

# Maxima, Minima & the Mean Value Theorem

## Sections 4.3–4.4

### Calculus I - Lecture Notes

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## Motivating Question

Where does a function reach its highest and lowest values, and how can we guarantee that such points exist?

Finding maximum and minimum values is one of the most powerful applications of calculus — from maximizing profit to minimizing materials used in manufacturing.

## 1 Maxima and Minima (Section 4.3)

### 1.1 Absolute vs. Local Extrema

**Definition 1** (Absolute Extrema). *Let  $f$  be defined on an interval  $I$  and let  $c \in I$ .*

- $f$  has an **absolute maximum** on  $I$  at  $c$  if  $f(c) \geq f(x)$  for all  $x \in I$ .
- $f$  has an **absolute minimum** on  $I$  at  $c$  if  $f(c) \leq f(x)$  for all  $x \in I$ .

**Definition 2** (Local Extrema).  *$f$  has a **local maximum** at  $c$  if  $f(c) \geq f(x)$  for all  $x$  near  $c$ . Similarly for a **local minimum**. Think of these as “hilltops” and “valleys” that may not be the global highest or lowest point.*

**Theorem 1** (Extreme Value Theorem). *If  $f$  is continuous on a closed, bounded interval  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  has both an absolute maximum and an absolute minimum on  $[a, b]$ .*

**Key conditions:** The interval must be *closed* (includes endpoints) and  $f$  must be *continuous*. If either condition fails, the theorem may not apply.

## 1.2 Critical Points and Fermat's Theorem

**Definition 3** (Critical Point). Let  $c$  be an interior point of the domain of  $f$ . We call  $c$  a **critical point** of  $f$  if:

$$f'(c) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad f'(c) \text{ is undefined}$$

**Theorem 2** (Fermat's Theorem). If  $f$  has a local extremum at  $c$  and  $f$  is differentiable at  $c$ , then  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Important warning:** The converse is *not* true. A critical point is only a *candidate* for a local extremum — it does not guarantee one. For example,  $f(x) = x^3$  has  $f'(0) = 0$  but no local extremum at  $x = 0$ .

## 1.3 Example: Finding Critical Points

**Example 1.** Find all critical points of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{5}{2}x^2 + 4x$ .

**Solution:**

$f'(x) = x^2 - 5x + 4$ . This is defined for all  $x$ , so we only solve  $f'(x) = 0$ :

$$x^2 - 5x + 4 = (x - 4)(x - 1) = 0 \implies x = 1 \text{ and } x = 4$$

Both are critical points. Evaluating:  $f(1) = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{5}{2} + 4 = \frac{11}{6}$  (local max) and  $f(4) = \frac{64}{3} - 40 + 16 = -\frac{8}{3}$  (local min).

## 1.4 Locating Absolute Extrema on a Closed Interval

**Theorem 3** (Location of Absolute Extrema). Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$ . The absolute maximum and minimum of  $f$  must occur either at **endpoints** of  $[a, b]$  or at **critical points** inside  $(a, b)$ .

**Strategy — the Closed Interval Method:**

1. Evaluate  $f$  at the endpoints  $x = a$  and  $x = b$ .
2. Find all critical points in  $(a, b)$  and evaluate  $f$  there.
3. The largest value from steps 1 and 2 is the absolute maximum; the smallest is the absolute minimum.

## 1.5 Example: Closed Interval Method

**Example 2.** Find the absolute maximum and minimum of  $f(x) = -x^2 + 3x - 2$  on  $[1, 3]$ .

**Solution:**

**Step 1 — Endpoints:**

$$f(1) = -1 + 3 - 2 = 0 \quad f(3) = -9 + 9 - 2 = -2$$

**Step 2 — Critical points:**  $f'(x) = -2x + 3 = 0 \implies x = \frac{3}{2}$ , which is in  $[1, 3]$ .

$$f\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) = -\frac{9}{4} + \frac{9}{2} - 2 = \frac{1}{4}$$

**Step 3 — Compare:**

$x$	$f(x)$	
1	0	
$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	<b>Absolute maximum</b>
3	-2	<b>Absolute minimum</b>

## 1.6 Example: Critical Point Where Derivative is Undefined

**Example 3.** Find all critical points of  $f(x) = x^{2/3}$  and classify them.

**Solution:**

$$f'(x) = \frac{2}{3}x^{-1/3} = \frac{2}{3x^{1/3}}$$

The derivative is never zero, but it is **undefined at**  $x = 0$ . Since  $x = 0$  is in the domain of  $f$ , it is a critical point.

