

1 The Riemann and the Riemann-Stieltjes integrals

Definition 1. Let $[a, b]$ be a given interval. A partition \mathcal{P} of $[a, b]$ is a collection of points $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ such that $a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b$. Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be bounded on $[a, b]$, i.e. $\exists M \geq 0$ such that $|f(x)| \leq M$ for all $x \in [a, b]$. For a given partition \mathcal{P} of $[a, b]$ we set

$$M_j = \sup \{f(x) \mid x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\}, \quad m_j = \inf \{f(x) \mid x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\}.$$

We define the upper and lower sums of f on \mathcal{P} respectively as

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f) \doteq \sum_{j=1}^n M_j \Delta_j x, \quad L(\mathcal{P}, f) \doteq \sum_{j=1}^n m_j \Delta_j x,$$

where $\Delta_j x = x_j - x_{j-1}$. In addition we define the upper and the lower Riemann integrals respectively as:

$$\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \inf_{\mathcal{P}} U(\mathcal{P}, f), \quad \underline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx = \sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(\mathcal{P}, f).$$

If $\overline{\int_a^b} f dx = \underline{\int_a^b} f dx$, we say that f is Riemann-integrable on $[a, b]$ and we call the Riemann integral of f on $[a, b]$ the quantity

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

Remark. The upper and lower integrals are well-defined for a bounded function. In fact if f is bounded in $[a, b]$ then there exist two constants m and M such that

$$m \leq f(x) \leq M, \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

Hence for every partition \mathcal{P} we have

$$m(b-a) \leq L(\mathcal{P}, f) \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f) \leq M(b-a),$$

so the quantities $\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx$ and $\underline{\int_a^b} f(x) dx$ are finite (but they might be different).

For the purpose of statistical applications is quite useful to use a slightly different version of the Riemann integral.

Definition 2. Let α be a monotonically increasing function on $[a, b]$. For each partition $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$ of $[a, b]$ we define $\Delta_j \alpha \doteq \alpha(x_j) - \alpha(x_{j-1})$, $j = 1, \dots, n$ and, accordingly, for every bounded function f on $[a, b]$ we define

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \sum_{j=1}^n M_j \Delta_j \alpha, \quad L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \sum_{j=1}^n m_j \Delta_j \alpha.$$

We define the upper and the lower Riemann-Stieltjes integrals on the interval $[a, b]$ of f w.r.t. the measure α respectively as:

$$\overline{\int_a^b} f(x) \alpha(dx) = \inf_{\mathcal{P}} U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha), \quad \underline{\int_a^b} f(x) \alpha(dx) = \sup_{\mathcal{P}} L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha),$$

and we say that the function f is Riemann-Stieltjes integrable on the interval $[a, b]$ w.r.t. the measure α , and we write

$f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$, if:

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

Remark. The Riemann integral is a special case of the Riemann-Stieltjes integral for $\alpha(x) = x$. Nevertheless note that $\alpha(x)$ is not required to be continuous.

Definition 3. We say that the partition \mathcal{P}^* is a refinement of the partition \mathcal{P} if $\mathcal{P} \subset \mathcal{P}^*$. Given two partitions \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 we say that the partition $\mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$ is their common refinement.

Theorem 1.1. If \mathcal{P}^* is a refinement of the partition \mathcal{P} then:

$$L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \leq L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha), \quad U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \geq U(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha). \quad (1.1)$$

Moreover:

$$\underline{\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx)} \leq \overline{\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx)}.$$

Proof. Suppose that \mathcal{P}^* contains one point more than \mathcal{P} . Let x^* be this point. Suppose, without loss of generality, that $x_{j-1} < x^* < x_j$ where x_{j-1} and x_j are point of the partition \mathcal{P} . Put

$$w_1 = \inf_{x_{j-1} \leq x \leq x^*} f(x), \quad w_2 = \inf_{x^* \leq x \leq x_j} f(x)$$

