

# More Properties of the Riemann Integral

James K. Peterson

Department of Biological Sciences and Department of Mathematical Sciences  
Clemson University

February 15, 2018

# Outline

- 1 More Riemann Integral Properties
- 2 The Fundamental Theorem Of Calculus
- 3 Antiderivatives
- 4 Homework

We first want to establish the familiar summation property of the Riemann integral over an interval  $[a, b] = [a, c] \cup [c, b]$ . Most of the technical work for this result is done in the following Lemma.

### Lemma

Let  $f \in B[a, b]$  and let  $c \in (a, b)$ . Let

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = L(f) \text{ and } \overline{\int}_a^b f(x) dx = U(f)$$

denote the lower and upper Darboux integrals of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ , respectively. Then we have

$$\overline{\int}_a^b f(x) dx = \overline{\int}_a^c f(x) dx + \overline{\int}_c^b f(x) dx$$

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

## Proof

We prove the result for the upper integrals as the lower integral case is similar. Let  $\pi$  be given by  $\pi = \{x_0 = a, x_1, \dots, x_p = b\}$ .

(Case (1):  $c$  is a partition point):

Thus, there is some index  $1 \leq k_0 \leq p - 1$  such that  $x_{k_0} = c$ . For any interval  $[\alpha, \beta]$ , let  $U_\alpha^\beta(f, \pi)$  denote the upper sum of  $f$  for the partition  $\pi$  over  $[\alpha, \beta]$ .

Now, we can rewrite  $\pi$  as  $\pi = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{k_0}\} \cup \{x_{k_0}, x_{k_0+1}, \dots, x_p\}$ . Let  $\pi_1 = \{x_0, \dots, x_{k_0}\}$  and  $\pi_2 = \{x_{k_0}, \dots, x_p\}$ . Then  $\pi_1 \in \mathbf{\Pi}[a, c]$ ,  $\pi_2 \in \mathbf{\Pi}[c, b]$ , and

$$U_a^b(f, \pi) = U_a^c(f, \pi_1) + U_c^b(f, \pi_2) \geq \overline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx + \overline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx,$$

by the definition of the upper sum.

## Proof

*(Case  $c$  is not in the partition):*

*Now, if  $c$  is not in  $\pi$ , we can refine  $\pi$  by adding  $c$ , obtaining the partition  $\pi' = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_{k_0}, c, x_{k_0+1}, \dots, x_p\}$ .*

*Splitting up  $\pi'$  at  $c$  as we did before into  $\pi_1$  and  $\pi_2$ , we see that  $\pi' = \pi_1 \vee \pi_2$  where  $\pi_1 = \{x_0, \dots, x_{k_0}, c\}$  and  $\pi_2 = \{c, x_{k_0+1}, \dots, x_p\}$ .*

*Thus, by our properties of upper sums, we see that*

$$U_a^b(f, \pi) \geq U_a^b(f, \pi') = U_a^c(f, \pi_1) + U_c^b(f, \pi_2) \geq \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

*Now combine the cases to find for any partition  $\pi$ , we have*

$$U_a^b(f, \pi) \geq \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx,$$

## Proof

which implies that

$$\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx \geq \overline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx + \overline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx.$$

Now we want to show the reverse inequality. Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. By the definition of the upper integral, there exists  $\pi_1 \in \mathbf{\Pi}[a, c]$  and  $\pi_2 \in \mathbf{\Pi}[c, b]$  such that

$$U_a^c(f, \pi_1) < \overline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx + \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \quad U_c^b(f, \pi_2) < \overline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx + \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

Let  $\pi = \pi_1 \cup \pi_2 \in \mathbf{\Pi}[a, b]$ . It follows that

$$U_a^b(f, \pi) = U_a^c(f, \pi_1) + U_c^b(f, \pi_2) < \overline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx + \overline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx + \epsilon.$$

## Proof

But, by definition, we have

$$\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx \leq U_a^b(f, \pi)$$

for all  $\pi$ . Hence, we see that

$$\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx < \overline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx + \overline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx + \epsilon.$$

Since  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary, this proves the reverse inequality we wanted. We can conclude, then, that

$$\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \overline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx + \overline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx.$$



## Theorem

If  $f \in RI[a, b]$  and  $c \in (a, b)$ , then  $f \in RI[a, c]$  and  $f \in RI[c, b]$ .

## Proof

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then there is a partition  $\pi_0 \in \Pi[a, b]$  such that  $U_a^b(f, \pi) - L_a^b(f, \pi) < \epsilon$  for any refinement,  $\pi$ , of  $\pi_0$ .

Let  $\pi_0$  be given by  $\pi_0 = \{x_0 = a, x_1, \dots, x_p = b\}$ . Define  $\pi'_0 = \pi_0 \cup \{c\}$ , so there is some index  $k_0$  such that  $x_{k_0} \leq c \leq x_{k_0+1}$ .

