

# Differentiation (continued)

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Lecture 3

# Warm up exercises

Without looking at your notes, write out the following

- ① Definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$
- ② Definition of a function  $f$  continuous at  $x = c$
- ③ Definition of the derivative of  $f$  at a point  $x = a$
- ④ Definition of the second derivative

## Definition

We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  if we can get  $f(x)$  as close to  $L$  as we want by taking  $x$  sufficiently close to  $c$  (but  $x \neq c$ ).

Formally, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - c| < \delta$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

## Definition

$f$  is continuous at  $x = c$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$$

$f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  if continuous at every point in  $[a, b]$ .

## Definition

The *derivative* of a function at a point  $x = a$  is, rate of change of  $f$  at  $a$ , defined as

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

If this limit exists,  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ .

## Definition

The second derivative of a function  $f$  is the derivative of the derivative function of  $f$ .

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

## Intermediate Value Theorem

If  $f$  continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $k$  between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , there exists  $c$  s.t.  $f(c) = k$ .

## Mean Value Theorem

If  $f$  is continuous on  $a \leq x \leq b$  and differentiable on  $a < x < b$ , then there exists a number  $c$ , with  $a < c < b$ , such that

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

In other words,  $f(b) - f(a) = f'(c)(b - a)$ .

Why is  $f$  not assumed to be differentiable at  $x = a$  or  $x = b$ ?

## Theorem

- 1 If  $f'(x) > 0$  on an interval, then  $f(x)$  is increasing on that interval.
- 2 If  $f'(x) < 0$  on an interval, then  $f(x)$  is decreasing on that interval.
- 3 If  $f'(x) = 0$  on an interval, then  $f(x)$  is constant on that interval.

## Theorem

- 1 If  $f'' > 0$  on an interval, then  $f'$  is increasing over that interval, so the graph of  $f$  is concave up.
- 2 If  $f'' < 0$  on an interval, then  $f'$  is decreasing over that, so the graph of  $f$  is concave down.
- 3 If  $f'' = 0$  on an interval, then  $f'$  is constant on that interval, so the graph of  $f$  is a straight line (linear).

Careful with the converse statements:  $\geq, \leq$  instead of  $>, <$ .

## Tangent Line Approximation

Suppose  $f$  is differentiable at  $a$ . Then, for values of  $x$  near  $a$ , the tangent line approximation of  $f(x)$  is

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$$

The expression  $f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$  is called the *local linearization* of  $f$  near  $x = a$ .

The error,  $E(x)$ , defined by  $E(x) = f(x) - f(a) - f'(a)(x - a)$ , can be approximated near  $x = a$  by

$$E(x) \approx \frac{f''(a)}{2}(x - a)^2.$$

## The First Derivative Test

Let  $x_0$  be a critical point of a continuous function  $f$ .

- If  $f'$  changes from positive to negative at  $x_0$ , then  $f$  has a local **maximum**.
- If  $f'$  changes from negative to positive at  $x_0$ , then  $f$  has a local **minimum**.

True or False? If  $f'(x_0) = 0$ , then  $f$  has a local max or min at  $x_0$ . Explain.



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True or False? If  $f'(x_0) = 0$ , then  $f$  has a local max or min at  $x_0$ . Explain.

Important: All local extrema occur either at the end points of the domain or at the critical points. But not all critical points are local extrema.

## The Second Derivative Test:

Let  $x_0$  be a critical point of a continuous function  $f$ .

- If  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and  $f''(x_0) > 0$  then  $f$  has a local **minimum** at  $x_0$ .
- If  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and  $f''(x_0) < 0$  then  $f$  has a local **maximum** at  $x_0$ .
- If  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and  $f''(x_0) = 0$  then the test is inconclusive.

# Examples

- 1 Use the second derivative test to classify the critical points of  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x + 4$ .

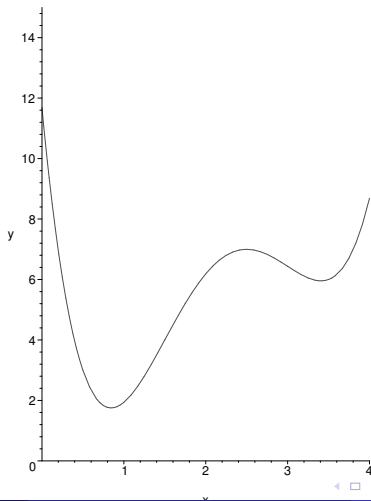
# Local vs. Global Extrema

- A **global maximum** of  $f$  is the greatest value of  $f$  over its domain (or a specified interval).
- A **global minimum** is the least value of  $f$  over its domain (or a specified interval).
- Local extrema only describe behavior *near a point*, while global extrema compare values over the entire interval/domain.

# Example: Global vs. Local Extrema

Consider the function below:

- Identify the local minima and maxima.
- Identify the global minimum and maximum.



# Procedure for Finding Global Extrema

Use the previous graph to guide you, what are the possible locations for the global extrema?

To find the global max and min of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ :

- ① Find the critical points of  $f$  in  $(a, b)$ .
- ② Evaluate  $f$  at the critical points and endpoints  $a, b$ .
- ③ Compare values:
  - Largest = global maximum
  - Smallest = global minimum

# Practice: Global Extrema

- 1 Find the global max and min of  $g(x) = \ln(1 + x^2)$  on  $-1 \leq x \leq 2$ .

