

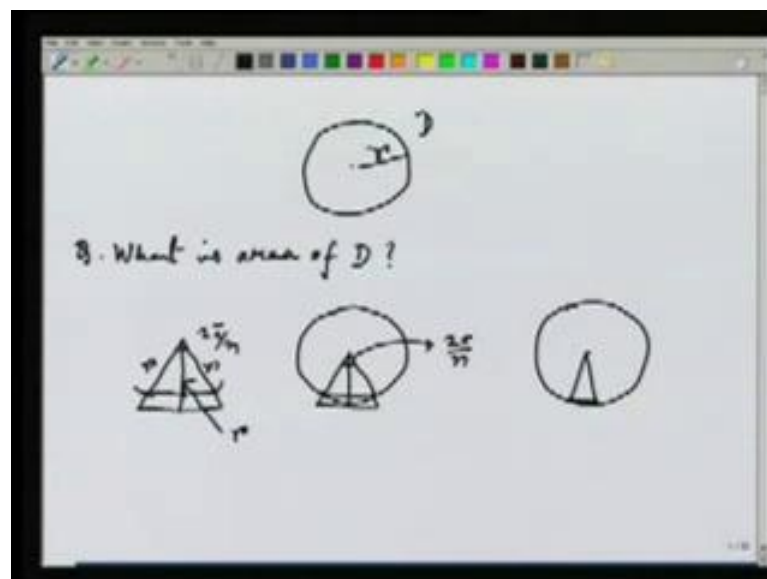
Mathematics - I
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Lecture - 17
Riemann Integral

Today we are going to start with Riemann Integration. You perhaps, already know this, as the definite integral. Today, we are going to start with the theoretical construction of this integration. It was first done by the German mathematician, Bernhard Riemann. That is why, this integration called Riemann integration. Now, historically speaking, the theory of integration precedes the theory of differentiation. It was actually known to the Ancient Greek and it is essentially their method, which Riemann analytically established.

So, first, we will start with the usual technique of integrating as conceived by the Greeks. It is essentially to find out areas of certain regions, in terms of the areas of certain regions, which we already know. For example, we know, what you mean by area of triangle? We know, what is area of rectangle? But, using this, can we find area, let us of a disk. That is what the Ancient Greek has done. So, let me explain for that to you in the modern language.

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So, the problem is this. I look at a disk, whose radius is r , so this distance is r , call this disk D . Question is what is area of D ? When you ask this question, surprisingly it makes

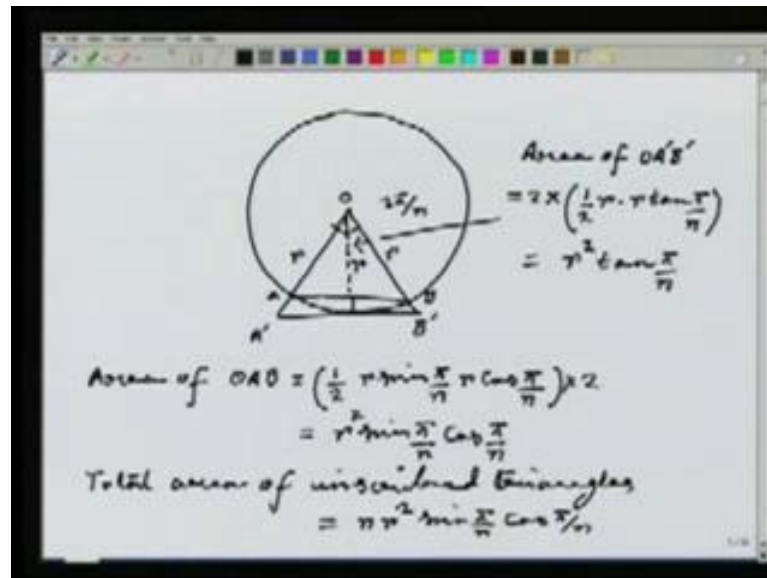
sense to everybody, that we can try to find the area of the disk D . But, the question is, it has not been defined a theory, that what exactly is area of a disk. What is the definition of the area? We will see we will proceed intuitively and see that the Riemann integration, actually defines the notion of area for us also.

It is, not only calculating areas, it defines the area also. So, we follow the Greek method, which goes as follows. I draw a bigger picture of the disk and then, this is the center. And what I do is, I look at this triangle, where this angle, let us say is $2\pi/n$. That is, I am actually trying to write down this disk as the union of triangle. Where, the top angle is $2\pi/n$. So, I am going to use n many triangles. And obviously, I can see from the picture, it is not going to fill up whole disk, some portion will be left.

But, notice just one thing, if I take 1 bigger N , that means, 1 lesser $2\pi/N$. Then, the picture would look something like this. And then, I can go on increasing the N 's and perhaps, these triangles, which I am drawing, it is getting almost is equal to the disk. But, we are not satisfied by just this. What I will do is, I will draw another triangle, which is slightly bigger. It is this.