Since both $[x_{j-1}, x^*]$ and $[x^*, x_j]$ are subsets of $[x_{j-1}, x_j]$ we get that $m_j \leq w_1$ and $m_j \leq w_2$. Whence

$$\begin{aligned} L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) &= \underbrace{w_1 (\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{j-1})) + w_2 (\alpha(x_j) - \alpha(x^*))}_{\text{Appear in } L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) \text{ but not in } L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha)} - \underbrace{m_j (\alpha(x_j) - \alpha(x_{j-1}))}_{\text{vice versa}} \\ &= (w_1 - m_j) (\alpha(x^*) - \alpha(x_{j-1})) + (w_2 - m_j) (\alpha(x_j) - \alpha(x^*)) \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

If \mathcal{P}^* contains k more points we repeat this procedure k times. With an identical reasoning we prove $U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \geq U(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha)$. Now consider two arbitrary partitions \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 and consider $\mathcal{P}^* \doteq \mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$ their common refinement. Hence

$$L(\mathcal{P}_1, f, \alpha) \leq L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha),$$

whence for arbitrary partitions \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 it holds that

$$L(\mathcal{P}_1, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha).$$

Now fix \mathcal{P}_2 and take the supremum on the left over all \mathcal{P}_1 , obtaining

$$\underline{\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx)} \leq U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha).$$

Now take the infimum on the right over all \mathcal{P}_2 , obtaining

$$\underline{\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx)} \leq \overline{\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx)}.$$

□

Theorem 1.2. $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$ if and only if $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ there exists a partition \mathcal{P} of $[a, b]$ such that:

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon. \quad (1.2)$$

Proof. Suppose first that $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ there exists a partition \mathcal{P} of $[a, b]$ such that:

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon.$$

For every partition \mathcal{P} we have

$$L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \leq \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) \leq \overline{\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx)} \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha).$$

Hence

$$0 \leq \overline{\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx)} - \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon.$$

Since ε is arbitrarily small we get

$$\overline{\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx)} = \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx)$$

whence $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$. To prove the other implication, assume that $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. By definition of supremum and infimum we can say that there exists partitions such that

$$U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha) - \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) < \varepsilon/2, \text{ and } \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) - L(\mathcal{P}_1, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon/2.$$

If $\mathcal{P}_1 = \mathcal{P}_2$ we have finished, if $\mathcal{P}_1 \neq \mathcal{P}_2$ then the common refinement $\mathcal{P}^* = \mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$ contains more points than both \mathcal{P}_1 and \mathcal{P}_2 and then inequalities (0.0.1) are strict. Then

$$U(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) < U(\mathcal{P}_2, f, \alpha) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + L(\mathcal{P}_1, f, \alpha) = \varepsilon + L(\mathcal{P}_1, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon + L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha),$$

whence

$$U(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}^*, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon.$$

□

Theorem 1.3. If f is continuous in $[a, b]$ then $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$.

Proof. For the Heine-Borel Theorem the interval $[a, b]$ is compact and for the Heine-Cantor Theorem a continuous function on a compact set is uniformly continuous, hence no matter how small we take a $\eta > 0$ we can always find a $\delta > 0$ such that if $|x - t| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - f(t)| < \eta$. Now for all $\varepsilon > 0$ we look for a partition $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$ such that equation (0.0.2) holds. Take a partition \mathcal{P} such that $\Delta x_j = x_j - x_{j-1} < \delta$ for all $j = 1, \dots, n$. Therefore

$$M_j - m_j = \sup_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]} f(x) - \inf_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]} f(x) \leq \eta.$$

As a consequence

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) = \sum_{j=1}^n (M_j - m_j) \Delta_j \alpha \leq \eta \sum_{j=1}^n \Delta_j \alpha = \eta [\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)].$$

So it is enough to take an η such that $\eta [\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)] < \varepsilon$. \square

Theorem 1.4. (Integral as a linear operator). If $f_1 \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ and $f_2 \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$ then $f_1 + f_2 \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$. Moreover if $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$ then $c f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ for every constant c . We also have that

$$\int_a^b (f_1 + f_2)(x) \alpha(dx) = \int_a^b f_1(x) \alpha(dx) + \int_a^b f_2(x) \alpha(dx),$$

and that

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

Proof. Consider $f = f_1 + f_2$ and let P be a partition of $[a, b]$. We have

$$L(P, f_1, \alpha) + L(P, f_2, \alpha) \leq L(P, f, \alpha) \leq U(P, f, \alpha) \leq U(P, f_1, \alpha) + U(P, f_2, \alpha).$$

