

# Lecture 7 - 11 : Applications of Derivative

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## 1 Extreme Values of Function

**Definition** Let  $f$  be a function with domain  $D$ . Then  $f$  has an **absolute maximum** value on  $D$  at a point  $c$  if

$$f(x) \leq f(c), \forall x \in D$$

and an **absolute minimum** value on  $D$  at  $c$  if

$$f(x) \geq f(c), \forall x \in D$$

Maximum and minimum values are called **extreme values** of the function  $f$ . Absolute maxima or minima are global maxima or minima.

Maxima and Minima = Extrema = Plural of Extremum / Maximum and Minimum

**Theorem 1 (Extreme Values Theorem)** If  $f$  is continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  attains both an absolute maximum value  $M$  and an absolute minimum value  $m$  in  $[a, b]$ . That is, there are numbers  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in  $[a, b]$  with

$$f(x_1) = m, f(x_2) = M, \text{ and } m \leq f(x) \leq M \quad \forall x \in [a, b] \setminus x_1, x_2$$

**Note** The requirement of extreme values theorem is **continuous function** and **defined in a closed interval**

**Example** Find the absolute maximum and minimum of the graph  $y = x^2$  on (a) its domain, (b) in  $[0, 2]$ , (c) in  $(0, 2]$ , (d) in  $(0, 2)$ !

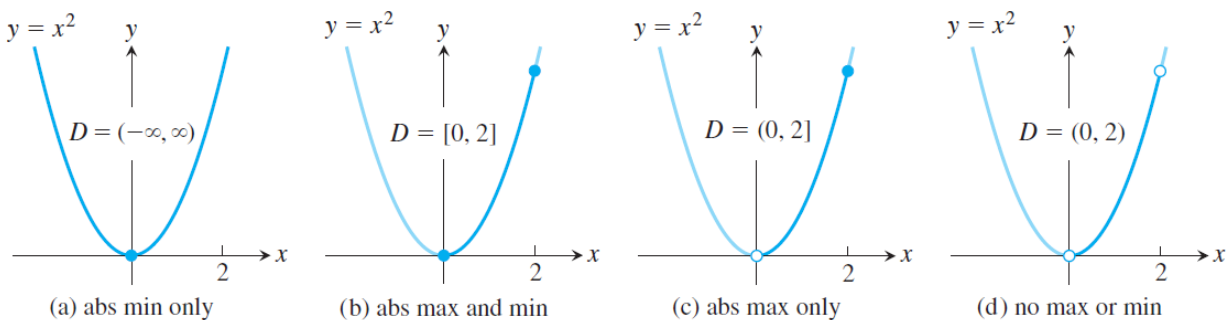


Figure 1: Absolute maximum and minimum of  $f(x) = x^2$  on different interval

- (a)  $x \in D = \mathbb{R}$  : Absolute Maximum = None, Absolute Minimum = 0 at  $x = 0$
- (b)  $x \in [0, 2]$  : Since,  $f(x)$  is continuous and defined on a closed interval  $[0, 2]$ , the extreme values theorem guarantees that it has absolute maximum and minimum, that is:  
Absolute Maximum = 4 at  $x = 2$  Absolute Minimum = 0 at  $x = 0$
- (c)  $x \in (0, 2]$  : Absolute Maximum = None, Absolute Minimum = None
- (d)  $x \in (0, 2)$  : Absolute Maximum = None, Absolute Minimum = None

**Definition** A function  $f$  has a **local maximum** value at a point  $c$  within its domain  $D$  if

$$f(x) \leq f(c) \quad \forall x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \cap D$$

A function  $f$  has a **local minimum** value at a point  $c$  within its domain  $D$  if

$$f(x) \geq f(c) \quad \forall x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \cap D$$

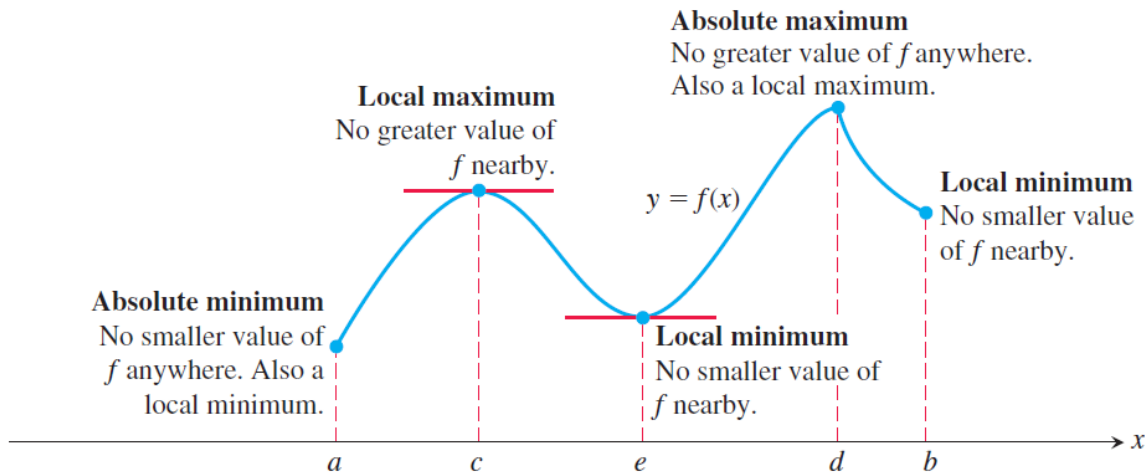


Figure 2: Illustration of local vs absolute extrema

**Definition: Critical Points** Let  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , and let  $c$  be an interior point of  $D$ . Then  $c$  is a critical point of  $f$  if:

- i  $f'(c) = 0$
- ii  $f'(c)$  does not exist ( $f'(c) \notin \mathbb{R}$ )

**Example** What are all the critical points of the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} |x| & x < 1 \\ 1 & x \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

- (i)  $f'(x)$  is not defined at  $x = 0$ , so 0 is a critical point.
  - (ii)  $f'(x) = 0$  at  $x \geq 1$ , so  $x \geq 1$  is critical points.
- Hence, critical points =  $0 \cup [1, \infty]$

**Theorem 2 (The First Derivative Theorem of Local Extrema)** If  $f$  has a local maximum or minimum value at an interior point  $c$  of its domain, and if  $f'(x)$  is defined at  $c$ , then  $f'(c) = 0$

or let  $c$  be an interior point of  $D$ . If a function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has a local extrema at  $c$ , then  $c$  is a critical point of  $f$ .