So, separately the picture looks like, first triangle is this, where the top angle is $2\pi/n$. This is $2\pi/n$ and then, there is slightly bigger triangle, with the same angle. I know this height is r , so is this side. And if I draw this line in the picture, here it is the this line, I know this is also r up to this is r up to this is r , and this whole thing is also r . Now, I want to find the areas of the smaller triangle and the bigger triangle.

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So, I will draw another picture of this. Now, I write as a bigger disk, this is the center; I have this smaller triangle, which is the inscribed 1. And then, I have a bigger triangle, which is super scribed 1. This line I know as length r, this line has the length r, this line has the length r, this side and whole angle is 2π by n. Now, if I try to find out, first the area of the smaller triangle. So, let me given a name O, A, B and the bigger triangle is O, A prime, B prime.

So, first try to calculate the area of O, A, B. What is that area? Well, the half angle in the top is certainly π by n. And then, I know this length is r. That is the hypotenuse. So, the area is, half times the base. The base is $r \sin \pi$ by n times the altitude, what is the altitude here, well it is just $r \cos \pi$ by n. So, half times $\sin \pi$ by n times $r \cos \pi$ by n. Now, how many such triangles are there? But, I have two triangles. So, the area of the O, A, B is, actually what I have written as half, is actually half of O, A, B.

So, area of O, A, B is this times 2. So, it is $r \sin \pi$ by n times cosine π by n, well r square. Now, how many such triangles are there, n many? Because, I am looking at the angle 2π by n the whole angle is 2π . So, the total area of inscribed triangle is equal to n times r square $\sin \pi$ by n into cosine π by n. Now, I will concentrate on the area of the bigger triangle, that is O, A prime, B prime. Let us see what is the area there, I know length of this line r, this is r, that I know. And then, I know angles, those are π by n's.

So, again it is half base into altitude. So, let see area of O, A prime B prime. That is equal to 2 into half. In any case, I know the altitude here. So, it is r into, now the base, well the base is clearly r tan pi by n. So, the total area trans out to be, in this case r square tan pi by n. Then what is the total area of the superscribed triangle.

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Handwritten mathematical derivation on a whiteboard:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total area of the inscribed triangles} &= nr^2 \tan \frac{\pi}{n} \\ \text{Area of } D = \alpha & \\ nr^2 \sin \frac{\pi}{n} \cos \frac{\pi}{n} \leq \alpha \leq nr^2 \tan \frac{\pi}{n} & \text{ for all } n. \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} nr^2 \sin \frac{\pi}{n} \cos \frac{\pi}{n} & \\ = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^2 \left(\frac{\sin \frac{\pi}{n}}{\frac{\pi}{n}} \right) \cdot \frac{\pi}{n} \cos \frac{\pi}{n} = \pi r^2 & \\ \Rightarrow \pi r^2 \leq \alpha & \end{aligned}$$

So, total area of the superscribed triangle is equal to n times r square n pi by n. Now, let us assume that area of D is equal to alpha. Our intuition suggests that if such some alpha exists, then this should be true. That n r square sin pi by n into cosine pi by n is lesser equal to alpha. Because, I am looking at the left hand side represents the total area of the inscribed triangle. So, the total area is certainly smaller than the total area of the disk. So, it is lesser equal to...

So, on the other hand alpha is lesser equal to n r square tan pi by n. Because, now the right hand side represents the superscribed triangles. So, the total area must be bigger than the area of D. Now, this is true for all n. As I said that if I go on taking larger n, larger and larger n, it looks like that triangles are almost filling up the whole disk. So, I want to take the limit as n goes to infinity and see what happens?

But, whatever the limit is, inside both the limits, the alpha remains, alpha still stands between both the limits. So, once I take the limit, what is this quantity, limit n going to infinity n r square sin pi by n times cosine pi by n? I just write it in the form, limit n

going to infinity $n r^2 \sin \frac{\pi}{n}$ divided by π by n into π by n times cosine $\frac{\pi}{n}$ by n . Now, these two n 's cancel each other.

Notice that this portion as n goes to infinity has the limit 1. Because, $\frac{\pi}{n}$ goes to 0 and $\cos \frac{\pi}{n}$, then goes to 1. So, the next result is πr^2 . So, one thing that certainly clear, that this implies, that πr^2 is lesser equal to α . Now, let us look at the right hand side.

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The whiteboard shows the following derivation:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n r^2 \tan \frac{\pi}{n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^2 \frac{\sin \frac{\pi}{n}}{\frac{\pi}{n}} \cdot \frac{\pi}{\sin \frac{\pi}{n}} \cdot \frac{1}{\cos \frac{\pi}{n}}$$