The first inequality follows from the identity $\inf(f_1) + \inf(f_2) \leq \inf(f_1 + f_2)$, while the second is a consequence of the trivial inequality $\inf(f) \leq \sup(f)$. Finally, the last one follows from $\sup(f_1 + f_2) \leq \sup(f_1) + \sup(f_2)$. Since $f_j \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$, $j = 1, 2$, for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a partition \mathcal{P}_j such that

$$U(\mathcal{P}_j, f_j, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}_j, f_j, \alpha) < \varepsilon, \quad j = 1, 2. \quad (1.3)$$

Consider the common refinement $\mathcal{P} \doteq \mathcal{P}_1 \cup \mathcal{P}_2$. We know from the properties of the common refinement that

$$L(\mathcal{P}_j, f_j, \alpha) \leq L(\mathcal{P}, f_j, \alpha) \text{ and } U(\mathcal{P}_j, f_j, \alpha) \geq U(\mathcal{P}, f_j, \alpha), \quad j = 1, 2.$$

Using these properties with (0.0.3) we get

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f_j, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f_j, \alpha) < \varepsilon, \quad j = 1, 2.$$

Now we have that

$$\begin{aligned} U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) &\leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - [L(\mathcal{P}, f_1, \alpha) + L(\mathcal{P}, f_2, \alpha)] \\ &\leq U(\mathcal{P}, f_1, \alpha) + U(\mathcal{P}, f_2, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f_1, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f_2, \alpha) \\ &= [U(\mathcal{P}, f_1, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f_1, \alpha)] + [U(\mathcal{P}, f_2, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f_2, \alpha)] < 2\varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

This proves that $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$. With the same partition \mathcal{P} we have that

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f_j, \alpha) - \int_a^b f_j(x) \alpha(dx) < \varepsilon, \quad j = 1, 2.$$

Therefore we can write

$$\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f_1, \alpha) + U(\mathcal{P}, f_2, \alpha) < \int_a^b f_1(x) \alpha(dx) + \int_a^b f_2(x) \alpha(dx) + 2\varepsilon.$$

Now let $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$, obtaining

$$\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) \leq \int_a^b f_1(x) \alpha(dx) + \int_a^b f_2(x) \alpha(dx).$$

On the other side we also have

$$\int_a^b f_j d\alpha - L(\mathcal{P}, f_j, \alpha) < \varepsilon, \quad j = 1, 2.$$

and of course

$$\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) \geq L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \geq L(\mathcal{P}, f_1, \alpha) + L(\mathcal{P}, f_2, \alpha).$$

Putting together the last two inequalities gives

$$\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) > \int_a^b f_1(x) \alpha(dx) + \int_a^b f_2(x) \alpha(dx) - 2\varepsilon$$

Now let $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$

$$\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) \geq \int_a^b f_1(x) \alpha(dx) + \int_a^b f_2(x) \alpha(dx).$$

Concluding

$$\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) = \int_a^b f_1(x) \alpha(dx) + \int_a^b f_2(x) \alpha(dx).$$

□

Theorem 1.5. Let f be bounded function in $\mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$, i.e. $m \leq f \leq M$. Let g be a function continuous in $[m, M]$. Therefore the composite function $G \doteq g \circ f$ belongs to $\mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$.

Proof. We have to show that $\forall \varepsilon^* > 0$ there exists a partition \mathcal{P} of $[a, b]$ such that $U(\mathcal{P}, G, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, G, \alpha) < \varepsilon^*$. As a first observation, note that the continuity of g on the compact set $[m, M]$ implies its uniform continuity, which means

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta < \varepsilon : |t - s| < \delta \Rightarrow |g(t) - g(s)| < \varepsilon.$$

Notice that, we have added the condition $\delta < \varepsilon$, which is fully compatible with uniform integrability and will be useful at the end of the proof. Being f integrable, we can find a partition $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$ of $[a, b]$ such that $U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \delta^2$. Define, for $j = 1, \dots, n$, the following quantities

$$\begin{aligned} M_j &\doteq \sup \{f(x) \mid x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\}, \\ m_j &\doteq \inf \{f(x) \mid x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\}, \\ M_j^* &\doteq \sup \{g(f(x)) \mid x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\}, \\ m_j^* &\doteq \inf \{g(f(x)) \mid x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]\}. \end{aligned}$$