**Note** Note that the converse of theorem 2 is not true, that is critical point  $\nRightarrow$  extrema. The counterexample is  $f(x) = x^3$

**Finding Local Extrema** We can use theorem 1 and theorem 2 to help us find all local extrema and global extrema of  $f(x)$  defined in closed interval  $x \in [a, b]$ , that is: (1) Evaluate all critical points and endpoints, (2) Take the largest and smallest of these value to be global extrema.

**Example** Find all the absolute extreme (with values and positions) of

$$f : [-2, 4] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad f(x) = 2x^3 - 3x^2 - 12x + 15$$

(1) Find all Critical values and Endpoints

$$f'(x) = 6x^2 - 6x - 12$$

First,  $f'(x) = 0$  :

$$6x^2 - 6x - 12 = 0$$

$$6(x - 2)(x + 1) = 0$$

$$x = -1, 2$$

Then, find  $x$  when  $f'(x)$  doesn't exists. Since  $f'(x) = 6x^2 - 6x - 12$  is defined on  $D \in \mathbb{R}$ , Then for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f'(x)$  exists.

Endpoints are  $x = -2, 4$ , so all possible  $x$  are:  $x = -2, -1, 2, 4$ .

(2) Find the largest and smallest

$$f(-2) = 11, f(-1) = 22, f(2) = -5, f(4) = 47.$$

Hence, absolute maximum point =  $(4, 47)$  and absolute minimum point =  $(2, -5)$

**Proof of theorem 2** Suppose that  $f$  has a local maximum at  $c$  (the case where  $c$  gives a minimum is similar). Then

$$\exists a > 0 \text{ s.t. } f(c) \geq f(x) \forall x \in (c - a, c + a)$$

Let

$$g(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$

for

$$x \in (c - a, c + a) \setminus c$$

(i) For  $x \in (c - a, c)$

$$f(x) - f(c) \leq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x - c < 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad g(x) \geq 0$$

Based on theorem 9 in lecture 2 (the inequality of limit), we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} g(x) \geq \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} 0 = 0$$

(ii) For  $x \in (c, c + a)$

$$f(x) - f(c) \leq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad x - c > 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad g(x) \leq 0$$

Based on theorem 9 in lecture 2 (the inequality of limit), we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} g(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} 0 = 0$$

Since  $f'(x)$  is defined on  $c$   $f'_-(x) = f'_+(x) = f'(x)$ , So

$$0 \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} g(x) = f'_-(x) = f'(x) = f'_+(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} g(x) \leq 0$$

Hence,  $f'(x) = 0$

## 2 Rolle's Theorem

**Theorem 3 (Rolle's Theorem)** Suppose that a function  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable at every point in  $(a, b)$ , and it satisfies  $f(a) = f(b)$ . Then there exists  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ .

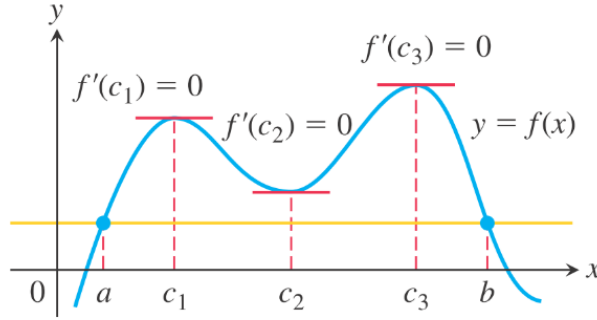


Figure 3: Illustration of Rolle's theorem.

**Proof** By Extreme Value Theorem, there must exist  $c_1, c_2 \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(c_1) = m$  and  $f(c_2) = M$ , where  $m$  and  $M$  are absolute minimum and maximum respectively.

(i) If  $m = M$ , then  $f(x) = M \forall x \in [a, b]$ , so  $f'(c) = 0$  for any  $c \in (a, b)$ .

(ii) Suppose  $m < M$  then either  $f(a) = f(b) \neq m$  or  $f(a) = f(b) \neq M$ . One or both must hold true. So:

$$(1) f(a) = f(b) \neq m \Rightarrow \exists c_1 \in (a, b) \text{ s.t. } f(c_1) = m$$

$$(2) f(a) = f(b) \neq M \Rightarrow \exists c_2 \in (a, b) \text{ s.t. } f(c_2) = M$$

Since  $f(c_1)$  and  $f(c_2)$  is defined in both cases, then by theorem 2,  $f'(c_1)$  and  $f'(c_2) = 0$ . Hence, Rolle's theorem holds on both cases with  $c = c_1$  and  $c = c_2$  respectively.

**Intuition** If an object moves and the final position on  $t = b$  is the same as the start position on  $t = a$ , then we can conclude that there must exist  $t \in (a, b)$  such that the velocity of the object is 0.

**Example** Show that the equation  $x^3 + 3x + 1 = 0$  has exactly one solution.

**Solution** Let  $f(x) = x^3 + 3x + 1$ .

$$f(-1) = -3 \quad \text{and} \quad f(0) = 1$$

Since  $f(x)$  is continuous and  $f(x) \in [-3, 1]$  for  $x \in [-1, 0]$ , there must exist  $f(c) = 0$  with  $c \in (-1, 0)$ .

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 + 3$$

Since  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  then the  $f(x)$  is strictly increasing (no critical point). So, there is only one solution of  $x^3 + 3x + 1$ .

### 3 The Mean Value Theorem

#### 3.1 Theorem and Proof

**Theorem 4 (Mean Value Theorem)** Suppose that a function  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then there exists  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that:

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

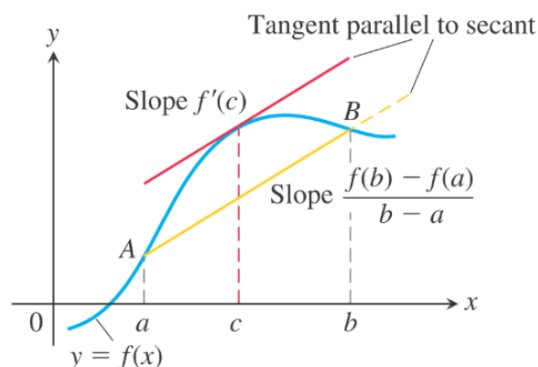


Figure 4: There exists a tangent line in  $(a, b)$  that have the same gradient with the secant line on  $(a, b)$

**Proof** First we define  $h(x)$  on  $[a, b]$  as

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

Hence,  $h(a) = h(b) = 0$  (see from the graph).