Let  $\pi_1 = \{x_0, \dots, x_{k_0}, c\}$  and  $\pi_2 = \{c, x_{k_0+1}, \dots, x_p\}$ .

## Proof

Then  $\pi_1 \in \mathbf{\Pi}[a, c]$  and  $\pi_2 \in \mathbf{\Pi}[c, b]$ . Let  $\pi'_1$  be a refinement of  $\pi_1$ . Then  $\pi'_1 \cup \pi_2$  is a refinement of  $\pi_0$ , and it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}U_a^c(f, \pi'_1) - L_a^c(f, \pi'_1) &= \sum_{\pi'_1} (M_j - m_j) \Delta x_j \\ &\leq \sum_{\pi'_1 \cup \pi_2} (M_j - m_j) \Delta x_j \\ &\leq U_a^b(f, \pi'_1 \cup \pi_2) - L_a^b(f, \pi'_1 \cup \pi_2).\end{aligned}$$

But, since  $\pi'_1 \cup \pi_2$  refines  $\pi_0$ , we have

$$U_a^b(f, \pi'_1 \cup \pi_2) - L_a^b(f, \pi'_1 \cup \pi_2) < \epsilon,$$

implying that

$$U_a^c(f, \pi'_1) - L_a^c(f, \pi'_1) < \epsilon$$

## Proof

for all refinements,  $\pi'_1$ , of  $\pi_1$ . Thus,  $f$  satisfies Riemann's criterion on  $[a, c]$ , and  $f \in RI[a, c]$ .

The proof on  $[c, b]$  is done in exactly the same way.  $\square$

## Theorem

If  $f \in RI[a, b]$  and  $c \in (a, b)$ , then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^c f(x) dx + \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

## Proof

Since  $f \in RI[a, b]$ , we know that  $\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \underline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx$ .

## Proof

Further, we also know that  $f \in RI[a, c]$  and  $f \in RI[c, b]$  for any  $c \in (a, b)$ . Thus,

$$\overline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx = \underline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx$$
$$\overline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx = \underline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx.$$

So, applying the Lemma, we conclude that, for any  $c \in (a, b)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f(x) dx &= \overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \overline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx + \overline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx \\ &= \underline{\int_a^c} f(x) dx + \underline{\int_c^b} f(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$



## Theorem

Let  $f \in RI[a, b]$ . Define  $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathfrak{R}$  by  $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t)dt$ .  
Then

- (i)  $F \in C[a, b]$ ;
- (ii) if  $f$  is continuous at  $c \in [a, b]$ , then  $F$  is differentiable at  $c$  and  $F'(c) = f(c)$ .

## Proof

First, note that  $f \in RI[a, b] \Rightarrow f \in R[a, x]$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ , by our previous results. Hence,  $F$  is well-defined. We will prove the results in order.

(i):

Now, let  $x, y \in [a, b]$  be such that  $x < y$ . Then

$$\inf_{[x,y]} f(t) (y - x) \leq \int_x^y f(t)dt \leq \sup_{[x,y]} f(t) (y - x)$$

## Proof

which implies that

$$|F(y) - F(x)| = \left| \int_x^y f(t) dt \right| \leq \|f\|_\infty (y - x).$$

A similar argument shows that if  $y, x \in [a, b]$  satisfy  $y < x$ , then

$$|F(y) - F(x)| = \left| \int_x^y f(t) dt \right| \leq \|f\|_\infty (x - y).$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then if

$$|x - y| < \frac{\epsilon}{\|f\|_\infty + 1},$$

we have

$$|F(y) - F(x)| \leq \|f\|_\infty |y - x| < \frac{\|f\|_\infty}{\|f\|_\infty + 1} \epsilon < \epsilon.$$

## Proof

Thus,  $F$  is continuous at  $x$  and, consequently, on  $[a, b]$ .

(ii):

Finally, assume  $f$  is continuous at  $c \in [a, b]$ , and let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \cap [a, b]$  implies  $|f(x) - f(c)| < \epsilon/2$ .

Pick  $h$  such that  $0 < |h| < \delta$  and  $c + h \in [a, b]$ . Let's assume, for concreteness, that  $h > 0$ .

Define

$$m = \inf_{[c, c+h]} f(t) \quad \text{and} \quad M = \sup_{[c, c+h]} f(t).$$

If  $c < x < c + h$ , then we have  $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \cap [a, b]$  and  $-\epsilon/2 < f(x) - f(c) < \epsilon/2$ . That is,

$$f(c) - \frac{\epsilon}{2} < f(x) < f(c) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \forall x \in [c, c + h].$$

## Proof

Hence,  $m \geq f(c) - \epsilon/2$  and  $M \leq f(c) + \epsilon/2$ . Now, we also know that

$$mh \leq \int_c^{c+h} f(t) dt \leq Mh.$$

Thus, we have

$$\frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} = \frac{\int_a^{c+h} f(t) dt - \int_a^c f(t) dt}{h} = \frac{\int_c^{c+h} f(t) dt}{h}.$$

Combining inequalities, we find

$$f(c) - \frac{\epsilon}{2} \leq m \leq \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} \leq M \leq f(c) + \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

yielding

$$\left| \frac{F(c+h) - F(c)}{h} - f(c) \right| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \epsilon$$

if  $x \in [c, c+h]$ .

