

Lecture 8: June 18, 2014.

ANNOUNCEMENT !!

NO IN-CLASS LECTURE MONDAY OR WEDNESDAY

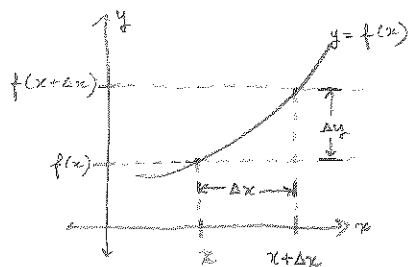
- TWO CLASS CAPTURES WILL BE ON MY WPI!
(YOU MUST WATCH THEM)
- THERE WILL BE WEBWORK AND HOMEWORK!
- YOU CAN E-MAIL ME WITH QUESTIONS ALL NEXT WEEK.

TODAY: 4.2: Linear approximation, Differentials
4.3: Mean Value Theorem.

4.2: Increments.

Recall: Δx - "change in x " - "Increment in x "

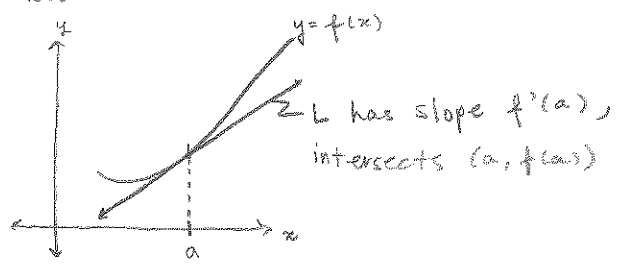
$\Delta y = f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$ "change in y " - "Increment in y "



$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$ is the slope of the secant line connecting $(x, f(x))$ to $(x + \Delta x, f(x + \Delta x))$.

Also recall: $f'(a) = \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=a} := \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \right) \Big|_{x=a}$ is the slope of the

tangent line at $(a, f(a))$.



The equation of the line tangent to $f(x)$ at $x=a$:

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

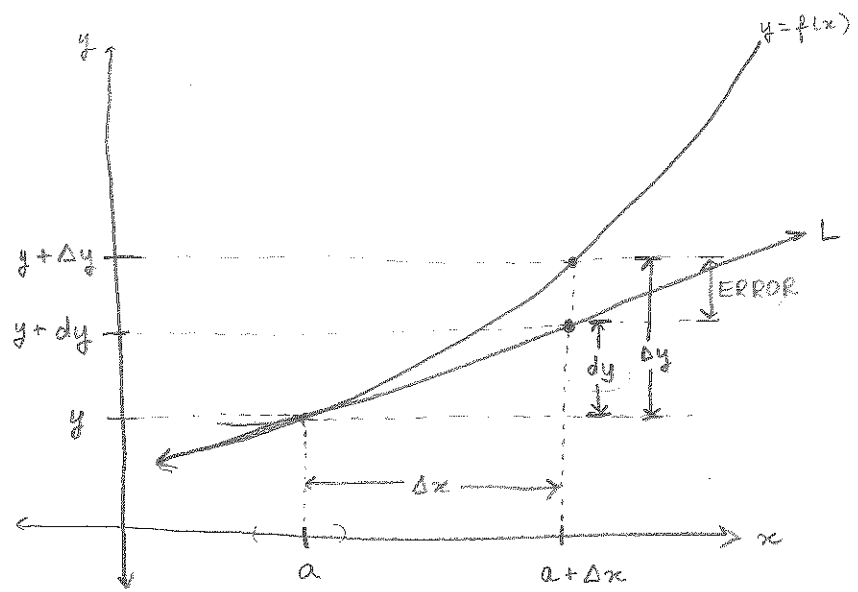
$(a, f(a))$
slope $f'(a)$

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

\uparrow
 $L(x)$

We call this the LINEAR APPROXIMATION TO $f(x)$ NEAR THE POINT $x=a$.