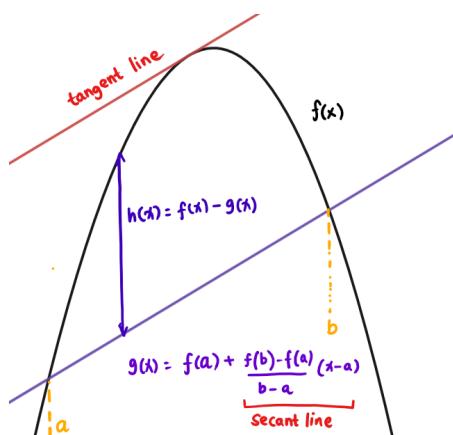


Figure 5: Illustration of  $h(x)$

Since  $h$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then by Rolle's theorem there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $h'(c) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned}
h'(c) &= f'(c) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} & \forall x \in (a, b) \\
0 &= f'(c) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \\
f'(c) &= \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}
\end{aligned}$$

### 3.2 Consequences and Corollary

**Physical Consequence** Suppose that  $f(t)$  represents the distance travelled until time  $t$ . Then the mean value theorem implies that if we pick two moments  $t = a$  and  $t = b$ , there has to be some moment  $t = c$  in between at which the instantaneous speed is equal to the average speed between  $t = a$  and  $t = b$ .

**Corollary 1 (MVT)** *If  $f'(x) = 0$  at each point of  $x$  of an open interval  $(a, b)$  then  $f(x) = C$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  where  $C$  is a constant.*

**Proof** Let  $x_1, x_2 \in (a, b)$ . From MVT we know that

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1}$$

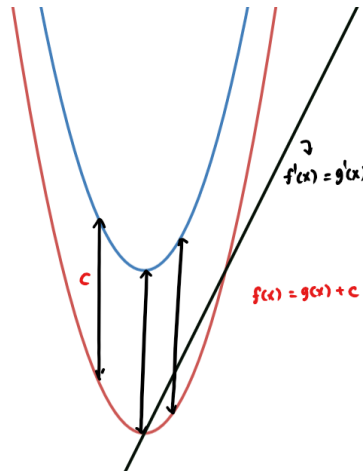
with  $c \in (a, b)$ . Then, if  $f'(c) = 0$

$$0 = \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1}$$

Hence, if  $f'(x) = 0 \forall x \in (a, b)$ :

$$f(x_2) = f(x_1) = C \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$$

**Corollary 2 (MVT)** *If  $f'(x) = g'(x)$  at each point  $c$  of an open interval  $(a, b)$  then there exists a constant  $C$  such that  $f(x) = g(x) + C$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , or  $f - g$  is a constant for all  $x \in (a, b)$ .*



**Proof** Let  $h(x) = f(x) - g(x)$  then

$$h'(x) = f'(x) - g'(x) = 0$$

By corollary MVT 1:

$$h(x) = f(x) - g(x) = C \quad \forall x \in (a, b)$$

**Example 1** If  $f'(x) = \sin x$  then what is  $f(x)$ ?

We know that if  $g(x) = -\cos x$  then  $g'(x) = \sin(x) = f'(x) \forall x$ . Hence  $f(x) = -\cos x + C$  with  $C$  is a constant.

**Note** This concept is called antiderivative and will be covered later.

**Example 2** Prove that

$$|\sin(x) - \sin(y)| \leq |x - y| \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$$

(i) For the case  $x = y$  then both sides = 0, hence it's proven

(ii) For the case  $x \neq y$ , let  $y < x$ .

Let  $f(z) = \sin(z)$ . Since  $\sin z$  is differentiable and continuous for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , by MVT there exists:

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y}$$
$$\cos(z) = \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y}$$

Since  $-1 \leq \cos z \leq 1$ , then

$$\left| \frac{\sin x - \sin y}{x - y} \right| \leq 1$$
$$|\sin x - \sin y| \leq |x - y|$$

## 4 Monotonicity

### 4.1 Definition and Corollary

**Definition** Let  $f$  be a function defined on an interval  $I$  and let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be any two points in  $I$ .

1. If  $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$  whenever  $x_1 < x_2$  then  $f$  is said to be **increasing**
2. If  $f(x_2) < f(x_1)$  whenever  $x_1 < x_2$  then  $f$  is said to be **decreasing**

A function that is increasing or decreasing on  $I$  is said to be **monotonic** on  $I$ .

**Corollary 3 (Monotonicity)** Suppose that a function  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ .

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

**Proof (1)** Let  $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$  and  $x_1 < x_2$ . Since  $f$  is continuous on  $[x_1, x_2]$  and differentiable on  $(x_1, x_2)$ , by MVT there exists  $c \in (x_1, x_2)$  such that

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(c)(x_2 - x_1)$$

Since  $x_2 - x_1 > 0$ , and  $f'(c) > 0$  then we have

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) > 0$$

Hence,  $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$  with  $x_1 < x_2$ , and by definition  $f$  is increasing on  $[a, b]$

**Proof (2)** Let  $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$  and  $x_1 < x_2$ . Since  $f$  is continuous on  $[x_1, x_2]$  and differentiable on  $(x_1, x_2)$ , by MVT there exists  $c \in (x_1, x_2)$  such that

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(c)(x_2 - x_1)$$

Since  $x_2 - x_1 > 0$ , and  $f'(c) < 0$  then we have

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) < 0$$

Hence,  $f(x_2) < f(x_1)$  with  $x_1 < x_2$ , and by definition  $f$  is decreasing on  $[a, b]$

**Example** Prove that  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is increasing on  $(0, \infty)$ .

First,

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

Since  $f'(x) > 0 \forall x \in [0, \infty]$  then by corollary 3 (monotonicity),  $f(x)$  is increasing on  $[0, b]$  with  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence,  $f$  is increasing on  $[0, \infty)$ .

