Calculus 1 - 17

Definite integral

The Riemann integral

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

 $M_k:=\sup\left\{f(x):x\in[x_{k-1},\,x_k]\right\}$

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

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

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

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



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 $s_{P_1} \le s_{P_2}$ and $S_{P_1} \le S_{P_2}$, that is, by refining a partition, the lower Darboux sum cannot decrease and the upper Darboux sum cannot increase.

Proof. Let P_2 be the partition that is obtained from $P_1 = \{x_0, x_1, ..., x_n\}$ by adding the point $x_{k-1} < y < x_k$. We prove $s_{P_1} \le s_{P_2}$.

Let $A = \inf \{f(x) : x \in [x_{k-1}, y]\}$ and $B = \inf \{f(x) : x \in [y, x_k]\}$. Then $m_k(x_k - x_{k-1}) = m_k(y - x_{k-1}) + m_k(x_k - y) \le A(y - x_{k-1}) + B(x_k - y)$



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 $P_2 \implies s_{P_1} \le s_{P_3} \le S_{P_2} \le S_{P_2}$

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

The **lower Darboux integral** of f is
$$\int_{a}^{b} f = \sup \{s_P : P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\}$$
.

The **upper Darboux integral** of *f* is $\overline{\int_{a}^{b}} f = \inf \{S_{P} : P \text{ is a partition of } [a, b]\}.$

Consequence: $\int_{a}^{b} f \leq \int_{a}^{b} f$

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

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

Remark. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is not bounded on [a, b] or bounded but $\int_{a}^{b} f < \int_{a}^{b} f$ then f is not Riemann integrable on [a, b].

Example: Let $f(x) = c \in \mathbb{R}$, $\int_{a}^{b} c \, dx = ?$ $s_{P} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} m_{k}(x_{k} - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c(x_{k} - x_{k-1}) = c(b - a),$

$$S_{P} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} M_{k}(x_{k} - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c(x_{k} - x_{k-1}) = c(b - a) \text{ for all partitions } P.$$
$$\underbrace{\int_{a}^{b} f}_{a} = \sup \{s_{P}\} = c(b - a) = \inf \{S_{P}\} = \overline{\int_{a}^{b}} f \implies \int_{a}^{b} c \, dx = c(b - a)$$

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 $S_P = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\int_a} f = 0 \text{ and } \underline{\int_a} f = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow f \text{ is not integrable on } [0, 1].$$

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: $\Delta P = \max_{k \in \{1,...,n\}} (x_k - x_{k-1}).$

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

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

Definition. Assume that $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is a partition of [a, b].

Then the oscillation sum of *f* related to the partition *P* is



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. \implies : Assume that f is integrable and $\varepsilon > 0$. Then there exist partitions P_1 and P_2 such that

$$0 \le S_{P_2} - \overline{\int_a^b f} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \text{ and } 0 \le \underline{\int_a^b f} - S_{P_1} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

Let $P = P_1 \cup P_2$ (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 $0 \le O_P = S_P - s_P \le S_{P_2} - s_{P_1} = \left(S_{P_2} - \overline{\int_a^b}\right) + \left(\int_a^b f - s_{P_1}\right) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$

$$\Leftarrow : \text{For any partition } P, \quad s_P \leq \underline{\int_a^b} f \leq \overline{\int_a^b} f \leq S_P, \text{ so}$$
$$0 \leq \overline{\int_a^b} f - \underline{\int_a^b} f \leq S_P - s_P = O_P < \varepsilon \text{ for all } \varepsilon > 0 \implies \overline{\int_a^b} f = \underline{\int_a^b} f, \text{ that is, } f \text{ is integrable.}$$

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

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

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

1. $\exists \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = I \implies$ for all partition sequences (P_{n}) for which $\lim_{n \to \infty} \Delta P_{n} = 0$: $\lim_{n \to \infty} \sigma_{P_{n}} = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = I$ (independent of the choice of the evaluation points). 2. $\exists \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = I \iff$ there exists a partition sequence (P_{n}) for which $\lim_{n \to \infty} \Delta P_{n} = 0$ and $\exists \lim_{n \to \infty} \sigma_{P_{n}} = I$ (independent of the choice of the evaluation points).

