

**TOPIC : MEAN VALUE THEOREMS**

**SUBJECT: MATHEMATICS**

**SEMESTER: 2, GENERIC ELECTIVE: 2**

**UNIT: 1**

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(9)

Then the function  $\phi(x)$  is derivable in  $[a, b]$ .

Also,  $\phi'(a) = f'(a) - k$

$\phi'(a) = f'(a) - k > 0$  &  $\phi'(b) = f'(b) - k < 0$ .

So, by Darboux theorem,  $\exists$  a point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

$\phi'(c) = 0$

i.e.  $f'(c) - k = 0$  i.e.,  $f'(c) = k$ .

Rolle's Theorem

Suppose  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function

such that

(1)  $f(x)$  is continuous in the closed

Rolle's Theorem

Suppose  $f(x)$  is a function defined over the closed interval  $[a, b]$  is such that

- (i)  $f(x)$  is continuous over the closed interval  $a \leq x \leq b$
- (ii)  $f'(x)$  exists in the open interval  $a < x < b$
- and (iii)  $f(a) = f(b)$ .

Then there is a point  $\xi \in (a, b)$  such that

$f'(\xi) = 0$ .

Proof Since  $f(x)$  is continuous over the closed interval  $[a, b]$  it is bounded there and attains its bounds. In other words if

$M = \sup\{f(x) : a \leq x \leq b\}$  &  $m = \inf\{f(x) : a \leq x \leq b\}$

then there exist points  $\xi, \eta \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(\xi) = M$  and  $f(\eta) = m$ .

Now, if  $M = m$ , then  $f(x) = M \forall x \in [a, b]$  i.e.,  $f(x)$  is a constant throughout the interval  $[a, b]$  and in that case  $f'(x) = 0 \forall x \in (a, b)$ .

On the other hand if  $M > m$  then as  $f(a) = f(b)$ , either  $M$  or  $m$  is distinct from  $f(a)$ . We suppose that  $M \neq f(a)$ . Then  $M = f(\xi) > f(a)$  and  $M = f(\xi) > f(b)$ . Hence  $\xi \neq a$  &  $\xi \neq b$ . So,  $\xi \in (a, b)$ . By the given condition  $f'(\xi)$  exists.

We assert that  $f'(\xi) = 0$ . Because if  $f'(\xi) > 0$  then there would exist a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that if  $x \in (\xi, \xi + \delta_1)$ , then  $f(\xi) < f(x)$ , which is not possible and if  $f'(\xi) < 0$ , then there would exist a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that if  $x \in (\xi - \delta_2, \xi)$ ,  $f(\xi) < f(x)$ , which is not possible. Hence we must have  $f'(\xi) = 0$ .

If  $m \neq f(a)$ , we can show in a similar way that  $\eta \in (a, b)$  and  $f'(\eta) = 0$ .

Ex: Let  $f(x) = |x|$ ;  $x \in [-1, 1]$ . (76)

Then  $f(x)$  is continuous in  $[-1, 1]$ ,  $f'(x)$  exists at all  $x \in [-1, 1]$  except at  $x=0$  &  $f(-1) = f(1)$ .

There is no point  $c \in (-1, 1)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

Ex:- Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  ( $0 < x \leq 1$ )  
 $= 0$  at  $x=0$ .

Then  $f(x)$  is not continuous at  $x=0$ . We note that there is no  $x \in (0, 1)$  such that  $f'(x) = 0$ .

Ex:- Let  $f(x) = \tan x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq \pi$ .

Then  $f(0) = f(\pi) = 0$ .  $f(x)$  is continuous in  $[0, \pi]$  except at  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$ .  $f'(x) = \sec^2 x$  which does not vanish in  $[0, \pi]$ .

Ex:- Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x} + \frac{1}{1-x}$ ,  $x \in (0, 1)$ .

Then  $f(x)$  is continuous in  $(0, 1)$  {not in  $[0, 1]$ }

$f'(x) = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} - \frac{1}{x^2}$ . Yet  $f'(\frac{1}{2}) = 0$ .

Rolle's theorem ensures that there exists at least one point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ . The following example shows

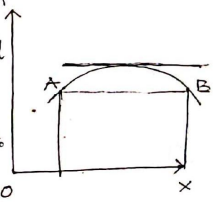
that there may exist more than one point in  $(a, b)$  at which  $f'$  vanishes. (77)

Ex:- Let  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 5\pi$   
 $f'(x) = \cos x$ .

Then  $f'(x) = 0$  at  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}, \frac{5\pi}{2}, \frac{7\pi}{2}, \frac{9\pi}{2}$ .

Geometric Interpretation of Rolle's Theorem

If the graph of  $y = f(x)$  has the ordinates at two points A and B equal and if the graph be continuous throughout the interval from A to B except possibly at the two extreme points A and B, then there must exist at least one point on the curve intervening between A and B where the tangent is parallel to the x-axis.



Lagrange's Mean Value Theorem Suppose  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

- is a function such that
- (i)  $f$  is continuous in the closed interval  $[a, b]$
  - (ii)  $f$  is derivable in the open interval  $(a, b)$ .
- Then there is a point  $c$  ( $a < c < b$ ) such that
- $$f(b) - f(a) = (b-a) f'(c).$$

Proof If  $f'(a) = f'(b)$ , then the theorem reduces to the Rolle's Theorem. So, we assume that  $f'(a) \neq f'(b)$  and construct a function  $\phi(x)$  such that  $\phi: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as follows: -

$$\phi(x) = f(x) + Ax \quad ; \quad x \in [a, b]$$

where  $A$  is a constant to be chosen in such a way that  $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$ . Thus,

$$f(a) + Aa = f(b) + Ab$$

$$\text{i.e. } A(b-a) = -\{f(b) - f(a)\}$$

$$\text{i.e. } A = -\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a}$$

As  $f(x)$  is continuous in  $[a, b]$  & derivable in  $(a, b)$  and  $Ax$  is continuous in  $[a, b]$ , derivable in  $(a, b)$  it follows that  $\phi(x)$  is continuous in  $[a, b]$ , derivable in  $(a, b)$ . Also  $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$ . In other words  $\phi(x)$  satisfies all the conditions of Rolle's theorem in  $[a, b]$ . Hence there is a point  $c \in (a, b)$

such that  $\phi'(c) = 0$

$$\text{i.e. } f'(c) + A = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } f(b) - f(a) = (b-a) f'(c)$$

### Other forms of Lagrange's M.V.T.

I). We have

$$f(b) - f(a) = (b-a) f'(c) \quad \text{where } a < c < b.$$

So,  $0 < c-a < b-a$  i.e.  $0 < \frac{c-a}{b-a} < 1$ . Let  $\theta = \frac{c-a}{b-a}$ . Then  $0 < \theta < 1$  and  $c = a + \theta(b-a)$ .

$$\text{So, } f(b) - f(a) = (b-a) f'(a + \theta(b-a)) \quad \dots (1)$$

II) In (1) if we put  $b-a = h$ , then it reduces to  $f(a+h) - f(a) = h f'(a + \theta h)$  so ~~or~~  $\dots (2)$   
 $0 < \theta < 1$

In (2) if we put  $a=0$ , we obtain

$$f(h) - f(0) = h f'(\theta h), \quad 0 < \theta < 1$$

Now putting  $h=x$  in the above relation we obtain

$$f(x) = f(0) + x f'(\theta x) \quad \dots (3)$$

where  $0 < \theta < 1$ .

