

Therefore, for any $x_0, x \in I$

$$\frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \geq 0.$$

By Theorem 5.3 (local sign of limits) the limit as $x \rightarrow x_0$ is also non-negative:

$$f'(x_0) \geq 0.$$

This proves the assertion for all x_0 that are not on the boundary of I . If x_0 is on the boundary of I , the same argument can be repeated with one-sided limits.

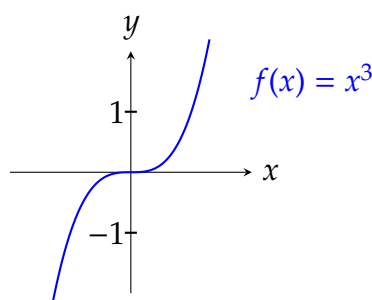
Now we prove (a) \Rightarrow (b). Let $x_1, x_2 \in I$ with $x_1 < x_2$. By the second increment formula, there exists $\bar{x} \in (x_1, x_2)$ such that

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(\bar{x})(x_2 - x_1).$$

By assumption, $f'(\bar{x}) \geq 0$ and $x_2 - x_1 > 0$, so that $f(x_2) \geq f(x_1)$ which completes the proof.

The proof of (b) follows immediately, since in the above argument $f'(\bar{x}) > 0$, hence $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$. \square

Observe that part (b) has a one-sided implication; the other implication is not true. For example, the function $f(x) = x^3$ is strictly increasing on \mathbb{R} , however its derivative function is not strictly positive (it vanishes at $x = 0$).



Corollary 8.16: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and suppose that f is differentiable on an interval I . Let $x_0 \in I$ be in the interior of I (not on the boundary). Then:

- If $f'(x) \geq 0$ to the left of x_0 and $f'(x) \leq 0$ to the right of x_0 , then x_0 is a local maximum.
- If $f'(x) \leq 0$ to the left of x_0 and $f'(x) \geq 0$ to the right of x_0 , then x_0 is a local minimum.

Proof. This simple proof is left as an exercise. \square

Finding extrema and monotonicity intervals of a function

Using Theorem 8.15 and Corollary 8.16, we see that to find extrema and monotonicity intervals of a function, all we need to do is to know the sign and zeroes of its derivative.

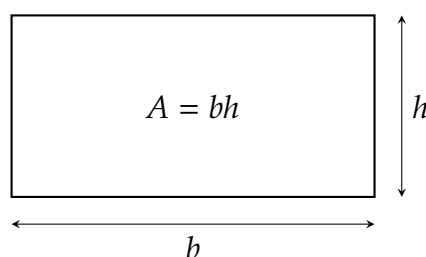
Example 8.19: Let $f(x) = xe^{2x}$. Then

$$f'(x) = e^{2x}(1 + 2x)$$

vanishes only when $1 + 2x = 0$, i.e. for $x = -\frac{1}{2}$. We see that $f'(x) > 0$ for $x > -\frac{1}{2}$ (f is strictly increasing on $[-\frac{1}{2}, +\infty)$) and $f'(x) < 0$ for $x < -\frac{1}{2}$ (f is strictly decreasing on $(-\infty, -\frac{1}{2}]$), so that $f(-\frac{1}{2})$ is a global minimum.

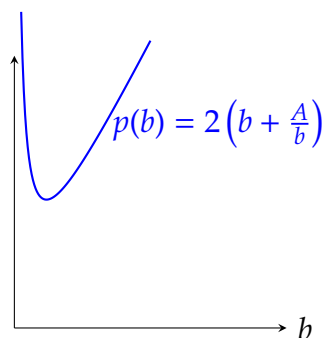
Example 8.20: Consider a rectangle with sides of length b and h , area $A = bh$ and perimeter

$$p = 2(b + h).$$



1. **Q: for fixed area A , what is the minimal perimeter?**

We fix A , retain b as a variable, and express $h = \frac{A}{b}$. Then $p = 2(b + \frac{A}{b})$.