$$= \pi r^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha \leq \pi r^2$$

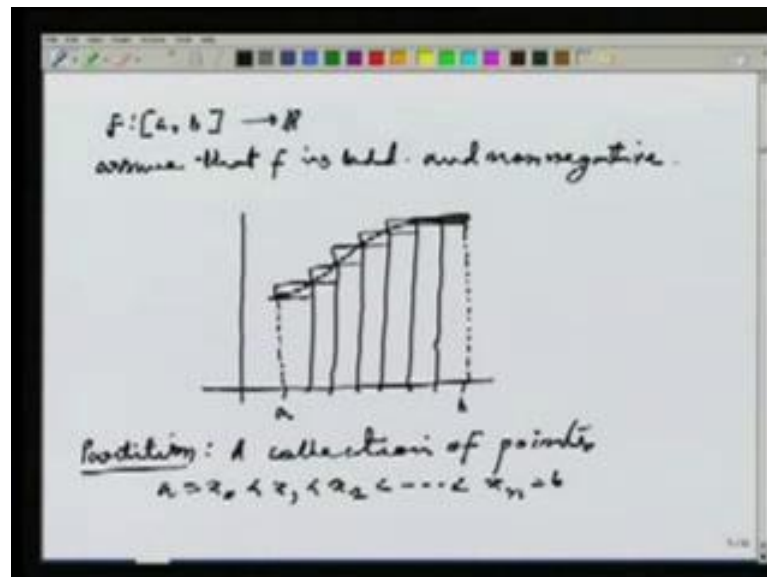
$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \pi r^2 - \text{area of } D.$$

That what is this limit? Limit n going to infinity, $n r^2 \tan \frac{\pi}{n}$. Well, I write in the following form, limit n going to infinity $n r^2 \sin \frac{\pi}{n}$ divided by π by n into π by n into $\frac{1}{\cos \frac{\pi}{n}}$. As in the previous case, these two n 's cancel each other. And what I get is, πr^2 . So, this implies now, that α is lesser equal to πr^2 . These two together imply then, that α is equal to πr^2 , which we know this is the radius of the disk of radius r . So, this we call the area of D .

But, there are certain hypothesis, we are using classically here. Number 1; that the disk D has something called area, which has been guaranteed. Second is this area, satisfies some kind of inequalities, that the inscribed triangle had less area, than disk, which looks bigger. And disk has lesser than the superscribed triangle, which looks bigger, this we are assuming. Under this assumption, which is natural assumption, we will like our area to possess, these properties. It comes out that the area of a disk of a radius r is πr^2 .

So, whatever we have done is variation mathematics, done before cries by the Greek. Now, let us see what Riemann did to analytically establish, this technique in the present mathematical frame work. So, we start with the following. Again, I will first try to informally tell you, what exactly Riemann's ideas doing integration.

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For that let us say, F is a function on the closed interval a, b to \mathbb{R} . Assume that f is bounded and non negative. Let us assume, I can draw the graph of the function f . So, these are the axes, this is my interval a, b . Let us say, the function look like, very simple kind of function I have taken. What I want is, let us draw the vertical lines first. What I want is, I want to find the area between the enclosed regions, I want to find this area.

Now, notice, that has not been predefined, but as in the disk case. If we follow our intuition, some time area comes out. So, it try to do exactly same thing here. So, for that I need certain things to define first. First, I define something called partition. Partition, just means, a collection of points x_0, x_1, x_2 and so on, up to x_n equal to b . That is, it is the collection of points between a and b .

So, what I do is, I mark them. Let us say, these are the partition points. At this partition points, what I do is, I first draw vertical lines and till intersect the graph of the function. I go on doing this at each of the partition points. They look like rectangle, but you can see one side of the rectangle is not it really straight line, it is curved line, because it is on the function side.

Now, I start from this line and draw this, then I draw this, then I draw this and I go on doing this. You see that I get certain rectangles, but these rectangles are below the functions. If I found out the area of these rectangles and add them together, what does our intuition say? This added sum of areas of the rectangles is less than the area of the region below the graph of the function. That is intuitively very clear, because rectangles are inscribed inside.

Similarly, I can draw some superscribed rectangles also; they are drawn in this fashion. So, took the higher point on the curve of the graph of the function and draw the bigger rectangles. And then if I find out the area of the bigger rectangles and sum them up. It is certainly going to be bigger than the area of the region, under the graph of the function. Now, how to I draw this rectangles. That is the next questions.

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The image shows a whiteboard with the following handwritten mathematical expressions:

$$M_i = \sup \{ f(x) / x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i] \}$$

$$m_i = \inf \{ f(x) / x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i] \}$$

$$U(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i, \quad \Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$$

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i, \quad \Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1}$$

Clearly, $L(f, P) \leq U(f, P)$.