Relation (3) is due to Maclaurin.

### Some consequences of Lagrange's M.V.T.

(1) Suppose that the function  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous over the closed interval  $[a, b]$ , derivable in the open interval  $(a, b)$  and  $f'(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$ . Then  $f$  is constant throughout the interval  $[a, b]$ . In fact  $f(x) = f(a) \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$ .

Proof Let  $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$  such that  $x_1 < x_2$ . Then it's clear that  $f(x)$  satisfies all the conditions of Lagrange's Mean value theorem in  $[x_1, x_2]$  and so  $\exists$  a point  $\xi \in (x_1, x_2)$  such that:

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = (x_2 - x_1) f'(\xi) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

From this the result follows. \*

Note The converse of the above theorem is not true. In fact a strictly increasing (decreasing) derivable function may have a derivative that vanishes at certain points.

If  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by  $f(x) = x^3, x \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $f$  is increasing in every interval of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Yet  $f'(0) = 0$ .

Theorem If  $f$  is continuous at  $x=c$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f'(x) = l$ , then  $f$  is derivable at  $x=c$  and  $f'(c) = l$ .

Proof The condition that  $f'(x) \rightarrow l$  as  $x \rightarrow c$  implies the existence of a  $h > 0$  such that  $f'(x)$  exists at each point of  $(c, c+h]$ . As existence of derivative at a point  $\Rightarrow$  the continuity of the function

at that point, it follows that  $f(x)$  is continuous at all points of  $(c, c+h]$ . As the function  $f(x)$  is also continuous at  $x=c$ , it follows that it is continuous in  $[c, c+h]$ . Let  $y \in (c, c+h]$ . Then applying Lagrange's M.V.T. to  $f(x)$  in  $[c, y]$  we obtain

$$f(y) - f(c) = (y - c) f'(\xi) \quad \text{where } c < \xi < y.$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{f(y) - f(c)}{y - c} = f'(\xi) \quad \text{where } c < \xi < y.$$

$$\therefore \lim_{y \rightarrow c^+} \frac{f(y) - f(c)}{y - c} = \lim_{y \rightarrow c^+} f'(\xi) = l.$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f'(x) = l.$$

So,  $R f'(c) = l$ .

Similarly,  $L f'(c) = l$ . Hence  $f'(c) = l$ .

Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem

Suppose the functions

$f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are (i) both continuous in the closed interval  $[a, b]$ , (ii) both derivable in the open interval  $(a, b)$  and (iii)  $g'(x) \neq 0$  in  $(a, b)$ .

Then  $\exists$  a point  $\xi \in (a, b)$  such that

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(\xi)}{g'(\xi)}$$

Proof We construct a function  $\phi : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as follows:-

$$\phi(x) = f(x) + Ag(x), \quad x \in [a, b]$$

where  $A$  is a constant to be determined in such a way that

$$\phi(a) = \phi(b)$$

$$\text{i.e. } f(a) + Ag(a) = f(b) + Ag(b)$$

$$\text{i.e. } -A = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}$$

We note that  $g(a) \neq g(b)$ , because if  $g(a) = g(b)$  then  $g(x)$  satisfies all the conditions of Rolle's theorem in  $[a, b]$  and in that case  $\exists$  a point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $g'(c) = 0$  which is not possible.

Now,  $\phi(x)$  being the sum of two continuous functions is continuous in  $[a, b]$ . Also,

$$\phi'(x) = f'(x) + Ag'(x)$$

exists in  $(a, b)$ . Also,  $\phi(a) = \phi(b)$ . In other words  $\phi(x)$  satisfies all the conditions of Rolle's theorem in  $[a, b]$  and so  $\exists$  a point  $\xi \in (a, b)$  such that

$$0 = \phi'(\xi) = f'(\xi) + Ag'(\xi)$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{f'(\xi)}{g'(\xi)} = -A = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}$$

(104)

(Statement only)

Taylor's Theorem with Lagrange's form of Remainder

(105)

Statement (Suppose that a function  $f(x)$  is such that

- (i) the  $(n-1)$ th derivative  $f^{(n-1)}$  of  $f$  is continuous in  $[a, a+h]$  and (ii) the  $n$ th derivative  $f^{(n)}$  of  $f$  exists in the open interval  $(a, a+h)$ .

Then  $\exists$  a  $\theta \in (0, 1)$  such that

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \frac{h^2}{2} f''(a) + \dots + \frac{h^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(a) + \frac{h^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(a+\theta h) =$$

Proof We construct a function. The hypothesis (i) of the theorem implies the existence and the continuity of

$f, f', f'', \dots, f^{(n-2)}, f^{(n-1)}$  in  $[a, a+h]$ .

We construct a function  $\phi$  in  $[a, a+h]$  as follows:-

$$\phi(x) = f(x) + (a+h-x)f'(x) + \frac{(a+h-x)^2}{2} f''(x) + \dots + \frac{(a+h-x)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(x) + (a+h-x)^n \cdot A$$

where  $A$  is a constant so chosen that  $\phi(a) = \phi(a+h)$

Taylor Theorem with Cauchy's form of Remainder (Statement only) (108)

Suppose that a function  $f(x)$  is such that (i)  $f^{(n)}(x)$  is continuous in  $[a, a+h]$  and (ii)  $f^{(n)}(x)$  exists in  $(a, a+h)$ .

Then  $\exists$  a  $\theta \in (0, 1)$  such that

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \dots + \frac{h^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(a) + \frac{h^n (1-\theta)^{n-1}}{n!} f^{(n)}(a+\theta h)$$

Proof The hypothesis (i) of the theorem implies the existence and the continuity of  $f, f', f'', \dots, f^{(n-1)}$  in  $[a, a+h]$ .

We construct a function  $\phi(x)$  defined in  $[a, a+h]$  as follows:-

$$\phi(x) = f(x) + (a+h-x)f'(x) + \frac{(a+h-x)^2}{2!} f''(x) + \dots + \frac{(a+h-x)^{n-2}}{(n-2)!} f^{(n-2)}(x) + \frac{(a+h-x)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(x) + (a+h-x)A$$

where  $A$  is a constant to be chosen in such a way that

$$\phi(a) = \phi(a+h)$$

Then,  $f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \dots + \frac{h^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(a) + hA$

i.e.  $hA = f(a+h) - f(a) - hf'(a) - \dots - \frac{h^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(a)$

Now, as  $f, f', f'', \dots, f^{(n-1)}$  are all continuous in  $[a, a+h]$  and  $(a+h-x), (a+h-x)^2, \dots, (a+h-x)^{n-1}$  are continuous everywhere it follows that the function  $\phi(x)$  is continuous in  $[a, a+h]$ .

Further, because  $f, f', \dots, f^{(n-1)}$  are derivable in  $(a, a+h)$  and the functions  $(a+h-x), (a+h-x)^2, \dots, (a+h-x)^{n-1}$  are derivable everywhere, it follows that the function  $\phi(x)$  is derivable in  $(a, a+h)$ . In fact

$$\begin{aligned} \phi'(x) &= f'(x) - f'(x) + (a+h-x)f''(x) - (a+h-x)f''(x) + \dots \\ &+ \frac{(a+h-x)^{n-2}}{(n-2)!} f^{(n-1)}(x) - \frac{(a+h-x)^{n-2}}{(n-2)!} f^{(n-1)}(x) \\ &+ \frac{(a+h-x)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(x) - A \\ &= \frac{(a+h-x)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(x) - A \end{aligned}$$

Lastly,  $\phi(a) = \phi(a+h)$ .

