

## 1 Further remarks about integrals

In class we discussed the proof from Prof. Beatrous's notes of the inequality

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

We pointed out that the hard part is proving that if  $f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then  $|f|$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ . In a similar way, we have the following result:

**Theorem 1** *If  $f$  and  $g$  are integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then the product  $fg$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .*

**Proof.** First notice that

$$fg = \frac{1}{2} [(f + g)^2 - f^2 - g^2].$$

So, it is enough to prove that if  $f$  is integrable, then  $f^2$  is integrable.

If  $f$  is integrable, then  $|f|$  is integrable. Also,  $f^2 = |f|^2$ . Let  $M = \sup |f|$  over  $[a, b]$ . Suppose that  $P$  is a partition of  $[a, b]$ , and  $I_j = [x_{j-1}, x_j]$  for some  $j$ . Let

$$m_j = \inf_{x \in I_j} |f|, \quad M_j = \sup_{x \in I_j} |f|.$$

Observe that

$$m_j^2 = \inf_{x \in I_j} |f|^2, \quad M_j^2 = \sup_{x \in I_j} |f|^2.$$

But

$$M_j^2 - m_j^2 = (M_j + m_j)(M_j - m_j) \leq 2M(M_j - m_j).$$

Therefore, for any partition  $P$ ,

$$U(f^2, P) - L(f^2, P) \leq 2M(U(|f|, P) - L(|f|, P)).$$

This implies that  $f^2$  is integrable, for any integrable  $f$ , and so  $fg$  is integrable for any integrable  $f$  and integrable  $g$ . ■

Now read: text: Substitution theorem (7.3.8), Integration by parts (7.3.17), Taylor's theorem with remainder (7.3.18)

### 1.0.1 Substitution

There are two ways to look at the method of substitution. The simplest is just as a way of finding antiderivatives. (Recall:  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$  if  $F' = f$ . This is often written as

$$\int f(t) dt = F(t) + c,$$

recognizing that if  $F' = f$ , then  $(F + c)' = f$  as well,  $c$  being a constant function.)

Thus, we could do problem 16(d) in the text as follows:

**Problem 2** Let  $f(t) = \frac{\cos\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{t}}$  for  $t > 0$ . Find  $\int_1^4 f$ .

**Solution 3** To use the fundamental theorem of calculus, we look for  $F$  such that  $F' = f$ . We have the formula

$$\int F'(\phi(t)) \phi'(t) dt = \int F'(u) du = F(u) = F(\phi(t))$$

if  $u = \phi(t)$ . Choosing  $\phi(t) = \sqrt{t}$ , we have  $\phi'(t) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}}$ , and so  $\int \frac{\cos\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{t}} dt = \int \frac{2\cos\sqrt{t}}{2\sqrt{t}} dt = \int 2\cos u du = 2\sin u = 2\sin(\sqrt{t})$ . Thus, we can let  $F(t) = 2\sin(\sqrt{t})$ , and we get the answer

$$\int_1^4 \frac{\cos\sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{t}} dt = 2\sin 2 - 2\sin 1.$$

But an alternate way of doing this is to change the variables in the limits of integration at the same time as we change variables in the integrand.<sup>1</sup> One way to think of this is as follows:

If  $\int_a^b f(\phi(t)) \phi'(t) dt = \int_c^d f(u) du$ , what values of  $c$  and  $d$  make sense?

Answer: If  $u = \phi(t)$ , then when  $t = a$ ,  $u = \phi(a)$ , and when  $t = b$ ,  $u = \phi(b)$ . We thus get the formula of Theorem 7.3.8:

$$\int_a^b f(\phi(t)) \phi'(t) dt = \int_{\phi(a)}^{\phi(b)} f(u) du.$$

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<sup>1</sup>This is an important theoretical tool even when neither the integral nor the transformed integral can be evaluated exactly.

Thus, the solution to the problem above is:

$$\int_1^4 \frac{\cos \sqrt{t}}{\sqrt{t}} dt = \int_{\sqrt{1}}^{\sqrt{4}} 2 \cos u du = 2 \sin 2 - 2 \sin 1.$$

But often substitutions are done differently. Consider

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-t^2} dt.$$

We don't spot the form  $f'(\phi(t))\phi'(t)$ . Instead, we do the substitution backwards, in a sense. We let  $t = \sin x$ . This works because then  $\sqrt{1-t^2} = \cos x$ , if  $0 \leq t \leq 1$  and  $0 \leq x \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Now, we quietly calculate so that no one can see us: " $dt = \cos x dx$ ". This leads us to consider

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos x \cos x dx.$$

We recognize this as an integral which can be done. To justify its relevance, we wish to write the integrand as

$$f(\phi(x))\phi'(x)$$

for some functions  $f$  and  $\phi$ . Clearly, we need  $\phi'(x) = \cos x$ , so  $\phi(x) = \sin x$  and  $\sqrt{1-\phi(x)^2} = \cos x$ . Hence by the previous substitution formula (using  $x$  in place of  $t$ , and  $t$  in place of  $u$ , we get

$$\int_a^b \cos x \cos x dx = \int_a^b \sqrt{1-\phi(x)^2} \phi'(x) dx = \int_{\phi(a)}^{\phi(b)} \sqrt{1-t^2} dt, \quad (1)$$

and we just have to determine  $a$  and  $b$ . We want  $\phi(a) = 0$  and  $\phi(b) = 1$ , so we set  $a = 0, b = \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Thus,

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1-t^2} dt = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^2 x dx = \left( \frac{\sin 2x}{4} + \frac{x}{2} \right) \Big|_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = \frac{\pi}{4}.$$

Question: What is the quick way of doing the original definite integral?

