

Brooks Emerrick

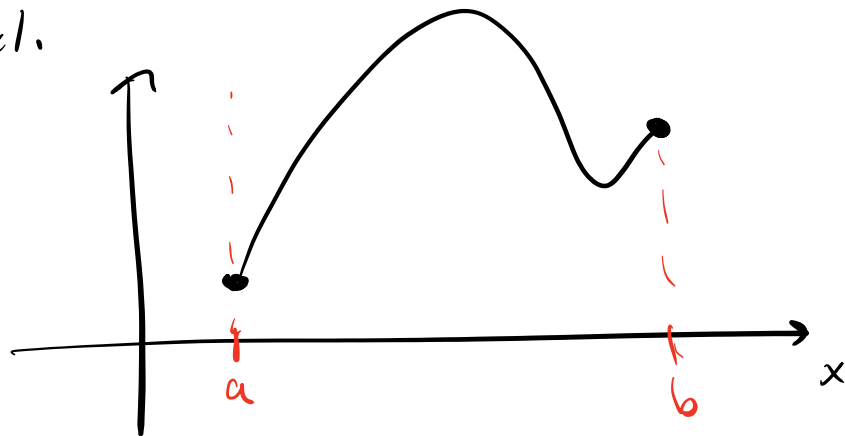
CHAPTER 4 - Applications of Differentiation

Section 4.1: Extreme values of Functions

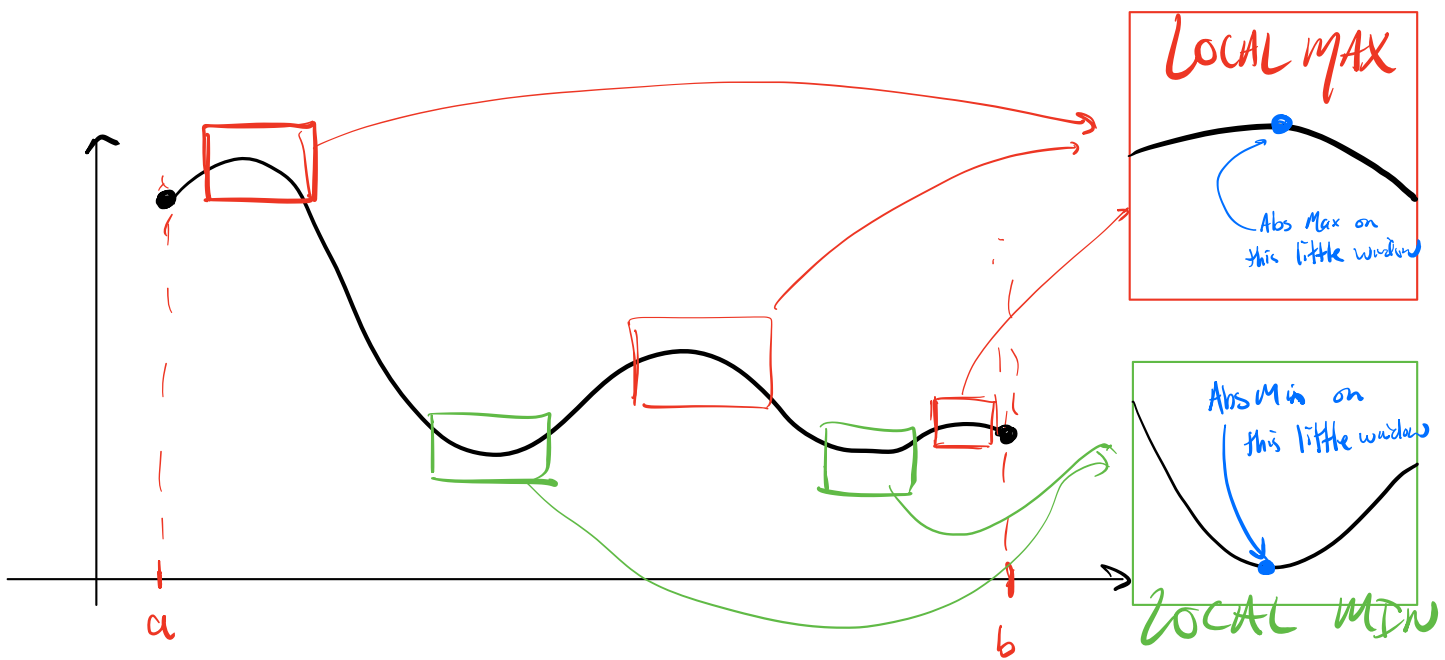
Def: A function of $f(x)$ has an ^(global) absolute maximum (absolute minimum) value of $f(c)$ at $x=c$ if for every x in an interval containing c , $f(c) \geq f(x)$ ($f(c) \leq f(x)$).