# Extreme Value Theorem

## Theorem

If  $f$  is continuous on a closed finite interval  $[a, b]$ , then  $f$  is guaranteed to have both a global maximum and a global minimum on that interval.

- Endpoints  $a$  and  $b$  are possible locations for global extrema.
- Critical points in  $(a, b)$  are also candidates.



# Why Hypotheses Matter

- Let us draw the graph of  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ . Does  $g$  have a global maximum over the interval  $0 < x \leq 1$ ?
- Let us draw the graph of  $h(x) = x^2$ . Does  $h$  have a global maximum over the interval  $0 \leq x < \infty$ ?

# What happens when the domain is neither closed nor finite

Find the global max and min of  $f(t) = te^{-t}$  for  $t \geq 0$ .

# From $\mathbb{R}$ to $\mathbb{R}^n$

- Single variable: number line  $\mathbb{R}$
- Multivariable: vector space

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

- Visualization:
  - $\mathbb{R}^2$ : plane
  - $\mathbb{R}^3$ : space
  - $\mathbb{R}^n$ : abstract

# Vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are **vectors**.

## Definition

A **vector**  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is an ordered  $n$ -tuple of real numbers

$$\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$$

Geometrically, vectors can be thought of as arrows emanating from the origin.

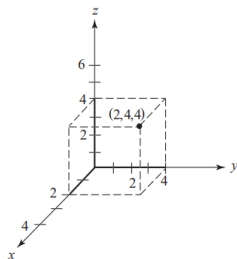
- Magnitude/length of  $\mathbf{a}$ :

$$\|\mathbf{a}\| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + \dots + a_n^2}$$

- A unit vector has magnitude 1

# Example

Draw the vector  $(2, 4, 4)$  on the following graph and compute its length.



# Scalar Multiplication

## Definition

Let  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$c\mathbf{a} = (ca_1, ca_2, \dots, ca_n)$$

Geometrically,  $c\mathbf{a}$  has length  $|c|\|\mathbf{a}\|$ , same direction if  $c > 0$ , opposite if  $c < 0$ .

# Example

Let  $\mathbf{a} = (1, 1)$ .

- 1 Draw  $\mathbf{a}$ ,  $2\mathbf{a}$ , and  $-\mathbf{a}$ .
- 2 How can  $-\mathbf{a}$  be normalized to a unit vector?

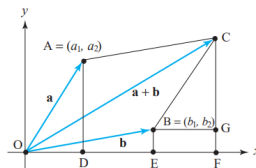
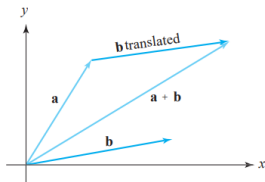
# Vector Addition

## Definition

Let  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then

$$\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = (a_1 + b_1, \dots, a_n + b_n)$$

Geometrically: head-to-tail or parallelogram rule.





# Exercise

Draw  $\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}$ .

## Definition

The displacement vector from  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  to  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  is

$$\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} = (x_1 - y_1, \dots, x_n - y_n).$$

The distance between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  is given by

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (x_n - y_n)^2}$$

## Definition

Let  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ ,  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, \dots, w_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

- **Geometric:**

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\| \cos \theta,$$

where  $\theta$  is the angle between the vectors (generalized from 3D).

- **Algebraic:**

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = v_1 w_1 + v_2 w_2 + \dots + v_n w_n$$

- 1 Is the dot product a number or a vector? (Answer: a scalar)
- 2 The dot product measures alignment of vectors.

# Example

Let

$$\mathbf{v} = (3, 4), \quad \mathbf{w} = (-4, 3)$$

- 1 Compute  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$
- 2 Use (1) to deduce that the vectors form a right angle
- 3 Draw the two vector on the plane to confirm (2)

# Example

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$$\mathbf{v} = (3, 4), \quad \mathbf{w} = (-4, 3)$$

- 1 Compute  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$
- 2 Use (1) to deduce that the vectors form a right angle
- 3 Draw the two vector on the plane to confirm (2)

Dot product zero  $\implies$  vectors are perpendicular

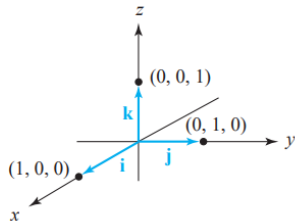
# Standard Basis Vectors in $\mathbb{R}^3$

Let

$$\mathbf{i} = (1, 0, 0), \quad \mathbf{j} = (0, 1, 0), \quad \mathbf{k} = (0, 0, 1)$$

Check that any  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, a_2, a_3)$  can be written as

$$\mathbf{a} = a_1\mathbf{i} + a_2\mathbf{j} + a_3\mathbf{k}$$



# Exercise

Can you give the standard basis vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ?

## Definition

A **function of  $n$  variables** is a function whose domain is a subset  $A$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and whose range is a subset  $B$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

The reason we say “ $n$  variables” is simply that we regard the coordinates of a point  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in A$  as  $n$  variables, and  $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$  depends on these variables.



# Examples

What are the domain and range for each of these functions?

①  $f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$

②  $f(x, y) = (x^2 + y^2) \log(xy)$

③  $f(x, y, z) = \log(z)x^2y^2$