In other words, the function  $\phi(x)$  satisfies all the conditions of Rolle's theorem in  $[a, a+h]$  and so  $\exists$  a  $\theta \in (0, 1)$  such that

$$\phi'(a+\theta h) = 0$$

i.e.  $A = \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \{ (a+h) - (a+\theta h) \}^{n-1} f^{(n)}(a+\theta h)$

Hence the geometrical interpretation of Rolle's theorem is "If the graph of  $y = f(x)$  is represented by the arc  $AB$  without any break on  $[a, b]$  having everywhere a tangent and ordinate of  $A$  and  $B$  points are same, then there exist at least one point  $C$ , on the arc  $AB$ , where the tangent is parallel to the  $x$ -axis."

### Illustrative Examples.

**Ex. 1.** Verify Rolle's theorem in each of the following cases :

(i)  $f(x) = \cos x$  in  $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$

(ii)  $f(x) = 2x^3 + x^2 - 4x - 2$ ,  $-\sqrt{2} \leq x \leq \sqrt{2}$

(iii)  $f(x) = 2 + (x-1)^{2/3}$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2$

(iv)  $f(x) = |x|$ ,  $-1 \leq x \leq 1$ .

(i) We know the function  $\cos x$  is continuous and derivable for all real values of  $x$ .

$\therefore f(x)$  is continuous on  $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$  and derivable on  $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ .

Now  $f'(x) = -\sin x$ ,  $-\frac{\pi}{2} < x < \frac{\pi}{2}$ . Also  $f\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0 = f\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ .

Thus  $f(x)$  satisfies all the conditions of Rolle's theorem.

By Rolle's theorem, we should have

$$f'(c) = 0 \text{ where } -\frac{\pi}{2} < c < \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Here  $f'(c) = 0 \Rightarrow -\sin c = 0 \Rightarrow \sin c = 0$  whose one solution is  $c = 0$  and  $-\frac{\pi}{2} < 0 < \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

Hence, Rolle's theorem is verified for the given function.

(ii) Since every polynomial in  $x$  is continuous and derivable for every real values of  $x$ , so  $f(x) = 2x^3 + x^2 - 4x - 2$  is continuous on  $[-\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2}]$  and derivable on  $(-\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$ .

Also,  $f'(x) = 6x^2 + 2x - 4$ ,  $-\sqrt{2} < x < \sqrt{2}$ .

Moreover,

$$f(-\sqrt{2}) = 2(-\sqrt{2})^3 + (-\sqrt{2})^2 - 4(-\sqrt{2}) - 2 = 0 \text{ and } f(\sqrt{2}) = 0.$$

Thus  $f(x)$  satisfies all the conditions of Rolle's theorem.

By Rolle's theorem, we should have

$$f'(c) = 0, \text{ where } -\sqrt{2} < c < \sqrt{2}.$$

$$\text{Here } f'(c) = 0 \Rightarrow 6c^2 + 2c - 4 = 0$$

i.e.,  $2(c+1)(3c-2) = 0$  whose two solutions are  $c = -1, \frac{2}{3}$  and  $-\sqrt{2} < -1 < \sqrt{2}$  as well as  $-\sqrt{2} < \frac{2}{3} < \sqrt{2}$ .

Hence, Rolle's theorem is verified for the given function.

(iii) Here  $f(x) = 2 + (x-1)^{2/3}$  is continuous on  $0 \leq x \leq 2$  but  $f'(x) = \frac{2}{3}(x-1)^{-1/3}$  does not exist at  $x = 1$ .

Hence  $f(x)$  is not derivable on  $0 < x < 2$ .

Thus the conditions of Rolle's theorem do not hold. So Rolle's theorem is not applicable to the given function.

(iv) The given function can be written as

$$f(x) = -x, \text{ when } -1 \leq x \leq 0$$

$$= x, \text{ when } 0 < x \leq 1.$$

Obviously  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $[-1, 1]$ .

$$\text{Now } L f'(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(0+h) - f(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{-h - 0}{h} = -1$$

$$R f'(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(0+h) - f(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{h - 0}{h} = 1.$$

$$\therefore L f'(0) \neq R f'(0).$$

So  $f'(x)$  does not exist at  $x = 0$  which lies between  $-1$  and  $1$ .

Hence  $f(x)$  is not derivable on  $-1 < x < 1$ .

Thus the conditions of Rolle's theorem do not hold. So Rolle's theorem is not applicable to the given function.



✓ **Ex. 2.** Show that Rolle's theorem is not applicable to  $f(x) = \tan x$  in  $[0, \pi]$ , although  $f(0) = f(\pi)$ .

Here  $f(x) = \tan x$  is continuous everywhere in  $[0, \pi]$  except at  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$  and consequently is not derivable there.

Thus the condition of Rolle's theorem do not hold. Hence Rolle's theorem is not applicable to the function  $f(x) = \tan x$  on the interval  $[0, \pi]$ , although  $f(0) = f(\pi)$ .

### 4.3. Lagrange's Mean Value Theorem.

Let  $f$  be a function defined on a finite closed interval  $[a, b]$  such that

- (i)  $f(x)$  is continuous for all  $x, a \leq x \leq b$
- (ii)  $f'(x)$  exists for all  $x, a < x < b$ .

Then there exist at least one value  $c, a < c < b$ , such that

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

*Proof:* Beyond the scope of the book.

✓ **Remark.** When  $f(b) = f(a)$  then  $f'(c) = 0, a < c < b$ . So Lagrange's mean value theorem becomes Rolle's theorem when  $f(b) = f(a)$ .

### Another form of Lagrange's Mean Value Theorem.

Let  $f$  be a function defined on a finite closed interval  $[a, a+h]$  such that

- (i)  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, a+h]$
- (ii)  $f$  is derivable on  $(a, a+h)$ .

Then  $f(a+h) = f(a) + h f'(a+\theta h), 0 < \theta < 1. \dots (1)$

*Proof.* Beyond the scope of the book.

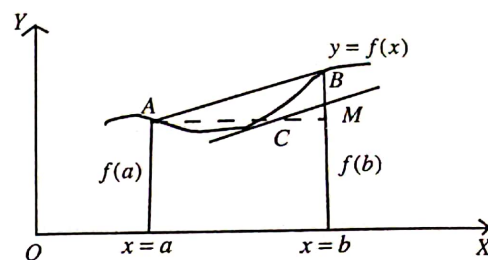
✓ **Note.** For the interval  $[0, h]$ , (1) reduces to

$$f(h) = f(0) + h f'(\theta h), 0 < \theta < 1.$$

### Geometrical Interpretation of M. V. Theorem.

From the fig. it is clear that  $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = \frac{BM}{AM} =$  gradient of the chord  $AB$ .

On the other hand  $f'(c)$  is the gradient of the tangent to the curve  $y = f(x)$  at the point  $(c, f(c))$ .



Hence the geometrical interpretation of Lagrange's mean value theorem is "If the graph of  $y = f(x)$  is represented by arc  $AB$  without any break on  $[a, b]$  having tangent at every point on  $AB$ , then there exist at least one point  $C$  on arc  $AB$ , where the tangent is parallel to the chord joining the two points  $A$  and  $B$ , where  $A = (a, f(a))$ ,  $B = (b, f(b))$ ."