(maximum values depend on $f(x)$ as well as the interval of interest)

Thm: (Extreme Value Theorem) A function that is cont. on a closed interval $[a, b]$ has an abs. max and an abs. min on that interval.

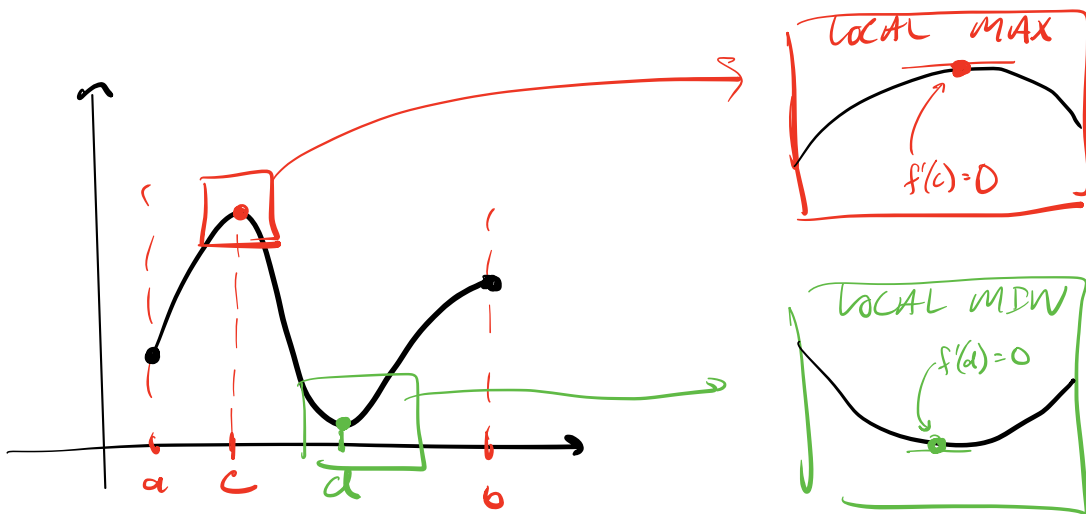


Def: Let c be in the interior of some interval. If $f(c) \geq f(x)$ ($f(c) \leq f(x)$) for all x in an open interval containing c , then $f(c)$ is a local maximum (local minimum) value.
(relative) (relative)

