## MEAN VALUE THEOREM

## 1. Tangents and Rate of Change

There are two important ways of looking at derivatives. One interpretation is physical and the other is geometric.

Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function. We can interpret the difference quotient $\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$ as the average rate of change of $f$ over the interval from $x$ to $x+h$. The instantaneous rate of change of $f$ with respect to $x$ at $x_{0}$ is the derivative $f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)=$ $\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$. Thus, instantaneous rates are limits of average rates.

Problem 1. The area $A$ of a circle is related to its diameter $D$ by the equation $A=\frac{\pi}{4} D^{2}$. How fast does the area change w.r.t the diameter when the diameter is 10 m .

Solution. The rate of change of the area w.r.t the diameter is $\frac{d A}{d D}=\frac{\pi D}{2}$. When $D=10$ m , the area changes w.r.t the diameter at the rate of $5 \pi \mathrm{~m}$.

If we think of the domain as the time interval and $f\left(x_{0}+h\right)-f\left(x_{0}\right)$ as the distance travelled by a particle in $h$ units of time, then the velocity is $\frac{f\left(x_{0}+h\right)-f\left(x_{0}\right)}{h}$. The derivative which is the limit of these velocities as $h \rightarrow 0$ is called the instantaneous velocity of the motion of the particle at the instant $x=x_{0}$.

The geometric interpretation of the derivative $f^{\prime}(x)$ is that it is the slope of the tangent line at $(x, f(x))$ to the graph $\{(x, f(x)): x \in[a, b]\}$.

Problem 2. (1) Find the slope of the curve $y=\frac{1}{x}$ at any point $x=a \neq 0$. What is the slope of at $x=-1$.
(2) At which point(s), the slope equals $-\frac{1}{4}$.
(3) What happens to the tangent to the curve at the point ( $a, \frac{1}{a}$ ) as a changes.

Solution. (1) Here, $f(x)=\frac{1}{x}$. Then $f^{\prime}(x)=-\frac{1}{x^{2}}$. Hence, the slope at $\left(a, \frac{1}{a}\right)$ is $-\frac{1}{a^{2}}$.
(2) $-\frac{1}{a^{2}}=-\frac{1}{4} \Rightarrow a=2$ or $a=-2$. Thus, the curve has slope $-\frac{1}{4}$ at the points ( $2, \frac{1}{2}$ ) and $\left(-2,-\frac{1}{2}\right)$.
(3) The slope $-\frac{1}{a^{2}}$ is always negative if $a \neq 0$. As $a \rightarrow 0^{+}$(or $0^{-}$), the slope approaches $-\infty$ and the tangent becomes increasingly steep. As $a$ moves away from 0 in either direction, the slope approaches 0 and the tangent levels off to become horizontal.

## 2. Mean Value Theorem

Definition 3 (Local Exremum). (1) Let $J$ be an interval and $f: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. We say that a point $c \in J$ is a point of local maximum if there exists $\delta>0$ such that $(c-\delta, c+\delta) \subset J$ and $f(x) \leq f(c)$ for all $x \in(c-\delta, c+\delta)$. A local minimum is defined similarly.
(2) A point $c$ is said to be a local extremum if it is either a local maximum or a local minimum.
(3) A point $x_{0}$ is called a point of global maximum on $J$ if $f(x) \leq f\left(x_{0}\right)$ for all $x \in J$. Global minimum and then global extremum are defined similarly.

## Examples

(1) Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined as $f(x)=x$. Then $b$ is a point of global maximum but not a local maximum. Also, $a$ is a point of global minimum but not a local minimum.
(2) Consider $f:[-2 \pi, 2 \pi] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $f(x)=\cos x$. The point $x=0$ is a local maximum as well as a global maximum. What do you think about the points $x= \pm 2 \pi$.

Proposition 4. Let $f: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable at $c \in J$. If $f$ has local extremum at $c$, then $f^{\prime}(c)=0$.

Proof. Suppose $f$ has a local maximum at $c$. Then $\exists \delta>0$ such that $f(x) \leq f(c)$ for all $x \in(c-\delta, c+\delta)$. In other words, for all $h \in(-\delta, \delta)$, we have $f(c+h) \leq f(c)$ and $f(c-h) \leq f(c)$. Since $f$ is differentiable at $c$,

$$
f^{\prime}(c)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h} \leq 0 \text { and } f^{\prime}(c)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0^{-}} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h} \geq 0 .
$$

This implies that $f^{\prime}(c)=0$.

Proposition 5 (Rolle's Theorem). If $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on $(a, b)$ and if $f(a)=f(b)$, then there exists $c \in(a, b)$ such that $f^{\prime}(c)=0$.