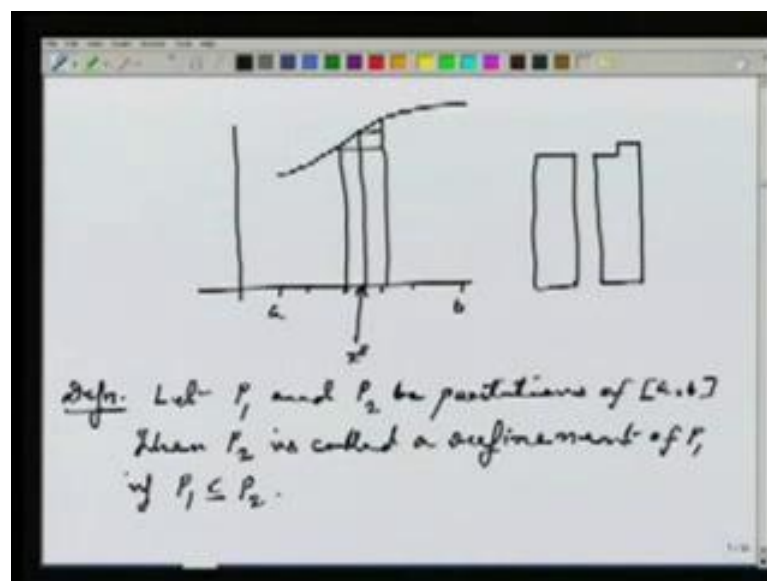
So, I define something like this. I define capital M i is equal to supremum of f x, when x lies between x i minus 1 and x i. Since, the supremum depends on i, I called it M i. Similarly, I can define little m i. That is infimum of f x, when lies between x i minus 1 and x i. Notice that if I draw a rectangle, whose base is the interval x i minus 1 x i and whose height is little m i. Then, I get a rectangle, which lies the below the graph of the function. It just touches the function at one point, that is at little m i

If I draw a rectangle with base x i minus 1 and x i interval and whose height capital is M I, then rectangle goes above the graph of the function. Now, I define U, p, f equals to

summation i from 1 to n , capital M_i times Δx_i , where Δx_i is the length of the base with interval x_{i-1} and x_i . That is, it is x_i and x_{i-1} . And I define L_p, f is equal to summation i from 1 to n , little m_i times Δx_i . Where, Δx_i is same, it is $x_i - x_{i-1}$. From the construction, one thing is very clear, $L_p f$ is less or equal to $U_p f$. This is simply because, $L_p f$ uses the infimum and $U_p f$ uses the supremum.

It just means, if you notice that what is $U_p f$. It is just some of areas of the rectangles, which super scribe the region under the curve. Because, each terms capital M_i times Δx_i is height times base. It is area of the rectangle and then, I summing them up. So, the partition is actually gives me, the base of the rectangle, which I am choosing and then the M_i gives me the height. Then M_i times Δx_i gives me the area of the single rectangle. And then, I sum them up, over all, the base which I have chosen, similarly $L_p f$.

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Now, comes the next observation, which is again clear from the picture. Let us again draw picture of the function, which I had taken earlier. This is a , this is b , my function look something like this. Suppose, I mark the partition points as earlier, now I add some extra points. Let us say here, I choose another point x^* . So, original $L_p f$ rectangle was this, this was my original rectangle.

Now, if I assume that the x^* is also the point of the same partition, let us assume that. Then, I should have done this; I should have drawn this line and then, this line. So, the

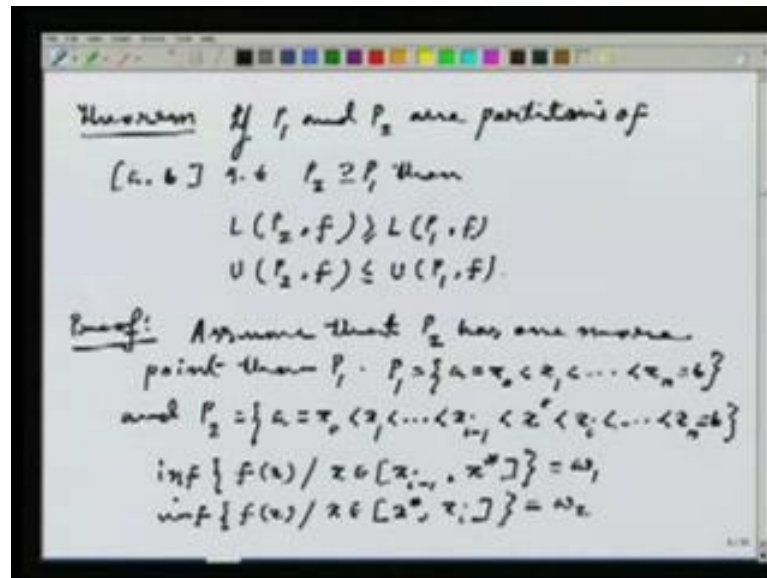
earlier rectangle, which I was working with it, is this. And now, the new rectangle which I am getting it looks exactly like this. You can very easily see now, that by putting an extra points, what I have achieved is that the new rectangle, which I am getting. They are giving a bigger area.

So, mathematically, what I drawn so far, can be explained in the following. I first, define some called refinement of a partition. Let P_1 and P_2 be partitions of a, b . Then, P_2 is called a refinement of P_1 . If P_1 is a subset of P_2 , it means, what it just means the given the partition P_1 , I have inserted some more points in the partition to create P_2 . So, P_2 is actually breaking the intervals in a more refined fashion than P_1 . That is why; it is called the refinement of P_1 .

So, one thing is very clear from the definition, that P_2 , after all any partition is a collection of points. So, P_1 is also a collection of points, so is p_2 . But, P_2 has more points in it than P_1 as a set, not just number of points. All points, which appearing P_1 , they also appearing P_2 , but P_2 has more points perhaps. That is why; P_2 is called refinement.

