

that if payments of Q dollars are deposited at the end of each year into an account that pays $i \times 100\%$ compounded annually, then at the time when the n th payment and the accrued interest for the past year are deposited, the amount $S(n)$ in the account is given by the formula

$$S(n) = \frac{Q}{i} [(1+i)^n - 1]$$

Suppose that you can invest \$5000 in an interest-bearing account at the end of each year, and your objective is to have \$250,000 on the 25th payment. Approximately what annual compound interest rate must the account pay for you to achieve your goal? [Hint: Show that the interest rate i satisfies the equation $50i = (1+i)^{25} - 1$, and solve it using Newton's Method.]

FOCUS ON CONCEPTS

38. (a) Use a graphing utility to generate the graph of

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2 + 1}$$

and use it to explain what happens if you apply Newton's Method with a starting value of $x_1 = 2$. Check your conclusion by computing x_2, x_3, x_4 , and x_5 .

- (b) Use the graph generated in part (a) to explain what happens if you apply Newton's Method with a start-

ing value of $x_1 = 0.5$. Check your conclusion by computing x_2, x_3, x_4 , and x_5 .

39. (a) Apply Newton's Method to $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ with a starting value of $x_1 = 0.5$, and determine if the values of x_2, \dots, x_{10} appear to converge.
(b) Explain what is happening.
40. In each part, explain what happens if you apply Newton's Method to a function f when the given condition is satisfied for some value of n .
(a) $f(x_n) = 0$ (b) $x_{n+1} = x_n$
(c) $x_{n+2} = x_n \neq x_{n+1}$

41. **Writing** Compare Newton's Method and the Intermediate-Value Theorem (1.5.7; see Example 5 in Section 1.5) as methods to locate solutions to $f(x) = 0$.

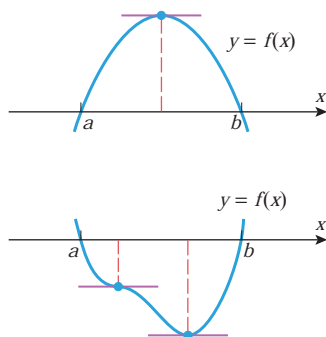
42. **Writing** Newton's Method uses a local linear approximation to $y = f(x)$ at $x = x_n$ to find an "improved" approximation x_{n+1} to a zero of f . Your friend proposes a process that uses a local quadratic approximation to $y = f(x)$ at $x = x_n$ (that is, matching values for the function and its first two derivatives) to obtain x_{n+1} . Discuss the pros and cons of this proposal. Support your statements with some examples.

QUICK CHECK ANSWERS 4.7

1. $x_2 \approx 4, x_3 \approx 2$ 2. $\frac{1}{2}$ 3. -1 4. $\ln 2 - \frac{1}{2} \approx 0.193147$

4.8 ROLLE'S THEOREM; MEAN-VALUE THEOREM

In this section we will discuss a result called the Mean-Value Theorem. This theorem has so many important consequences that it is regarded as one of the major principles in calculus.



▲ Figure 4.8.1

ROLLE'S THEOREM

We will begin with a special case of the Mean-Value Theorem, called Rolle's Theorem, in honor of the mathematician Michel Rolle. This theorem states the geometrically obvious fact that if the graph of a differentiable function intersects the x -axis at two places, a and b , then somewhere between a and b there must be at least one place where the tangent line is horizontal (Figure 4.8.1). The precise statement of the theorem is as follows.

4.8.1 THEOREM (Rolle's Theorem) Let f be continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on the open interval (a, b) . If

$$f(a) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad f(b) = 0$$

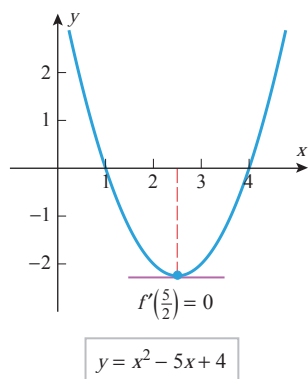
then there is at least one point c in the interval (a, b) such that $f'(c) = 0$.

PROOF We will divide the proof into three cases: the case where $f(x) = 0$ for all x in (a, b) , the case where $f(x) > 0$ at some point in (a, b) , and the case where $f(x) < 0$ at some point in (a, b) .