## 4.2 Interval of Monotonicity

**Definition** Suppose that  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are all critical points of a function  $f$ , with  $x_1 < x_2 < \dots < x_n$ . Let  $x_i$  and  $x_{i+1}$  be two consecutive critical points. If  $f'$  is continuous on  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ , then  $f'$  is either entirely positive or entirely negative on  $(x_i, x_{i+1})$ . Hence, by corollary monotonicity (3):

1.  $f$  is increasing on  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$  if  $f'(c) > 0$  for some  $c \in (x_i, x_{i+1})$
2.  $f$  is decreasing on  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$  if  $f'(c) < 0$  for some  $c \in (x_i, x_{i+1})$

Similar statements can be made about the intervals  $(-\infty, x_1)$  and  $(x_n, \infty)$ .

**Example** Let  $f(x) = x^3 - 12x + 5$ , determine the intervals of monotonicity!

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

We have critical points  $c = \{-2, 2\}$  Hence, the intervals of monotonicity is  $(-\infty, -2), (-2, 2), (2, \infty)$



## 5 Derivative Test

### 5.1 First Derivative Test

Suppose  $c$  is a critical point of a continuous function  $f$  that is differentiable at every point in an interval containing  $c$  except possibly at  $c$ , then if we move from left to right of the function:

1. If  $f'$  changes from negative to positive at  $c$ , then  $c$  is a local minimum.
2. If  $f'$  changes from positive to negative at  $c$ , then  $c$  is a local maximum.
3. If  $f'$  doesn't change then  $f$  has no extremum at  $c$ .

In other words:

1.  $\exists a > 0 : f'(x) < 0 \forall x \in (c-a, c)$  and  $f'(x) > 0 \forall x \in (c, c+a)$ ,  $c$  is a local minimum
2.  $\exists a > 0 : f'(x) > 0 \forall x \in (c-a, c)$  and  $f'(x) < 0 \forall x \in (c, c+a)$ ,  $c$  is a local maximum
3.  $\exists a > 0 : f'(x) > 0$  or  $f'(x) < 0 \forall x \in (c-a, c+1)$

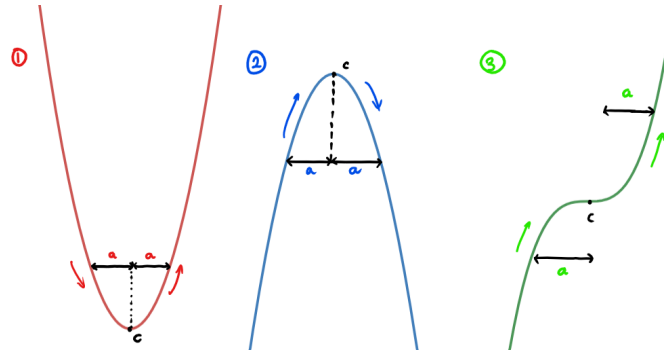


Figure 6: First derivative test (1) Minimum point, (2) Maximum point (3) Neither

**Proof (1)** By corollary (3) of monotonicity,  $f$  is decreasing on  $[c-a, c]$  and increasing on  $(c, c+a]$  which means  $f(c) < f(x) \forall x \in [c-a, c)$  and  $f(c) < f(x) \forall x \in (c, c+a] \setminus \{c\}$ . Hence, by definition  $f$  has a local minimum at  $c$ .

**Example** Find all absolute and local extrema for  $f(x) = x^{4/3} - 4x^{1/3}$

$$f'(x) = \frac{4}{3}x^{-\frac{2}{3}}(x-1)$$

$f'(x) = 0$  when  $x = 1$  and  $x = 0$  For  $x = 0$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{h} = \frac{h^{\frac{4}{3}} - 4h^{-\frac{1}{3}}}{h} = h^{\frac{1}{3}} - 4h^{-\frac{2}{3}} = DNE$$

Hence,  $f'(x)$  is not defined. Then we have  $- - - \rightarrow 0 \leftarrow - - -$ . By first derivative test,  $f(x)$  has a local minimum point at  $x = 1$ . Since  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$   $f(x)$  is increasing, then  $x = 1$  is also an absolute minimum.

**Note** Note that first derivative test **does not always apply**. For example:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2(1 + \sin \frac{\pi}{x}) & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f'(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(h) - f(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h(1 + \sin \frac{\pi}{h}) = 0$$

Hence,  $x = 0$  is a critical point. However,

$$f'(x) = 2x(\sin \frac{\pi}{x}) - \pi(\cos \frac{\pi}{x})$$

which no matter what value of  $a > 0$  is, in the interval  $(0, a)$  there exist  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  such that  $f'(x_1) > 0$  and  $f'(x_2) < 0$ . So  $f$  is NEVER always increasing or always decreasing near 0, on the right. Hence none of the conditions in the first derivative test is satisfied.

However,  $f(0)$  is still a local and absolute minimum because  $f(0) = 0$ , and  $f(x) > 0 \forall x \neq 0$

## 5.2 Concavity and Inflection Point

**Definition - Concavity** The graph of a differentiable function  $y = f(x)$  is:

1. **Concave up** on an interval  $I$  if  $f'(x)$  is increasing.
2. **Concave down** on an interval  $I$  if  $f'(x)$  is decreasing.

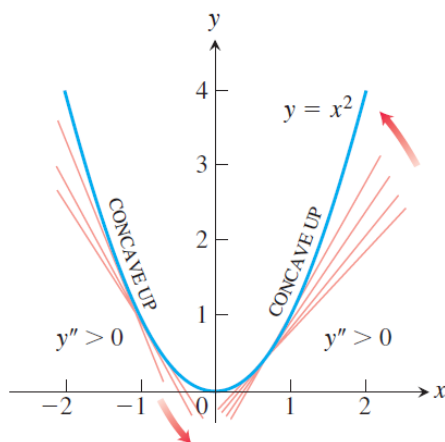


Figure 7: Function Concavity

**Second Derivative Test of Concavity** Suppose  $y = f(x)$  is a twice differentiable function on an interval  $I$  then

1. If  $f''(x) > 0$  on  $I$ , the graph  $f$  on  $I$  is concave up
2. If  $f''(x) < 0$  on  $I$ , the graph  $f$  on  $I$  is concave down

**Proof (1)** Suppose  $f''(x) > 0 \forall x \in I$ . Then, by corollary (3)  $f'(x)$  is increasing on  $I$ . Hence,  $f$  is concave up.