Proof. Exercise.
Geometrically, Rolle's Theorem says that there exists a point $c \in(a, b)$ such that the tangent at $(c, f(c)$ is parallel to $x$-axis.

Rolle's Theorem together with IVP are used to check the existence and uniqueness of roots of continuous functions in certain intervals as illustrated in the following examples.

## Examples

(1) Let $f(x)=x^{3}+p x+q$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, where $p, q \in \mathbb{R}, P>0$. We observe that $f(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ and $f(x) \rightarrow-\infty$ as $x \rightarrow-\infty$. Hence by IVP, there $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(a)=0$. Thus, $f$ has at least one real root. Suppose there is $b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(b)=0$. Rolle's Theorem implies the existence of $c \in(a, b)$ such that $f^{\prime}(c)=0$. But $f^{\prime}(x)=3 x^{2}+p \neq 0$ for any $x \in \mathbb{R}$ since $p>0$.
(2) If $f(x)=x^{4}+2 x^{3}-2$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then $f(0)=-2<0$ and $f(1)=1>0$. Therefore, by IVP $f$ will have at least one root in $[0,1]$. Moreover, $f^{\prime}(x)=4 x^{3}+6 x^{2}>0$ for $x \in(0, \infty)$. So, $f$ has at most one root in $[0, \infty)$. This implies that $f$ has a unique root in $[0, \infty)$.

Now we state the most important result in differentiation.
Theorem 6 (Mean Value Theorem (MVT)). If $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on $(a, b)$, then there exists $c \in(a, b)$ such that

$$
f(b)-f(a)=f^{\prime}(c)(b-a) .
$$

Proof. Define $F:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$
F(x)=f(x)-f(a)-\left(\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}\right)(x-a)
$$

Now, apply Rolle's Theorem to the function $F$.
Remark 7. (1) The mean value theorem (in short, MVT) is also known as Lagrange's mean value theorem. MVT is crucial in characterizing constant functions, monotonic functions, and convex/concave functions. Such characterizations can only be obtained using MVT.
(2) If we write $b=a+h$, then MVT could be stated as follows:

$$
f(a+h)=f(a)+h f^{\prime}(a+\theta h) \text { for some } \theta \in(0,1) .(\text { Verify! })
$$

### 2.1. Applications of MVT.

(1) Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable such that $f^{\prime}(x)=0$ for all $x \in[a, b]$. Then $f$ is constant.

Proof. For any $x, y \in[a, b]$, by MVT, we have $f(y)-f(x)=f^{\prime}(z)(y-x)$ for some $z$ between $x$ and $y$. Since $f^{\prime}(z)=0$, we get $f(x)=f(y)$ for all $x, y \in[a, b]$. This implies that $f$ is a constant function. (Try to prove this ab initio!)
(2) Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. If $f^{\prime}(x) \geq 0$ (respectively, $f^{\prime}(x)>0$ ) for all $x \in[a, b]$, then $f$ is increasing (respectively, strictly increasing). We have a similar result for decreasing functions.

Proof. For $x, y \in[a, b]$ such that $x<y$, we have by MVT, $f(y)-f(x)=f^{\prime}(z)(y-x)$ for some $z$ between $x$ and $y$. Since $f^{\prime}(z) \geq 0$ (respectively, $\left.f^{\prime}(z)>0\right)$ and $y-x>0$, we get $f(y) \geq f(x)$ (respectively, $f(y)>f(x)$ ). Thus, $f$ is increasing (respectively, increasing).
(3) MVT is quite useful in proving certain inequalities. For example, can you find out which is greater, $e^{\pi}$ or $\pi^{e}$. Let us prove a more general inequality.
■ If $e \leq a<b$, then $a^{b}>b^{a}$.
Proof. Let $0<x<y$ and $f(x)=\log x$ on $[x, y]$. Using MVT, try to prove

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{y-x}{y}<\log \frac{y}{x}<\frac{y-x}{x} . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, using (1), we have

$$
\frac{b-a}{b}<\log \frac{b}{a}<\frac{b-a}{a}
$$

Since $a \log \frac{b}{a}<b-a$, we have $\frac{b^{a}}{a^{a}}=e^{a \log \frac{b}{a}}<e^{b-a}$. That is, $b^{a}<e^{b-a} a^{a}$. If $e \leq a$, then $e^{t} \leq a^{t}$ for $t \geq 0$ (Why?). Thus, we conclude that

$$
b^{a}<e^{b-a} a^{a}<a^{b-a} a^{a}=a^{b} .
$$

Theorem 8 (Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem (CMVT)). If $f, g:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on $(a, b)$, then there exists $c \in(a, b)$ such that

$$
\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{g(b)-g(a)}=\frac{f^{\prime}(c)}{g^{\prime}(c)}
$$

Proof. Exercise.