### 1.0.2 Integration by parts.

There is not much to say. Integration by parts is just a combination of the product rule for derivatives and the FTC. The product rule tells us that

$$(fg)' = f'g + g'f,$$

and so

$$\int_a^b (f'g + g'f) = \int_a^b (fg)' = f(b)g(b) - f(a)g(a).$$

Hence,

$$\int_a^b f'g = f(b)g(b) - f(a)g(a) - \int_a^b g'f.$$

### 1.0.3 Taylor's Theorem with remainder.

There is a whole section on Taylor's theorem earlier (section 6.4), but we can get Taylor's formula using integration by parts. Suppose that  $f$  is a function such that  $f', f'', \dots, f^{(n+1)}$  exist on  $[a, b]$ , and  $f^{(n+1)}$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ . Then consider the integral

$$\int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t) (b-t)^n dt.$$

(We use  $dt$  notation when it is convenient!) Integrate this by parts.

$$\int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t) (b-t)^n dt = f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^n \Big|_a^b + \int_a^b n f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^{n-1} dt.$$

One of the "boundary terms" vanishes, so we get

$$\int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t) (b-t)^n dt = -f^{(n)}(a) (b-a)^n + \int_a^b n f^{(n)}(t) (b-t)^{n-1} dt.$$

Integrate by parts again and we get

$$\int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t) (b-t)^n dt = -f^{(n)}(a) (b-a)^n - n f^{(n-1)}(a) (b-a)^{n-1} + \int_a^b n(n-1) f^{(n-1)}(t) (b-t)^{n-2} dt.$$

Keep doing this. The integral term after  $n$  integration by parts is

$$n! \int_a^b f'(t) dt = n! [f(b) - f(a)].$$

So our final equation is

$$\int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t) (b-t)^n dt = -f^{(n)}(a) (b-a)^n - n f^{(n-1)}(a) (b-a)^{n-1} - \dots + n! (f(b) - f(a)).$$

We solve this for  $f(b)$  and we get “Taylor’s formula with remainder”:

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{1}{2}f''(a)(b-a)^2 + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!}f^{(n)}(a)(b-a)^n + \frac{1}{n!} \int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t)(b-t)^n dt,$$

The integral term at the end is called the remainder.

We can get another form of the remainder by assuming that  $f^{n+1}$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Then let  $m = \min_{a \leq t \leq b} f^{(n+1)}(t)$  and  $M = \max_{a \leq t \leq b} f^{(n+1)}(t)$ . Then the previous comparison theorem about integrals implies that

$$\int_a^b m(b-t)^n dt \leq \int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t)(b-t)^n dt \leq \int_a^b M(b-t)^n dt.$$

Evaluating the first and last integrals implies that

$$m \frac{(b-a)^{n+1}}{n+1} \leq \int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t)(b-t)^n dt \leq M \frac{(b-a)^{n+1}}{n+1}.$$

(This requires that  $b-t \geq 0$ ; see below.) The intermediate value theorem implies that there must be some  $d \in [m, M]$  with

$$\int_a^b f^{(n+1)}(t)(b-t)^n dt = d \frac{(b-a)^{n+1}}{n+1}.$$

(What function was used in the intermediate value theorem?) Since  $f^{n+1}$  is the derivative of  $f^{(n)}$ , it has the intermediate value property,<sup>2</sup> and so there must be some  $c \in [a, b]$  with  $f^{n+1}(c) = d$ , giving

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{1}{2}f''(a)(b-a)^2 + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!}f^{(n)}(a)(b-a)^n + \frac{1}{(n+1)!}f^{(n+1)}(c)(b-a)^{n+1}.$$

This is the form of Taylor’s theorem in Chapter 6. Of course, it is more common to write it as

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x-x_0) + \cdots + R,$$

where  $R$  is the remainder term, written either as an integral or as a derivative.

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<sup>2</sup>At the beginning I assumed that  $f^{(n+1)}$  was continuous. But we only have to assume that  $f^{(n+1)}$  exists in  $(a, b)$ , and let  $m$  and  $M$  be inf and sup instead of max and min. This is a little more complicated, and perhaps the case of  $f^{(n+1)}$  constant needs to be treated separately. But the result is still true because we have an intermediate value theorem for derivatives even if they are not continuous.

#### 1.0.4 Intermediate value theorems for integrals

The following is easy to prove:

**Theorem 4** *If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then there is a  $c \in (a, b)$  such that*

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

**Proof.** Since  $f$  is continuous, there are  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $[a, b]$  with  $f(x_1) = \inf \{f(x) : x \in [a, b]\}$  and  $f(x_2) = \sup \{f(x) : x \in [a, b]\}$ . Then the comparison theorem for integrals implies that

$$f(x_1)(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f \leq f(x_2)(b-a).$$

The intermediate value theorem for continuous functions implies the theorem. ■

However, in the proof of Taylor's theorem with remainder, we used a slightly different result.

**Theorem 5** *If  $f$  is continuous in  $[a, b]$  and  $g$  is either nonnegative and integrable, or nonpositive and integrable, then  $fg$  is integrable, and there is a  $c \in (a, b)$  with*

$$\int_a^b fg = f(c) \int_a^b g. \tag{2}$$

We proved earlier that if  $f$  and  $g$  are integrable, then  $fg$  is integrable. We essentially gave the proof of the intermediate value formula in the previous section. What I want to emphasize here is the importance of the condition that  $g$  is either nonnegative or nonpositive. Suppose, for example, that  $f(x) = e^x$  and  $g(x) = x$ , on  $[-1, 1]$ . Then using integration by parts (or my latex program, which also does integrals!), we find that

$$\int_{-1}^1 fg = \int_{-1}^1 xe^x = \frac{2}{e}.$$

But  $f > 0$ , and  $\int_{-1}^1 g = 0$ , so the formula (2) can't be true here.