**Example** Find the concavity of  $y = x^3$

$$f'(x) = 3x^2$$

$$f''(x) = 6x$$

So,  $f''(x) > 0$  if  $x > 0$  and  $f''(x) < 0$  if  $x < 0$ .

**Definition - Inflection Point** is a point  $(c, f(c))$  where  $f(x)$  has a tangent line and where the concavity changes. If  $c$  is an inflection point, then either  $f''(c) = 0$  or  $f''(x)$  doesn't exist. However,  $f''(c) = 0$  doesn't imply that  $c$  is an inflection point.

**Note** In Thomas' Calculus, an inflection point need to have a **tangent line** or differentiable at  $c$ .

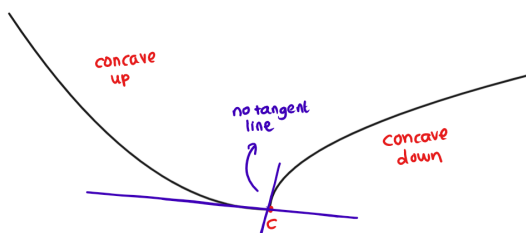


Figure 8: Where inflection point fails, at  $c$ ,  $f(x)$  doesn't have a tangent line

**Example** Find the inflection point of  $f(x) = x^{1/3}$

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^{-\frac{2}{3}}, f''(x) = -\frac{2}{9}x^{-\frac{5}{3}}$$

At  $x = 0$ ,  $f'(x)$  and  $f''(x)$  doesn't exist.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f'(x) = \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x^2}} = +\infty$$

Hence,  $f(x)$  has a tangent line at  $x = 0$ .

$$f''(x) \begin{cases} > 0 & x < 0 \\ < 0 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

Hence,  $(0,0)$  is a point of inflection.

### 5.3 Second Derivative Test

**Second derivative test on local extrema** Suppose  $f''$  is continuous on an interval containing  $c$ .

1. If  $f'(x) = 0$  and  $f''(x) < 0$ , then  $f$  has a local maximum at  $c$
2. If  $f'(x) = 0$  and  $f''(x) > 0$ , then  $f$  has a local minimum at  $c$
3. If  $f'(x) = 0$  and  $f''(x) > 0$ , can be local maximum, local minimum or neither

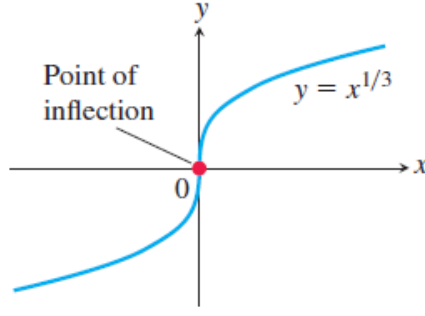
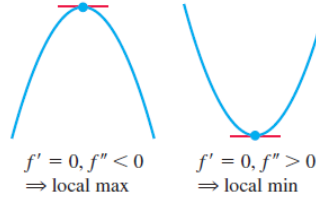


Figure 9: Graph of  $y = x^{1/3}$



**Proof (Statement 2)** Suppose  $f'(c) = 0$  and  $f''(x) > 0$ . Then,

$$0 < f''(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x) - f'(c)}{x - c} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{x - c}$$

Let  $L = f''(c)$  for  $\epsilon = L/2$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f'(x)}{x - c} &\in (L - \epsilon, L + \epsilon) & \forall x \in (c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon) \\ \frac{f'(x)}{x - c} &\in \left(\frac{L}{2}, \frac{3L}{2}\right) & \forall x \in (c - \epsilon, c + \epsilon) \\ \Rightarrow \frac{f'(x)}{x - c} &> \frac{L}{2} > 0 & \forall x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \end{aligned}$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned} x - c < 0 &\Rightarrow f'(x) < 0 \\ x - c > 0 &\Rightarrow f'(x) > 0 \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &< 0 \text{ for } (c - \delta, c) \\ f'(x) &> 0 \text{ for } (c, c + \delta) \end{aligned}$$

By corollary (3)  $f$  is decreasing on  $[c - \delta, c]$  and increasing on  $[c, c + \delta]$ . Hence,  $f$  has a local minimum at  $c$ .

Statement 1 can be proved by the same method.

**Proof (Statement 3)** Let  $f(x) = x^3$ ,  $g(x) = x^4$ ,  $h(x) = -x^4$

We have:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= 3x^2 & g'(x) &= 4x^3 & h'(x) &= -4x^3 \\ f''(x) &= 6x & g''(x) &= 12x^2 & h''(x) &= -12x^2 \end{aligned}$$

At  $x = 0$ :

$$f'(x) = f''(x) = g'(x) = g''(x) = h'(x) = h''(x)$$

But, at  $x = 0$  (1)  $f$  doesn't have a local extremum, (2)  $g$  has a local minimum, (3)  $h$  has a local maximum. Hence, when  $f''(c) = 0$ ,  $c$  can be a local maximum, minimum, or neither.

**Example** Find all local extrema of  $f(x) = x^4 - 4x^3 + 10$ !

- **Step 1** Find all values of  $x$  such that  $f'(x) = 0$
- **Step 2** Find all values of  $f''(x)$  when  $f'(x) = 0$
- **Step 3** Apply second derivative test to identify the concavity
- **Step 4** Find  $f(x)$  at the local extrema

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= 4x^3 - 12x^2 = 4x^2(x - 3) & f'(x) = 0 &\Rightarrow x = \{0, 3\} \\ f''(x) &= 12x^2 - 24x & f''(0) &= 0 \quad f''(3) = 36 > 0 \end{aligned}$$

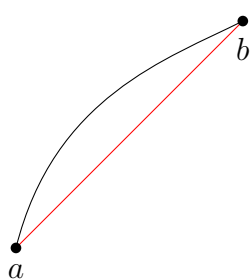
So, at  $x = 0$ ,  $f(x)$  fails the second derivative test, at  $x = 3$ ,  $f''(x) > 0$ , and  $f(x)$  has a local minimum at  $x = 3$ .

At  $x = 0$ , consider  $a = -1$  and  $b = 1$ .  $f'(1) < 0$  and  $f'(-1) < 0$ , so, it is not a local extrema.