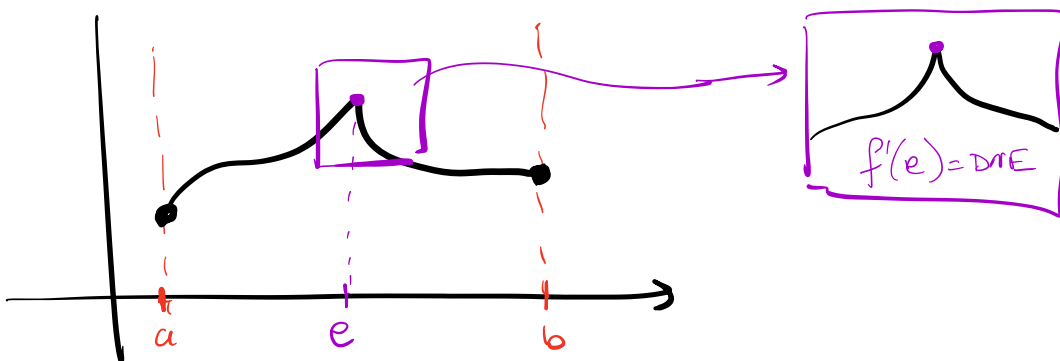


Note: local Extrema cannot occur at the endpoints!
(max/mins)

• How do we find local extrema?!



Whenever $f'(x) = 0$, there could be a local extrema.



Whenever the derivative is undefined, there may be a local max/min.

Def: An interior point c in the domain of $f(x)$ at which $f'(c) = 0$ or $f'(c) = \text{DNE}$ is called a critical point.
usually just the x -coordinate.

Thm: (Fermat's Thm) If f has a local extreme point at c inside the interval (a,b) and $f'(c)$ exists, then $f'(c) = 0$.

- This theorem together with the extreme value thm, leads to the closed interval method of finding absolute extrema on a closed interval.

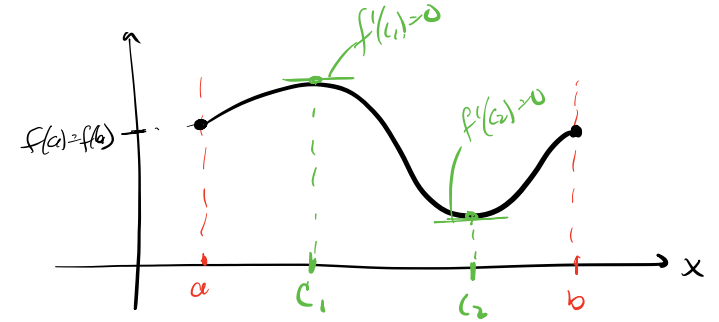
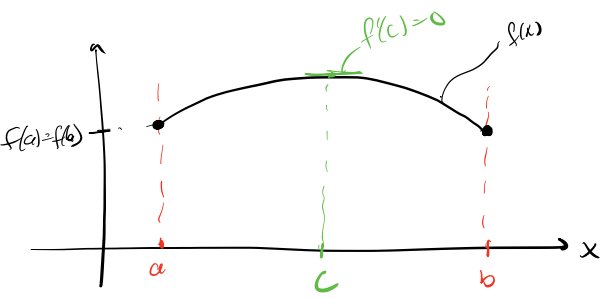
→ Let f be cont. on $[a,b]$. Then to determine the abs max and abs min, follow these steps:

- 1.) Find all critical points in (a,b) .
- 2.) Evaluate the function at the critical pts and at the endpoints (i.e. a and b).
- 3.) The largest value → abs max.
The smallest value → abs min.

Section 4.2: Mean Value Theorem

• Thm applies to any cont. function on a closed interval $[a,b]$ that is also diff. on the interior (a,b) .

- Thm: (Rolle's Thm) let $f(x)$ be cont. on $[a, b]$ and diff. on (a, b) .
If $f(a) = f(b)$, then there is at least one point c inside (a, b) such that $f'(c) = 0$.



- Thm: (Mean Value Theorem) let $f(x)$ be cont. $[a, b]$ and diff. on (a, b) .
Then there exists at least one value c inside (a, b) such that

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

Instantaneous
Rate of Change

Average Rate
of Change

Section 4.3: First and Second Derivative Tests

- The 1st & 2nd Derivative Tests are used to locate ^(Extreme) max/min values of a function, intervals of inc/dec, and intervals of concave up/down.

Thm: Suppose f is cont. on an interval (a, b) and diff. on the interior.