Divide the integers $\{1, \dots, n\}$ into two classes A and B defined in this way

$$j \in A \Leftrightarrow M_j - m_j < \delta \text{ and } j \in B \Leftrightarrow M_j - m_j \geq \delta.$$

For the uniform continuity of g we have that

$$j \in A \Rightarrow M_j^* - m_j^* \leq \varepsilon.$$

Now let K be defined as $K = \sup_{x \in [m, M]} |g(f(x))|$. It is clear that

$$M_j^* = \sup_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]} g(f(x)) \leq \sup_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]} |g(f(x))| \leq \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |g(f(x))| = K,$$

and that

$$m_j^* = \inf_{x \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]} g(f(x)) \geq \inf_{x \in [a, b]} g(f(x)) \geq \inf_{x \in [a, b]} -|g(f(x))| = -\sup_{x \in [a, b]} |g(f(x))| = -K,$$

where the second in equality follows from $g \geq -|g|$. Thus

$$M_j^* - m_j^* \leq K - m_j^* \leq K + K = 2K.$$

By definition of the class B we have that

$$\sum_{j \in B} (M_j - m_j) \Delta_j \alpha \geq \delta \sum_{j \in B} \Delta_j \alpha. \quad (1.4)$$

Nevertheless $U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \delta^2$ is equivalent to

$$\sum_{j \in B} (M_j - m_j) \Delta_j \alpha < \delta^2. \quad (1.5)$$

Putting together inequalities (0.0.4) and (0.0.5) gives

$$\delta \sum_{j \in B} \Delta_j \alpha \leq \sum_{j \in B} (M_j - m_j) \Delta_j \alpha < \delta^2,$$

which, in turn, implies $\sum_{j \in B} \Delta_j \alpha < \delta$. Using the definition of the class A we get

$$\sum_{j \in A} (M_j^* - m_j^*) \Delta_j \alpha \leq \varepsilon \sum_{j \in A} \Delta_j \alpha \leq \varepsilon \sum_{j=1}^n \Delta_j \alpha = \varepsilon [\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)].$$

Finally, we compute the difference between the upper and lower sums of $G = g \circ f$ on \mathcal{P} , obtaining

$$\begin{aligned} U(\mathcal{P}, G, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, G, \alpha) &= \sum_{j=1}^n (M_j^* - m_j^*) \Delta_j \alpha = \sum_{j \in A} (M_j^* - m_j^*) \Delta_j \alpha + \sum_{j \in B} (M_j^* - m_j^*) \Delta_j \alpha \\ &\leq \varepsilon [\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)] + 2K\delta \\ &< \varepsilon [\alpha(b) - \alpha(a)] + 2K\varepsilon = \varepsilon [\alpha(b) - \alpha(a) + 2K]. \end{aligned}$$

Since ε is arbitrary the statement follows. \square

Theorem 1.6. Let f_1 and f_2 be bounded functions such that $f_j \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$, $j = 1, 2$. Then $f_1 \cdot f_2 \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$, $|f_1| \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ and

$$\left| \int_a^b f_1(x) \alpha(dx) \right| \leq \int_a^b |f_1(x)| \alpha(dx).$$

Proof. Since $x \rightarrow x^2$ is a continuous function, from Theorem 0.0.5 we obtain that $f_j^2 \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$ for $j = 1, 2$. Using the algebraic identity

$$f_1 f_2 = \frac{(f_1 + f_2)^2 - (f_1 - f_2)^2}{4},$$

we get that $f_1 f_2 \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$. Similarly, being $x \rightarrow |x|$ continuous we obtain from Theorem 0.0.5 that $|f| \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$. Furthermore, given that

$$-|f(x)| \leq f(x) \leq |f(x)|,$$

by integration on both sides we get

$$-\int_a^b |f(x)| \alpha(dx) \leq \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| \alpha(dx),$$

which is equivalent to

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| \alpha(dx).$$

□

Observation 1. Note that if the absolute value of a function belongs to $\mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$ we cannot say that f belongs to $\mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$. Consider the function defined as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ -1 & x \in \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Q} \end{cases}.$$

Therefore $|f| = 1$ is integrable while f it is clearly not integrable.