Remark. The proof of part 1. is obvious, since $s_{P_n} \le \sigma_{P_n} \le S_{P_n}$ 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 $\lim \Delta P_n = 0$.

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

 \implies 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

$$\Delta P = \max_{k \in \{1,\dots,n\}} (x_k - x_{k-1}) < \delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{f(b) - f(a)} > 0.$$

4) Then for the oscillation sum we get that

$$O_{P} = S_{P} - S_{P} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (M_{k} - m_{k}) (x_{k} - x_{k-1}) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} (f(x_{k}) - f(x_{k-1})) (x_{k} - x_{k-1}) < \delta = \delta \sum_{k=1}^{n} (f(x_{k}) - f(x_{k-1})) = \delta(f(b) - f(a)) = \varepsilon.$$

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 $[a, b] \implies f$ is bounded and also uniformly continuous on [a, b].
- $\implies \text{for } \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} > 0 \text{ there exists } \delta > 0 \text{ such that } \forall x, y \in [a, b],$ $|x y| < \delta \implies \left| f(x) f(y) \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a}.$

3) Let $P = \{x_0, x_1, ..., x_n\}$ be a partition with mesh $\Delta P = \max_{k \in \{1,...,n\}} (x_k - x_{k-1}) < \delta$.

- 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 $| d_k c_k | < \delta$, 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 $|f(x)| \le K$ 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
$$c - \frac{\varepsilon}{8K} > a$$
 then let $c_1 = c - \frac{\varepsilon}{8K}$ and let P_1 be a partition of $[a, c_1]$ such that $O_{P_1} < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$.
Such a partition exists since f is continuous on $[a, c_1]$.
If $c - \frac{\varepsilon}{8K} \le a$ then let $c_1 = a$ and $P_1 = \{a\}$.
3) If $c + \frac{\varepsilon}{8K} < b$ then let $c_2 = c + \frac{\varepsilon}{8K}$ and let P_2 be a partition of $[c_2, b]$ such that $O_{P_2} < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$.
Such a partition exists since f is continuous on $[c_2, b]$.
If $c + \frac{\varepsilon}{8K} \ge b$ then let $c_2 = b$ and $P_2 = \{b\}$.
4) Then $P = P_1 \cup P_2$ is a suitable choice.

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

Newton-Leibniz formula

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

If $f : [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Riemann integrable and $F : [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 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 $\frac{F(x_k) - F(x_{k-1})}{x_k - x_{k-1}} = F'(c_k) = f(c_k) \implies F(x_k) - F(x_{k-1}) = f(c_k) (x_k - x_{k-1})$ $\implies F(b) - F(a) = (F(x_1) - F(x_0)) + (F(x_2) - F(x_1)) + ... + (F(x_n) - F(x_{n-1})) =$ $= \sum_{k=1}^{n} (F(x_k) - F(x_{k-1})) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} f(c_k) (x_k - x_{k-1}) = \sigma_{P_n}$ $\implies F(b) - F(a) = \sigma_{P_n}$

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 $\int_{a}^{b} f$ 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. $\int_0^5 \operatorname{sign} (x^2 - 5x + 6) dx$ 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 $f \in R[a, b] \int_{b}^{a} f(x) dx := -\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$, $\int_{a}^{a} f(x) dx := 0$

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 $\int_{a}^{b} \lambda f = \lambda \int_{a}^{b} f$, $\int_{a}^{b} (f \pm g) = \int_{a}^{b} f \pm \int_{a}^{b} g$
(2) $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [a, b] \implies f \in R[\alpha, \beta]$