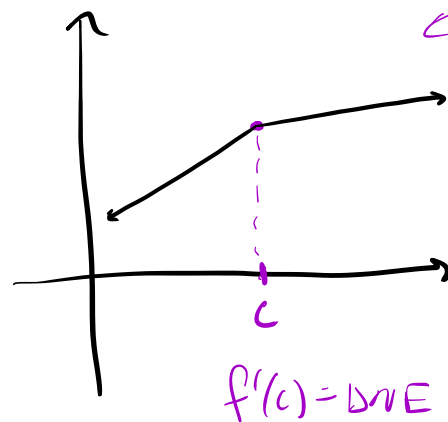
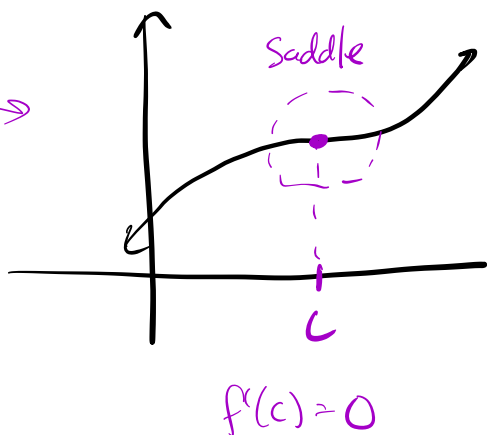
If $f'(x) > 0$ for all x inside the interval, then $f(x)$ is increasing on the interior. Likewise, if $f'(x) < 0$, then $f(x)$ is decreasing.

Thm: (First Derivative Test) Suppose f is cont. on an interval containing c and c is a critical point.

1.) If $f'(x)$ changes from pos. to neg. as x increases through c , then $f(x)$ has a local max at c .

2.) If $f'(x)$ changes from neg. to pos. as x increases through c , then $f(x)$ has a local min at c .

3.) If $f'(x)$ doesn't change signs, then $f(x)$ has no local extrema at c .

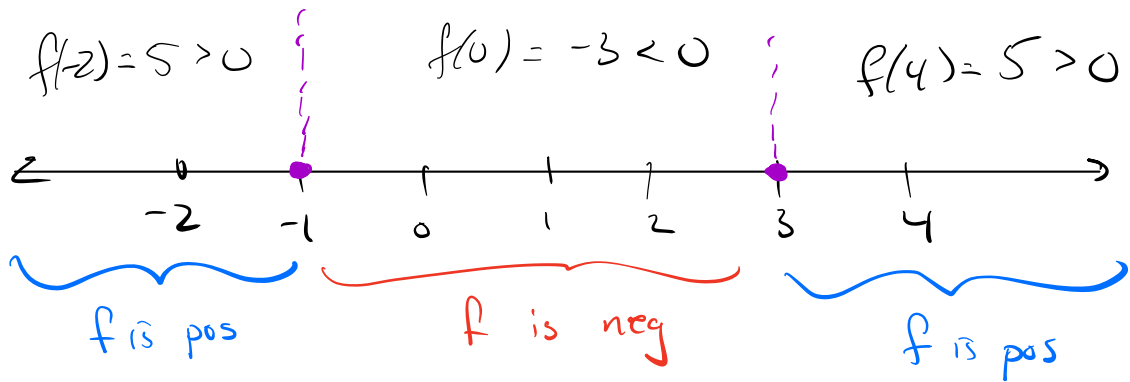


• To use this theorem, it's best to do a sign analysis on the first derivative $f'(x)$.

Ex: Where is $f(x) = x^2 - 2x - 3$ pos. and neg.?

$$f(x) = (x-3)(x+1) = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{Find the } x\text{-ints}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -1, 3$$



- Negative on $(-1, 3)$
- positive on $(-\infty, -1) \cup (3, \infty)$

Recap: If $f'(x) > 0$ on (a, b) , then $f(x)$ is increasing on (a, b) .
 (< 0) decreasing

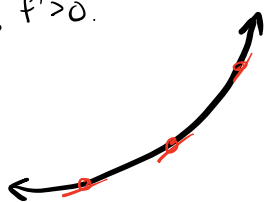
Def: If $f''(x) > 0$, then $f(x)$ is concave up. If $f''(x) < 0$,
then $f(x)$ is concave down.