Now, the basic question, which we are going to ask ourselves, that given any partition P , I can talk about $L_p f$. So, I can talk about $L_{p_1} f$ and I can also talk about $L_{P_2} f$, these are two numbers. What is the connection among these two numbers, which one is bigger? If you look at the picture, then perhaps you can guess, that $L_{P_2} f$ is bigger than or equal to $L_{p_1} f$. Because, you are putting more points there, so the rectangles are gaining in height. So, the total area will be bigger. So, let us try to prove it analytically.

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So, this is our first theorem. If P_1 and P_2 are partitions of a, b such that P_2 is a refinement of P_1 . Then, for $L P_1 f$ and $U p f$'s, the total relations actually changes. That $U p_2 f$ is lesser or equal to $U p_1 f$. So, now I want to prove this. In the proof, I will just assume that P_2 has only one more point than P_1 . Because, then one can inductively proceed with the same argument. With one point more, if you can prove the result, certainly I can prove the result with two points more and so on.

So, assume that P_2 has one more point than P_1 . Let us say the point is x^* and it appears. Well, let us assume that P_1 equals to x_0, x_1 up to x_n and P_2 is x_{i-1}, x^*, x_i up to x_n . So, what P_2 actually look like, that if you look at the points x_{i-1} and x_i , which appears in P_1 . Then, there is additional extra point x^* between those two, which is there in P_2 , but not in P_1 . So, P_2 has exactly one more point, than P_1 and that point is x^* .

Now, we are trying to calculate the $L p x$ first. The proof for $U p f$ is analogues. Now, what I am interested in first is this set infimum $f x$, where x lies between x_{i-1} and x^* . I call this w_1 . Similarly, I can look at infimum of $f x$, where x belongs to $x^* x_i$ plus 1, this interval, $x^* x_i$. I call this w_2 .

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$$\begin{aligned}
 m_i &= \inf \{ f(x) / x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i] \} \\
 \omega_1 &\geq m_i, \quad \omega_2 \geq m_i \\
 L(P_2, f) - L(P_1, f) &= \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} m_j \Delta x_j + \omega_1 (x^* - x_{i-1}) + \omega_2 (x_i - x^*) \\
 &\quad - \left[\sum_{j=1}^{i-1} m_j \Delta x_j + m_i \Delta x_i + \sum_{j=i+1}^n m_j \Delta x_j \right] \\
 &= \omega_1 (x^* - x_{i-1}) + \omega_2 (x_i - x^*) - m_i (x_i - x_{i-1}) \\
 &= \omega_1 (x^* - x_{i-1}) - m_i (x^* - x_{i-1}) + \omega_2 (x_i - x^*) - m_i (x_i - x^*) \geq 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, observe one thing, if m_i is equal to infimum of $f(x)$, when x belongs to x_{i-1} to x_i . Then w_1 is bigger than or equal to m_i , w_2 is also bigger than or equal to m_i , why is so... Because, infimum of a smaller set is always bigger than the infimum of the bigger set the set $f(x)$ in x_{i-1} to x_i is certainly bigger than the set of all x . Such that x is in x_{i-1} to x^* . Because, x^* is less than x_i .

So, that is the smallest set. So, in the smaller set, if I look at the infimum, that is certainly bigger than the infimum of the much bigger set. That is why, I we get the inequalities w_1 and w_2 both are bigger than or equal to m_i . Now, I look at this quantity $L(P_2, f) - L(P_1, f)$. So, I just write down them down. Remember, there is difference of only one point in P_2 than P_1 .

So, I can write summation j from 1 to $i-1$. I will write this is as $m_j \Delta x_j$ plus w_1 times $x^* - x_{i-1}$ plus w_2 times $x_i - x^*$ plus summation j from $i+1$ to n $m_j \Delta x_j$ this is $L(P_2, f)$. Now, comes minus $L(P_1, f)$ that is summation j from 1 to $i-1$ $m_j \Delta x_j$ plus $m_i \Delta x_i$ plus summation j from $i+1$ to n $m_j \Delta x_j$. I have just written in the definition of $L(P_1, f)$ and $L(P_2, f)$.

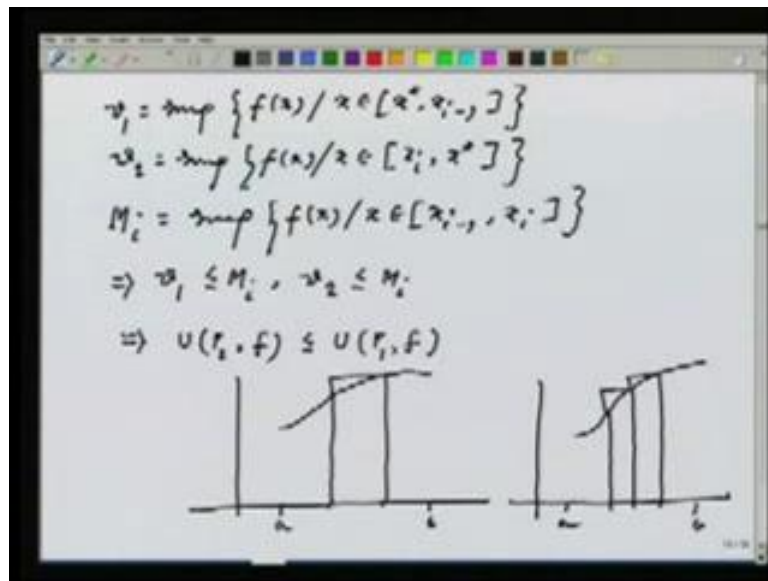
Now, if I compare, I see the term, there cancels each other. And what remains is w_1 times $x^* - x_{i-1}$ plus w_2 times $x_i - x^*$ minus m_i times $x_i - x_{i-1}$. So, what I have done is, it look so complicated, I have just look concentrate

