## Math 35: Real Analysis <br> Winter 2018

## Lecture 25

For $g(x)=1$ for all $x \in[a, b]$ in Theorem 10 we get:
Corollary 11 Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function. Then there is $c \in(a, b)$, such that

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=f(c) \cdot(b-a) .
$$

It is not hard to prove that
Theorem 12 Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function and $c \in(a, b)$. Then $f$ is integrable on $[a, b]$ if and and only if $f$ is integrable on $[a, c]$ and $[c, b]$. In this case we have

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x=\int_{a}^{c} f(x) d x+\int_{c}^{b} f(x) d x
$$

proof exercise.

For completeness we define
Definition 13 Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be an integrable function $c \in(a, b)$. Then we set

$$
\int_{c}^{c} f(x) d x=0 \quad \text { and } \quad \int_{b}^{a} f(x) d x=-\int_{a}^{b} f(x) d x
$$

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## Chapter 5.3-Fundamental theorem of calculus

Aim: We prove the Fundamental theorem of calculus (FTC) and then the integration rules. This important theorem is due to Isaac Barrow (1674), Isaac Newton and Gottfried Leibniz.

The FTC can be proven using the Mean value theorem of integration. To this end we first consider one of the integration boundaries as a variable.

Theorem 1 (Fundamental theorem of calculus) Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function and $x \in[a, b]$. Let $F:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function defined by
$F(x):=\int_{a}^{x} f(t) d t . \quad$ Then $F$ is differentiable and $\quad F^{\prime}(x)=f(x)$ for all $x \in[a, b]$.
Figure We interpret the difference quotient of $F$ in terms of the area under the function $f$.
proof Idea: We look at the difference quotient for $F$ and then use the MVT of integration. We know that for fixed $h \neq 0$ ( $h<0$ possible)

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{F(x+h)-F(x)}{h}=\frac{1}{h} \cdot \int_{a}^{x+h} f(t) d t-\int_{a}^{x} f(t) d t=\frac{1}{h} \cdot \int_{x}^{x+h} f(t) d t . \tag{*}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the MVT of integration there is $c_{h}$ between $x$ and $x+h$, such that $\int_{x}^{x+h} f(t) d t=h \cdot f\left(c_{h}\right)$. Using this fact and taking the limit in $\left({ }^{*}\right)$ we obtain

$$
F^{\prime}(x)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x+h)-F(x)}{h}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} \int_{x}^{x+h} f(t) d t=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{h} f\left(c_{h}\right)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} f\left(c_{h}\right)=f(x) .
$$

This is true as $c_{h}$ lies between $x$ and $x+h$. Hence $F$ is differentiable with $F^{\prime}=f$.

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Definition 2 (Primitives) A differentiable function $F:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a primitive of a function $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ if $F^{\prime}(x)=f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Theorem 3 Let $F:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a primitive of $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Then $G$ is another primitive of $f$ if and only if

$$
G=F+c \text { for some constant } c \in \mathbb{R} .
$$

proof " $\Rightarrow$ " If $G$ is another primitive of $f$ then

$$
(F-G)^{\prime}=f-f=0 \text { hence } F-G=c \text { for some } c \in \mathbb{R} .
$$

This follows from Lecture 21, Theorem 7c).
$" \Leftarrow "$ If $G=F+c$ then $G^{\prime}=F^{\prime}=f$. Hence $G$ is also a primitive of $f$.

Theorem 4 Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function and $F$ be a primitive of $f$. Then

$$
\int_{a}^{b} f(t) d t=F(b)-F(a) .
$$

proof Idea: We use Theorem 3. We compare the "standard" primitive $G(x)=\int_{a}^{x} f(t) d t$ with $F$. We know

$$
G(b)=\int_{a}^{b} f(t) d t \quad \text { and } \quad G(a)=\int_{a}^{a} f(t) d t=0 .
$$

Furthermore $F(x)=G(x)+c$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Hence

$$
F(b)-F(a)=(G(b)+c)-(G(a)+c)=G(b)-G(a)=G(b)=\int_{a}^{b} f(t) d t
$$

Example: For $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, find a primitive of $\sin (k x)$ and calculate $\int_{0}^{\pi} \sin (k t) d t$.
Solution: We know that $F(x)=-\frac{\cos (k x)}{k}$ is a primitive of $\sin (k x)$ as $F^{\prime}(x)=\sin (k x)$. Hence by Theorem 4 we have

$$
\int_{0}^{\pi} \sin (k t) d t=-\left.\frac{\cos (k x)}{k}\right|_{0} ^{\pi}=\frac{-\cos (k \pi)+1}{k}=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
0 & k \text { even } \\
\frac{2}{k} & \text { if } & k \text { odd } .
\end{array}\right.
$$

