

First Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

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The fundamental theorem of calculus relates integration and differentiation. It can be used to rigorously find the anti-derivative of various functions, and to explicitly solve the area under certain curves. The proof isn't too bad either, but first let's get some intuition as to *why* it is true. The theorem states that if $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function, and if $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by:

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \quad (1)$$

Then F is differentiable, and:

$$\frac{dF}{dx}(x) = f(x) \quad (2)$$

Written more concisely:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = f(x) \quad (3)$$

Intuitively this makes sense, we just need to understand the picture. $d \int_a^x f(t) dx$ asks how much more area do we get if we increment x infinitesimally so. That is, if we increment from x to $x + dx$ for an infinitesimally small dx , how much more area do we have? Well, the height at the point x times the displacement, or $f(x)dx$. The value $\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt$ then asks for the ratio of this change with respect to the increment dx . Informally we have $f(x)dx/dx$ and the dx cancel, leaving $f(x)$. So, the *rate of change* of the area under f as a function of x is simply the height of f , or $f(x)$. This geometrically makes sense (See Fig. 1). Unfortunately, all of this is very *imprecise* and may have passed as a proof in the 1600's, but not in modern times. We need to be more rigorous. We start with the *mean value theorem for integrals*.

Theorem 1. *If $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function, $a < b$, then there is a point $c \in [a, b]$ such that:*

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx \quad (4)$$

Proof. Note that $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ is just a number. Label this number A (for Area). Define $g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to be:

$$g(x) = f(x)(b-a) - A \quad (5)$$

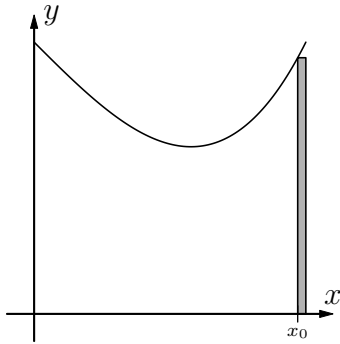


Figure 1: Intuition for the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

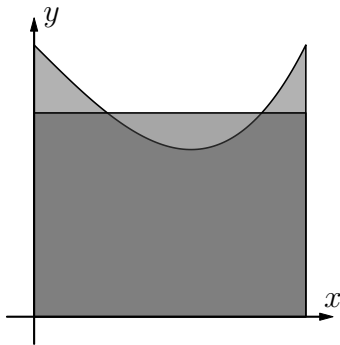


Figure 2: Drawing for the Mean Value Theorem for Integrals

Since f is continuous, g is continuous. But since f is continuous, by the extreme value theorem there are points x_{\min} and x_{\max} in $[a, b]$ where $f(x)$ achieves its minimum and maximum, respectively. Then $g(x_{\min})$ will be non-positive since the upper Riemann sum is always greater than or equal $f(x_{\min})(b - a)$, and $g(x_{\max})$ will be non-negative. By the intermediate value theorem, since g is continuous, there is some point $c \in [a, b]$ where $g(c) = 0$. But then:

$$f(c)(b - a) - \int_a^b f(x) \, dx = 0 \tag{6}$$

Which completes the proof. □

See Fig. 2 for a visual. We can now prove the fundamental theorem of calculus.

We have:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x f(t) dt = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \left(\int_a^{x+h} f(t) dt - \int_a^x f(t) dt \right) \quad (7)$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \quad (8)$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} f(c_h)(x+h-x) \quad (9)$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} f(c_h)h \quad (10)$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(c_h) \quad (11)$$

Here, c_h is a value between x and $x+h$ such that:

$$f(c_h) = \frac{1}{x+h-x} \int_x^{x+h} f(t) dt \quad (12)$$

which exists by the mean value theorem for integrals. Since $c_h \in [x, x+h]$, as h tends to zero, c_h tends to x . But f is continuous, and therefore:

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(c_h) = f(x) \quad (13)$$

Which completes the proof.

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