### Illustrative Examples.

✓ **Ex. 1.** Verify Lagrange's mean value theorem for the following functions:

(i)  $f(x) = x(x-1)(x-2), 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{2}$

(ii)  $f(x) = x \cos \frac{1}{x}, \text{ for } x \neq 0$   
 $= 0, \text{ for } x = 0$  } in  $[-1, 1]$

(iii)  $f(x) = \log x, \frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq 2.$

(i) Since every polynomial in  $x$  is continuous and derivable for every real values of  $x$ , so

$$f(x) = x(x-1)(x-2) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 2x$$

is continuous on  $[0, \frac{1}{2}]$  and derivable on  $(0, \frac{1}{2})$ .

Also  $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x + 2, 0 < x < \frac{1}{2}.$

Thus  $f(x)$  satisfies all the conditions of Lagrange's mean value theorem.

By M. V. Theorem we should have an  $c, 0 < c < \frac{1}{2}$ , such that

$$f'(c) = \frac{f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - f(0)}{\frac{1}{2} - 0}$$

Here  $f'(c) = \frac{f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - f(0)}{\frac{1}{2} - 0}$  implies

$$3c^2 - 6c + 2 = 2 \left[ \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3 - 3\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 + 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) - 0 \right]$$

$$\text{or, } 3c^2 - 6c + 2 = \frac{3}{4} \quad \text{or, } 12c^2 - 24c + 5 = 0$$

having two solutions  $c = 1 \pm \frac{\sqrt{21}}{6}$ . Between these two  $1 - \frac{\sqrt{21}}{6}$  lies between 0 and  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

Hence, Lagrange's mean value theorem is verified for the given function.

(ii) Since  $x$  and  $\cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$  are derivable for all  $x \neq 0$ , so  $f(x)$  is derivable for all  $x \neq 0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore f'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} \left\{ x \cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \right\} \\ &= \cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) - \frac{1}{x} \sin\frac{1}{x} \quad \text{when } x \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{But } f'(0) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0+h) - f(0)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h \cos\frac{1}{h} - 0}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos\frac{1}{h} \quad \text{which does not exist.} \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $f(x)$  is not derivable on  $(-1, 1)$ .

Thus Lagrange's mean value theorem is not applicable for the given function.

(iii) Since  $\log x$  is continuous and derivable for all  $x$  in  $(0, \infty)$ , so  $f(x) = \log x$  is continuous on  $\frac{1}{2} \leq x \leq 2$  and derivable on  $\frac{1}{2} < x < 2$ .

$$\text{Also } f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad \frac{1}{2} < x < 2.$$

Thus  $f(x)$  satisfies all the conditions of Lagrange's mean value theorem.

$\therefore$  There should exist  $c, \frac{1}{2} < c < 2$ , such that

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(2) - f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{2 - \frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\text{Here } f'(c) = \frac{f(2) - f\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)}{2 - \frac{1}{2}} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{c} = \frac{\log 2 - \log \frac{1}{2}}{\frac{3}{2}} = \frac{2}{3} \log 4$$

which gives  $c = \frac{3}{2 \log 4}$  which lies between  $\frac{1}{2}$  and 2.

**Ex. 2.** If  $f'(x) = 0$  in  $[a, b]$ , then by using mean value theorem, show that  $f(x)$  is constant in that interval.

Let  $x_1, x_2$  be two arbitrary points in  $[a, b]$  such that  $a \leq x_1 < x_2 \leq b$ .

Then applying Lagrange's mean value theorem to  $f(x)$  in  $[x_1, x_2]$

$$\text{we get, } \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} = f'(c), \quad x_1 < c < x_2,$$

= 0 by the given condition.

$$\therefore f(x_2) - f(x_1) = 0 \quad \therefore f(x_2) = f(x_1).$$

Since  $x_1, x_2$  are any two arbitrary points in  $[a, b]$ , so it follows that  $f(x)$  is constant in  $[a, b]$ .

**Ex. 3.** If  $f'(x)$  exists and  $< 0$  everywhere in  $(a, b)$ , then by using mean value theorem show that  $f(x)$  is a decreasing function in  $(a, b)$ .

Let  $x_1, x_2$  be two arbitrary points in  $(a, b)$  such that  $a < x_1 < x_2 < b$ .

Then applying Lagrange's mean value theorem to  $f(x)$  in  $[x_1, x_2]$ , we get

$$\frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} = f'(c), \quad x_1 < c < x_2.$$

$$\therefore \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} < 0, \quad [\because f'(c) < 0 \text{ by the given hypothesis.}]$$

$$\text{But } x_2 - x_1 > 0. \text{ So from above } f(x_2) - f(x_1) < 0$$

$$\text{i.e., } f(x_2) < f(x_1) \text{ whenever } x_2 > x_1.$$

Hence  $f(x)$  is a decreasing function in  $(a, b)$ .

✓ Ex. 4. If  $f(x) = a + bx + cm^x$ , show that  $\theta$  is independent of  $x$  in the mean value theorem  $f(x+h) = f(x) + hf'(x+\theta h)$

Given  $f(x) = a + bx + cm^x \quad \therefore f'(x) = b + cm^x \log m$ .

$\therefore$  From  $f(x+h) = f(x) + hf'(x+\theta h)$ , we have

$$a + b(x+h) + cm^{x+h} = a + bx + cm^x + h\{b + cm^{x+\theta h} \log m\}$$

or,  $cm^x \cdot m^h = cm^x + c \cdot m^x m^{\theta h} \log m$

or,  $m^h = 1 + m^{\theta h} \log m \quad \text{or, } m^{\theta h} = \frac{m^h - 1}{\log m}$

or,  $\theta h \log m = \log \left( \frac{m^h - 1}{\log m} \right)$

$\therefore \theta = \frac{1}{h \log m} \log \left( \frac{m^h - 1}{\log m} \right)$ , which is independent of  $x$ .

✓ Ex. 5. In the mean value theorem  $f(h) = f(0) + hf'(\theta h)$ ,  $0 < \theta < 1$  show that the limiting value of  $\theta$  as  $h \rightarrow 0+$  is  $\frac{1}{2}$  if  $f(x) = \cos x$ .

Here  $f(x) = \cos x \quad \therefore f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(x) = -\sin x$ .

$\therefore$  from  $f(h) = f(0) + hf'(\theta h)$ , we have

$$\cos h = 1 + h(-\sin \theta h) \quad \text{or, } \sin \theta h = \frac{1 - \cos h}{h}$$

or,  $\theta \cdot \frac{\sin \theta h}{\theta h} = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\sin \frac{h}{2}}{\frac{h}{2}} \right)^2$

$\therefore \lim_{h \rightarrow 0+} \left( \theta \cdot \frac{\sin \theta h}{\theta h} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0+} \left( \frac{\sin \frac{h}{2}}{\frac{h}{2}} \right)^2$

$\therefore \lim_{h \rightarrow 0+} \theta \times 1 = \frac{1}{2} \cdot (1)^2 \quad \therefore \lim_{h \rightarrow 0+} \theta = \frac{1}{2}$ .

✓ Ex. 6. Use Mean-value theorem to prove the following inequalities :

(i)  $0 < \frac{1}{x} \log \frac{e^x - 1}{x} < 1$ .

(ii)  $\frac{x}{1+x} < \log(1+x) < x$  if  $x > 0$ .

(i) Let  $f(x) = e^x$ .