Concave Up

Concave Down

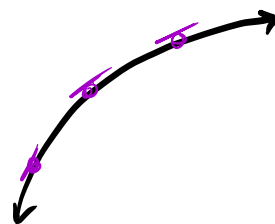
Increasing

$$f'' > 0, f' > 0$$



The slopes are increasing.

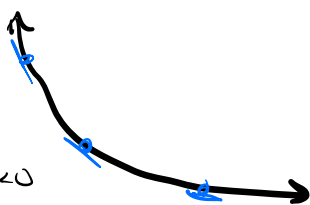
$$f'' < 0, f' > 0$$



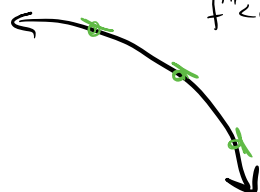
The slopes are decreasing

Decreasing

$$f'' > 0, f' < 0$$

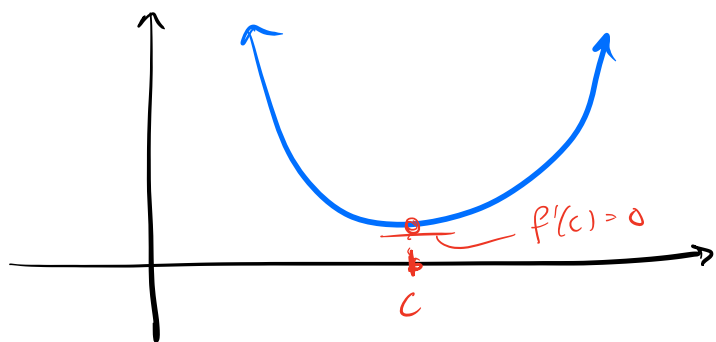


$$f'' < 0, f' < 0$$



- Just like the first derivative can be used to determine the location of local extrema, the second derivative can be used to determine if critical points satisfying $f'(c) = 0$ are local max/min's

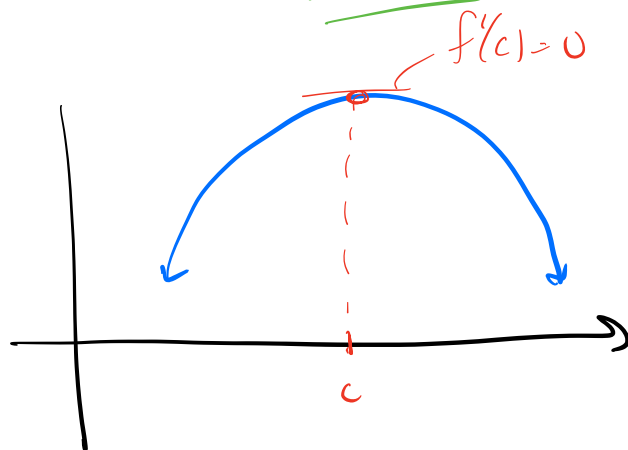
Concave Up



$$f''(c) > 0$$

Local Min

Concave Down



$$f''(c) < 0$$

Local Max.

Thm: (Second Derivative Test) Suppose $f''(x)$ is cont. on an open interval containing c such that $f'(c) = 0$.

1.) If $f''(c) > 0$, then f has a local min at c .

2.) If $f''(c) < 0$, then f has a local max at c .

3.) If $f''(c) = 0$, then the test is inconclusive (c could be a local max, min, or saddle)

Section 4.4: L'Hôpital's Rule

Recall from Chapter 2 that our most powerful tool for evaluating limits was continuity:

Ex: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x+1)^2}{x+2} = \frac{(1+1)^2}{1+2} = \frac{4}{3}$

If the function is defined \rightarrow plug in the value.

