

Lecture 4 (13.3.2018)

(translated and slightly adapted from lecture notes by Martin Klazar)

Theorem 14 (Integrability criterion). *Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then*

$$f \in \mathcal{R}(a, b) \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists D : 0 \leq S(f, D) - s(f, D) < \varepsilon.$$

In other words, f has Riemann integral if and only if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a partition of D of interval $[a, b]$ such that its upper Riemann sum is greater than the corresponding lower Riemann sum by less than ε .

Proof. " \Rightarrow " We assume that f has R. integral on $[a, b]$, i.e., $\int_a^b f = \overline{\int_a^b f} = \underline{\int_a^b f} \in \mathbb{R}$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. By definition of the lower and upper integrals, there are partitions E_1 and E_2 so that

$$s(f, E_1) > \underline{\int_a^b f} - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \int_a^b f - \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \quad \text{a} \quad S(f, E_2) < \overline{\int_a^b f} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}.$$

According to the lemma, these inequalities also apply after replacing E_1 and E_2 with their joint refinement $D = E_1 \cup E_2$. Summing up both inequalities we will get

$$S(f, D) - s(f, D) < \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \left(- \int_a^b f + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \right) = \varepsilon.$$

" \Leftarrow " Given $\varepsilon > 0$ we take a partition of D satisfying the condition. According to the definition of the lower and upper integral we get

$$\overline{\int_a^b f} \leq S(f, D) < s(f, D) + \varepsilon \leq \underline{\int_a^b f} + \varepsilon, \quad \text{thus} \quad \overline{\int_a^b f} - \underline{\int_a^b f} < \varepsilon.$$

This inequality is valid for every $\varepsilon > 0$, so according to the previous statement we have $\overline{\int_a^b f} = \underline{\int_a^b f} \in \mathbb{R}$. Then f has R. integral on $[a, b]$. □

We state another criterion of integrability without a proof.

Theorem 15 (Lebesgue characterisation of integrable functions). *A function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has Riemann integral, if and only if it is bounded and the set of its point of discontinuity on $[a, b]$ has measure zero.*

We define sets of measure zero as follows. A set $M \subset \mathbb{R}$ has (*Lebesgue*) *measure zero*, if for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a sequence of intervals I_1, I_2, \dots such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |I_i| < \varepsilon \quad \text{and} \quad M \subset \bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} I_i.$$

In other words, M can be covered by intervals of arbitrarily small length. Simple properties of sets with measure zero:

- Every countable or finite set has measure zero.
- Every subset of a set of measure zero has measure zero.
- If each of countably many sets A_1, A_2, \dots has measure zero, their union

$$\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$$

has measure zero.

- Interval of positive length does not have measure zero.

For example, the set of rational numbers \mathbb{Q} has measure zero. There exist sets of measure which are uncountable, classical example is *Cantor set*.

Theorem 16 (Monotonicity \Rightarrow integrability). *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is non-decreasing or non-increasing on $[a, b]$ then it is Riemann integrable.*

Proof. Assume that f is non-decreasing (for non-increasing f the argument is similar). For each subinterval $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [a, b]$ we have $\inf_{[\alpha, \beta]} f = f(\alpha)$ and $\sup_{[\alpha, \beta]} f = f(\beta)$. Given $\delta > 0$, we take any division $D = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{k-1})$ interval $[a, b]$ with $\lambda(D) < \delta$ and

$$\begin{aligned} S(f, D) - s(f, D) &= \sum_{i=1}^k (a_i - a_{i-1}) (\sup_{I_i} f - \inf_{I_i} f) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k (a_i - a_{i-1}) (f(a_i) - f(a_{i-1})) \\ &\leq \delta \sum_{i=1}^k (f(a_i) - f(a_{i-1})) \\ &= \delta (f(a_k) - f(a_0)) = \delta (f(b) - f(a)). \end{aligned}$$

This can be made small by reducing δ , in particular, given ε , choosing $\delta < \varepsilon / (f(b) - f(a))$ ensures that $S(f, D) - s(f, D) < \varepsilon$. According to the integrability criterion, then $f \in \mathcal{R}(a, b)$. \square