Checking values near  $x = 0$ : for  $x < 0$ ,  $f'(x) < 0$  (decreasing); for  $x > 0$ ,  $f'(x) > 0$  (increasing). The function decreases then increases, so  $x = 0$  is a **local minimum** with  $f(0) = 0$ .

**Key lesson:** Always check where  $f'$  is undefined — these are critical points too, and they can produce sharp corners (cusps) on the graph rather than smooth peaks or valleys.

## 1.7 Practice Problem

**Work this out:** Find the absolute maximum and minimum of  $f(x) = x^2 - 4x + 3$  on  $[1, 4]$ .

**Solution:**

**Step 1 — Endpoints:**

$$f(1) = 1 - 4 + 3 = 0 \quad f(4) = 16 - 16 + 3 = 3$$

**Step 2 — Critical points:**  $f'(x) = 2x - 4 = 0 \implies x = 2$ , which is in  $[1, 4]$ .

$$f(2) = 4 - 8 + 3 = -1$$

**Step 3 — Compare:**

$x$	$f(x)$	
1	0	
2	-1	<b>Absolute minimum</b>
4	3	<b>Absolute maximum</b>

## 2 The Mean Value Theorem (Section 4.4)

### 2.1 Rolle's Theorem

Rolle's Theorem is the special case that motivates the Mean Value Theorem.

**Theorem 4** (Rolle's Theorem). *Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$ , differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , and suppose  $f(a) = f(b)$ . Then there exists at least one  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .*

**Intuition:** If a function starts and ends at the same height, it must have a horizontal tangent somewhere in between — either a peak or a valley.

**Proof:** Let  $k = f(a) = f(b)$ . We consider three cases.

**Case 1:**  $f(x) = k$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ . Then  $f$  is constant, so  $f'(x) = 0$  everywhere on  $(a, b)$  and we are done.

**Case 2:**  $f(x) > k$  for some  $x \in (a, b)$ . Since  $f$  is continuous on the closed interval  $[a, b]$ , the Extreme Value Theorem guarantees an absolute maximum at some point  $c$ . Since  $f(x) > k = f(a) = f(b)$  somewhere inside, the maximum cannot occur at either endpoint — it must occur at an interior point  $c \in (a, b)$ . Since  $f$  has a local maximum at  $c$  and is differentiable there, Fermat's Theorem gives  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Case 3:**  $f(x) < k$  for some  $x \in (a, b)$ . By the same argument with minimum replacing maximum, there exists an interior  $c$  where  $f'(c) = 0$ .  $\square$

**From Rolle's Theorem to the MVT.** The MVT handles the general case where  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ . The trick is to subtract the secant line from  $f$ , creating a new function  $g$  that *does* satisfy Rolle's conditions.

Define:

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

The bracketed term is just the equation of the secant line through  $(a, f(a))$  and  $(b, f(b))$ . So  $g(x)$  measures the vertical gap between  $f$  and that secant line. Check the endpoints:

$$g(a) = f(a) - f(a) = 0 \quad g(b) = f(b) - f(b) = 0$$

Since  $g(a) = g(b) = 0$  and  $g$  inherits continuity and differentiability from  $f$ , Rolle's Theorem applies to  $g$ . Therefore there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  with  $g'(c) = 0$ .

Differentiating  $g$ :

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

Setting  $g'(c) = 0$ :

$$f'(c) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = 0 \implies f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \quad \square$$

This is exactly the MVT conclusion. Geometrically, subtracting the secant line “flattens” the picture so that Rolle's horizontal tangent becomes a tangent parallel to the secant.

**Example 4.** Verify Rolle's Theorem for  $f(x) = x^2 + 2x$  on  $[-2, 0]$  and find  $c$ .

**Solution:**

$f$  is a polynomial, so it is continuous and differentiable everywhere. Check:  $f(-2) = 4 - 4 = 0$  and  $f(0) = 0$ . Since  $f(-2) = f(0)$ , Rolle's Theorem applies.

$$f'(x) = 2x + 2 = 0 \implies x = -1$$

Since  $-1 \in (-2, 0)$ , we have  $c = -1$ . ✓

## 2.2 The Mean Value Theorem

The Mean Value Theorem generalizes Rolle's Theorem by removing the requirement that  $f(a) = f(b)$ .