on the i th term in the sum of $L P 2 f$ and have broken it written it in terms of x^* . And while looking at $L P 1 f$, I have just separately written down the i th term.

All the terms, I have kept in other term. I have kept in the summation. And then I can see that because of that the cancellation. Only, those i th interval is going matter, other are canceling themselves. Well, the final step, then is I can write this as w_1 times x^* minus x_i minus 1 minus m_i times x^* minus x_i minus 1 plus w_2 times x_i minus x^* minus m_i times x_i minus x^* .

So, what I have done is, when I look at the quantity m_i times x_i minus x_i minus 1. This is x_i minus x_i minus 1, I am just writing as x^* minus x_i minus 1. And then, x_i minus x^* . And then, since I know the w_1 is bigger than m_i and w_2 is also bigger than m_i . I get that this quantity is bigger than or equal to 0. That settles the case. Because, that means, then $L P 2 f$ is bigger than or equal to $L P 1 f$.

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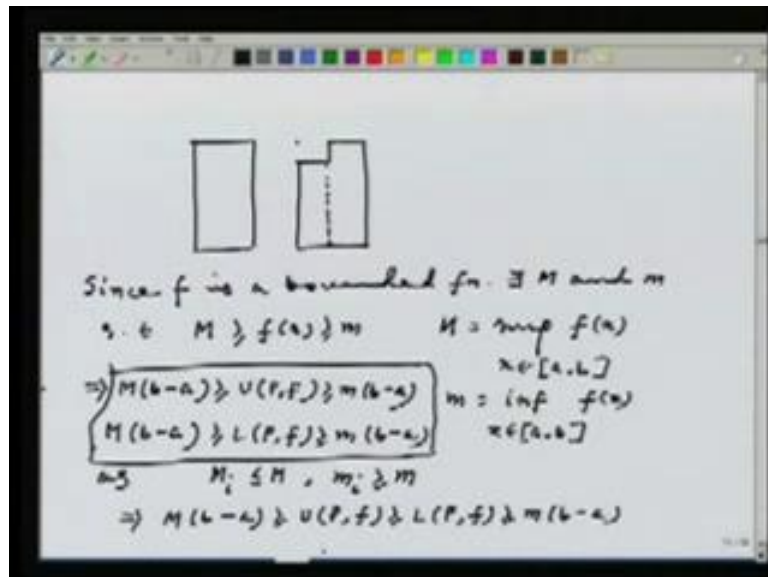


Now, if you look at the $U p f$, what you think will happen. The only difference is observed in the following relation. That if I define v_1 to be equal to supremum of $f x$, when x belongs to x^* x_i minus 1. And v_2 supremum $f x$, when x belongs to x_i x^* and I define capital M_i is equal to supremum of $f x$, when x belongs to x_i minus 1 x_i . Then, what is the connection between v_1 and v_2 and M_i , because while dealing with $L p f$. I dealt with the connection between w_1 and w_2 , little m_i . So, analogously, I have to deal with v_1 , v_2 and capital M_i here.

Well, here the obvious think is the supremum of a smallest set is smaller than supremum of the bigger set. This implies that v_1 is lesser equals to M_i and v_2 is also lesser equal to M_i this. Then, would imply just exactly as in the previous case, that $U P_2 f$ is lesser equal to $U P_1 f$. Again I can explain it by picture the case of $U p f$ I have a here, I have b here, I draw the graph of the function as this, I look at two partitions points. Then, the corresponding bigger triangle I have to draw, because I dealing with $U p f$.

Now, the bigger rectangle is this. I draw the same picture again here, just show you the difference, these are the two points. Suppose, there is a partition point inside, draw the graph of the same function, then I have to draw three vertical lines, 1, 2. This is the 3rd one. And I am drawing the bigger rectangle, this is the first one, this is the second one.

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Now, you can compare in one case, I had this rectangle in the next case. What I am getting is, go back to the picture, you see, what I am getting. Compare it, with the previous page. This was my first rectangle without the partition points. Then, what I get is this one; this fellow certainly has a smaller height. See, the next page the first one is of the smaller height. That means, this area is certainly less, this is what is actually explain by saying that if I look at the refinement of partition. Then $U p f$ are actually getting smaller.

