## THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW SOUTH WALES SCHOOL OF MATHEMATICS AND STATISTICS MATH1131 Calculus

Section 5: - Mean Value Theorem.

#### Mean Value Theorem:

Suppose f is cts on [a,b] and diffble on (a,b). Then there is a real number  $c \in (a,b)$  such that

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

There must be a point  $c \in (a,b)$  at which the tangent line has the same slope at the secont line through (a,fin)) and (b,f(b)).

Ex: Demonstrate the Mean Value Theorem for the function,  $f(x) = 6 - 2x + x^2$ , on [-2, 2].

$$\frac{f(z) - f(-z)}{z - (-z)} = \frac{6 - 14}{4} = -2.$$

$$f'(x) = -2 + 2x , f'(0) = -2.$$

We can use the MVT to do a range of problems.

Ex: Use the MVT to find an approximate value of  $\sqrt{17}$ .

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x}$$
.  $f(17) - f(16) = (17 - 16) \cdot f'(e)$   
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ .  $f(17) - f(16) = (17 - 16) \cdot f'(e)$   
 $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ . So  $\sqrt{17} \approx 4 + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2 \cdot 16} = \frac{33}{8}$ 

Ex: Give a precise estimate of log 1.001.

By MVT, with  $f(x) = \log x$ , on [1, 1.001] we have

$$\frac{\log(1.001) - \log 1}{1.001 - 1} = f'(c)$$

for some  $c \in [1, 1.001]$ .

Hence  $\frac{1}{1.001} < f'(c) < 1$  so  $\frac{1}{1.001} < \frac{\log 1.001}{.001} < 1$ . Thus  $0.00099 < \log 1.001 < 0.001$  so  $\log 1.001 = 0.000995 \pm 0.0000005$ .

Ex: Use the MVT to prove that  $\tan x \ge x$  for all  $x \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2})$ .

Let 
$$g(x) = \tan x - x$$
.  $g(0) = 0$   
 $g'(x) = \operatorname{Sec}^2 x - 1$ .  
So  $g'(x) > 0$  if  $x \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ .  
If  $x \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ , then  
 $g(x) = g(x) - g(0) = (x - 0)g'(0)$ , for some  
 $c \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ . So  $g(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ .

Ex: Prove that for all real x and y,  $|\sin x - \sin y| \le |x - y|$ .

If 
$$x = y$$
, then this inequality is trivial.  
If  $x \neq y$ , then by the MVT,  

$$\left| \frac{\sin x - \sin y}{x - y} \right| = \left| \frac{\cos c}{x - y} \right|, \text{ for }$$
some  $c$  between  $x$  and  $y$ . Now  $|\cos x| \leq 1$ .  
 $|\sin x - \sin y| \leq |x - y|$ .

### Error Estimates:

Suppose I measure an angle in radians to be  $0.7^c$  and I take the sine of that angle. If the error involved in my measurement is approximately  $0.01^c$  what is the worst error involved in taking the sine of this number?

That is, if  $f(x) = \sin x$  and  $\Delta x = \pm 0.01$ , we want a bound on the size of

$$|\Delta f(x)| = |f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)|.$$

**Theorem:** If f'(x) exists, then

$$|\Delta f(x)| = |f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)| \approx f'(x)\Delta x.$$

Ex: In the above example,  $\Delta f(x) \approx \cos 0.7 \times 0.01 \approx 7.65 \times 10^{-3}$ .

Here are some consequences of the MVT:

**Definition:** A function f defined on [a,b] is said to be **increasing** if f(x) > f(y) whenever x > y, and **decreasing** when f(x) < f(y) whenever x > y.

**Theorem:** Suppose f is diffble on (a, b),

- (i) If f'(x) > 0 for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then f is increasing on (a, b).
- (ii) If f'(x) = 0 for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then f is constant on (a, b)
- (iii) If f'(x) < 0 for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then f is decreasing on (a, b).

**Proof:** The proof of all of these comes from applying the MVT to f on (x, y), any subset of (a, b) giving

 $\frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} = f'(c).$ 

In the first case we have f(y) > f(x) whenever y > x so f is increasing. Similarly for (iii). For (ii), we have f(x) = f(y), for all x and y so f is a constant.

**Theorem:** Suppose that f is cts on [a,b] and diffble on (a,b) and that f(a) and f(b) have opposite signs. If f'(x) > 0 for all  $x \in (a,b)$  (or f'(x) < 0 for all  $x \in (a,b)$ ), then f has **exactly** one real zero in (a,b).

proof: IVT tells us that fix, has

a zero in (a, b). If there are

two zeros in (a, b), say C, and  $C_2$ .

Then by the MVT.  $0 = f(C_1) - f(C_2) = (C_1 - C_2) f(d)$ ,

for some of fetwern C, and  $C_2$ .

Since  $C_1 \neq C_2$ , we must have f(d) = 0.

But this contradicts the positivity (or negativity) of f(x). So there cannot be two zeros in (a, b). Thus, there is a ranique zero.

Ex:  $f(x) = x^3 + x + 1$  on [-1, 1].

$$f(1) = 3$$
,  $f(-1) = -1$ .  
Moreover,  $f(x) = 3x^2 + 1$  which is  
alway non-negative. So by the  
theorem on the previous frage.  $f(x)$  has  
a unique zero on  $[-1, 1]$ .

Ex: Show that  $5x^5 + 2x + 1 = 0$  has exactly one real solution.

$$f(x) = 5x^5 + 2x + 1$$
  
 $f(x) = 25x^4 + 2$ , 50  $f(x) > 0$ .  
 $f(x)$  is incovering and can have at  
most one zero.  
 $f(0) = 1$ ,  $f(-1) = -6$ .  
Hence  $f(x)$  has at least one zero.  
Thus  $f(x)$  has exactly one zero.