How good an approximation is it?



$$dy \Big|_{x=a} := L(a+\Delta x) - f(a)$$

$$= f'(a) \Delta x$$

"differential"

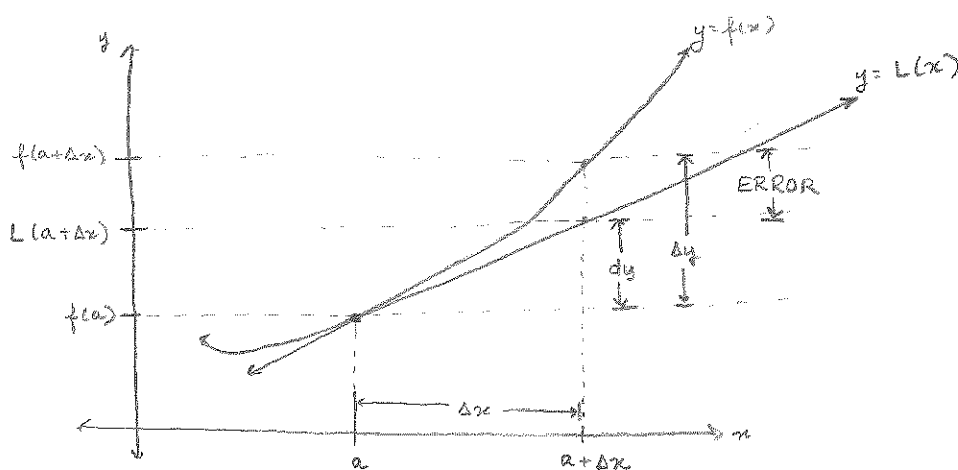
The error in a linear approximation:

In general,

$$\text{ERROR} = \text{ACTUAL VALUE} - \text{APPROXIMATE VALUE}$$

So, the error in the linear approximation

$$\begin{aligned} \text{ERROR} &= f(x) - L(x) \\ &= f(x) - [f(a) + f'(a)(x-a)] \\ &= \underbrace{f(x) - f(a)}_{\Delta y} + \underbrace{f'(a)(x-a)}_{dy} \quad (x = a + \Delta x) \\ &= \Delta y - dy. \end{aligned}$$



$$\text{So, } \text{ERROR} = \Delta y - f'(a) \Delta x = \left[\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} - f'(a) \right] \Delta x,$$

and note:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \text{ERROR} &= \left[\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} - f'(a) \right) \right] \left[\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \Delta x \right] \\ &= \left[\left(\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} \right) - f'(a) \right] \left[\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \Delta x \right] \end{aligned}$$

"The closer x is to a , the more accurate is $L(x)$ as a linear approx. to $f(x)$."

$$= [f'(a) - f'(a)] \left[\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \Delta x \right]$$

$$= 0$$

So, Δy is the actual increment $f(x+\Delta x) - f(x)$,

and the differential $dy = f'(x)\Delta x$ is the approximation - the change in y that would occur if it were to change at the fixed rate $f'(x)$ over the interval $(x, x+\Delta x)$.

Example
↳ p. 227

Find the linear approx. to $f(x) = \sqrt{1+x}$ near $a = 0$.

Just means "write the equation of the tangent line"

Need: ① a point

$$f(0) = \sqrt{1+0} = 1$$

our point is $(0, 1)$

② a slope $\frac{d}{dx} [(1+x)^{1/2}]$

$$f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} [\sqrt{1+x}] = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1+x}} \frac{d}{dx} [1+x] = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1+x}}$$

so

$$f'(0) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1+0}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

The line:

$$y - 1 = \frac{1}{2}(x - 0) \Rightarrow y = \frac{1}{2}x + 1$$

The approximation: $\sqrt{1+x} \approx \frac{1}{2}x + 1$ near $x = 0$.

$$\sqrt{1.001} \approx \frac{1}{2}(0.001) + 1 = \underline{\underline{1.0005}}$$

$$\underline{\underline{1.0005072145\dots}}$$

NOTE abt. accuracy...

The linear approx. in example 1, $L(x) = \frac{1}{2}x + 1$, is closer to the function value $f(x) = \sqrt{1+x}$ when x is closer to 0.