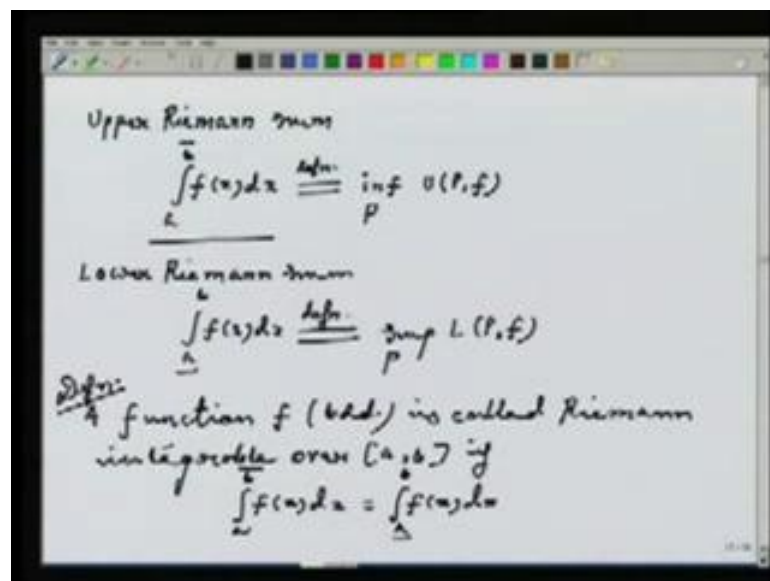
Now, let us notice the following thing, that since, I have assumed that since f to be bounded. Since, f is a bounded function there exists capital M and little m such that M is

bigger than or equal to $f(x)$ is lesser equal to little m . This capital M is actually the supremum of the $f(x)$, this is supremum of $f(x)$, x belongs to a, b . And little m equals to infimum of $f(x)$, x belongs to a, b .

Notice, when that this implies that capital M into b minus a is always bigger than or equals to $U_p f$ and it is bigger than or equal to m into b minus a . Similarly, capital M into b minus a is bigger than or equal to $L_p f$ this bigger than or equal to little m b minus a . This follows from the fact, that capital M is always lesser equal to m and little m is always bigger than or equal to little m .

Now, this would then imply that capital M into b minus a is bigger than or equal to $U_p f$, which I anyway know bigger than or equal to $L_p f$. But, $L_p f$ which is constructed out of m is certainly bigger than or equal to m into b minus a . This is how get this, which is going to be a very fundamental for us...

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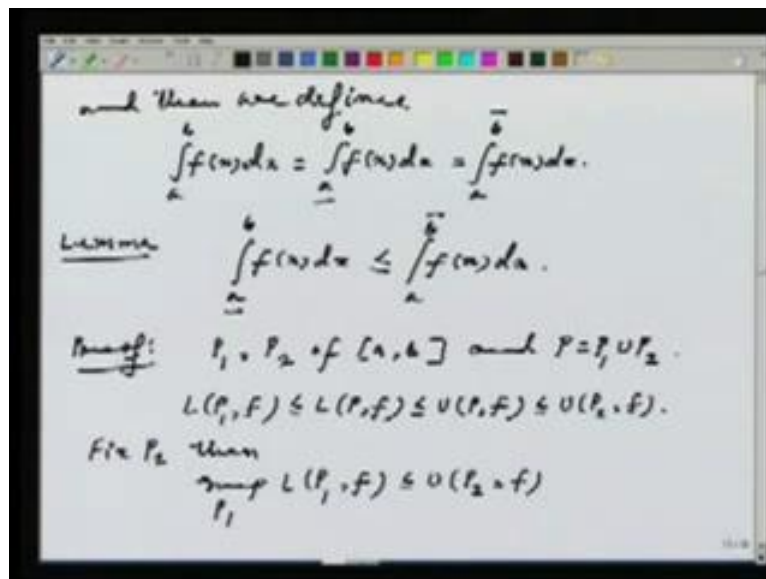


Because, now I am going to define something called upper Riemann sum, it is denoted as integral a to b bar $f(x) dx$, it is just involves, the meaning of this is. So, this is definition this is infimum of all the $U_p f$'s. Because, if I go on varying the partitions P , I get different $U_p f$ and I have already noticed that this set of $U_p f$'s, it is bounded by little m into b minus a and capital M into b minus a . So, it has a infimum, that infimum I define as the upper Riemann sum, which is the symbol is a to b bar $f(x) dx$.

Similarly, I define lower Riemann sum, which I denoted by $\int_a^b f(x) dx$. Notice that right now the dx has absolutely no meaning, the meaning of this symbol is explained by this is supremum over all P , $L(P, f)$. That is I construct $U(p, f)$ and then I look at their infimum. I construct $L(p, f)$ and I look at their supremum, because again if you think back at the picture as I go on taking finer and finer partitions $U(p, f)$ are coming down. So, finally, they suppose to colloid with something and that thing is the infimum.

Similarly, for $L(p, f)$ as I go on taking the refinement of the partitions $L(p, f)$ is increasing. So, they will colloid with something that thing is the supremum, which is the lower Riemann sum. Now, the function f , a function f this is the definition, a function f , which is certainly bounded. Notice that boundedness is very important, otherwise capital M and little m will not exist. For the existence of the supremum and infimum, I need boundedness of the function is called Riemann integrable over a, b . If the lower Riemann sum is same as the upper Riemann sum, that is if $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is same as $\int_a^b f(x) dx$.