**Theorem:** Suppose that f, g are differentiable functions such that f(a) = g(a) and for all x > a, we have f'(x) > g'(x). Then f(x) > g(x) for all x > a.

Ex: Prove that  $\sin x < x$  for all x > 0.

Let 
$$f(x) = Sin \times \text{ and } g(x) = X$$
. So  $f(0) = g(0) = 0$ .  
 $f'(x) = Cos \times$ ,  $g'(x) = 1$ .  
So  $f'(x) < g'(x)$ , for all  $X \in (0, 2\pi)$ .  
If  $x \neq 2\pi$ , then  $g(x) \geq 2\pi > 1 \geq f(x)$ .

# Types of points:

We wish to classify all the sorts of interesting points a function can have.

#### Definition:

Suppose that f is a function defined on an interval [a, b] and let  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ .

- (i)  $x_0$  is called a **critical point** if  $f'(x_0) = 0$  or if f is not differentiable at  $x_0$ .
- (ii)  $x_0$  is called an **extreme point** if  $x_0$  is a local maximum or local minimum.
- (iii)  $x_0$  is called a **stationary point** if  $f'(x_0) = 0$ .

In practise, to find the (global) maximum and minimum, we need to find the stationary points and check their y values and also check the y values at the end points.

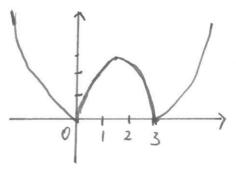
Ex: Find the global max and min of  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 1$  on the interval [0, 4].

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x = 3x(x-2).$$
So the Stationary Jets are  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 2$ .
$$f(0) = 1$$
,  $f(z) = -3$ ,  $f(4) = 17$ .
$$Global max : f(4).$$

$$Global min : f(2).$$

Ex: Find the local max and min of f(x) = |x - 3||x|

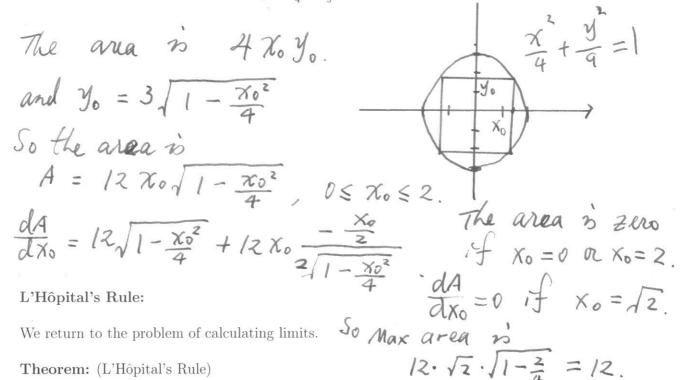
The critical points are at x = 0,  $x = \frac{3}{2}$  and x = 3.



Thus the local mins are at f(0) = f(3) = 0

The local max is at 
$$f(\frac{3}{2}) = \frac{9}{4}$$
.

Ex: Find the dimensions of the rectangle (with vertical and horizontal sides) of maximum area which can be inscribed in the ellipse,  $\frac{x^2}{4} + \frac{y^2}{9} = 1$ .



Suppose that f and g are differentiable functions (except possibly at a) and that f(a) and g(a) are both equal to 0, or both tend to  $\infty$  as  $x \to a$ .

If 
$$\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$
 exists, then 
$$\lim_{x\to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x\to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

Theorem: (L'Hôpital's Rule)

**Proof:** (Outline). Suppose we have the case f(a) = g(a) = 0. Apply the MVT to f and g on the interval (a, x), where x > a, so that for some  $c, d \in (a, x)$  we have  $\frac{f(x) - 0}{x - a} = f'(c)$  and  $\frac{g(x)-0}{x-a} = g'(d).$ 

Hence

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\frac{f(x)}{x-a}}{\frac{g(x)}{x-a}} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(d)}.$$

Hence as  $x \to a^+$  we have  $c \to a^+$  and  $d \to a^+$ , so that if the limit of  $\frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  exists as  $x \to a$ , we have  $\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ .

Ex: 
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{\sin 2x}$$
.

$$= \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{e^x}{\sin 2x}$$

$$= \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{e^x}{\cos 2x}$$

$$= \lim_{x\to 0} \frac{e^x}{\cos 2x}$$

Ex: 
$$\lim_{x \to 1} \frac{1 - x + \log x}{1 + \cos \pi x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 1} \frac{-1 + \frac{1}{x}}{-\pi \sin \pi x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 1} \frac{-1}{-\pi^2 \cos \pi x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 1} \frac{-1}{-\pi^2 \cos \pi x}$$

$$= -\frac{1}{\pi^2}$$

When dealing with limits to infinity, we need the following version of L'Hôpital's rule.

**Theorem:** Suppose f and g are differentiable. Suppose further that  $f(x) \to 0$  and  $g(x) \to 0$  as  $x \to \infty$  (or  $f(x) \to \infty$  and  $g(x) \to \infty$  as  $x \to \infty$ ).

If 
$$\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$
 exists, then

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

Ex: 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\log x}{x}$$
.

$$= \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\log x}{x}$$

Ex: 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x$$
.

$$= \lim_{x \to \infty} \left( \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^{\times} \right)$$

$$= \exp \left( \lim_{x \to \infty} x \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right) \right). \quad "0. \infty"$$

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} x \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right) = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)}{\frac{1}{x}} \quad "0. \infty"$$

$$= \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)}{-\frac{1}{x^2}} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)}{-\frac{1}{x^2}} = 1.$$
So 
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e.$$