CASE 1 If $f(x) = 0$ for all x in (a, b) , then $f'(c) = 0$ at every point c in (a, b) because f is a constant function on that interval.

CASE 2 Assume that $f(x) > 0$ at some point in (a, b) . Since f is continuous on $[a, b]$, it follows from the Extreme-Value Theorem (4.4.2) that f has an absolute maximum on $[a, b]$. The absolute maximum value cannot occur at an endpoint of $[a, b]$ because we have assumed that $f(a) = f(b) = 0$, and that $f(x) > 0$ at some point in (a, b) . Thus, the absolute maximum must occur at some point c in (a, b) . It follows from Theorem 4.4.3 that c is a critical point of f , and since f is differentiable on (a, b) , this critical point must be a stationary point; that is, $f'(c) = 0$.

CASE 3 Assume that $f(x) < 0$ at some point in (a, b) . The proof of this case is similar to Case 2 and will be omitted. ■



▲ Figure 4.8.2

► **Example 1** Find the two x -intercepts of the function $f(x) = x^2 - 5x + 4$ and confirm that $f'(c) = 0$ at some point c between those intercepts.

Solution. The function f can be factored as

$$x^2 - 5x + 4 = (x - 1)(x - 4)$$

so the x -intercepts are $x = 1$ and $x = 4$. Since the polynomial f is continuous and differentiable everywhere, the hypotheses of Rolle's Theorem are satisfied on the interval $[1, 4]$. Thus, we are guaranteed the existence of at least one point c in the interval $(1, 4)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$. Differentiating f yields

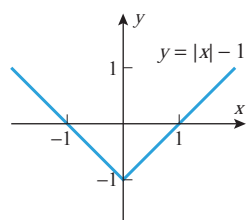
$$f'(x) = 2x - 5$$

Solving the equation $f'(x) = 0$ yields $x = \frac{5}{2}$, so $c = \frac{5}{2}$ is a point in the interval $(1, 4)$ at which $f'(c) = 0$ (Figure 4.8.2). ◀

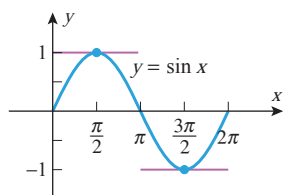
► **Example 2** The differentiability requirement in Rolle's Theorem is critical. If f fails to be differentiable at even one place in the interval (a, b) , then the conclusion of the

Michel Rolle (1652–1719) French mathematician. Rolle, the son of a shopkeeper, received only an elementary education. He married early and as a young man struggled hard to support his family on the meager wages of a transcriber for notaries and attorneys. In spite of his financial problems and minimal education, Rolle studied algebra and Diophantine analysis (a branch of number theory) on his own. Rolle's fortune changed dramatically in 1682 when he published an elegant solution of a difficult, unsolved problem in Diophantine analysis. The public recognition of his achievement led to a patronage under minister Louvois, a job as an elementary mathematics teacher, and eventually to a short-term administrative post in the Ministry of War. In 1685 he joined the Académie des Sciences in a low-level position for which he received no regular salary until 1699. He stayed at the Académie until he died of apoplexy in 1719.

While Rolle's forte was always Diophantine analysis, his most important work was a book on the algebra of equations, called *Traité d'algèbre*, published in 1690. In that book Rolle firmly established the notation $\sqrt[n]{a}$ [earlier written as $\sqrt[n]{a}$] for the n th root of a , and proved a polynomial version of the theorem that today bears his name. (Rolle's Theorem was named by Giusto Bellavitis in 1846.) Ironically, Rolle was one of the most vocal early antagonists of calculus. He strove intently to demonstrate that it gave erroneous results and was based on unsound reasoning. He quarreled so vigorously on the subject that the Académie des Sciences was forced to intervene on several occasions. Among his several achievements, Rolle helped advance the currently accepted size order for negative numbers. Descartes, for example, viewed -2 as smaller than -5 . Rolle preceded most of his contemporaries by adopting the current convention in 1691.