See: $f(0.1) = \sqrt{1.1} \approx 1.04881$
 $L(0.1) = \frac{1}{2}(0.1) + 1 = 1.05$ } 2 decimal places of accuracy

$f(0.03) = \sqrt{1.03} \approx 1.014889$
 $L(0.03) = \frac{1}{2}(0.03) + 1 = 1.015$ } 3 decimal places

But... $f(2) = \sqrt{3} \approx 1.73205...$
 $L(2) = \frac{1}{2}(2) + 1 = 2$ } very poor approximation

Check the plot on Wolfram Alpha - graph

$f(x)$ and $L(x)$ on the same axes, and zoom

in on $x = 0$.

Useful for approximating roots in certain scenarios:

Example
2, p. 228

Use the lin. approx. formula to approximate $(122)^{2/3}$

Note that $(125)^{2/3} = (\sqrt[3]{125})^2 = 5^2 = 25$.

* Crucial that 122 is somewhat close to 125, which has an exact value for $125^{2/3}$.

Let $f(x) = x^{2/3}$ and note that $f(125) = 25$.

We find the linear approx. to $f(x)$ around $a = 125$, and we plug in $x = 122$ to get an approximation of $(122)^{2/3}$.

So, $f'(x) = \frac{2}{3} x^{-1/3}$, and $f'(125) = \frac{2}{3 \sqrt[3]{125}} = \frac{2}{3(5)} = \frac{2}{15}$.

Thus, the local linear approximation to f close to 125:

$$L(x) - 25 = \frac{2}{15} (x - 125)$$

$$\Rightarrow L(x) = \frac{2}{15} x + \frac{25}{3}$$

$$\text{Thus, } L(122) = \frac{2}{15} (122) + \frac{25}{3} = \frac{123}{5} = 24.6$$

So, $(122)^{2/3} \approx 24.6$ (In reality, $(122)^{2/3} \approx 24.5984$)

4.3: Mean Value Theorem.

We first start with a similar theorem:

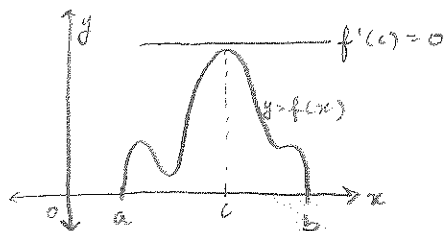
ROLLE'S THEOREM (1690!)

Suppose f is cts. on $[a, b]$ and diff'ble on (a, b) .

HYP.

If $f(a) = 0 = f(b)$,

Then $\underbrace{\exists c \in (a, b)}_{\text{"there exists"}} \underbrace{\text{s.t. } f'(c) = 0}_{\text{"such that"}} \underbrace{\quad}_{\text{CONCLUSION}}$



Proof. Because f was cts. on the closed interval $[a, b]$, it achieves its maximum and minimum values on $[a, b]$.

Case I. f has some positive values.

Then one of these positive values is the maximum - call it $f(c)$. We know $c \neq a$ and $c \neq b$, since $f(c) > 0$ but $f(a) = f(b) = 0$. Thus, $c \in (a, b)$, so f is differentiable at $x = c$. Its derivative there is thus $f'(c) = 0$.

Case II. f has some negative values.

Similarly, we argue that one of these negative values is the minimum $f(c)$, and $c \in (a, b)$, so $f'(c)$ exists and is equal to zero.

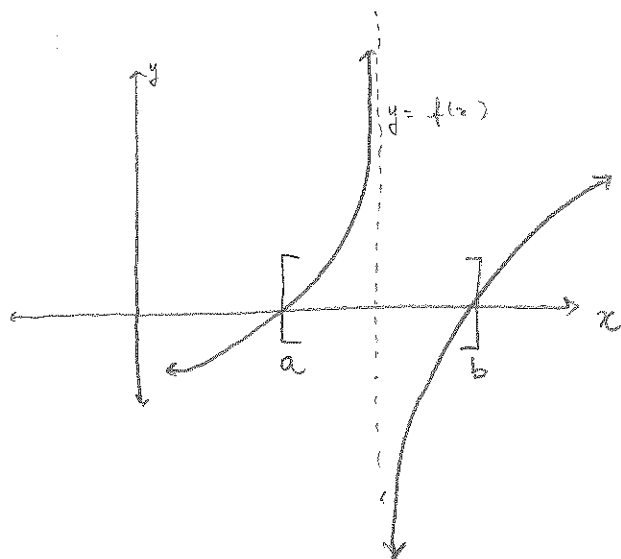
Case III. f has no positive values and no negative values.