The following theorem provides the correspondence between Riemann and Riemann-Stieltjes integrals:

Theorem 1.7. Assume that α is monotonic and that α' is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$. Let f be a bounded real function on $[a, b]$. Then $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$ if and only if $g(x) = f(x) \alpha'(x)$ is Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$. In that case:

$$\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) = \int_a^b f(x) \alpha'(x) dx,$$

which is written unformally as:

$$\alpha(dx) = \alpha'(x) dx.$$

Theorem 1.8. Suppose that φ is a strictly increasing function from $[A, B]$ into $[a, b]$ with $\varphi(A) = a$ and $\varphi(B) = b$. Suppose that α is monotonically increasing on $[a, b]$ and $f \in \mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on (a, b) . Define the new function

$$g(y) \doteq f(\varphi(y)) : [A, B] \rightarrow \mathbb{R},$$

and the new measure

$$\beta(y) = \alpha(\varphi(y)).$$

Then $g \in \mathcal{R}(\beta)$ on $[A, B]$ and

$$\int_A^B g(y) \beta(dy) = \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx). \quad (1.6)$$

In particular if $\alpha(x) = x$ then $\beta = \varphi$ and applying Theorem 0.0.7 to the left side of equation (0.0.6) gives

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_{\varphi^{-1}(a)}^{\varphi^{-1}(b)} f(\varphi(y)) \varphi'(y) dy. \quad (1.7)$$

Remark 1. Let f be in $\mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$. We know that for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a partition $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$ such that

$$U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon. \quad (1.8)$$

By simply adding new points to the partition \mathcal{P} we can assume that the partition \mathcal{P} is the uniformly spaced partition

$$x_j = a + j \frac{b-a}{n}, \quad j = 0, \dots, n.$$

Having added more points and given the monotone behaviour of the upper and lower sums with respect to a refinement of the partition, the relationship (0.0.8) still holds. Now note that

$$L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \leq \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j) \Delta_j \alpha \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha),$$

where, as usual, $\Delta_j \alpha = \alpha(x_j) - \alpha(x_{j-1})$. It should be also obvious that

$$L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) \leq \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha).$$

Therefore

$$\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) - \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j) \Delta_j \alpha \leq U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) < \varepsilon,$$

and, simultaneously,

$$\int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) - \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j) \Delta_j \alpha \geq L(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) - U(\mathcal{P}, f, \alpha) > -\varepsilon.$$

In summary

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx) - \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j) \Delta_j \alpha \right| < \varepsilon,$$

which means

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j) \Delta_j \alpha = \int_a^b f(x) \alpha(dx).$$

It is straightforward to verify that the same result holds if in the sum $\sum_{j=1}^n f(x_j) \Delta_j \alpha$ we replace each of the $f(x_j)$ with a new $f(t_j)$, but with $t_j \in [x_j, x_{j-1}]$

In practical applications, integrals are computed using the fundamental theorem of calculus, stated below. Here, we propose a list of solved exercises that exploit the results in Remark 1 to obtain explicit expression for some simple integrals.

Exercise 1. Compute $\int_a^b K dx$, where K is a real constant.

Solution. The constant function is integrable, so using Remark 1 we can write

$$\int_a^b K dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - x_{j-1}) K = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} K \sum_{j=1}^n (x_j - x_{j-1}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} K \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{b-a}{n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} K n \frac{b-a}{n} = K(b-a).$$

Exercise 2. Compute $\int_a^b x dx$.

Solution. The function $x \rightarrow x$ is integrable, so using Remark 1 we can write

$$\begin{aligned}\int_a^b x dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n (x_{j+1} - x_j) \left(a + \frac{b-a}{n} j \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \left(a + \frac{b-a}{n} j \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b-a}{n} \left(a n + \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n j \right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b-a}{n} \left(a n + \frac{b-a}{n} \frac{(n+1)n}{2} \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[a(b-a) + \frac{(b-a)^2}{n} \frac{n+1}{2} \right] = a(b-a) + \frac{(b-a)^2}{2} \\ &= ab - a^2 + \frac{1}{2} b^2 + \frac{1}{2} a^2 - ab = \frac{1}{2} (b^2 - a^2).\end{aligned}$$