Continuity is also sufficient for integrability. But we need to introduce its stronger form. Let us say that the function $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where I is the interval, is *uniformly continuous* (on I) if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 : x, x' \in I, |x - x'| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(x')| < \varepsilon.$$

That is, we require that single $\delta > 0$ works for all pairs of points x, x' in I . In the usual definition of continuity can δ depend on x . Uniform continuity

implies continuity, but the reverse does not generally apply. For example, function

$$f(x) = 1/x : I = (0, 1)$$

is continuous on i , but not uniformly continuous: $f(1/(n+1)) - f(1/n) = 1$, although $1/(n+1) - 1/n \rightarrow 0$ for $n \rightarrow \infty$. On a *compact interval* I , which is the interval of type $[a, b]$ where $-\infty < a \leq b < +\infty$, types of continuity coincide.

Theorem 17 (On compact: continuity \Rightarrow uniform continuity). *If the function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on the interval $[a, b]$ is continuous, it is uniformly continuous.*

Proof. For contradiction we assume that $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at every point of the interval $[a, b]$ (i.e. one sided in the end points of a and b), but that it is not uniformly continuous to $[a, b]$. Negation of a uniform continuity means, that

$$\exists \varepsilon > 0 \forall \delta > 0 \exists x, x' \in I : |x - x'| < \delta \ \& \ |f(x) - f(x')| \geq \varepsilon .$$

Which means that there are points $x_n, x'_n \in [a, b]$ for $\delta = 1/n$ and $n = 1, 2, \dots$ that $|x_n - x'_n| < 1/n$, but $|f(x_n) - f(x'_n)| \geq \varepsilon$. Then, by Bolzano–Weierstrass theorem there exist subsequences of (x_n) and (x'_n) which both converge and (inevitably) have the same point α from $[a, b]$. (This theorem asserts that there exists a sequence of indices $k_1 < k_2 < \dots$ such that (x_{k_n}) converges. Again by the theorem there exists sequence of indices of $l_1 < l_2 < \dots$ that $(x'_{k_{l_n}})$ converges. The sequence $(x_{k_{l_n}})$ remains convergent, because it is a subsequence of sequence (x_{k_n}) . Because $|x_{k_{l_n}} - x'_{k_{l_n}}| < 1/k_{l_n} \leq 1/n \rightarrow 0$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{k_{l_n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x'_{k_{l_n}} = \alpha .$$

To avoid multilevel indices, we rename $x_{k_{l_n}}$ to x_n and $x'_{k_{l_n}}$ to x'_n .) By Heine definition of limit, continuity of f in α and arithmetic of limits, we have

$$0 = f(\alpha) - f(\alpha) = \lim f(x_n) - \lim f(x'_n) = \lim(f(x_n) - f(x'_n)) .$$

This contradicts that $|f(x_n) - f(x'_n)| \geq \varepsilon$ for every n . □

Theorem 18 (Continuity \Rightarrow integrability). *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ on the interval $[a, b]$ is continuous then it is Riemann integrable.*

Proof. Let f be continuous on $[a, b]$. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. By the previous statement, we take $\delta > 0$ that $|f(x) - f(x')| < \varepsilon$ when $x, x' \in [a, b]$ are closer than δ . Then

$$\sup_{[\alpha, \beta]} f - \inf_{[\alpha, \beta]} f \leq \varepsilon$$

for each subinterval $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [a, b]$ less than δ (why?). We take any partition $D = (a_0, a_1, \dots, a_{k-1})$ of interval $[a, b]$ with $\lambda(D)$. We have that

$$S(f, D) - s(f, D) = \sum_{i=1}^k (a_i - a_{i-1}) (\sup_{I_i} f - \inf_{I_i} f)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq \sum_{i=1}^k (a_i - a_{i-1})\varepsilon \\ &= \varepsilon(a_k - a_0) = \varepsilon(b - a) . \end{aligned}$$

As in the previous theorem, the $\varepsilon(b - a)$ can be made small by reducing ε . Thus, according to the integrability criterion, $f \in \mathcal{R}(a, b)$. \square

Theorem 19 (Linearity of Riemann integral).