Then $f(x) \equiv 0$, so $f'(x) = 0$ everywhere in (a, b) . \square

So, we needed f to be cts. on $[a, b]$, diff'ble on (a, b) ,
and $f(a) = 0 = f(b)$.

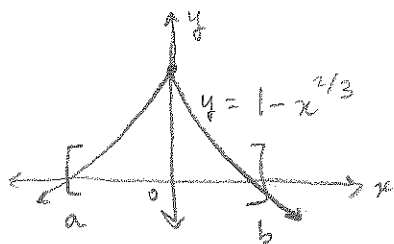
What if these don't hold?

① f not cts. on $[a, b]$:



has no horizontal
tangent line
on (a, b)

② f not diff'ble on (a, b) :

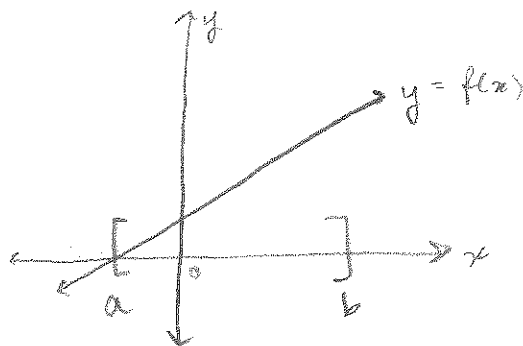


not diff'ble at $x = 0$.

has no horizontal tan. line
in (a, b)

③ $f(a)$ or $f(b) \neq 0$

has no horizontal
tangent line on (a, b)

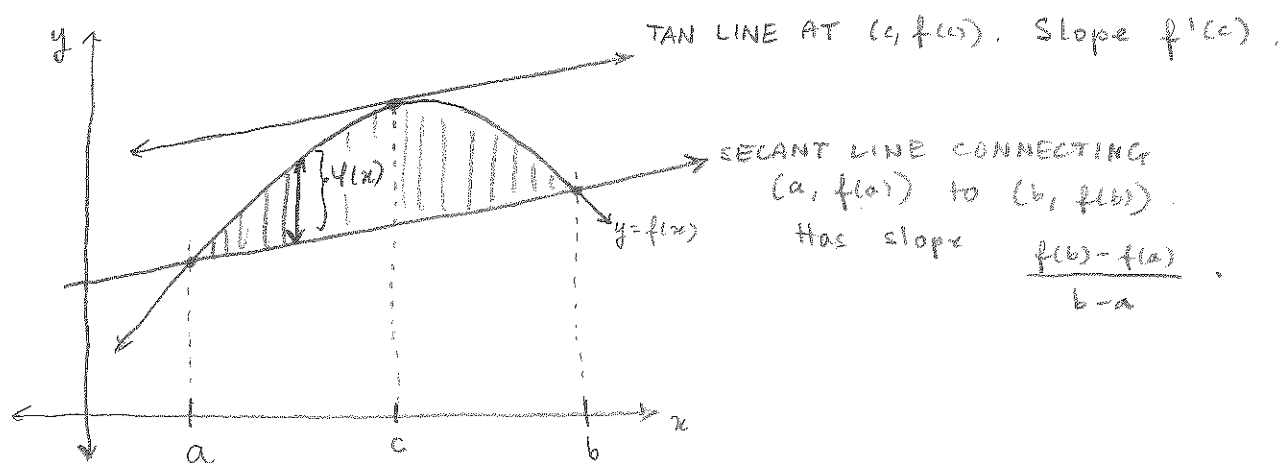


MEAN VALUE THEOREM.

Suppose f is cts. on $[a, b]$ and diff'ble on (a, b) .