▲ Figure 4.8.3



▲ Figure 4.8.4

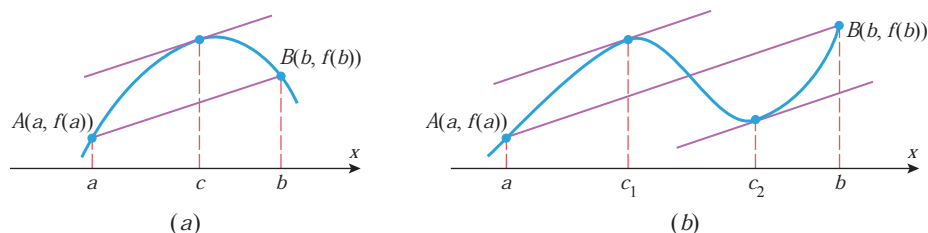
In Examples 1 and 3 we were able to find exact values of c because the equation $f'(x) = 0$ was easy to solve. However, in the applications of Rolle's Theorem it is usually the *existence* of c that is important and not its actual value.

theorem may not hold. For example, the function $f(x) = |x| - 1$ graphed in Figure 4.8.3 has roots at $x = -1$ and $x = 1$, yet there is no horizontal tangent to the graph of f over the interval $(-1, 1)$. ◀

► **Example 3** If f satisfies the conditions of Rolle's Theorem on $[a, b]$, then the theorem guarantees the existence of *at least* one point c in (a, b) at which $f'(c) = 0$. There may, however, be more than one such c . For example, the function $f(x) = \sin x$ is continuous and differentiable everywhere, so the hypotheses of Rolle's Theorem are satisfied on the interval $[0, 2\pi]$ whose endpoints are roots of f . As indicated in Figure 4.8.4, there are two points in the interval $[0, 2\pi]$ at which the graph of f has a horizontal tangent, $c_1 = \pi/2$ and $c_2 = 3\pi/2$. ◀

THE MEAN-VALUE THEOREM

Rolle's Theorem is a special case of a more general result, called the **Mean-Value Theorem**. Geometrically, this theorem states that between any two points $A(a, f(a))$ and $B(b, f(b))$ on the graph of a differentiable function f , there is at least one place where the tangent line to the graph is parallel to the secant line joining A and B (Figure 4.8.5).



▲ Figure 4.8.5

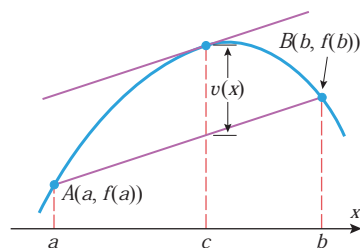
Note that the slope of the secant line joining $A(a, f(a))$ and $B(b, f(b))$ is

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

and that the slope of the tangent line at c in Figure 4.8.5a is $f'(c)$. Similarly, in Figure 4.8.5b the slopes of the tangent lines at c_1 and c_2 are $f'(c_1)$ and $f'(c_2)$, respectively. Since nonvertical parallel lines have the same slope, the Mean-Value Theorem can be stated precisely as follows.

4.8.2 THEOREM (Mean-Value Theorem) Let f be continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on the open interval (a, b) . Then there is at least one point c in (a, b) such that

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \quad (1)$$



The tangent line is parallel to the secant line where the vertical distance $v(x)$ between the secant line and the graph of f is maximum.

▲ Figure 4.8.6

MOTIVATION FOR THE PROOF OF THEOREM 4.8.2 Figure 4.8.6 suggests that (1) will hold (i.e., the tangent line will be parallel to the secant line) at a point c where the vertical distance between the curve and the secant line is maximum. Thus, to prove the Mean-Value Theorem it is natural to begin by looking for a formula for the vertical distance $v(x)$ between the curve $y = f(x)$ and the secant line joining $(a, f(a))$ and $(b, f(b))$.

PROOF OF THEOREM 4.8.2 Since the two-point form of the equation of the secant line joining $(a, f(a))$ and $(b, f(b))$ is

$$y - f(a) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a)$$

or, equivalently,

$$y = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a) + f(a)$$

the difference $v(x)$ between the height of the graph of f and the height of the secant line is

$$v(x) = f(x) - \left[\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}(x - a) + f(a) \right] \quad (2)$$

Since $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) , so is $v(x)$. Moreover,

$$v(a) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad v(b) = 0$$

so that $v(x)$ satisfies the hypotheses of Rolle's Theorem on the interval $[a, b]$. Thus, there is a point c in (a, b) such that $v'(c) = 0$. But from Equation (2)

$$v'(x) = f'(x) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

so

$$v'(c) = f'(c) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

Since $v'(c) = 0$, we have

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \quad \blacksquare$$

► **Example 4** Show that the function $f(x) = \frac{1}{4}x^3 + 1$ satisfies the hypotheses of the Mean-Value Theorem over the interval $[0, 2]$, and find all values of c in the interval $(0, 2)$ at which the tangent line to the graph of f is parallel to the secant line joining the points $(0, f(0))$ and $(2, f(2))$.