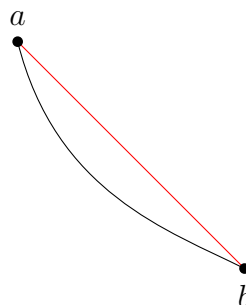
## 5.4 Concavity and Secant Line

**Theorem 5 (Concavity and Secant Lines)** Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ .

1. If  $f$  is **concave down** on  $(a, b)$ , then the graph of  $f$  lies **above** the secant line joining  $(a, f(a))$  and  $(b, f(b))$  on  $(a, b)$ .
2. If  $f$  is **concave up** on  $(a, b)$ , then the graph of  $f$  lies **below** the secant line joining  $(a, f(a))$  and  $(b, f(b))$  on  $(a, b)$ .

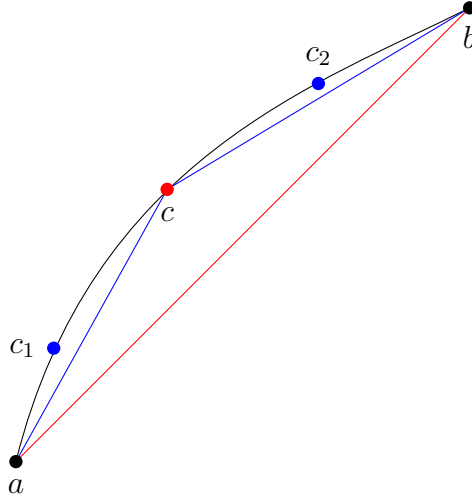


(a) Concave down



(b) Concave up

Figure 10: Concavity and Secant Line



**Proof (Statement 1)** We have the secant line of a graph

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

We will show that  $f(x) > g(x)$ ,  $\forall x \in (a, b)$ , given that  $f(x)$  is concave down on  $(a, b)$ . Let  $x \in (a, b)$ . By MVT,

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(c_1)(x - a) \quad \text{for some } c_1 \in (a, x)$$

$$f(b) = f(x) + f'(c_2)(b - x) \quad \text{for some } c_2 \in (x, b)$$

Then,

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(c_1)(x - a) + f'(c_2)(b - x)$$

Since  $f$  is concave down on  $(a, b)$ , then  $f'(c_1) > f'(c_2)$ , So,

$$f(b) < f(a) + f'(c_1)(x - a) + f'(c_1)(b - x)$$

$$f(b) < f(a) + f'(c_1)(b - a)$$

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} < f'(c_1)$$

Therefore we have:

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

$$f(x) = f(a) + f'(c_1)(x - a)$$

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} < f'(c_1)$$

From the above we have  $f(x) > g(x)$

## 5.5 Concavity and Tangent Line

**Theorem 6 (Concavity and Tangent Lines)** Let  $f$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ .

1. If  $f$  is **concave down** on  $(a, b)$ , then  $\forall c \in (a, b)$ , the tangent line of  $f$  at  $c$  lies **above** the graph of  $y = f(x)$ .
2. If  $f$  is **concave up** on  $(a, b)$ , then  $\forall c \in (a, b)$ , the tangent line of  $f$  at  $c$  lies **below** the graph of  $y = f(x)$ .



Figure 11: Concavity and Tangent Line

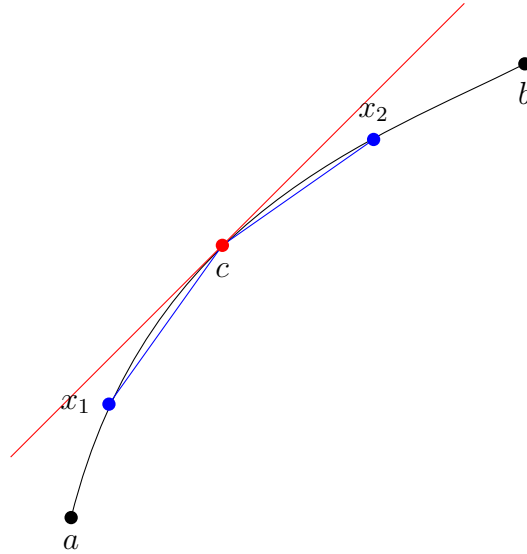
**Proof (Statement 1)** Let  $g(x)$  as a tangent line at  $c$

$$g(x) = f(c) + f'(c)(x - c)$$

Let  $x \in [a, b] \setminus \{c\}$

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) > f(x) &\Leftrightarrow f(c) + f'(c)(x - c) > f(x) \\ &\Leftrightarrow f'(c)(x - c) > f(x) - f(c) \\ &\Leftrightarrow f'(c) \begin{cases} > \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} & \text{if } x > c \Rightarrow x - c > 0 \\ < \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} & \text{if } x < c \Rightarrow x - c < 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Then, we will show that the last equation is true (eq. 1), that is:



$$f'(c) \begin{cases} > \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} & \forall x \in (c, b] \\ < \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} & \forall x \in [a, c) \end{cases}$$

First, assume  $x \in (c, b]$ . By MVT,

$$f'(c_1) = \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \quad \text{for some } c_1 \in (c, x)$$

Since  $f$  is concave down on  $(a, b)$ , then  $f'(c_1) < f'(c)$ , So,

$$\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} < f'(c)$$

Which prove the first case of eq. 1. the second case can be proven in the same manner. Hence, eq. 1 is proven.

## 6 Graph Sketching

Important things to sketch a graph: domain, symmetry, critical points, interval of monotonicity, points of inflection, intervals of concavity, asymptotes, and x-y intercepts.