## Proof

*Thus, since  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary, this shows  $(F'^+(c) = f(c))$ . The case where  $h < 0$  is handled in exactly the same way which tells us  $(F'^-(c) = f(c))$ . Combining, we have  $F'(c) = f(c)$ .*

*Note that if  $c = a$  or  $c = b$ , we need only consider the definition of the derivative from one side.  $\square$*

## Comment

*We call  $F(x)$  the indefinite integral of  $f$ .  $F$  is always better behaved than  $f$ , since integration is a smoothing operation. We can see that  $f$  need not be continuous, but, as long as it is integrable,  $F$  is always continuous.*

The next result is one of the many mean value theorems in the theory of integration. It is a more general form of the standard mean value theorem given in beginning calculus classes.

## Theorem

*The Mean Value Theorem For Riemann Integrals:*

*Let  $f \in C[a, b]$ , and let  $g \geq 0$  be integrable on  $[a, b]$ . Then there is a point,  $c \in [a, b]$ , such that*

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

## Proof

*Since  $f$  is continuous, it is also integrable. Hence,  $fg$  is integrable. Let  $m$  and  $M$  denote the lower and upper bounds of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ , respectively. Then  $mg(x) \leq f(x)g(x) \leq Mg(x)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .*

*Since the integral preserves order, we have*

## Proof

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

If the integral of  $g$  on  $[a, b]$  is 0, then the integral of  $fg$  is 0. Hence, in this case, choose any  $c \in [a, b]$ . If the integral of  $g$  is not 0, then it must be positive, since  $g \geq 0$ . Hence, we have, in this case,

$$m \leq \frac{\int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx}{\int_a^b g(x) dx} \leq M.$$

Now,  $f$  is continuous, so it attains  $M$  and  $m$  at some points. Hence, by the Intermediate Value Theorem there is a  $c \in [a, b]$  with

$$f(c) = \frac{\int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx}{\int_a^b g(x) dx}.$$

This implies the desired result.  $\square$

The next result is another standard mean value theorem from basic calculus. This result can be interpreted as stating that integration is an averaging process.

### Theorem

*Average Value For Riemann Integrals*

*If  $f \in C[a, b]$ , then there is a point  $c \in [a, b]$  such that*

$$\frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx = f(c).$$

### Proof

*Apply  $g(x) = 1$  in the previous theorem.  $\square$*

We need better ways to calculate Riemann Integrals. A great way to do it starts with the idea of antiderivatives.

### Definition

Let  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a bounded function. Let  $G : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be such that  $G'$  exists on  $[a, b]$  and  $G'(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . Such a function is called an **antiderivative** or a **primitive** of  $f$ .

The idea of an antiderivative is intellectually distinct from the Riemann integral of a bounded function  $f$ . Consider the following function  $f$  defined on  $[-1, 1]$ .

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin(1/x^2), & x \neq 0, x \in [-1, 1] \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

It is easy to see that this function has a removable discontinuity at 0. Moreover,  $f$  is even differentiable on  $[-1, 1]$  with derivative

$$f'(x) = \begin{cases} 2x \sin(1/x^2) - (2/x) \cos(1/x^2), & x \neq 0, x \in [-1, 1] \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Note  $f'$  is *not* bounded on  $[-1, 1]$  and hence it can not be Riemann Integrable. Now to connect this to the idea of antiderivatives, just relabel the functions. Let  $g$  be defined by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 2x \sin(1/x^2) - (2/x) \cos(1/x^2), & x \neq 0, x \in [-1, 1] \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

then define  $G$  by

$$G(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin(1/x^2), & x \neq 0, x \in [-1, 1] \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

We see that  $G$  is the antiderivative of  $g$  even though  $g$  itself does not have a Riemann integral. Again, the point is that the idea of the antiderivative of a function is intellectually distinct from that of being Riemann integrable.

# Homework 13

- 13.1 You can guess the antiderivative of  $x$  is  $x^2/2 + C$ . Use induction to prove the antiderivative of  $x^n$  for integers  $n \geq 1$  is  $x^{n+1}/(n+1) + C$ .
- 13.2 You can guess the antiderivative of  $1/x^2$  is  $-1/x + C$ . Use induction to prove the antiderivative of  $x^n$  for integers  $n < -1$  is  $x^{n+1}/(n+1) + C$ .
- 13.3 What is the most general antiderivative of  $1/x$ ?
- 13.4 Let  $f$  be defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x \sin(1/x), & x \in (0, 1] \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Prove  $|\int_0^1 f(x) dx| \leq 1/2$ .