Note that using the identity

$$\sum_{j=1}^n j^2 = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6},$$

and proceeding in the exact same way it is possible to show that

$$\int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3} (b^3 - a^3)$$

Theorem 1.9. (First fundamental theorem of calculus). Let f be Riemann-integrable in $[a, b]$ and F be defined as:

$$F(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt,$$

then $F(x)$ is uniformly continuous (and thus continuous) on $[a, b]$. Moreover if f is continuous in $x_0 \in [a, b]$ then F is differentiable and

$$F'(x_0) = f(x_0).$$

Proof. Boundedness of f implies $|f(t)| \leq M$ for all $t \in [a, b]$ for some constant $M > 0$. Take two points x and y such that $a \leq x \leq y \leq b$ to have

$$|F(y) - F(x)| = \left| \int_x^y f(t) dt \right| \leq \int_x^y |f(t)| dt \leq M \int_x^y 1 dt = M(y - x).$$

Now for all $\varepsilon > 0$ it is enough to take x and y such that $|y - x| < \frac{\varepsilon}{M}$ to have uniform continuity of F . Suppose that f is continuous in x_0 . Therefore $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(t) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon$ whenever $|t - x_0| < \delta$ or, equivalently, for all $t \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$. For h positive, but sufficiently small, we get $x_0 + h \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ and, accordingly, that

$$\left| \frac{F(x_0 + h) - F(x_0)}{h} - f(x_0) \right| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} f(t) dt}{h} - f(x_0) \right| = \left| \frac{\int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} [f(t) - f(x_0)] dt}{h} \right| \leq \frac{\int_{x_0}^{x_0+h} |f(t) - f(x_0)| dt}{h} < \varepsilon.$$

Taking the limit $h \rightarrow 0^+$ we obtain $F'(x_0^+) = f(x_0)$ and, with a specular argument, $F'(x_0^-) = f(x_0)$. In summary $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$. \square

Theorem 1.10. (Second fundamental theorem of calculus). Let f be a function in $\mathcal{R}(\alpha)$ on $[a, b]$. If there exists a differentiable function F on $[a, b]$ such that $f = F'$ then

$$\int_a^b f(t) dt = F(b) - F(a).$$

The function F is called a primitive of f .

Proof. Let $\mathcal{P} = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$. The mean value theorem and the first fundamental theorem of calculus applied to F assert that, for all $j = 1, \dots, n$, there exists a point $t_j \in [x_{j-1}, x_j]$ such that:

$$F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1}) = F'(t_j) \Delta_j x = f(t_j) \Delta_j x.$$

Summing across all the indexes gives

$$\sum_{j=1}^n f(t_j) \Delta_j x = \sum [F(x_j) - F(x_{j-1})] = F(b) - F(a).$$

Note that the left-hand side depends on n while the right-hand does not. Taking the limit for $n \rightarrow \infty$ and using Remark 1 we find that

$$F(b) - F(a) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n f(t_j) \Delta_j x = \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

□

In what follows we shall use the notation $\int f(x) dx$ to indicate all the primitives of the function f . Sometimes the integral $\int f(x) dx$ is called the *indefinite integral* of the function f . Accordingly, computing the indefinite integral of f amounts to find all of its primitives.

We now proceed to illustrate implications of the two fundamental theorems of calculus with a collection of solved exercises.

Exercise 3. Find a function such that f is integrable, but $\nexists g$ such that $f = g'$.

Solution. If an integrable function is changed in one point, or in a finite number of points, the function remains integrable and, moreover, the integral does not change value. Now take a function f continuous in a closed interval $[a, b]$ and modify it as follows:

$$\widetilde{f}(x) = \begin{cases} L \neq f(x_0) & x = x_0 \\ f(x) & x \neq x_0. \end{cases}$$

The function \widetilde{f} is integrable but has a simple discontinuity and for Theorem ?? a function that is the derivative of another function cannot have simple discontinuities. Therefore $\nexists g$ such that $f = g'$.

Exercise 4. Compute the derivative of $F(x) = \int_a^{x^3} (\sin(t))^3 dt$.