**Example** Graph the function

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 + 4}{2x}$$

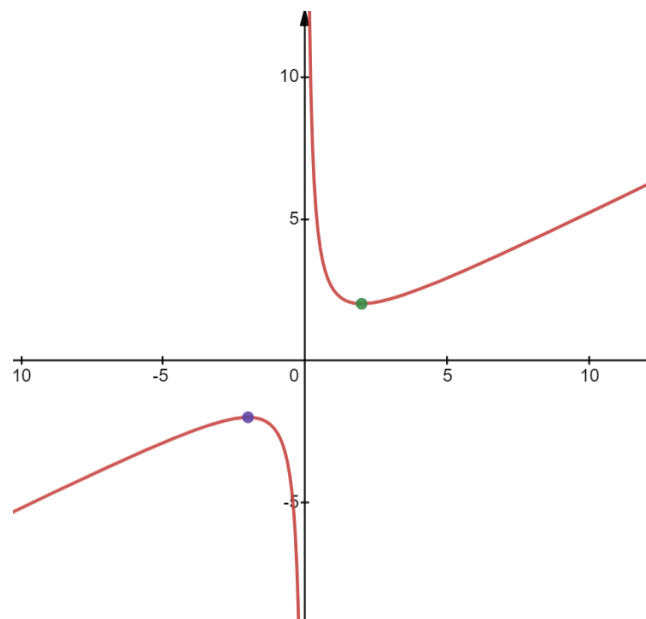


Figure 12: Graph of  $f(x)$

(1) Domain =  $(-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$

(2) Symmetry

- Odd function/ symmetry on origin if  $f(-x) = -f(x)$
- Even function / symmetry along y axis if  $f(-x) = f(x)$

$$f'(-x) = \frac{(-x)^2 + 4}{-2x} = -\left(\frac{x^2 + 4}{2x}\right) = -f(x)$$

Hence  $f(x)$  is an odd function

(3) Critical points

$$f'(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4}{2x^2} \quad f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow x = -2, 2$$

So,  $+++|-2|---|0|---|2|+++$ , Minimum point at 2, and maximum point at -2.

(4) Point of Inflection

$$f''(x) = 4x^{-3} \quad f''(x) > 0 \forall x > 0 \text{ and } f''(x) < 0 \forall x < 0$$



Hence,  $f$  concave down on  $(-\infty, 0)$   $f$  concave up on  $(0, \infty)$  and no point of inflection.

(5) Asymptotes

Oblique asymptote:  $y = Ax + B$

$$A = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} = \frac{x^2 + 4}{2x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$B = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) - A(x) = \frac{x^2 + 4 - x^2}{2x} = 0$$

So,  $y = 1/2x$  is an oblique asymptote

Vertical Asymptote :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \infty$$

Hence,  $x = 0$  is a vertical asymptote.

(6) x and y intercepts

No x and y intercept since  $x, y \neq 0$

## 7 Applied Optimization

**Example 1** Rectangle is to be inscribed in a semicircle of radius 2. What is the largest area the rectangle can have, and what are its dimensions?

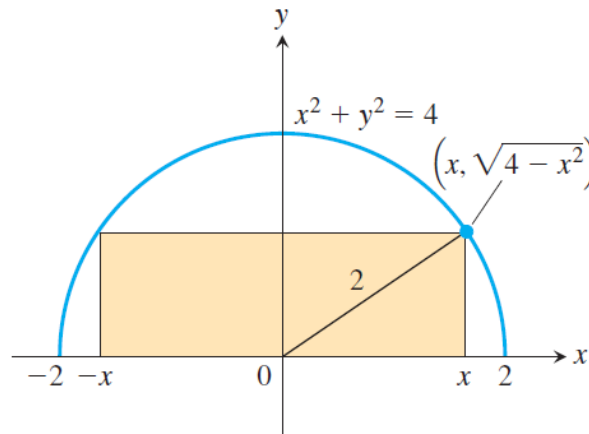


Figure 13: Illustration of Example 1

**Solution** From the circle equation we have:

$$x^2 + y^2 = 4$$

$$y^2 = 4 - x^2$$

$$y = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$$

The area of the rectangle can be denoted as

$$A = 2x \cdot y$$

$$A = 2x\sqrt{4 - x^2}$$

To maximize the area, then  $A' = 0$

$$A' = 2\sqrt{4-x^2} + \frac{-2x^2}{\sqrt{4-x^2}}$$

$$0 = \frac{2(4-x^2) - 2x^2}{\sqrt{4-x^2}}$$

$$2x^2 = 8 - 2x^2$$

$$x^2 = 2$$

$$x = \pm\sqrt{2}$$

$$y = \sqrt{4-2} = \sqrt{2}$$

We have  $A(0) = 0$ ,  $A(\sqrt{2}) = 4$ ,  $A(2) = 0$ . Hence, absolute maximum at  $x = \sqrt{2}$ , and the dimension is  $(\sqrt{2}, \sqrt{2})$

**Example 2** A man launches his boat from point A on a bank of a straight river, 3 km wide, and wants to reach point B, 8 km downstream on the opposite bank, as quickly as possible (see figure). He could row his boat directly across the river to point C and then run to B, or he could row directly to B, or he could row to some point D between C and B and then run to B. If he can row 6 km/h and run 8 km/h, where should he land to reach B as soon as possible? (We assume that the speed of the water is negligible.)

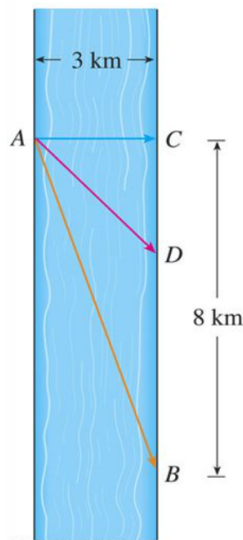


Figure 14: Illustration of Example 2

**Solution**

$$t = \frac{s}{v} = \frac{|AD|}{6} + \frac{|DB|}{8}$$

From the figure we can see that

$$|AD| = \sqrt{(8-|DB|)^2 + 9}$$

Let  $|DB| = x$ , then

$$t = \frac{s}{v} = \frac{\sqrt{(8-x)^2 + 9}}{6} + \frac{x}{8}$$

$$t' = \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{-2(8-x)}{2\sqrt{(8-x)^2 + 9}} + \frac{1}{8}$$

$$t' = \frac{x-8}{6\sqrt{(8-x)^2 + 9}} + \frac{1}{8}$$

To minimize  $t$ ,  $t' = 0$ , so,

$$-\frac{1}{8} = \frac{x-8}{6\sqrt{(8-x)^2 + 9}}$$

$$6\sqrt{(8-x)^2 + 9} = 8(8-x)$$

$$36((8-x)^2 + 9) = 64(8-x)^2$$

$$36(8-x)^2 + 324 = 64(8-x)^2$$

$$28(8-x)^2 = 324$$

$$(8-x)^2 = \frac{324}{28}$$

$$8-x = \sqrt{\frac{324}{28}}$$

$$x = 8 - \sqrt{\frac{324}{28}} \approx 4.598$$

So,  $|CD| = 8 - 4.598 = 3.402$  km.