Solution. The function f is continuous and differentiable everywhere because it is a polynomial. In particular, f is continuous on $[0, 2]$ and differentiable on $(0, 2)$, so the hypotheses of the Mean-Value Theorem are satisfied with $a = 0$ and $b = 2$. But

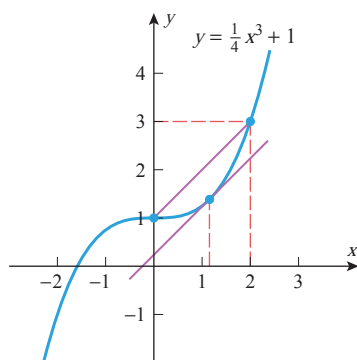
$$f(a) = f(0) = 1, \quad f(b) = f(2) = 3$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{3x^2}{4}, \quad f'(c) = \frac{3c^2}{4}$$

so in this case Equation (1) becomes

$$\frac{3c^2}{4} = \frac{3 - 1}{2 - 0} \quad \text{or} \quad 3c^2 = 4$$

which has the two solutions $c = \pm 2/\sqrt{3} \approx \pm 1.15$. However, only the positive solution lies in the interval $(0, 2)$; this value of c is consistent with Figure 4.8.7. ◀



▲ Figure 4.8.7

■ VELOCITY INTERPRETATION OF THE MEAN-VALUE THEOREM

There is a nice interpretation of the Mean-Value Theorem in the situation where $x = f(t)$ is the position versus time curve for a car moving along a straight road. In this case, the right side of (1) is the average velocity of the car over the time interval from $a \leq t \leq b$, and the left side is the instantaneous velocity at time $t = c$. Thus, the Mean-Value Theorem implies that at least once during the time interval the instantaneous velocity must equal the

average velocity. This agrees with our real-world experience—if the average velocity for a trip is 40 mi/h, then sometime during the trip the speedometer has to read 40 mi/h.

► **Example 5** You are driving on a straight highway on which the speed limit is 55 mi/h. At 8:05 A.M. a police car clocks your velocity at 50 mi/h and at 8:10 A.M. a second police car posted 5 mi down the road clocks your velocity at 55 mi/h. Explain why the police have a right to charge you with a speeding violation.

Solution. You traveled 5 mi in 5 min ($= \frac{1}{12}$ h), so your average velocity was 60 mi/h. Therefore, the Mean-Value Theorem guarantees the police that your instantaneous velocity was 60 mi/h at least once over the 5 mi section of highway. ◀

■ CONSEQUENCES OF THE MEAN-VALUE THEOREM

We stated at the beginning of this section that the Mean-Value Theorem is the starting point for many important results in calculus. As an example of this, we will use it to prove Theorem 4.1.2, which was one of our fundamental tools for analyzing graphs of functions.

4.1.2 THEOREM (Revisited) Let f be a function that is continuous on a closed interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on the open interval (a, b) .

- (a) If $f'(x) > 0$ for every value of x in (a, b) , then f is increasing on $[a, b]$.
- (b) If $f'(x) < 0$ for every value of x in (a, b) , then f is decreasing on $[a, b]$.
- (c) If $f'(x) = 0$ for every value of x in (a, b) , then f is constant on $[a, b]$.

PROOF (a) Suppose that x_1 and x_2 are points in $[a, b]$ such that $x_1 < x_2$. We must show that $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$. Because the hypotheses of the Mean-Value Theorem are satisfied on the entire interval $[a, b]$, they are satisfied on the subinterval $[x_1, x_2]$. Thus, there is some point c in the open interval (x_1, x_2) such that

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1}$$

or, equivalently,

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(c)(x_2 - x_1) \quad (3)$$

Since c is in the open interval (x_1, x_2) , it follows that $a < c < b$; thus, $f'(c) > 0$. However, $x_2 - x_1 > 0$ since we assumed that $x_1 < x_2$. It follows from (3) that $f(x_2) - f(x_1) > 0$ or, equivalently, $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$, which is what we were to prove. The proofs of parts (b) and (c) are similar and are left as exercises. ■

■ THE CONSTANT DIFFERENCE THEOREM

We know from our earliest study of derivatives that the derivative of a constant is zero. Part (c) of Theorem 4.1.2 is the converse of that result; that is, a function whose derivative is zero on an interval must be constant on that interval. If we apply this to the difference of two functions, we obtain the following useful theorem.