Then $\exists c \in (a, b)$ s.t.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{instantaneous} \\ \text{rate of change} \\ \text{of } f \text{ at } x=c \end{array} \right\} f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a} \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{avg. rate} \\ \text{of change of} \\ f \text{ over } [a, b] \end{array} \right\}$$



The instantaneous rate of change at $x=c$
is equal to
the average rate of change on the interval $[a, b]$.

Proof. Secant line has eq'n $y = f(a) + \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a} (x-a)$; let $\psi(x)$

be the function $\psi(x) = f(x) - f(a) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a} (x-a)$, so ψ is
cts. on $[a, b]$, diff'ble on (a, b) , and $\psi(a) = 0 = \psi(b)$.

Apply Rolle's theorem - $\exists c \in (a, b)$ s.t. $\psi'(c) = 0$, i.e., we

have $\psi'(c) = f'(c) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b-a} = 0$, so finally,

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

Example
4, p. 239

We drive from Kristiansand, Norway to Oslo, almost exactly 350 km, in 4 hours.

Let $f(t)$ denote the distance already travelled at time t , and assume f is differentiable (a strong assumption?).

Know $f(0) = 0$, $f(4) = 350 \Rightarrow \text{avg speed} = \frac{350 - 0}{4 - 0} = 87.5 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{hr}}$

MVT $\Rightarrow \exists c \in (0, 4)$ st. $f'(c) = 87.5 \text{ km/hr}$ — that is, at time $t=c$, our instantaneous velocity is equal to our average velocity over the entire trip.

Recall: $f(x) = C$ constant $\Rightarrow f'(x) = 0$.

We now use the MVT to prove the converse, i.e.,

$$f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow f(x) = C \text{ constant.}$$

(Shows that there are no exotic functions that aren't constant, but that have zero derivative everywhere.)

COROLLARY.

If $f'(x) \equiv 0$ on (a, b) (i.e., $f'(x) = 0 \forall x \in (a, b)$)

Then $f(x)$ is constant on (a, b) (i.e., $\exists C \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $f(x) \equiv C$)

Proof. Let $x \in (a, b]$ be arbitrary, but fixed.

NOTE: If we prove something about x , then since x was arbitrary in $(a, b]$, that "something" holds for all x in $(a, b]$.

Since f is diff'ble \Rightarrow cts. on (a, b) , and since we assume f is right cts. at a , we can apply the MVT on the interval $[a, x]$, finding

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}, \text{ for some } c \in (a, x).$$

But we know $f'(c) = 0$, as $c \in (a, x)$, so we must have

$f(x) = f(a)$. This holds for all $x \in (a, b]$, so f

is constant on $[a, b]$. \square

COROLLARY. Suppose f, g are cts. on $[a, b]$, and that for all $x \in (a, b)$, $f'(x) = g'(x)$.

Then f and g differ by a constant on $[a, b]$ —

i.e., $\exists K \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\forall x \in [a, b]$, $f(x) = g(x) + K$.

there exists

such that

for all

$$f(x) = g(x) + K \Rightarrow f'(x) = g'(x)$$

\Leftarrow

Proof. Let $h(x) := f(x) - g(x)$.

Then $h'(x) = f'(x) - g'(x) = 0$ for $x \in (a, b)$.

So, by Corollary 1, $h(x) = K$ constant on $[a, b]$ —

That is, $f(x) - g(x) = K$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = g(x) + K \text{ for } x \in [a, b]. \quad \square$$

Example.

5, p. 240

If $f'(x) = 3e^{2x}$ and $f(0) = 7$, what is $f(x)$?

Observe: $\frac{d}{dx} [3e^{2x}] = 3 \frac{d}{dx} [e^{2x}] = 3e^{2x} \frac{d}{dx} [2x] = 6e^{2x}$.

So we know that $f(x) = 3e^{2x} + K$, some $K \in \mathbb{R}$. Let's

use $f(0) = 7$ to find K : $f(0) = 3e^{2(0)} + K = 7$

$$\Rightarrow 3 + K = 7$$

$$\Rightarrow K = 4$$

So $f(x) = 3e^{2x} + 4$.

Increasing and decreasing functions ...

$f(x)$ is INCREASING on the intervals where $f'(x) > 0$

$f(x)$ is DECREASING ————— $f'(x) < 0$.