**Theorem 5** (Mean Value Theorem). Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then there exists at least one  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

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

**Geometric meaning:** At some interior point  $c$ , the slope of the *tangent line* equals the slope of the *secant line* connecting the endpoints  $(a, f(a))$  and  $(b, f(b))$ .

**Real-world meaning:** If you drive 90 miles in 2 hours, your average speed is 45 mph. The MVT guarantees there was at least one moment when your speedometer read *exactly* 45 mph.

## 2.3 Example: Applying the Mean Value Theorem

**Example 5.** For  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  on  $[0, 9]$ , find all values  $c$  guaranteed by the Mean Value Theorem.

**Solution:**

$f$  is continuous on  $[0, 9]$  and differentiable on  $(0, 9)$ , so MVT applies.

Slope of secant line:

$$\frac{f(9) - f(0)}{9 - 0} = \frac{3 - 0}{9} = \frac{1}{3}$$

Set  $f'(c) = \frac{1}{3}$ . Since  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$ :

$$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{c}} = \frac{1}{3} \implies 2\sqrt{c} = 3 \implies \sqrt{c} = \frac{3}{2} \implies c = \frac{9}{4}$$

Since  $\frac{9}{4} \in (0, 9)$ , the MVT is satisfied at  $c = \frac{9}{4}$ .

## 2.4 Example: MVT Applied to Velocity

**Example 6.** A rock is dropped from 100 ft. Its position is  $s(t) = -16t^2 + 100$  ft. Find the time when the rock's instantaneous velocity equals its average velocity over the entire fall.

**Solution:**

**Step 1 — Find when the rock hits the ground:**

$$-16t^2 + 100 = 0 \implies t^2 = \frac{100}{16} \implies t = \frac{5}{2} \text{ sec}$$

**Step 2 — Find average velocity over  $[0, \frac{5}{2}]$ :**

$$v_{\text{avg}} = \frac{s(5/2) - s(0)}{5/2 - 0} = \frac{0 - 100}{5/2} = -40 \text{ ft/sec}$$

**Step 3 — Apply MVT.** Since  $s(t)$  is continuous on  $[0, 5/2]$  and differentiable on  $(0, 5/2)$ , the MVT guarantees a  $c$  where  $s'(c) = -40$ .

$s'(t) = -32t$ , so:

$$-32c = -40 \implies c = \frac{5}{4} \text{ sec}$$

At  $t = \frac{5}{4}$  seconds, the instantaneous velocity equals the average velocity of  $-40$  ft/sec.

## 2.5 Practice Problem

**Work this out:** For  $f(x) = x^2$  on  $[1, 3]$ , find all values  $c$  guaranteed by the Mean Value Theorem.

**Solution:**

Slope of secant line:

$$\frac{f(3) - f(1)}{3 - 1} = \frac{9 - 1}{2} = 4$$

Set  $f'(c) = 4$ . Since  $f'(x) = 2x$ :

$$2c = 4 \implies c = 2$$

Since  $2 \in (1, 3)$ , the MVT is satisfied at  $c = 2$ . ✓

## 2.6 Three Important Corollaries

The MVT has powerful consequences used throughout the rest of the course.

**Corollary 1:** If  $f'(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  on an interval  $I$ , then  $f$  is constant on  $I$ .

**Corollary 2:** If  $f'(x) = g'(x)$  for all  $x$  on  $I$ , then  $f(x) = g(x) + C$  for some constant  $C$ .

**Corollary 3 (Increasing/Decreasing Test):**

- If  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is **increasing** on  $[a, b]$ .
- If  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f$  is **decreasing** on  $[a, b]$ .

### 3 Summary

#### Maxima and Minima (4.3):

1. A **critical point** satisfies  $f'(c) = 0$  or  $f'(c)$  undefined
2. Local extrema can only occur at critical points (Fermat's Theorem)
3. On a closed interval  $[a, b]$ : use the **Closed Interval Method** — evaluate  $f$  at endpoints and all critical points, then compare

#### Mean Value Theorem (4.4):

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

1. **Rolle's Theorem** is the special case where  $f(a) = f(b)$ , giving  $f'(c) = 0$
2. The MVT connects average rate of change to instantaneous rate of change
3. Key consequence: the sign of  $f'$  tells us where  $f$  is increasing or decreasing