(3)
$$a < c < b \implies \int_{a}^{b} f = \int_{a}^{c} f + \int_{c}^{b} f$$

(4) $f(x) \le g(x) \quad \forall x \in [a, b] \implies \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx \le \int_{a}^{b} g(x) \, dx$
(5) $|f| \in R[a, b] \implies |\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, dx| \le \int_{a}^{b} |f(x)| \, dx$
(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 $\int_a^b f' g = [fg]_a^b - \int_a^b fg'$

Integration by substitution

Theorem. If g is continuously differentiable, strictly monotonic, $[a, b] \subset D_q$ and

f is continuous on [*a*, *b*] then $\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{q^{-1}(a)}^{q^{-1}(b)} f(g(t)) g'(t) dt.$

Example. $I = \int_0^{\ln 2} \sqrt{e^x - 1} \, dx = ?$ Solution. Substitution: $t = \sqrt{e^x - 1} \implies x = x(t) = \ln(t^2 + 1)$ $x'(t) = \frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{1}{t^2 + 1} \cdot 2t \implies dx = \frac{2t}{t^2 + 1} \, dt$

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

$$I = \int_{0}^{\ln 2} \sqrt{e^{x} - 1} \, dx = \int_{t_{1}}^{t_{2}} t \cdot \frac{2t}{t^{2} + 1} \, dt = \int_{0}^{1} \frac{2t^{2}}{t^{2} + 1} \, dt = \int_{0}^{1} \frac{2(t^{2} + 1) - 2}{t^{2} + 1} \, dt = \int_{0}^{1} \left(2 - \frac{2}{t^{2} + 1}\right) \, dt = \\ = [2t - 2 \arctan t_{0}]_{0}^{1} = (2 \cdot 1 - 2 \arctan t_{0}) - (0 - 0) = 2 - \frac{\pi}{2}$$

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 $x_n \le y_n$, $A \subset \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} [x_n, y_n]$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (y_n - x_n) < \varepsilon$.

(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,

$$C_2 = \left[0, \frac{1}{9}\right] \bigcup \left[\frac{2}{9}, \frac{1}{3}\right] \bigcup \left[\frac{2}{3}, \frac{7}{9}\right] \bigcup \left[\frac{8}{9}, 1\right]$$

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 $C = \bigcap C_n$.

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

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

Remark. If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 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) $\lim f(x) = 0 \quad \forall a \in \mathbb{R};$

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 $\mathbb{Z} \cdot \frac{1}{q} = \left\{ \frac{k}{q} : k \in \mathbb{Z} \right\}$ does not have any real limit points.

Therefore a finite union of such sets, $A_n = \left\{\frac{p}{q} : p \in \mathbb{Z}, q \in \{1, 2, ..., n\}\right\}$ does not have any limit points either. If $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus A_n$ the $\left| f(x) \right| < \frac{1}{n}$, 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 $0 \implies f$ 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

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

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

Theorem (Second fundamental theorem of calculus).

Assume that f is Riemann integrable on [a, b] and $F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt$, $x \in [a, b]$. 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 $\delta(\varepsilon) = \frac{\varepsilon}{-1}$. If $x, y \in [a, b]$ such that $|x - y|$.

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

$$\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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) - f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{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| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(x_0) dt}{x - x_0} \right| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt}{x - x_0} \right| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt - \int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt}{x - x_0} \right| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^x f(t) dt}{x - x_0$$

Consequence.

1. If *f* is continuous on [*a*, *b*] and $F(x) = \int_{a}^{x} f(t) dt$, $x \in [a, b]$ then $F'(x) = f(x) \forall x \in [a, b]$. 2. Every continuous function has an antiderivative.

