is well-defined because  $f$  is continuous (and thus integrable) on  $[a, x]$  for each  $x \in [a, b]$ .

Proof. We claim  $F' = f$  on  $(a, b)$ .

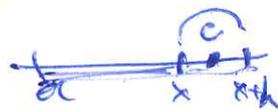
Take  $x \in (a, b)$  and  $h \in (0, b-x)$ ,

Motivation:

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

Consider

$$F(x+h) - F(x) = \int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt$$



$$= \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt = f(c)(x+h-x) = f(c)h$$

for some  $c \in [x, x+h]$  by the MVT.

Now,  $f$  is <sup>unif.</sup> continuous <sup>on  $[a, b]$</sup> . For each  $\varepsilon > 0$

~~there~~ there exists  $\delta > 0$  s.t. if  $|x-y| < \delta$ , then  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$  (here,  $x, y \in (a, b)$ ).

If  $|h| < \delta$ , then  $|c-x| < \delta$  and

$|f(c) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ . Therefore,

$$\left| \frac{F(x+h) - F(x)}{h} - f(x) \right|$$
$$= \left| \frac{f(c)h}{h} - f(x) \right| = |f(c) - f(x)| < \epsilon.$$

This means

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

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

Thus,  $F'(x) = f(x)$ . □

Note - If  $G'(x) = f(x)$  on  $(a, b)$ ,

then  $(G - F)' = f - f = 0$ , so

$G - F = c$ , so  $G = F + c$ , where  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Also,  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = G(b) - G(a)$ , provided

$G$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

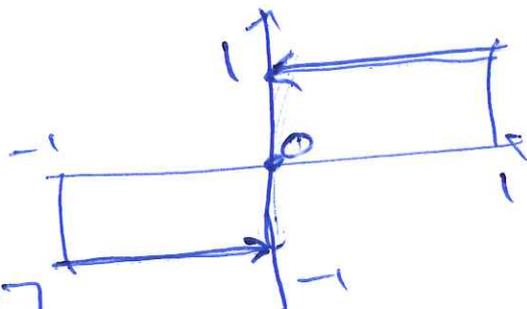
Remark. If  $f$  is discontinuous, then  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$  might not be differentiable.

Example. Take  $f = \text{sign } x$  on  $[-1, 1]$ .

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} -1, & x < 0, \\ 0, & x = 0, \\ 1, & x > 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{on } [-1, 1].$$

Then

$$\int_a^x f(t) dt = |x| \quad \text{on } [-1, 1].$$



Theorem (integration by parts).

If  $u, v: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are differentiable on  $(a, b)$  and  $u', v'$  are continuous on  $(a, b)$ , then

$$\int_a^b uv' dx = uv \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b u'v dx.$$

Proof. The product rule yields

$$(uv)' = u'v + uv'.$$

Integrate this from  $a$  to  $b$ :

$$\int_a^b (uv)' dx = \int_a^b uv' dx + \int_a^b u'v dx,$$

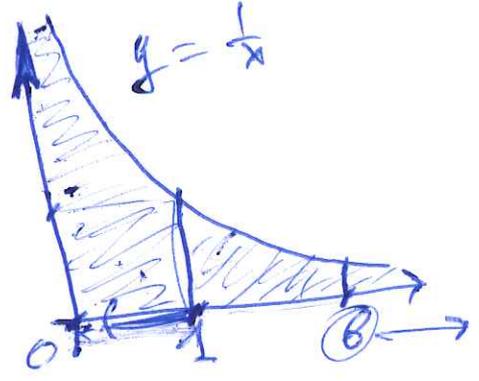
$$uv \Big|_a^b = \int_a^b uv' dx + \int_a^b u'v dx,$$

$$\int_a^b uv' dx = uv \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b u'v dx. \quad \square$$

### Improper integrals.

consider a function  $f: (a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , not necessarily bounded.

Assume  $f$  is integrable on  $[a+\varepsilon, b]$  for all  $\varepsilon \in (0, b-a)$ .



Then  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{a+\varepsilon}^b f(x) dx$

is called the improper integral of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  (of 1<sup>st</sup> kind).

This is usually denoted  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ .

Assume  $f: [a, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  for all  $b > a$ .

Then

$$\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

is called the improper integral (of the 2<sup>nd</sup> kind) of  $f$  on  $[a, \infty)$ .

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We may also define

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^0 f(x) dx + \int_0^{\infty} f(x) dx,$$

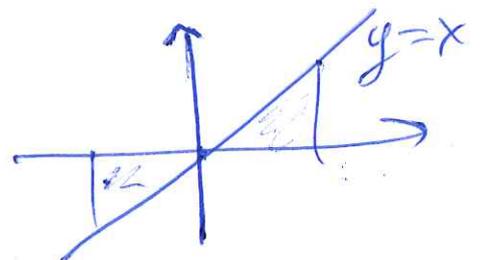
provided both integrals on the right exist.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx \neq \lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-a}^a f(x) dx.$$

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For example,

$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x dx$  does not exist.



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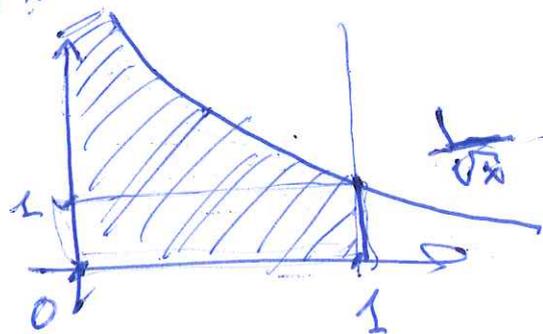
Example. ① Compute  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx$ .

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx$$

$$= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{\varepsilon}^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x}}$$

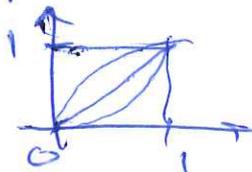
$$= \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \left. \frac{2}{\cancel{2}} \sqrt{x} \right|_{\varepsilon}^1 = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} 2(\sqrt{1} - \sqrt{\varepsilon})$$

$$= 2$$



② Note generally:  $\int_0^1 x^p dx$ ,  $p \in \mathbb{R}$ .

a)  $p \geq 0$ . Then  $x^p$  is  
contin. on  $(0, 1]$ , so it  
is integrable. This case is easy.



b)  $p \in (-1, 0)$ .

$$\int_0^1 x^p dx = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \int_{\varepsilon}^1 x^p dx = \frac{1}{p+1} \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} x^{p+1} \Big|_{\varepsilon}^1$$

$$= \frac{1}{p+1} \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} (1 - \varepsilon^{p+1}) = \frac{1}{p+1}$$

c)  $p < -1$ . Same argument implies the  
integral diverges.