**Example 3** Suppose  $x$  = number of video game consoles, million units

Cost :  $C(x) = x^3 - 6x^2 + 15x$

Revenue :  $R(x) = 9x$

Profit :  $P(x) = R(x) - C(x)$

Find  $x$  that maximizes profit, if any.

**Solution**

$$P(x) = 9x - (x^3 - 6x^2 + 15x)$$

$$P'(x) = 9 - 3x^2 + 12x - 15$$

$$P'(x) = 3(-x^2 + 4x - 6)$$

To maximize  $P(x)$ ,  $P'(x) = 0$

$$P'(x) = 3(-x^2 + 4x - 6)$$

$$0 = x^2 - 4x - 2$$

$$x = \frac{4 \pm \sqrt{16 - 4(1)(-2)}}{2}$$

$$x = 2 \pm \sqrt{2}$$

Check the local min/max

$$\begin{aligned}P''(x) &= -6x + 12 \\P''(2 + \sqrt{2}) &= -6(2 + \sqrt{2}) + 12 = -6\sqrt{2} < 0 \\P''(2 - \sqrt{2}) &= -6(2 - \sqrt{2}) + 12 = 6\sqrt{2} > 0\end{aligned}$$

Since  $P''(2 - \sqrt{2}) < 0$  it's a local minimum, and  $P''((2 + \sqrt{2})) > 0$  then it's a local maximum

$$P(2 + \sqrt{2}) = x^3 - 6x^2 - 6x = (2 + \sqrt{2})^3 - 6(2 + \sqrt{2})^2 - 6((2 + \sqrt{2})) > 0$$

Hence, profit maximizes at  $x = 2 + \sqrt{2}$  or 3.14 million units

## 8 Newton's Method

### 8.1 Introduction

Newton's method (a.k.a. Newton Raphson method) is a numerical method for finding approximate solution to a function especially those which is difficult/impossible to be solved analytically.

**Example** Consider a polynomial function

$$f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \quad a_n \neq 0$$

What value is  $x$  when  $f(x) = 0$ ?

For  $n = 1, 2$  we can solve it easily (using linear eq. or quadratic formula). For  $n = 3, 4$ , it's a bit hard but can be solved using general formula. But, for  $n > 4$ , there's no general formula.

### 8.2 Method

Procedure for Newton's method is:

1. Start with a point  $x_0$  near root a root  $r$ .
2. Let  $L_i$  be the tangent line to  $y = f(x)$  at  $x = x_i$ , with  $L_i = f(x_i) + f'(x_i)(x - x_i)$
3. If  $f'(x_i) \neq 0$ ,  $L_i$  will intersect the x-axis at some point  $x_{i+1}$ .
4. Repeat above step until  $f(x_i) \approx 0$ .

Hence,

$$x_{i+1} = x_i - \frac{f'(x_i)}{f(x_i)} \quad \text{if } f'(x_i) \neq 0$$

**Example** Consider  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x - 5$ .

Since  $f(2) = -1$  and  $f(3) = 11 > 0$ , there by IVT, exists  $r \in (2, 3)$  such that  $f(r) = 0$ . Consider  $x_0 = 2$ .

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 2$$

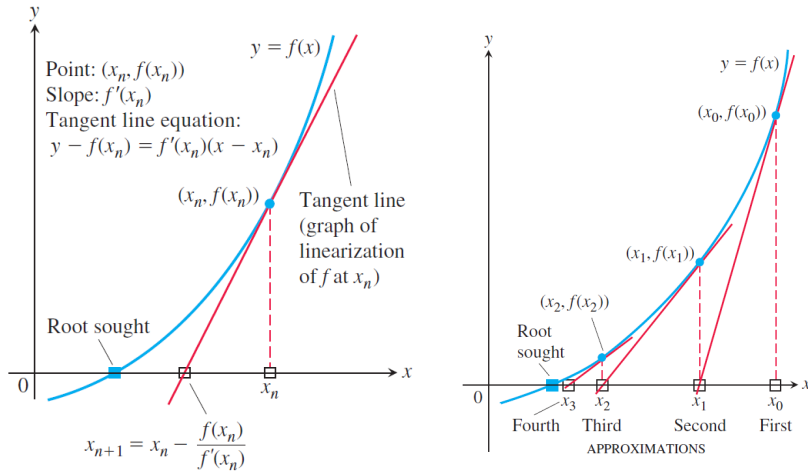


Figure 15: How Newton's method works

So,

$$\begin{aligned}
 x_1 &= 2 - \frac{8 - 4 - 5}{3(4) - 2} = 2.1 \\
 x_2 &= 2.1 - \frac{(2.1)^3 - 2(2.1) - 5}{3(2.1)^2 - 2} = 2.094568 \\
 x_3 &= 2.094568 - \frac{(2.094568)^3 - 2(2.094568) - 5}{3(2.094568)^2 - 2} = 2.094551
 \end{aligned}$$

We take  $x = 2.094568$  as  $r$ ,  $f(r) = -5.357 \times 10^{-6} \approx 0$ .

$x_0 = 2$  is an arbitrary choice. We can choose  $x_0 = 3$  and  $x_n$  converges to the same  $r$ .

### 8.3 Newton's Method Failure

Sometimes the method doesn't work because  $x_n$  doesn't converge to a root  $r$ , or it can converge to a root we're not interested in (e.g. negative root).

#### Example

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{x-r} & \text{if } x \geq r \\ -\sqrt{r-x} & \text{if } x < r \end{cases}$$

If we pick  $x_0 = r - h$ , then we have  $x_1 = r + h$ ,  $x_2 = r - h$ ,  $x_3 = r + h$ . Hence,  $x_n$  does not converge to any single number, and so does not converge to  $r$  (oscillating between  $r - h$  and  $r + h$ ).

**Note** There are some conditions when Newton's method work. One possible condition is:

Suppose  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$  and  $f(r) = 0$  where  $r \in (a, b)$ . If  $f'(r) \neq 0$ , then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that, with any starting point,  $x_0 \in (r - \delta, r + \delta)$ , the sequence  $x_n$  converges to  $r$ .