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### III The Mean Value Theorem for Rational Functions

#### III.A Derivatives of Rational Functions and Tangent Lines

Without any geometry, one may define derivatives of rational functions in a purely algebraic way:

- The derivative of  $x^n$  is  $(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}$ .
- The derivative of a polynomial

$$P(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$$

is given by

$$P'(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n i a_i x^{i-1}.$$

- The derivative of a rational function  $f(x) = P(x)/Q(x)$  is given by

$$f'(x) = \frac{P'(x)Q(x) - P(x)Q'(x)}{(Q(x))^2}.$$

$f'(x)$  is again a rational function and  $\text{dom}(f') = \text{dom}(f)$ .

- If  $f(x), g(x)$  are rational functions and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  then

$$[af(x) + bg(x)]' = af'(x) + bg'(x)$$

$$[f(x)g(x)]' = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x) \quad (\text{product rule})$$

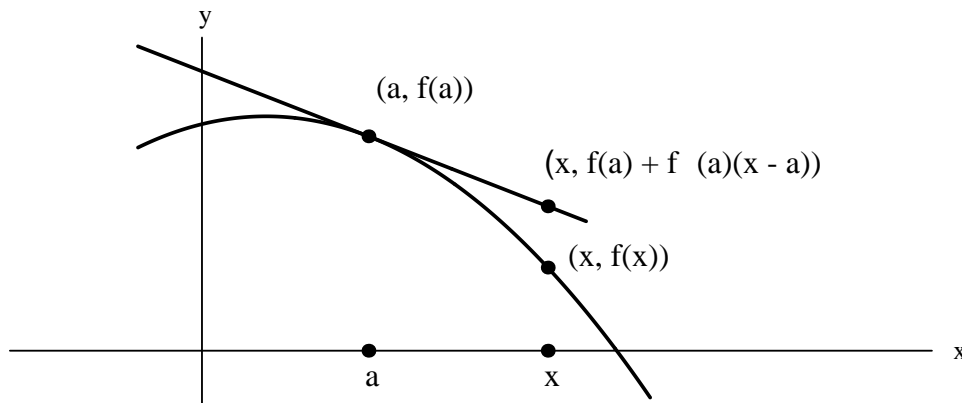
$$[f(x)/g(x)]' = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2} \quad (\text{quotient rule, } g(x) \text{ not the zero polynomial})$$

The geometric interpretation of the derivative is through the *slope of the tangent line*:

**Definition:** If  $f(x)$  is a rational function defined at  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , then the *tangent line* to the graph of  $f$  at  $(a, f(a))$  has equation

$$y = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a).$$

It is the *unique line* that passes through the point  $(a, f(a))$  and that has slope  $f'(a)$ .



Once more:

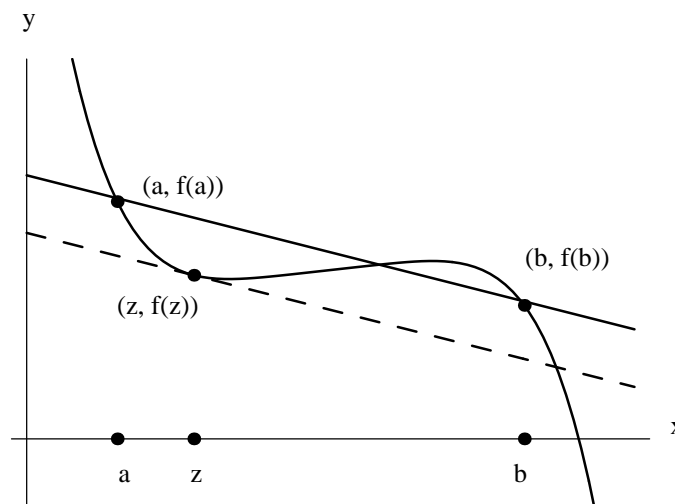
- the slope of the tangent line through  $(a, f(a))$  is  $f'(a)$ .
- the equation of the tangent line is  $y = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$ .

### III.B Mean Value Theorem, or MVT, and Rolle's Theorem for Rational Functions

**The Mean Value Theorem (MVT for rational functions):** Let  $f(x) = P(x)/Q(x)$  be a rational function defined at each point of a closed interval  $[a, b]$ . Then for *some*  $z \in (a, b)$ :

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

By assumption, the rational function,  $f$ , is defined at each point of  $[a, b]$ . Then



- The straight line through  $(a, f(a))$  and  $(b, f(b))$  has slope

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

the *average rate of change of  $f$  over  $[a, b]$* .

- MVT says that this is the same as the *instantaneous rate of change*, the derivative  $f'(z)$ , for some  $z \in (a, b)$ .
- The derivative,  $f'(z)$ , is the slope of the tangent line through  $(z, f(z))$ .
- Thus the MVT states: the slope of the line joining  $(a, f(a))$  to  $(b, f(b))$  is the same as the slope of the tangent line at some point  $(z, f(z))$  with  $z$  between  $a$  and  $b$ .