We compute the derivative function

$$p'(b) = 2\left(1 - \frac{A}{b^2}\right)$$

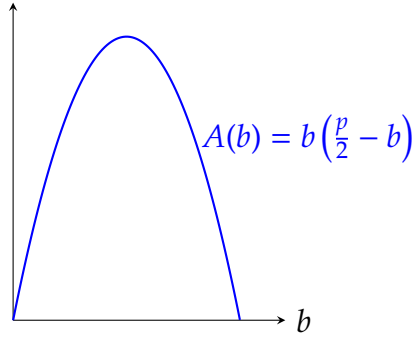
which vanishes when $b = \sqrt{A}$. It is easy to check that $p'(b) < 0$ for $b < \sqrt{A}$ and $p'(b) > 0$ for $b > \sqrt{A}$. Hence $b = \sqrt{A}$ is the global minimum of this function, and

$$p(\sqrt{A}) = 4\sqrt{A}.$$

In this case $b = h$ and the rectangle is a square. This shows that **among all rectangles with a fixed area, the square minimizes the perimeter.**

2. **Q: for fixed perimeter p , what is the maximal area?**

We fix p , retain b as a variable, and express $h = \frac{p}{2} - b$. Then $A = b(\frac{p}{2} - b)$.



We see that A vanishes for $b = 0$ and $b = \frac{p}{2}$. We compute

$$A'(b) = \frac{p}{2} - 2b$$

which vanishes when $b = \frac{p}{4}$. It is easy to check that $A'(b) > 0$ for $b < \frac{p}{4}$ and $A'(b) < 0$ for $b > \frac{p}{4}$. Hence $b = \frac{p}{4}$ is the global maximum of this function, and

$$A\left(\frac{p}{4}\right) = \frac{p^2}{16}.$$

In this case $b = h = \frac{p}{4}$ and the rectangle is a square. This shows that **among all rectangles with a fixed perimeter, the square maximizes the area.**

8.8 Higher-order derivatives

Second-order derivatives

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. If the derivative function f' is differentiable at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, we say that f is **twice differentiable at x_0** . We write

$$f''(x_0) = (f')'(x_0)$$

to express the **second derivative of f at x_0** . The derivative function of f' is denoted f'' and is called the **second derivative of f** . Some common symbols include

$$y''(x_0) \quad \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2}(x_0) \quad \frac{d^2}{dx^2} f(x_0) \quad \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2}(x_0) \quad \frac{d^2}{dx^2} y(x_0) \quad D^2 f(x_0)$$

Higher-order derivatives

More generally, we can define derivatives of any integer order $k \in \mathbb{N}$ inductively. Since it is not convenient to write $f \overbrace{'''''}^{k \text{ times}}(x_0)$ we write $f^{(k)}$, defined inductively as

$$f^{(k)}(x_0) = (f^{(k-1)})'(x_0)$$

to express the k^{th} **derivative of f at x_0** . The k^{th} derivative function of f is denoted $f^{(k)}$ and is called the k^{th} **derivative of f** . Some common symbols include

$$y^{(k)}(x_0) \quad \frac{d^k f}{dx^k}(x_0) \quad \frac{d^k}{dx^k} f(x_0) \quad \frac{d^k y}{dx^k}(x_0) \quad \frac{d^k}{dx^k} y(x_0) \quad D^k f(x_0)$$

Example 8.21: The function $f(x) = x^n$, $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ has the following derivatives, defined on \mathbb{R} :

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= nx^{n-1} \\ f''(x) &= n(n-1)x^{n-2} \\ &\vdots \\ f^{(k)}(x) &= n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+2)(n-k+1)x^{n-k} \\ &\vdots \\ f^{(n)}(x) &= n(n-1) \cdots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 x^{n-n} = n! \\ f^{(n+1)}(x) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

Example 8.22: Since $\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$, we have $\frac{d^n}{dx^n} e^x = e^x$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Example 8.23: For \sin and \cos we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \sin x &= \sin\left(x + n\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \cos x &= \cos\left(x + n\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Verify these formulas!!