(i) (linearity w.r.to integrand) Let $f, g \in \mathcal{R}(a, b)$ be two functions having R. integrals and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\alpha f + \beta g \in \mathcal{R}(a, b) \text{ and } \int_a^b (\alpha f + \beta g) = \alpha \int_a^b f + \beta \int_a^b g .$$

(ii) (linearity w.r. to boundaries) Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function and $c \in (a, b)$. Then

$$f \in \mathcal{R}(a, b) \iff f \in \mathcal{R}(a, c) \ \& \ f \in \mathcal{R}(c, b)$$

and, if these integrals are defined,

$$\int_a^b f = \int_a^c f + \int_c^b f .$$

Proof. (i) Just examine three special cases of linear combinations, namely $-f$, αf s $\alpha \geq 0$ and $f + g$, the others are from these are already deduced. Either given $\varepsilon > 0$. According to the integrity criterion, there is a division of the D interval $[a, b]$ that

$$S(f, D) - s(f, D), S(g, D) - s(g, D).$$

(Surely we have two such divisions, D_1 for f and D_2 for g . Moving to a common refinement, we will achieve $D_1 = D_2$.) By definition of infima and suprema of a set of real numbers, for any subinterval $I \subset [a, b]$, that (pro $\alpha \geq 0$)

$$\inf_I(-f) = -\sup_I f, \inf_I \alpha f = \alpha \inf_I f, \inf_I(f + g) \geq \inf_I f + \inf_I g$$

and for supremacy (we will swap inf a sup and rotate the last inequality). By definition, upper, sums as a linear combination (with > 0 coefficients) infim, or supreme,

$$S(-f, D) - s(-f, D) = -s(f, D) - (-S(f, D)) = S(f, D) - s(f, D) < \varepsilon ,$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} S(f+g, D) - s(f+g, D) &\leq (S(f, D) + S(g, D)) - (s(f, D) + s(g, D)) \\ &= S(f, D) - s(f, D) + S(g, D) - s(g, D) \\ &< 2\varepsilon . \end{aligned}$$

So, according to the integrity criterion, $-f, \alpha f, f+g \in \mathcal{R}(a, b)$. Moreover, according to the inequalities between the lower and upper sums and the integral, $\int_a^b f \in [s(f, D), S(f, D)]$ and the same for g . So $\int_a^b(-f)$ lies in the interval

$$[s(-f, D), S(-f, D)] = [-S(f, D), -s(f, D)] \ni -\int_a^b f$$

and the numbers $\int_a^b(-f)$ and $-\int_a^b f$ differ by less than ε . So $\int_a^b(-f) = -\int_a^b f$. Similarly $\int_a^b \alpha f$ lie in the interval

$$[s(\alpha f, D), S(\alpha f, D)] = [\alpha s(f, D), \alpha S(f, D)] \ni \alpha \int_a^b f$$

with a maximum length of $\alpha\varepsilon$, so $\int_a^b \alpha f = \alpha \int_a^b f$. Finally, $\int_a^b(f+g)$ is in the interval

$$[s(f+g, D), S(f+g, D)] \subset [s(f, D)+s(g, D), S(f, D)+S(g, D)] \ni \int_a^b f + \int_a^b g$$

with a length of less than 2ε , and so $\int_a^b(f+g) = \int_a^b f + \int_a^b g$.

- (ii) Let's go to line \int as a function of integration limits. First, we slightly extend the definition of $\int_a^b f$:

$$\int_a^a f := 0 \text{ and } \int_a^b f := -\int_b^a f \text{ for } a > b$$

For $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and subinterval $I \subset [a, b]$ we denote the f function narrowing to I in the following statement for simplicity again as f . □

If $a > b$, we define $\int_a^b f = -\int_b^a f$.

Corollary 20 (\int over a cycle is 0). *Let $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$, $d = \min(a, b, c)$, $e = \max(a, b, c)$ and $f \in \mathcal{R}(d, e)$. Then the following three integrals exist and satisfy*

$$\int_a^b f + \int_b^c f + \int_c^a f = 0 .$$