As with IVT, the Mean Value Theorem *does not* predict *where*  $z$  will be found in  $(a, b)$ , nor does it say that there is a unique such  $z$ .

In the picture above there are at least two points in  $(a, b)$  that can serve as a solution to  $f'(z) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$ . Can you spot a second solution?

**Example.**

$$f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 + 3x + 1; a = 0; b = 2.$$

$$f(a) = 1, f(b) = 8 - 8 + 6 + 1 = 7; b - a = 2.$$

Therefore, the average rate of change on  $[0, 2]$  is  $\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} = \frac{7-1}{2} = 3$ .

The MVT asserts thus that for some  $z \in (0, 2)$ ,  $f'(z) = 3$ .

In this simple case, we can check this — and actually *find* such a  $z$ :

$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 4x + 3$ , and to solve  $f'(z) = 3$  we need

$$\begin{aligned} 3z^2 - 4z + 3 = 3 &\Rightarrow 3z^2 - 4z = 0 \\ &\Rightarrow z = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad z = \frac{4}{3} \end{aligned}$$

$z = 0$  will not do:  $0 \notin (0, 2)$ .

$z = \frac{4}{3}$  will do:  $\frac{4}{3} \in (0, 2)$ .

Suppose in the MVT that  $f(a) = f(b)$ . Then the RHS of the equation is zero and the conclusion is: for some  $z \in (a, b)$ ,  $f'(z) = 0$ . This special case is very important and has its own name:

**Rolle's Theorem** (for rational functions): Let  $f$  be a rational function defined at each point of  $[a, b]$  and suppose  $f(a) = f(b)$ . Then for some  $z \in (a, b)$ ,  $f'(z) = 0$ .

*Proof of Rolle's theorem:* Replacing  $f$  by  $f - d$ , where  $d = f(a) = f(b)$ , we may suppose that  $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ : the theorem holds for  $f$  iff it holds for  $f - d$  as  $f' = (f - d)'$ .

Step 1: We know that  $f$  takes the value zero at only finitely many points. Let  $c$  be the smallest number such that  $a < c$  and  $f(c) = 0$ . (Either  $c = b$  or  $a < c < b$ .) Thus we may assume

- $f(a) = 0, f(c) = 0$ .
- $f$  is defined in all of  $[a, c]$ .
- $f(x) \neq 0$  if  $x \in (a, c)$ .

Step 2: Write  $f(x) = P(x)/Q(x)$  where  $P$  and  $Q$  are polynomials. Since  $f$  is defined in all of  $[a, c]$ ,

- $Q(x) \neq 0, x \in [a, c]$ .

Since  $f(a) = 0$  and  $f(c) = 0$ ,

- $a$  and  $c$  are roots of  $P(x)$ .

Since  $f(x) \neq 0, x \in (a, c)$ ,

- $P$  has no roots between  $a$  and  $c$ .

Step 3: Since  $P(x)$  is a polynomial with roots at  $a$  and  $c$ , we can write

$$P(x) = (x - a)^k(x - c)^\ell R(x)$$

where  $k \geq 1$ ,  $\ell \geq 1$  and  $R(a) \neq 0$ ,  $R(c) \neq 0$ . Since  $P(x) \neq 0$ ,  $a < x < c$  we have

$$R(x) \neq 0, \quad a < x < c.$$

Therefore  $R(x) \neq 0$ ,  $a \leq x \leq c$ .

Step 4: Let  $g(x) = R(x)/Q(x)$ . Because  $Q(x) \neq 0$ ,  $a \leq x \leq c$ ,  $g(x)$  is defined in all of  $[a, c]$ . Because  $R(x) \neq 0$ ,  $a \leq x \leq c$ ,  $g(x)$  is never zero on  $[a, c]$ . Therefore by the Corollary of the constant sign,

- $g(a)$  and  $g(c)$  have the same sign.

Step 5:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{(x - a)^k(x - c)^\ell R(x)}{Q(x)} \\ &= (x - a)^k(x - c)^\ell \cdot \frac{R(x)}{Q(x)} \\ &= (x - a)^k(x - c)^\ell g(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Differentiating gives } f'(x) &= k(x - a)^{k-1}(x - c)^\ell g(x) + (x - a)^k \ell (x - c)^{\ell-1} g(x) + (x - a)^k(x - c)^\ell g'(x) \\ &= (x - a)^{k-1}(x - c)^{\ell-1} [k(x - c)g(x) + \ell(x - a)g(x) + (x - a)(x - c)g'(x)]. \end{aligned}$$

We define a new rational function,  $h(x)$ , by

$$h(x) = k(x - c)g(x) + \ell(x - a)g(x) + (x - a)(x - c)g'(x)$$

so that

- $f'(x) = (x - a)^{k-1}(x - c)^{\ell-1}h(x)$ .