Then from the mean value theorem

$$f(x) = f(0) + x f'(\theta x), \quad 0 < \theta < 1,$$

we have  $e^x = e^0 + x e^{\theta x} \quad [\because f'(x) = e^x]$

or,  $e^x - 1 = x e^{\theta x}$ , or,  $e^{\theta x} = \frac{e^x - 1}{x}$

or,  $\theta x = \log \frac{e^x - 1}{x}$  or,  $\theta = \frac{1}{x} \log \frac{e^x - 1}{x}$ ,

$\therefore 0 < \frac{1}{x} \log \frac{e^x - 1}{x} < 1$ . [ $\because 0 < \theta < 1$ ].

(ii) Let  $f(x) = \log(1+x)$ .

Then from the mean value theorem,

$$f(x) = f(0) + x f'(\theta x), \quad 0 < \theta < 1,$$

we have  $\log(1+x) = \log 1 + x \cdot \frac{1}{1+\theta x} \quad [\because f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}]$

$\therefore \log(1+x) = \frac{x}{1+\theta x}$  ... (1)

Since  $0 < \theta < 1$  and  $x > 0$ , so  $0 < \theta x < x$ .

or,  $1 < 1 + \theta x < 1 + x$ . or,  $1 > \frac{1}{1+\theta x} > \frac{1}{1+x}$

or,  $x > \frac{x}{1+\theta x} > \frac{x}{1+x}$  or,  $\frac{x}{1+x} < \frac{x}{1+\theta x} < x$ .

$\therefore \frac{x}{1+x} < \log(1+x) < x$ , by (1).

#### 4.4. Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem.

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two functions defined on  $[a, b]$  such that

- (i)  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous on  $[a, b]$
- (ii)  $f$  and  $g$  are derivable on  $(a, b)$ , and
- (iii)  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for any  $x$  in  $(a, b)$ .

Then there exist at least one value  $c$ ,  $a < c < b$ , such that

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

*Proof:* Beyond the scope of the book.

**Lagrange's M. V. Theorem From Cauchy's M. V. Theorem.**

The function  $x$  satisfies the conditions satisfied by the 2nd function  $g(x)$  in Cauchy's M. V. Th. If we take  $g(x) = x$  we have

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = \frac{f'(c)}{1} \quad [\because g'(x) = 1]$$

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

which is the result of Lagrange's Mean value theorem.

**Another Form of Cauchy's M. V. Theorem.**

Let  $b = a + h$ . Then  $c = a + \theta h$ ,  $0 < \theta < 1$ .

So (1) reduces to

$$\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{g(a+h) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(a+\theta h)}{g'(a+\theta h)}, \quad 0 < \theta < 1.$$

which is the another form of Cauchy's Mean Value theorem.

**Illustrative Examples.**

**Ex. 1.** Verify Cauchy's Mean value theorem, for the following pairs of functions

(i)  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = \cos x$ ,  $x \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0\right]$

(ii)  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $g(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$ ,  $x \in [1, 2]$ .

(i) Since  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$  are both continuous and derivable for all  $x \in R$  so  $f(x) = \sin x$ ,  $g(x) = \cos x$  are continuous on  $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0\right]$  and derivable on  $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0\right)$ .

Also  $f'(x) = \cos x$ ,  $g'(x) = -\sin x$ . Further  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for any  $x$  in  $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0\right)$ .

Thus  $f$  and  $g$  satisfy all the conditions of Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem.

According to Cauchy's M. V. Theorem there should exist  $c$ ,  $-\frac{\pi}{2} < c < 0$ , such that

$$\frac{f(0) - f\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)}{g(0) - g\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$$

Here  $\frac{f(0) - f\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)}{g(0) - g\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} \Rightarrow \frac{0 - (-1)}{1 - 0} = \frac{\cos c}{-\sin c}$

or,  $\cot c = -1$  which gives a solution  $c = -\frac{\pi}{4}$  which lies between  $-\frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $0$ .

Hence, Cauchy's Mean Value theorem is verified.

(ii) Since, the power function  $x^n$ , where  $n$  is a rational number, is continuous and derivable for all  $x > 0$ , so  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $g(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$  are continuous on  $[1, 2]$  and derivable on  $(1, 2)$ .

Also  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ ,  $g'(x) = -\frac{1}{2x^{3/2}}$ .

Further we see  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for any  $x$  in  $(1, 2)$ .

Thus  $f$  and  $g$  satisfy all the conditions of Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem.

There should exist  $c$ ,  $1 < c < 2$ , such that

$$\frac{f(2) - f(1)}{g(2) - g(1)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$$

Here this relation implies

$$\frac{\sqrt{2} - 1}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} - 1} = \frac{\frac{1}{2\sqrt{c}}}{-\frac{1}{2c^{3/2}}}$$

whose solution is  $c = \sqrt{2}$  which lies between 1 and 2.

Hence Cauchy's Mean Value theorem is verified.

Ex. 2. In Cauchy's Mean Value theorem, if  $f(x) = e^x$  and  $g(x) = e^{-x}$ , show that  $\theta$  is independent of both  $x$  and  $h$  and is equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

Cauchy's Mean value theorem is

$$\frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{g(x+h) - g(x)} = \frac{f'(x+\theta h)}{g'(x+\theta h)}, \quad 0 < \theta < 1.$$

$$\therefore \frac{e^{x+h} - e^x}{e^{-(x+h)} - e^{-x}} = \frac{e^{x+\theta h}}{-e^{-(x+\theta h)}} \quad [\because f'(x) = e^x, g'(x) = -e^{-x}]$$

$$\text{or, } \frac{e^x(e^h - 1)}{e^{-x}(e^{-h} - 1)} = \frac{e^x \cdot e^{\theta h}}{-e^{-x} \cdot e^{-\theta h}}$$

$$\text{or, } \frac{e^h(e^h - 1)}{1 - e^h} = -\frac{e^{\theta h}}{e^{-\theta h}} \quad \text{or, } -e^h = -e^{2\theta h}$$

$$\text{or, } 2\theta h = h \quad \therefore \theta = \frac{1}{2}.$$

So  $\theta$  is independent of both  $x$  and  $h$  and is equal to  $\frac{1}{2}$ .

#### 4.5. Generalised Mean-Value theorem : Taylor's Theorem.

##### Theorem-1. (Taylor's theorem with Lagrange's form of remainder)

Let  $f$  be a function defined on  $[a, b]$  such that

- (i) the  $(n-1)$ th derivative  $f^{(n-1)}$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , and
- (ii) the  $n$ th derivative  $f^{(n)}$  exists on  $(a, b)$ .

Then there exist at least one value  $c, a < c < b$ , such that

$$f(b) = f(a) + (b-a)f'(a) + \frac{1}{2!}(b-a)^2 f''(a) + \dots + \frac{1}{(n-1)!}(b-a)^{n-1} f^{(n-1)}(a) + \frac{1}{n!}(b-a)^n f^{(n)}(c). \quad \dots (1)$$

*Proof.* Beyond the scope of the book.

##### Another form of the above Theorem.

Let  $f$  be a function defined on  $[a, a+h], h > 0$  such that

- (i)  $f^{(n-1)}$  is continuous on  $[a, a+h]$ , and

- (ii)  $f^{(n)}$  exists on  $(a, a+h)$ .

Then there exist at least one number  $\theta, 0 < \theta < 1$ , such that

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \frac{h^2}{2!} f''(a) + \dots + \frac{h^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(a) + \frac{h^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(a+\theta h). \quad \dots (2)$$

*Proof.* Beyond scope of this book.