Example.

6, p. 240

Where is $f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 5$ increasing? where is it decreasing?

Well, $f'(x) = 2x - 4$, and $f'(x) > 0$ when $x > 2$,

whereas $f'(x) < 0$ when $x < 2$.

So, f is increasing on $(-\infty, 2) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x < 2\}$

f is decreasing on $(2, +\infty) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 2\}$.

Example.

7, p. 241

Prove $e^x + x - 2 = 0$ has exactly one real sol'n.

First, we show it has one sol'n, using the IVT. Let $f(x) = e^x + x - 2$. This is cts. everywhere, in particular on $[0, 1]$, and $f(0) = -1 < 0$, but $f(1) = e - 1 > 0$, so $f(x) = 0$ has a sol'n $x_* \in (0, 1)$; i.e., $e^{x_*} + x_* - 2 = 0$.

Now, we show it cannot have more than one sol'n.

Note $f'(x) = e^x + 1$, and as $e^x > 0 \forall x$, we have $f'(x) > 0 \forall x$.

Thus, f is always increasing — so, if $x < x_*$, then $f(x) < f(x_*) \Rightarrow$

$f(x) < 0$, and if $x > x_*$, then $f(x) > f(x_*) = 0$, so $f(x) \neq 0$ for

$x > x_*$ or for $x < x_*$. Thus x_* is the only zero of f .

Example.
8, p. 241

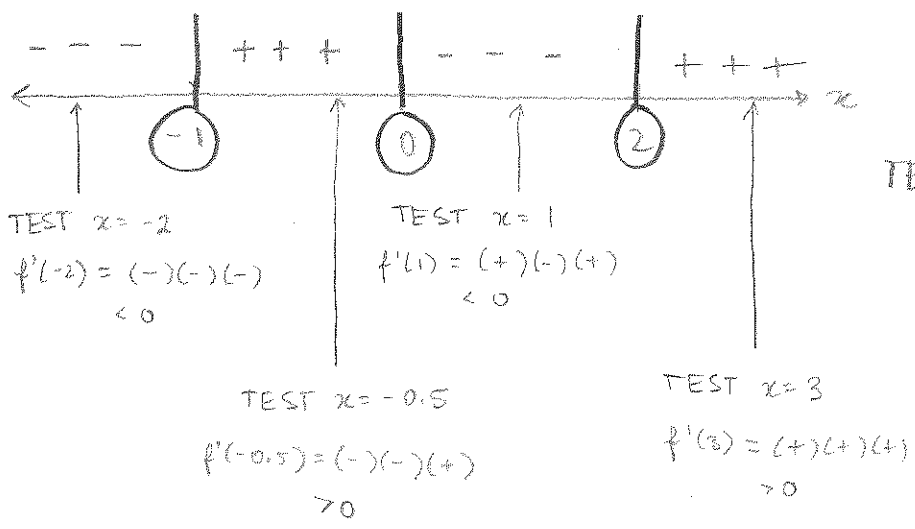
Determine the open intervals where the function

$$f(x) = 3x^4 - 4x^3 - 12x^2 + 5$$

is increasing, and those on which it is decreasing.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Well, } f'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} [3x^4 - 4x^3 - 12x^2 + 5] \\ &= 12x^3 - 12x^2 - 24x \\ &= 12x(x^2 - x - 2) \\ &= 12x(x-2)(x+1) \end{aligned}$$

- So $f'(x) = 0$ when :
- ① $12x = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$
 - ② $x - 2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 2$
 - ③ $x + 1 = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = -1$



TEST THE SIGN
OF f'
NOT OF f ITSELF

So: INC. on $(-1, 0) \cup (2, +\infty)$, DEC. on $(-\infty, -1) \cup (0, 2)$.

So, to determine where f is increasing/decreasing;

STEPS

① FIND $f'(x)$

② FIND THE POINTS WHERE $f'(x) = 0$

③ TEST THE SIGN OF $f'(x)$ AT POINTS
BETWEEN THOSE VALUES

④ f IS INCREASING WHERE $f'(x) > 0$
DECREASING WHERE $f'(x) < 0$.