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And in this case, we define the Riemann integration of f as $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, which is the common value of the upper Riemann sum and the lower Riemann sum that is. So, the whole possesses again this that I look at all the partitions of the closed interval a, b . Corresponding to each partition, I look at $U(p, f)$'s, I collect those $U(p, f)$'s look at infimum of that set.

Then corresponding to each partition, I look at the $L_p f$ I look at that set. I look at the supremum if the supremum and the infimum are same. Then the function is called the Riemann integrable. And the Riemann integrable of the function is defined to be that supremum it is same as that infimum. Because the definition of Riemann integrability demands that the supremum and infimum are same.

Now, in general what is the connection between the upper Riemann sum and the lower Riemann sum? That will be needed in the sequel. So, I just include it as a Lemma in general, what we know is that $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, this is the lower Riemann sum. It is always less than or equal to $\int_a^b \bar{f}(x) dx$. In general, this is the relation between the upper Riemann sum and lower Riemann sum. When these two quantities are same, then the function is Riemann integrable.

Now, how to prove this, well I take any partition P_1 and P_2 of a, b and P is the common refinement of P_1 and P_2 means, P is just $P_1 \cup P_2$. That is, then another partition. Then, anyway know that $L_{P_1} f$ is lesser equal to $L_P f$ as I have observed, if you put more points in a partition $L_P f$ increase. But, $L_P f$ is anyway is lesser equal to $U_P f$, but has more points than P_2 . So, $U_P f$ is lesser equal to $U_{P_2} f$. Now, what I do is fix P_2 , then supremum over P_1 , $L_{P_1} f$. That is, certainly lesser equal to $U_{P_2} f$, because the above inequality is true for all P_1 and P_2 .

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$$\Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq U(P, f)$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \inf_{P_2} U(P_2, f) = \int_a^b \bar{f}(x) dx.$$

Example: Consider $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 $f(x) = 1$ if x is rational
 $= 0$ if x is irrational.

For any partition of $[0, 1]$

$$U(P, f) = \sum \Delta x_i \cdot \Delta \tau_i = \sum \Delta x_i = 1 \Rightarrow \int_a^b \bar{f} = 1$$

$$L(P, f) = \sum \Delta x_i \cdot \Delta \tau_i = 0 \Rightarrow \int_a^b \underline{f} = 0$$

But this then implies that $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, which is by definition the supremum of all $L(P, f)$ is less than or equal to $U(P, f)$, this is true for all P . This then implies that $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is less than or equal to $\inf_{P} U(P, f)$. But, this is by definition $\int_a^b f(x) dx$, so the relation is proved. Now, I will just give you an example to show not every bounded function is Riemann integrable, consider the function f from $[0, 1]$ to \mathbb{R} given by $f(x) = 1$ if x is rational and $f(x) = 0$ if x is irrational.

It is very easy to see, that this function is not Riemann integrable. Simply, because of the following, take any partition P , P any partition of $[0, 1]$. Then my question is what is $U(P, f)$ well this is $\sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i$, but if you take any sub interval of $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$. There will be some rational point there and at other irrational point f is 0 , but at the rational point f is 1 . So, the supremum is 1 ; that means, M_i is 1 for all i .

That means, it is just $\sum_{i=1}^n \Delta x_i$, that is the length of the interval, which is 1 . Now, if I look at $L(P, f)$, that is $\sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i$, what is m_i is the infimum of the function over a i th sub interval. Well, fix any i , look at the $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$, it will certainly contain the irrational number, but then f is 0 there. That means, the all sub interval the infimum of the function is 0 . That means, m_i is 0 for all i , that means, the final sum is 0 .

Now, if you take the supremum of all partitions P . That means the upper Riemann sum that is 1 . This implies the upper Riemann sum is 1 , but for all partitions P , $L(P, f) = 0$. That means, the infimum of the $L(P, f)$ that is also 0 , that means, the lower Riemann sum is 0 , which is not equal to the upper Riemann sum. And hence, the function is not Riemann integrable.

So, there exist functions, which are not integrable. So, the next question, which we like to ask, is well, what are good examples of integrable functions. That is, what are Riemann integrable functions? Do we have examples of large class of functions, which are Riemann integrable? For example continuous functions, differentiable functions are they Riemann integrable the so called good functions should be Riemann integrable.

So, that is the next thing, we are going to examine. So, in the next lecture, we will continue with our investigation of findings examples of large class of Riemann integrable functions. But, the problem, there is we need a criteria to determine, when a

function is a Riemann integrable. What we have, so far is, just the abstract definition of Riemann integration. It turns out that with this definition, it is difficult to show that certain functions are integrable.

Just like, if you look at sequences, just the definition of convergence of sequence is not good enough to check. There is sequence actually converges. Similarly, here we need a necessary and sufficient condition which one can handle to use. To check whether functions are Riemann integrable that is the next thing; we are going to do in the next lecture.