**Note.** The last term of the above series i.e.,  $(n+1)$ th term, is called the Remainder after  $n$  terms and is denoted by  $R_n$ .

$$\therefore R_n = \frac{h^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(a+\theta h), \quad 0 < \theta < 1.$$

##### Theorem 2. Taylor's theorem with Cauchy's form of remainder.

Let  $f$  be a function defined on  $[a, b]$  such that

- (i)  $f^{(n-1)}$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , and
- (ii)  $f^{(n)}$  exists on  $(a, b)$ .

Then there exist at least one value  $c, a < c < b$ , such that

$$f(b) = f(a) + (b-a)f'(a) + \frac{1}{2!}(b-a)^2 f''(a) + \dots + \frac{1}{(n-1)!}(b-a)^{n-1} f^{(n-1)}(a) + \frac{1}{(n-1)!}(b-a)(b-c)^{n-1} f^{(n)}(c). \quad (3)$$

*Proof.* Beyond scope of the book.

##### Another form of the above theorem.

Let  $f$  be a function defined on  $[a, a+h], h > 0$  such that

- (i)  $f^{(n-1)}$  is continuous on  $[a, a+h]$ , and
- (ii)  $f^{(n)}$  exists on  $(a, a+h)$ .

Then there exist at least one number  $\theta, 0 < \theta < 1$ , such that

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \frac{h^2}{2!} f''(a) + \dots + \frac{h^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(a) + \frac{h^n (1-\theta)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(a+\theta h). \quad \dots (4)$$

*Proof.* Beyond the scope of the book.

✓ **Note.** The last term of the above series i.e. the  $(n + 1)$ th term, is called the Remainder-after  $n$  terms and is denoted by  $R_n$ .

$$\therefore R_n = \frac{h^n (1-\theta)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^n(a+\theta h), 0 < \theta < 1.$$

✓ **Remarks.** (i) The conclusion of Taylor's theorem, is also known as Taylor's formula or Taylor's series of the function  $f(x)$ .

(ii) By putting  $b = x$  in (1), we get

$$f(x) = f(a) + (x-a) f'(a) + \frac{(x-a)^2}{2!} f''(a) + \dots$$

$$+ \frac{(x-a)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(a) + \frac{(x-a)^n}{n!} f^{(n)}\{a+\theta(x-a)\}, 0 < \theta < 1$$

which is called the expansion of  $f(x)$  about  $x = a$ .

(iii) Taylor's theorem is also called the Mean Value theorem of the  $n$ th order. So the 3rd order mean value theorem is

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \frac{h^2}{2!} f''(a) + \frac{h^3}{3!} f'''(a+\theta h), 0 < \theta < 1.$$

#### 4.6. Maclaurin's Theorem.

Let  $f$  be a function defined on  $[-h, h]$ ,  $h > 0$  such that

- (i)  $f^{(n-1)}$  is continuous on  $[-h, h]$ , and
- (ii)  $f^{(n)}$  exists on  $(-h, h)$ .

Then there exist at least one number  $\theta$ ,  $0 < \theta < 1$ , such that

$$f(x) = f(0) + x f'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \dots$$

$$\dots + \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n-1)}(0) + \frac{x^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(\theta x).$$

*Proof.* Beyond the scope of the book.

✓ **Note.** The above series is known as Maclaurin's series in finite form for the function  $f(x)$ .

#### Illustrative Examples.

✓ **Ex. 1.** Write a Taylor's formula for the function

$f(x) = \log(1+x)$ ,  $-1 < x < \infty$  about  $x = 2$  with Lagrange's form of remainder after 3 terms.

Here the function  $f(x) = \log(1+x)$ ,  $-1 < x < \infty$  is continuous and derivable at each point of  $(-1, \infty)$ .

$$\text{Now, } f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}, f''(x) = -\frac{1}{(1+x)^2}, f'''(x) = \frac{2}{(1+x)^3} \dots \text{and so on.}$$

Now the Taylor's formula for the function  $f(x)$  about  $x = 2$  is

$$f(x) = f(2) + (x-2) f'(2) + \frac{(x-2)^2}{2!} f''(2) + \frac{(x-2)^3}{3!} f'''(2+\theta(x-2)), 0 < \theta < 1.$$

$$\text{Since } f(2) = \log 3, f'(2) = \frac{1}{3}, f''(2) = -\frac{1}{9}.$$

$$\therefore f(x) = \log 3 + \frac{1}{3}(x-2) + \frac{1}{2!}(x-2)^2 \left(-\frac{1}{9}\right) + \frac{(x-2)^3}{3!} \frac{2}{\{1+2+\theta(x-2)\}^3}$$

$$\therefore \log(1+x) = \log 3 + \frac{1}{3}(x-2) - \frac{1}{18}(x-2)^2 + \frac{(x-2)^3}{3} \frac{1}{\{3+\theta(x-2)\}^3},$$

where  $0 < \theta < 1$ .

✓ **Ex. 2.** Expand  $\cos x$  in a finite series (in power of  $x$ ) in Lagrange's form of remainder.

$$\text{Let } f(x) = \cos x \quad \therefore f(0) = 1.$$

$$\text{Now, } f^{(n)}(x) = \cos\left(n\frac{\pi}{2} + x\right) \quad \therefore f^{(n)}(0) = \cos \frac{n\pi}{2}.$$

$$\therefore f'(0) = 0, f''(0) = -1, f'''(0) = 0, f^{(4)}(0) = 1 \text{ and so on.}$$

Now the Maclaurin's series for the function  $f(x)$  in finite form in Lagrange's form of remainder, is

$$f(x) = f(0) + x f'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \frac{x^3}{3!} f'''(0) + \frac{x^4}{4!} f^{(4)}(0)$$

$$+ \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(\theta x), 0 < \theta < 1$$

$$\therefore \cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} \cos\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} + \theta x\right)$$

Ex. 3. Show that  $(x+h)^{\frac{3}{2}} = x^{\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{3}{2}x^{\frac{1}{2}}h + \frac{3 \cdot 1}{2 \cdot 2} \frac{h^2}{2!} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+\theta h}}$ ,  $0 < \theta < 1$ .

Find  $\theta$  when  $x=0$ .

$$\text{Let } f(x) = x^{\frac{3}{2}}.$$

$$\therefore f'(x) = \frac{3}{2}x^{\frac{1}{2}}, f''(x) = \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} x^{-\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Now the 2nd order Mean Value theorem states

$$f(x+h) = f(x) + hf'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2!} f''(x+\theta h), 0 < \theta < 1.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore (x+h)^{\frac{3}{2}} &= x^{\frac{3}{2}} + h \cdot \frac{3}{2}x^{\frac{1}{2}} + \frac{h^2}{2!} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} (x+\theta h)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= x^{\frac{3}{2}} + \frac{3}{2}x^{\frac{1}{2}}h + \frac{3 \cdot 1}{2 \cdot 2} \frac{h^2}{2!} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+\theta h}}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Putting } x=0, \text{ we get } h^{\frac{3}{2}} = \frac{3}{8} \frac{h^2}{\sqrt{\theta h}}. \therefore \theta = \frac{9}{64}.$$