Solution. Note that $F(x) = h(g(x))$, where $h(g) = \int_a^g \sin^3(t) dt$ and $g(x) = x^3$. Therefore:

$$F'(x) = h'(g(x)) g'(x) = \sin^3(x^3) 3x^2.$$

Exercise 5. Compute the derivative of

$$F(x) = \int_x^b \frac{1}{1+t^2+\sin(t)} dt.$$

Solution. Write $F(x) = - \int_b^x dt / (1 + t^2 + \sin(t))$. Then

$$F'(x) = - \frac{1}{1 + x^2 + \sin(x)}.$$

Exercise 6. Find all the primitives of the function $f(x) = 1/x$.

Solution. Since, for $x > 0$, we have $(\log(x))' = 1/x$ and, for all $x \neq 0$, we have $|x|' = |x|/x$, we get that $F(x) = \log(|x|) + c$ is a primitive for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Exercise 7. Find all the primitives of the function $f(x) = \sqrt{e^{3x}}$.

Solution. Observing that $(e^x)' = e^x$ it is immediate to verify that $F(x) = \frac{3}{2} e^{\frac{3}{2}x} + c$ is a primitive for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Exercise 8. Compute $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} x \sin(x) dx$.

Solution. We introduce the so-called integration by part method. Let $a < b$ be two real numbers. If f and g are two integrable functions such that f' and g' exist and are integrable on $[a, b]$, from the derivative of the product

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

we derive

$$f'g = (fg)' - fg'$$

whence

$$\int_a^b f'(x) g(x) dx = f(b) g(b) - f(a) g(a) - \int_a^b f(x) g'(x) dx. \quad (1.9)$$

To solve the exercise, we use the integration-by-part formula (0.0.9) with $f'(x) = \sin(x)$ and $g(x) = x$. Hence $g'(x) = 1$ and $f(x) = -\cos(x)$, whence

$$\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} x \sin(x) dx = (-x \cos(x)) \Big|_{\frac{\pi}{2}} - (-x \cos(x)) \Big|_0 - \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} (-\cos(x)) dx = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 1,$$

where we used the notation $f(x) \Big|_{x_0}$ to indicate that the function f must be computed in x_0 . Sometimes we use the short-hand notation (quite common) $[f(x)]_{x_0}^{x_1} = f(x) \Big|_{x_1} - f(x) \Big|_{x_0} = f(x_1) - f(x_0)$.

Exercise 9. Compute $\int_{-1}^1 x \arcsin(x) dx$.

Solution. It is convenient to use the change-of-variable formula (0.0.7). Call $x = \sin(\vartheta)$, from which $dx = \cos(\vartheta) d\vartheta$ and so

$$\int_{-1}^1 x \arcsin x dx = \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \vartheta \sin(\vartheta) \cos(\vartheta) d\vartheta.$$

Using the trigonometric identity $\cos(\vartheta) \sin(\vartheta) = \frac{1}{2} \sin(2\vartheta)$ we get

$$\int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \vartheta \sin(\vartheta) \cos(\vartheta) d\vartheta = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \vartheta \sin(2\vartheta) d\vartheta.$$

Using formula (0.0.9) with $g(\vartheta) = \frac{1}{2}\vartheta$ and $f'(\vartheta) = \sin(2\vartheta)$, that is $f(\vartheta) = -\frac{1}{2}\cos(2\vartheta)$, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{2} \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \vartheta \sin(2\vartheta) d\vartheta &= \left[-\frac{1}{4} \vartheta \cos(2\vartheta) \right]_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} - \frac{1}{4} \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} (-) \cos(2\vartheta) d\vartheta = \left[-\frac{1}{4} \vartheta \cos(2\vartheta) \right]_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} + \left[\frac{1}{8} \sin(2\vartheta) \right]_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{4} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{4} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2}.\end{aligned}$$

Exercise 10. Compute $\int_0^{1/\sqrt{2}} \frac{x^2}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx$.

Solution. Substitute $x = \sin(\vartheta) \Rightarrow dx = \cos(\vartheta) d\vartheta$, obtaining

$$\int_0^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}} \frac{x^2}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \frac{\sin^2(\vartheta)}{\cos(\vartheta)} \cos(\vartheta) d\vartheta = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \sin^2(\vartheta) d\vartheta.$$

Use $\sin^2(\vartheta) = \frac{1-\cos(2\vartheta)}{2}$ to have

$$\int_0^{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}} \frac{x^2}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} \frac{1-\cos(2\vartheta)}{2} d\vartheta = \frac{1}{2} \left[\vartheta - \frac{1}{2} \sin(2\vartheta) \right]_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{1}{2} \right] = \frac{\pi-2}{8}.$$

Exercise 11. Compute all the primitives of the function $f(x) = \frac{x-1}{x(x+1)^2}$.

