

Proof of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

**Definition of the Riemann integral.** If  $f$  is a function defined on an interval  $[a, b]$ , then we say that

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

iff for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that for any partition of  $[a, b]$ ,  $a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = b$  with  $x_k - x_{k-1} = \Delta x_k < \delta$  and and sample points  $c_k$  with  $x_{k-1} \leq c_k \leq x_k$  we have that

$$\left| f(c_1)\Delta x_1 + f(c_2)\Delta x_2 + \dots + f(c_n)\Delta x_n - I \right| < \epsilon$$

These are called Riemann sums. In summation notation we write

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k)\Delta x_k = f(c_1)\Delta x_1 + f(c_2)\Delta x_2 + \dots + f(c_n)\Delta x_n$$

Expressing the integral as a kind of limit, we could write

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \stackrel{def}{=} \text{Limit}_{\max\{\Delta x_k:k=1\dots n\} \rightarrow 0} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k)\Delta x_k$$

We assume without proof that this limit exists for any  $f$  continuous on  $[a, b]$ . The following is perhaps the simplest version of this limit. Given any positive integer  $n$  let

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n} \quad \text{and} \quad c_k = a + k\Delta x \text{ for } k = 1, \dots, n$$

Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k)\Delta x$$

The numerical analysts call this the right-hand rectangle rule.

**Lemma 1** (Mean-Value Theorem for Integrals) If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then for some  $c$  in  $[a, b]$

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

**proof:**

Let  $m$  be the minimum of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  and  $M$  its maximum. Then since  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  for any  $x$  in  $[a, b]$  we have for any Riemann sum that

$$\sum_{k=1}^n m \Delta x_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k \leq \sum_{k=1}^n M \Delta x_k$$

Now  $\sum_{k=1}^n m \Delta x_k = m \sum_{k=1}^n \Delta x_k = m(b-a)$  and similarly for  $M$ , hence

$$m(b-a) \leq \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k \leq M(b-a)$$

Passing to the limit gives that

$$m(b-a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M(b-a)$$

and dividing thru by  $(b-a)$  gives that

$$m \leq \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq M$$

By the intermediate value theorem  $f$  assumes all values between its minimum  $m$  and maximum  $M$  so such a  $c$  must exist.

**QED**

**Lemma 2** (Additivity property for area under a curve) If  $a < b < c$  and  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, c]$ , then

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

**proof:**

We can see it as an additive property for areas in the case  $f$  is positive. The area under the curve between  $a$  and  $b$  plus the area under the curve between  $b$  and  $c$  is the area under the curve between  $a$  and  $c$ .

More formally note that taking two sufficiently fine Riemann sums for  $[a, b]$  and  $[b, c]$  (the second renumbered to be from  $n + 1$  to  $n + m$ ) gives:

$$\sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k \approx \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=n+1}^{n+m} f(c_k) \Delta x_k \approx \int_b^c f(x) dx$$

but

$$\int_a^c f(x) dx \approx \sum_{k=1}^{n+m} f(c_k) \Delta x_k = \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k + \sum_{k=n+1}^{n+m} f(c_k) \Delta x_k$$

And so passing to the limit gives the result.

**QED**

### Fundamental Theorem of Calculus Part I

Suppose  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and

$$G(x) =^{def} \int_a^x f(t) dt$$

Then  $G$  is differentiable and  $G'(x) = f(x)$ .

**proof:**

$$G'(x) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{G(x + \Delta x) - G(x)}{\Delta x}$$

Assuming for simplicity that  $a < x < x + \Delta x < b$  and note that

$$G(x + \Delta x) - G(x) = \int_a^{x+\Delta x} f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt = \int_x^{x+\Delta x} f(t) dt$$

where we have used Lemma 2. By the Mean-Value Theorem for integrals, Lemma 1, we may find  $x^*$  between  $x$  and  $x + \Delta x$  with

$$\frac{1}{\Delta x} \int_x^{x+\Delta x} f(t) dt = f(x^*)$$

Hence

$$\frac{G(x + \Delta x) - G(x)}{\Delta x} = f(x^*)$$

and since  $x^*$  is between  $x$  and  $x + \Delta x$  and  $f$  is continuous, we have

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{G(x + \Delta x) - G(x)}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x^*) = f(x)$$

For  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0^-$  the proof is similar and for  $x = a$  or  $x = b$  the result holds for the one-sided derivative of  $G$ .

**QED**

### Fundamental Theorem of Calculus Part II

Suppose  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $F$  is any antiderivative of  $f$ , i.e.,  $F' = f$ . Then

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

**proof:**

Since  $G$  is also an antiderivative of  $f$  it follows that  $F' - G' = f - f$  is identically zero. The ordinary Mean-Value Theorem implies that  $F - G$  must be a constant function, say  $F(x) = G(x) + C$  for all  $x$ .

Note that  $G(b) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$  and  $G(a) = \int_a^a f(t) dt = 0$  and so

$$F(b) - F(a) = (G(b) + C) - (G(a) + C) = G(b) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$$

**QED**