Ex. 4. Using Mean Value theorem, show that

$$\sin x > x - \frac{1}{6}x^3, \text{ if } 0 < x < \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

$$\text{Let } f(x) = \sin x \quad \therefore f(0) = 0$$

$$f'(x) = \cos x \quad \therefore f'(0) = 1$$

$$f''(x) = -\sin x \quad \therefore f''(0) = 0$$

$$f'''(x) = -\cos x \quad \therefore f'''(\theta x) = -\cos \theta x.$$

Now the Maclaurin's series for the function  $f(x)$  of order 3 is

$$f(x) = f(0) + xf'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \frac{x^3}{3!} f'''(\theta x), 0 < \theta < 1.$$

$$\therefore \sin x = 0 + x \cdot 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} \cdot 0 + \frac{x^3}{3!} (-\cos \theta x)$$

$$\text{or, } \sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{6} \cos \theta x \quad \dots (1)$$

Since  $0 < x < \frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $0 < \theta < 1$ , so  $0 < \theta x < \frac{\pi}{2}$

or,  $0 < \cos \theta x < 1$ .

$$\therefore -\frac{x^3}{6} \cos \theta x > -\frac{x^3}{6}, \quad \because x > 0$$

$$\text{or, } x - \frac{x^3}{6} \cos \theta x > x - \frac{x^3}{6}.$$

$$\therefore \sin x > x - \frac{x^3}{6}, \text{ by (1).}$$

Ex. 5. Show that if  $-1 < x < 1$ ,

$$(1+x)^{\frac{1}{3}} = 1 + \frac{1}{3}x - \frac{1}{9}x^2 + \frac{5}{81}x^3 - \frac{10}{243}x^4 + R_5$$

$$\text{where } R_5 = \frac{x^5}{4!} (1-\theta)^4 \left(-\frac{880}{243}\right) (1+\theta x)^{-\frac{14}{3}}.$$

$$\text{Let } f(x) = (1+x)^{\frac{1}{3}}, -1 < x < 1.$$

$$\therefore f(0) = 1.$$

$$\therefore f'(x) = \frac{1}{3}(1+x)^{-\frac{2}{3}} \quad \therefore f'(0) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{1}{3} \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right) (1+x)^{-\frac{5}{3}} \quad \therefore f''(0) = -\frac{2}{9}$$

$$f'''(x) = \frac{1}{3} \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right) \left(-\frac{5}{3}\right) (1+x)^{-\frac{8}{3}} \quad \therefore f'''(0) = \frac{10}{27}$$

$$f^{(4)}(x) = \frac{1}{3} \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right) \left(-\frac{5}{3}\right) \left(-\frac{8}{3}\right) (1+x)^{-\frac{11}{3}} \quad \therefore f^{(4)}(0) = -\frac{80}{81}$$

$$f^{(5)}(x) = \frac{1}{3} \left(-\frac{2}{3}\right) \left(-\frac{5}{3}\right) \left(-\frac{8}{3}\right) \left(-\frac{11}{3}\right) (1+x)^{-\frac{14}{3}}$$

$$= \frac{880}{243} (1+x)^{-\frac{14}{3}}.$$

Now Taylor's Expansion of  $f(x)$  about  $x=0$ , with Cauchy's form of remainder, after 5 terms, is

$$f(x) = f(0) + xf'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \frac{x^3}{3!} f'''(0) + \frac{x^4}{4!} f^{(4)}(0) + \frac{x^5}{4!} (1-\theta)^4 f^{(5)}(\theta x), 0 < \theta < 1.$$

$$\therefore (1+x)^{\frac{1}{3}} = 1 + \frac{1}{3}x - \frac{2x^2}{9 \cdot 2!} + \frac{10x^3}{27 \cdot 3!} - \frac{80x^4}{81 \cdot 4!} + \frac{880x^5}{243 \cdot 4!} (1-\theta)^4 (1+\theta x)^{\frac{14}{3}}$$

$$\therefore (1+x)^{\frac{1}{3}} = 1 + \frac{1}{3}x - \frac{1}{9}x^2 + \frac{5}{81}x^3 - \frac{10}{243}x^4 + R_5$$

where  $R_5 = \frac{x^5}{4!} (1-\theta)^4 \frac{880}{243} (1+\theta x)^{\frac{14}{3}}$

**Ex. 6.** Prove that  $\sin 46^\circ - \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}\left(1 + \frac{\pi}{180}\right)$  is this estimate high or less.

We show two different processes.

**1st Procedure (Using M. V. T.):** Let  $f(x) = \sin x$ . By Lagrange's M.V.T. (2nd form) we have

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a+\theta h) \text{ where } 0 < \theta < 1$$

$f(a+h) - f(a) = hf'(a+\theta h)$ . Putting  $a = 45^\circ, h = 1^\circ$  we get from above

$$f(46^\circ) = f(45^\circ) + 1^\circ \times \cos(45^\circ + \theta \times 1^\circ)$$

$$\text{or, } \sin 46^\circ = \sin 45^\circ + \frac{\pi}{180} \cos(45^\circ + \theta^\circ) \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

$$\cong \sin 45^\circ + \frac{\pi}{180} \cos 45^\circ. \quad [:\theta^\circ \text{ is so small}]$$

$$\therefore \sin 46^\circ \cong \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(1 + \frac{\pi}{180}\right) \therefore \sin 46^\circ \cong \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2} \left(1 + \frac{\pi}{180}\right).$$

For small  $\theta^\circ, \cos(45^\circ + \theta^\circ) < \cos 45^\circ$ . Therefore from (1), exact value of  $\sin 46^\circ < \text{Approx value of } \sin 46^\circ$ .

This shows that the estimate is high.

**2nd procedure (using Taylor's Theorem):** Let  $f(x) = \sin x$ . Applying 2nd order Taylor's Theorem we get

$$f(a+h) = f(a) + hf'(a) + \frac{h^2}{2!} f''(a+\theta h).$$

We put  $a = 45^\circ, h = 1^\circ$ . Then from above we get

$$f(a+h) \cong f(a) + hf'(a)$$

$$\text{or, } f(46^\circ) \cong f(45^\circ) + 1^\circ \cos 45^\circ$$

$$\text{or, } \sin 46^\circ \cong \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(1 + \frac{\pi}{180}\right)$$

#### 4.7. Maclaurin's series.

**Theorem :** Suppose  $f(x)$  has derivatives of every order in  $[-h, h]$ , for some  $h > 0$ . Then for  $x \in [-h, h]$

$$f(x) = f(0) + \frac{x}{1!} f'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(0) + \dots \infty$$

if  $\lim R_n = 0$  where  $R_n$  is the remainder after  $n$  terms.

**Proof.** Let  $S_n$  denote the sum of the first  $n$  terms of this series. Then by Maclaurin's theorem, we have for every point  $x$  in  $[-h, h]$ ,

$$f(x) = S_n + R_n$$

where  $R_n$  is the remainder after  $n$  terms in the Maclaurin's theorem.

If we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0$ , then it follows at once that the Maclaurin's series has a sum equal to  $f(x)$  i.e., if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0$ , then

$$f(x) = f(0) + \frac{x}{1!} f'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(0) + \dots \infty. \quad (1)$$

**Note :** In this case we say that  $f(x)$  is represented by its Maclaurin's series (1).

**An Important result.**

We shall prove that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0$  for every  $x$ . Chose a positive integer  $k > |x|$ . Then for all  $n > 2k$ , we have



$$0 \leq \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| = \frac{|x|^n}{n!} < \frac{k^n}{n!} = \left( \frac{k}{1} \right) \left( \frac{k}{2} \right) \cdots \left( \frac{k}{2k-1} \right) \left( \frac{k}{2k} \right) \left( \frac{k}{2k+1} \right) \cdots \left( \frac{k}{n} \right)$$

$$< \frac{k^{2k-1}}{(2k-1)!} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{n-(2k-1)}} = \frac{(2k)^{2k-1}}{(2k-1)!} \cdot \frac{1}{2^n} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Hence  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0$ .