Examples

Example 1. Calculate the derivatives of the following functions:

a)
$$F(x) = \int_0^x \sin t^2 dt$$
, $x \neq 0$ 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 $f(t) = \arctan t^2$ is continuous



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



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

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

$$\Rightarrow A = 2 \int_{-\pi/2}^{1} \sqrt{1 - x^2} \, dx = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} 2 \sqrt{1 - (\sin t)^2} \cos t \, dt = 2 \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \cos t \cdot \cos t \, dt$$
$$= \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} 2 \cos^2 t \, dt = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} (1 + \cos 2t) \, dt = \left[t + \frac{\sin 2t}{2}\right]_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2}$$
$$= \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\sin \pi}{2}\right) - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\sin (-\pi)}{2}\right) = \left(\frac{\pi}{2} + 0\right) - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2} + 0\right) = \pi$$

Arc length

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

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 $c_k \in (x_{k-1}, x_k)$ 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 $\sum_{k=1}^{n} \sqrt{1 + (f'(c_k))^2} (x_k - x_{k-1})$, 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 $x \in [-1, 1]$.
 $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2} (1 - x^2)^{-\frac{1}{2}} (-2x) = -\frac{x}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$
 $\implies \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} = \sqrt{1 + \frac{x^2}{1 - x^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{1 - x^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$
The arc length of the unit circle is
 $L = 2 \int_{-1}^{1} \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} \, dx = 2 \int_{-1}^{1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \, dx = 2 \lim_{a \to -1 + b \to 1^-} \int_{a}^{b} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \, dx =$
 $= 2 \lim_{a \to -1} \lim_{b \to 1^-} [\arccos x]_{a}^{b} = 2 \lim_{a \to -1} \lim_{b \to 1^-} (\arcsin b - \arcsin a) =$

$$= 2 (\arcsin 1 - \arcsin (-1)) = 2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right) = 2 \pi$$

Volume of solids of revolutions

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

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

$$\sup \sum_{k=1} (x_k - x_{k-1}) \pi f^2(c_k)$$
 where $c_k \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ 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 $V = \pi \int_a^b f^2(x) dx$.



Surface area of solids of revolutions

- **Theorem.** Assume that $f : [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ 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 $A = 2\pi \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} \, dx.$
- **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 $A = 2 \pi \int_a^b f(x) \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^2} \, dx$.



Exercise

Let $f(x) = \sqrt{r^2 - x^2}$, $-r \le x \le r$. 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 $V = \pi \int_{a}^{b} f^{2}(x) dx$ The integrand is $(f(x))^{2} = r^{2} - x^{2}$ The volume is $V = \pi \int_{-r}^{r} (r^{2} - x^{2}) dx = \pi \left[r^{2}x - \frac{x^{3}}{3} \right]_{-r}^{r} =$ $= \pi \left(\left(r^{3} - \frac{r^{3}}{3} \right) - \left(-r^{3} + \frac{r^{3}}{3} \right) \right) = \frac{4 r^{3} \pi}{3}$ 2. The surface area can be calculated as $A = 2 \pi \int_{a}^{b} f(x) \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^{2}} dx$ The derivative of *f* is $f'(x) = \left((r^{2} - x^{2})^{\frac{1}{2}} \right)' = \frac{1}{2} (r^{2} - x^{2})^{-\frac{1}{2}} \cdot (-2x) = -\frac{x}{\sqrt{r^{2} - x^{2}}}$ $\implies 1 + (f'(x))^{2} = 1 + \frac{x^{2}}{r^{2} - x^{2}} = \frac{r^{2} - x^{2} + x^{2}}{r^{2} - x^{2}} = \frac{r^{2}}{r^{2} - x^{2}}$ The integrand is $f(x) \sqrt{1 + (f'(x))^{2}} = \sqrt{r^{2} - x^{2}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{r^{2}}{r^{2} - x^{2}}} = r$ The surface area is $A = 2\pi \int_{-r}^{r} r dx = 2\pi \cdot [rx]_{-r}^{r} = 2\pi (r^{2} - (-r^{2})) = 4r^{2}\pi$ Additional exercises: Chapter 5, from page 86:

https://math.bme.hu/~tasnadi/merninf_anal_1/anal1_gyak.pdf