Solution. We look for constants A, B and C such that

$$\frac{x-1}{x(x+1)^2} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{B}{x+1} + \frac{C}{(x+1)^2}.$$

Straightforward computations show that $A = -1, B = 1$ and $C = 2$. Whence

$$F(x) = -\log|x| + \log|1-x| - \frac{2}{(x+1)} + c,$$

is a primitive for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Exercise 12. Compute all the primitives of the function $f(x) = \frac{2x-1}{2x^2-2x+3}$.

Solution. Put $g(x) = 2x^2 - 2x + 3$ and note that

$$\frac{2x-1}{2x^2-2x+3} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)},$$

whence $F(x) = \frac{1}{2} \log|2x^2 - 2x + 3| + c$ is a primitive for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Exercise 13. Compute all the primitives of the function $f(x) = \frac{x^3-1}{x^2-3x+2}$.

Solution. The function f is a fraction in which the degree of the numerator is greater than the degree of the denominator. We can thus proceed using the Ruffini's decomposition algorithm:

$x^3 - 1$	$x^2 - 3x + 2$
$(+x) \cdot (x^2 - 3x + 2) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$	$\frac{x^3}{x^2} = x$
$x^3 - 1 - x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x = 3x^2 - 2x - 1$	

and we continue till division is not more allowed, obtaining

$x^3 - 1$	$x^2 - 3x + 2$
$x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$	$x + \frac{3x^2}{x^2} = x + 3 \equiv Q(x)$
$3x^2 - 2x - 1$ $3 \cdot (x^2 - 3x + 2) = 3x^2 - 9x + 6$	
$3x^2 - 2x - 1 - (3x^2 - 9x + 6) = 7x - 7 \equiv R(x)$	

In summary

$$\frac{x^3 - 1}{x^2 - 3x + 2} = (x + 3) + \frac{7x - 7}{x^2 - 3x + 2} = (x + 3) + 7 \frac{x - 1}{(x - 1)(x - 2)} = (x + 3) + 7 \frac{1}{x - 2},$$

whence

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^2 + 3x + 7 \log|x - 2| + c,$$

is a primitive for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

Exercise 14. Compute the indefinite integral $\int \sqrt{2x - x^2} dx$.

Solution. Note that $\sqrt{2x - x^2} = \sqrt{1 - (x - 1)^2}$. Change variable $u = x - 1$, obtaining $\sqrt{2x - x^2} dx = \sqrt{1 - u^2} du$. Now change again with $u = \sin(\vartheta)$, which gives $du = \cos(\vartheta) d\vartheta$ and so

$$\sqrt{2x - x^2} dx = \sqrt{1 - u^2} du = \cos^2(\vartheta) d\vartheta.$$

Remember that $\cos^2(\vartheta) = \frac{1 + \cos(2\vartheta)}{2}$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sqrt{2x - x^2} dx &= \int \sqrt{1 - u^2} du = \int \cos^2(\vartheta) d\vartheta = \int \frac{1 + \cos(2\vartheta)}{2} d\vartheta = \frac{\vartheta}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \sin(2\vartheta) + c \\ &= \frac{\vartheta}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin(\vartheta) \cos(\vartheta) + c = \frac{\arcsin(u)}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sin(\arcsin(u)) \cos(\arcsin(u)) + c \\ &= \frac{\arcsin(u)}{2} + \frac{1}{2} u \cos(\arcsin(u)) + c, \end{aligned}$$

where c is any real constant. Now note that $\cos(\arcsin(u)) = \sqrt{1 - \sin^2(\arcsin(u))} = \sqrt{1 - u^2} = \sqrt{1 - (x - 1)^2}$. Therefore

$$\int \sqrt{2x - x^2} dx = \frac{\arcsin(x - 1)}{2} + \frac{1}{2} (x - 1) \sqrt{1 - (x - 1)^2} + c.$$