Step 6: Note that  $h$  is defined in all of  $[a, c]$ . Moreover

$$\begin{aligned} h(a) &= k(a - c)g(a) \\ h(c) &= \ell(c - a)g(c). \end{aligned}$$

By Step 4,  $g(a)$  and  $g(c)$  have the same sign.

Therefore  $h(a)$  and  $h(c)$  have opposite signs.

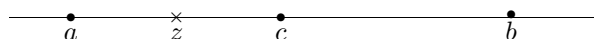
Therefore by IVT, for some  $z \in (a, c)$ ,

$$h(z) = 0.$$

Step 7 (and last): By Step 4,

$$f'(z) = (z - a)^{k-1}(z - c)^{\ell-1}h(z) = 0.$$

Therefore  $f'(z) = 0$  for some  $z$  between  $a$  and  $c$ . But since either  $c = b$  or  $c$  is between  $a$  and  $b$ ,  $z$  is in any case between  $a$  and  $b$ :



□

*Proof of the MVT for rational functions:* Suppose  $f(x)$  is a rational function defined in all of  $[a, b]$  and consider the rational function

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

which is also defined in  $[a, b]$ . Then

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

Therefore by Rolle's theorem, there is some  $z \in (a, b)$  such that

$$F'(z) = 0.$$

However

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

Therefore

$$0 = F'(z) = f'(z) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a};$$

i.e.

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

□

The following reformulation of Rolle's theorem is often used.

**Corollary:** Let  $f$  be a rational function defined on  $[a, b]$ . If  $f'(x) \neq 0$  for  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is *injective* (or 1-1) on  $[a, b]$ . Thus every value that  $f$  takes on is taken on exactly once.

*Proof:* If  $f(c) = f(d)$  for some  $c, d \in [a, b]$  and  $c \neq d$ , then  $f$  is defined on  $[c, d] \subseteq [a, b]$  and Rolle's theorem says that  $f'$  has a root in  $(c, d)$ . As  $f'$  has no root in the larger interval  $[a, b]$ , we have a contradiction and so there is no pair  $c, d \in [a, b]$  with  $c \neq d$  and  $f(c) = f(d)$ . □

**Example.** If  $P$  is a polynomial such that  $P'(x) \neq 0$  for  $x \in [a, b]$ , then  $P$  has *at most one root* in  $(a, b)$ : If the value 0 is taken on at all, i.e.  $P$  has a root, it is not taken on more than once, thus there is at most one root.

### III.C Application of the MVT

We can use MVT to solve our first differential equation.

**Proposition:** If  $f(x)$  is a rational function defined everywhere on an interval  $[a, b]$  and if

$$f'(x) = 0, \quad x \in (a, b)$$

then  $f$  is constant in  $[a, b]$ .

*Proof:* If  $x$  is any point in  $(a, b]$  then for some  $z \in (a, x)$ :

$$\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \stackrel{\text{MVT}}{=} f'(z) = 0 \quad (\text{by hypothesis})$$

and so

$$f(x) = f(a), \quad a \leq x \leq b. \quad \square$$

In the parlance of differential equations, constants  $y = c$  are the only solutions in rational functions to the equation  $y' = 0$  on  $[a, b]$ .

### III.D Extended Mean Value Theorem (EMVT) for Rational Functions

**The Extended Mean Value Theorem** (EMVT for rational functions): Let  $f(x)$  be a rational function defined at each point of a closed interval  $[a, b]$ . Then for some  $z \in (a, b)$ ,

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{f''(z)}{2}(b-a)^2.$$

*Proof:* Set

$$g(x) = f(b) - f(x) - f'(x)(b-x) - C(b-x)^2,$$

where  $C$  is a constant. Then

$$\begin{aligned} g'(x) &= 0 - f'(x) - f''(x)(b-x) - f'(x)(-1) - 2C(b-x)(-1) \\ &= 0 - f'(x) - f''(x)(b-x) + f'(x) + 2C(b-x) \\ &= (b-x)[2C - f''(x)]. \end{aligned}$$

Also  $g(b) = 0$ . We choose the constant  $C$  so that  $g(a) = 0$  as well which means we want:

$$0 = f(b) - f(a) - f'(a)(b-a) - C(b-a)^2;$$

i.e.

$$C = \frac{f(b) - f(a) - f'(a)(b-a)}{(b-a)^2}.$$

With this choice of  $C$ , Rolle's theorem tells us that for some  $z \in (a, b)$ ,  $g'(z) = 0$ ; i.e.

$$0 = g'(z) = (b-z)[2C - f''(z)].$$

Therefore dividing by  $(b-z)$  we get  $C = \frac{1}{2}f''(z)$ ; i.e.

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a) - f'(a)(b-a)}{(b-a)^2} = \frac{1}{2}f''(z)$$

and so

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{f''(z)}{2}(b-a)^2.$$

□