4.8.3 THEOREM (Constant Difference Theorem) If f and g are differentiable on an interval, and if $f'(x) = g'(x)$ for all x in that interval, then $f - g$ is constant on the interval; that is, there is a constant k such that $f(x) - g(x) = k$ or, equivalently,

$$f(x) = g(x) + k$$

for all x in the interval.

PROOF Let x_1 and x_2 be any points in the interval such that $x_1 < x_2$. Since the functions f and g are differentiable on the interval, they are continuous on the interval. Since $[x_1, x_2]$ is a subinterval, it follows that f and g are continuous on $[x_1, x_2]$ and differentiable on (x_1, x_2) . Moreover, it follows from the basic properties of derivatives and continuity that the same is true of the function

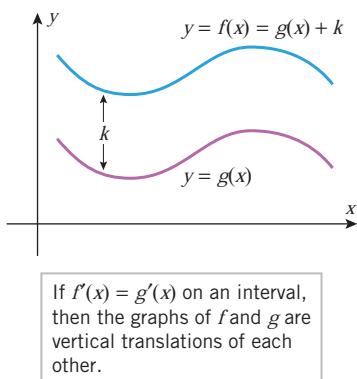
$$F(x) = f(x) - g(x)$$

Since

$$F'(x) = f'(x) - g'(x) = 0$$

it follows from part (c) of Theorem 4.1.2 that $F(x) = f(x) - g(x)$ is constant on the interval $[x_1, x_2]$. This means that $f(x) - g(x)$ has the same value at any two points x_1 and x_2 in the interval, and this implies that $f - g$ is constant on the interval. ■

Geometrically, the Constant Difference Theorem tells us that if f and g have the same derivative on an interval, then the graphs of f and g are vertical translations of each other over that interval (Figure 4.8.8).



▲ Figure 4.8.8

► **Example 6** Part (c) of Theorem 4.1.2 is sometimes useful for establishing identities. For example, although we do not need calculus to prove the identity

$$\sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2} \quad (-1 \leq x \leq 1) \quad (4)$$

it can be done by letting $f(x) = \sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x$. It follows from Formulas (9) and (10) of Section 3.3 that

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}[\sin^{-1} x] + \frac{d}{dx}[\cos^{-1} x] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = 0$$

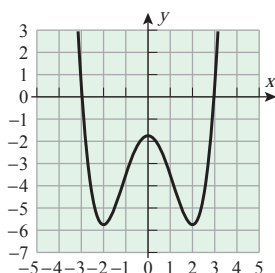
so $f(x) = \sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x$ is constant on the interval $[-1, 1]$. We can find this constant by evaluating f at any convenient point in this interval. For example, using $x = 0$ we obtain

$$f(0) = \sin^{-1} 0 + \cos^{-1} 0 = 0 + \frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

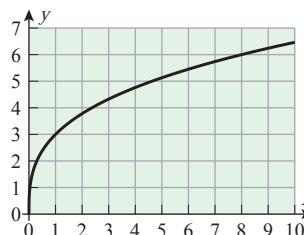
which proves (4). ◀

✓ QUICK CHECK EXERCISES 4.8 (See page 310 for answers.)

- Let $f(x) = x^2 - x$.
 - An interval on which f satisfies the hypotheses of Rolle's Theorem is _____.
 - Find all values of c that satisfy the conclusion of Rolle's Theorem for the function f on the interval in part (a).
- Use the accompanying graph of f to find an interval $[a, b]$ on which Rolle's Theorem applies, and find all values of c in that interval that satisfy the conclusion of the theorem.
- Let $f(x) = x^2 - x$.
 - Find a point b such that the slope of the secant line through $(0, 0)$ and $(b, f(b))$ is 1.
 - Find all values of c that satisfy the conclusion of the Mean-Value Theorem for the function f on the interval $[0, b]$, where b is the point found in part (a).
- Use the graph of f in the accompanying figure to estimate all values of c that satisfy the conclusion of the Mean-Value Theorem on the interval
 - $[0, 8]$
 - $[0, 4]$.



◀ Figure Ex-2



◀ Figure Ex-4