**Illustrative Examples.**

Ex. (Can be used as formula) Expand the following functions in power of  $x$  in infinite series :

(1)  $\sin x$ ; (2)  $e^x$ ;

(3)  $\log(1+x)$ ,  $-1 < x \leq 1$ .

(1) Let  $f(x) = \sin x$ .

So its  $n$ th derivative  $f^{(n)}(x) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} + x\right)$ .

Thus  $f(x)$  possesses derivatives of every order for every value of  $x$ .

Also  $f^{(n)}(0) = \sin \frac{n\pi}{2}$

$\therefore f'(0) = 1, f''(0) = 0, f'''(0) = -1, f^{(4)}(0) = 0, f^{(5)}(0) = 1$  and so on.

Now the remainder after  $n$  terms in Maclaurin's theorem in

Lagrange's form is  $R_n = \frac{x^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(\theta x) = \frac{x^n}{n!} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} + \theta x\right)$ ,  $0 < \theta < 1$ .

$$\therefore 0 \leq |R_n| = \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} + \theta x\right) \right| = \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| \cdot \left| \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} + \theta x\right) \right|$$

$$\leq \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| \cdot 1 \quad [\because |\sin x| \leq 1 \text{ for all } x]$$

or,  $-\left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| \leq R_n \leq \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right|$ .

Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0$  for every  $x$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| = 0$ . So it follows

from above that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0$ , for every  $x$ .

Thus for every  $x$ , we have (the Macl. series)

$$f(x) = f(0) + \frac{x}{1!} f'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \frac{x^3}{3!} f'''(0) + \dots \infty.$$

$$\therefore \sin x = 0 + \frac{x}{1!} \cdot 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} (0) + \frac{x^3}{3!} (-1) \dots \infty.$$

$$\therefore \sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots \infty.$$

(2) Let  $f(x) = e^x$ . So its  $n$ th derivative  $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$ .

Then  $f(x)$  possesses derivative of every order for every value of  $x$ .

Also  $f^{(n)}(0) = e^0 = 1$ .

Now the remainder after  $n$  terms in Maclaurin's theorem in Lagrange's form is

$$R_n = \frac{x^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(\theta x) = \frac{x^n}{n!} e^{\theta x}, \quad 0 < \theta < 1.$$

$$\therefore 0 \leq |R_n| = \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| |e^{\theta x}| \leq \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| \cdot e^{|\theta x|} \leq \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| \cdot e^{|x|}, \quad [\because 0 < \theta < 1, |\theta x| \leq |x|.]$$

$$\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. \quad \left[ \because \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = 0 \text{ for every } x \right]$$

$\therefore$  It follows that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0$ , for every  $x$ .

Thus for every  $x$ , we have,

$$f(x) = f(0) + \frac{x}{1!} f'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \frac{x^3}{3!} f'''(0) + \dots \infty$$

$$= 1 + \frac{x}{1!} \cdot 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} \cdot 1 + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \infty$$

$$\therefore e^x = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \infty.$$

(3) Let  $f(x) = \log(1+x)$ . So its  $n$ th derivative

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{(-1)^{n-1} (n-1)!}{(1+x)^n}.$$

Thus  $f(x)$  possesses derivatives of every order for every value of  $x$ .

$$\therefore f^{(n)}(0) = (-1)^{n-1} (n-1)!$$

**Case I.** Let  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ .

Now the remainder after  $n$  terms in Maclaurin's theorem in Lagrange's form is

$$\begin{aligned} R_n &= \frac{x^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(\theta x), \quad 0 < \theta < 1 \\ &= \frac{x^n}{n!} \frac{(-1)^{n-1} (n-1)!}{(1+\theta x)^n} = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{(1+\theta x)^n} \\ \therefore 0 \leq |R_n| &= \frac{1}{n} \left| \frac{x^n}{(1+\theta x)^n} \right| \leq \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{1}{(1+\theta x)^n} \quad [\because 0 < x \leq 1] \\ &\leq \frac{1}{n} \left[ \because 0 < \theta < 1 \text{ and } x \geq 0, \text{ so } 0 < \frac{1}{1+\theta x} \leq 1 \right] \\ &\rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0 \text{ when } 0 \leq x \leq 1.$$

**Case II.** Let  $-1 < x < 0$ .

Since  $0 < \theta < 1$ , so  $0 < \theta x > 1 \cdot x$  [ $\because x < 0$ ]

$$\text{i.e., } 1 > 1 + \theta x > 1 + x. \quad \therefore 1 < \frac{1}{1+\theta x} < \frac{1}{1+x}. \quad \dots \quad \text{(A)}$$

Again  $-1 < x < 0$ .  $\therefore -\theta < x\theta < 0 \cdot \theta$  ( $\because 0 < \theta < 1$ )

... (B)

Now the remainder after  $n$  terms in Maclaurin's theorem in Cauchy's

$$\begin{aligned} \text{form is } R_n &= \frac{x^n (1-\theta)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} f^{(n)}(\theta x), \quad 0 < \theta < 1 \\ &= \frac{x^n (1-\theta)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \cdot \frac{(-1)^{n-1} (n-1)!}{(1+\theta x)^n} \\ &= (-1)^{n-1} x^n \left( \frac{1-\theta}{1+\theta x} \right)^{n-1} \cdot \frac{1}{1+\theta x} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore 0 \leq |R_n| = |x|^n \left( \frac{1-\theta}{1+\theta x} \right)^{n-1} \cdot \frac{1}{1+\theta x} \leq |x|^n \cdot 1 \cdot \frac{1}{1+x} \text{ by (A) \& (B)}$$

$\rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , since  $|x| < 1$ .

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 0 \text{ when } -1 < x < 0.$$

By case I and II, for  $-1 < x \leq 1$ , we have (the Maclaurin's series)

$$f(x) = f(0) + \frac{x}{1!} f'(0) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(0) + \dots \infty.$$

$$\therefore \log(1+x) = \log 1 + \frac{x}{1!} \cdot 1 + \frac{x^2}{2!} (-1) + \frac{x^3}{3!} (2!) + \dots \text{ up to } \infty$$

$$\therefore \log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots \text{ up to } \infty$$

### EXERCISE

#### [I] SHORT ANSWER QUESTIONS

1. Verify Rolle's theorem in each of the following cases :

$$\text{(i) } f(x) = x, \quad 0 \leq x < 1 \\ = 0, \quad x = 1.$$

$$\text{(ii) } f(x) = 4x - x^2, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 4.$$

$$\text{(iii) } f(x) = (x-1)^{2/3} + 2, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 2.$$

$$\text{(iv) } f(x) = x^2 - 5x + 6 \text{ in } 2 \leq x \leq 3.$$

2. If  $f(x) = x^\alpha \log x$ ,  $x > 0$

$$= 0, \quad x = 0$$

find the value of  $\alpha$  so that the function obeys the Rolle's theorem in  $[0, 1]$ .

3. Examine the validity of (a) the hypothesis and (b) the conclusion of Lagrange's Mean value theorem for the following functions :

$$\text{(i) } f(x) = x(x-1), \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2.$$

$$\text{(ii) } f(x) = x \sin \frac{1}{x}, \text{ for } x \neq 0 \\ = 0, \text{ for } x = 0. \quad \left. \vphantom{f(x)} \right\} \text{ in } \left[ -\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2} \right]$$