But if the function is not defined at the value, we use algebra or the Brute Force method:

Algebra
Ex: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)(x-1)}{x-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x - 1 = 0$

BFM
Ex: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = \text{"Brute Force method"} = 1$

Plug in the value

$$= \frac{0}{0}$$

Indeterminate Form

• Limits of the form $\frac{\pm\infty}{\pm\infty}$ or $\frac{0}{0}$ are called indeterminate.

Thm: (L'Hôpital's Rule) Suppose f & g are differentiable at c
 and suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 0$. Then

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

provided that the limit on the right exists (or is $\pm\infty$).
 This rule also applies to $x \rightarrow c^+$, $x \rightarrow c^-$, or $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$.

A few strange examples:

Ex: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3x^4 - x}{6x^4 + 12} = \dots$ L'H... $= \frac{1}{2}$

Another way: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{3x^4}{x^4} - \frac{x}{x^4}}{\frac{6x^4}{x^4} + \frac{12}{x^4}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3 - \frac{1}{x^3}}{6 + \frac{12}{x^4}} = \frac{3-0}{6+0} = \frac{3}{6} = \frac{1}{2}$

Ex: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3x^3 - x}{6x^4 + 12} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{3}{x} - \frac{1}{x^3}}{6 + \frac{12}{x^4}} = \frac{0-0}{6+0} = \frac{0}{6} = 0$

Divided every term by x^4

Ex: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3x^4 - x}{6x^3 + 12} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3x - \frac{1}{x^2}}{6 + \frac{12}{x^3}} = \frac{\infty-0}{6+0} = \infty$

Divided every term by x^3

- A limit may take the form of an indeterminate product or an indeterminate difference:

" $(\pm\infty) \cdot (0)$ "

↪ product



Rewrite the product as a quotient



then use L'Hopital's

" $\infty - \infty$ "

↪ difference



Rewrite as quotient by getting a common denominator



Use L'Hopital's Rule

- Consider a function of the form $f(x)^{g(x)}$. For example:

$$x^x, \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x, x^{\frac{1}{x}}$$

These types of functions may lead to indeterminate powers:

" 1^∞ ", " 0^0 ", " ∞^0 "

- The trick is to put it into quotient form:

$$f(x)^{g(x)} \longrightarrow e^{\ln(f(x)^{g(x)})} \longrightarrow e^{g(x) \ln(f(x))}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)^{g(x)} \rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow c} e^{\ln(f(x)^{g(x)})} \rightarrow e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) \ln(f(x))}$$

Section 4.6: Optimization

maximize minimize

Operations Research
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- Optimization is a wide reaching application that is used in many disciplines. History reaches back to World War II.
- Characteristic of all optimization problems is the idea of an objective function with some constraints:
 - Obj. fun.: the function we seek to maximize/minimize (e.g. max profit, max revenue, min costs, ...)
 - Constraints: guidelines or limits to the problem that must be satisfied.

Ex: Find two non-neg numbers x & y that sum up to 20 and have the largest product.

Brute force:

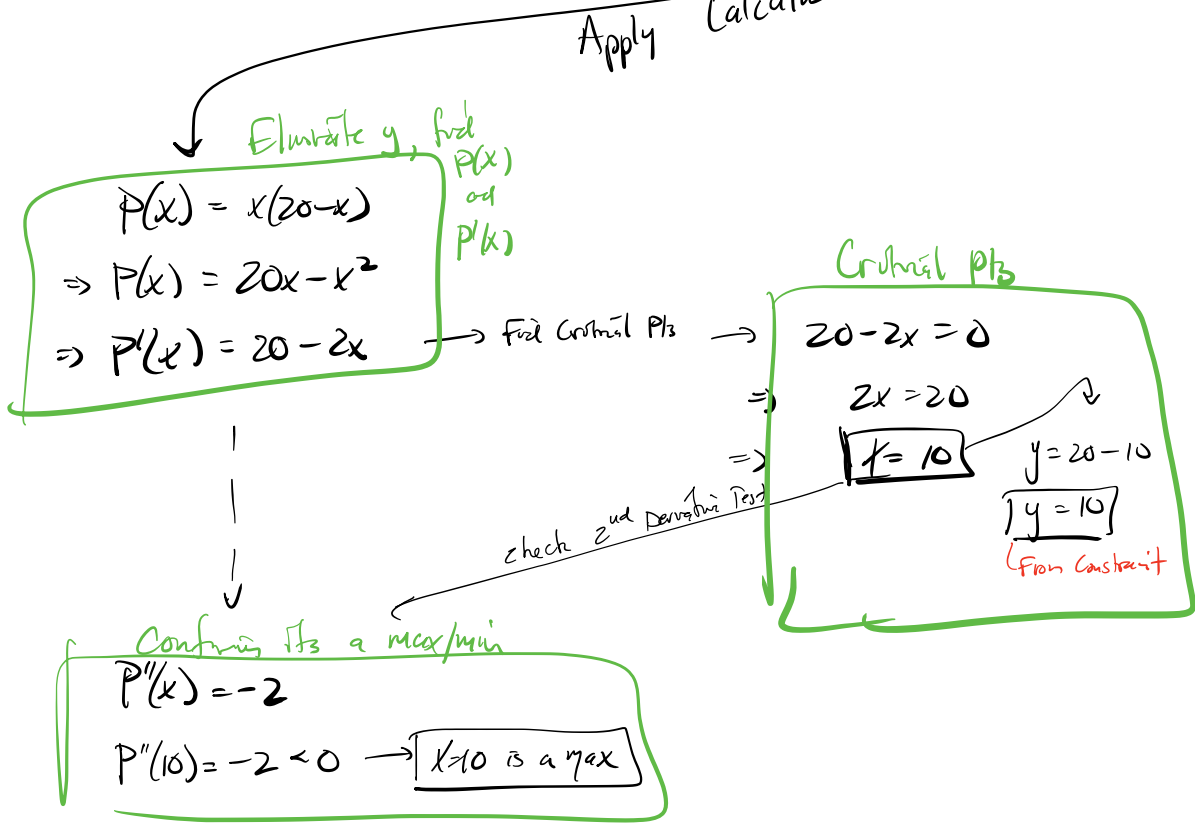
x	y	xy
✓ 10	10	100
x 9	11	99
x 12	8	96
x π	$20-\pi$	$(20-\pi)\pi$
x 1	19	19

Obj Fun: Maximize product; $P = xy$ update $P(x) = x(20-x)$

Constraints: $x \geq 0, y \geq 0, x+y = 20$

$y = 20 - x$

Set up Problem



Section 4.7: Antiderivatives.

• Recall: we've been given a function $f(x)$ and we've been asked to determine $f'(x)$. The reverse of this process is called "antidifferentiation".

• Def: A function $F(x)$ is an antiderivative of $f(x)$ if

$$F'(x) = f(x)$$

on some interval.

Ex: let $\boxed{f(x) = 1}$, then $\boxed{F(x) = x}$ is an antiderivative.

Ex: let $f(x) = 2x$, then $F(x) = x^2 + 10$ is an antiderivative.

Ex: let $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ then $F(x) = \arctan(x)$ is an antiderivative.

• The antiderivative is not unique. In fact for any function $f(x)$, there is a family of antiderivatives:

$$F(x) = x - 100$$

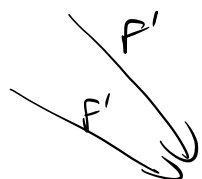
$$F(x) = x - 50$$

$$F(x) = x$$

$$F(x) = x + 2$$

$$F(x) = x + \pi$$

⋮



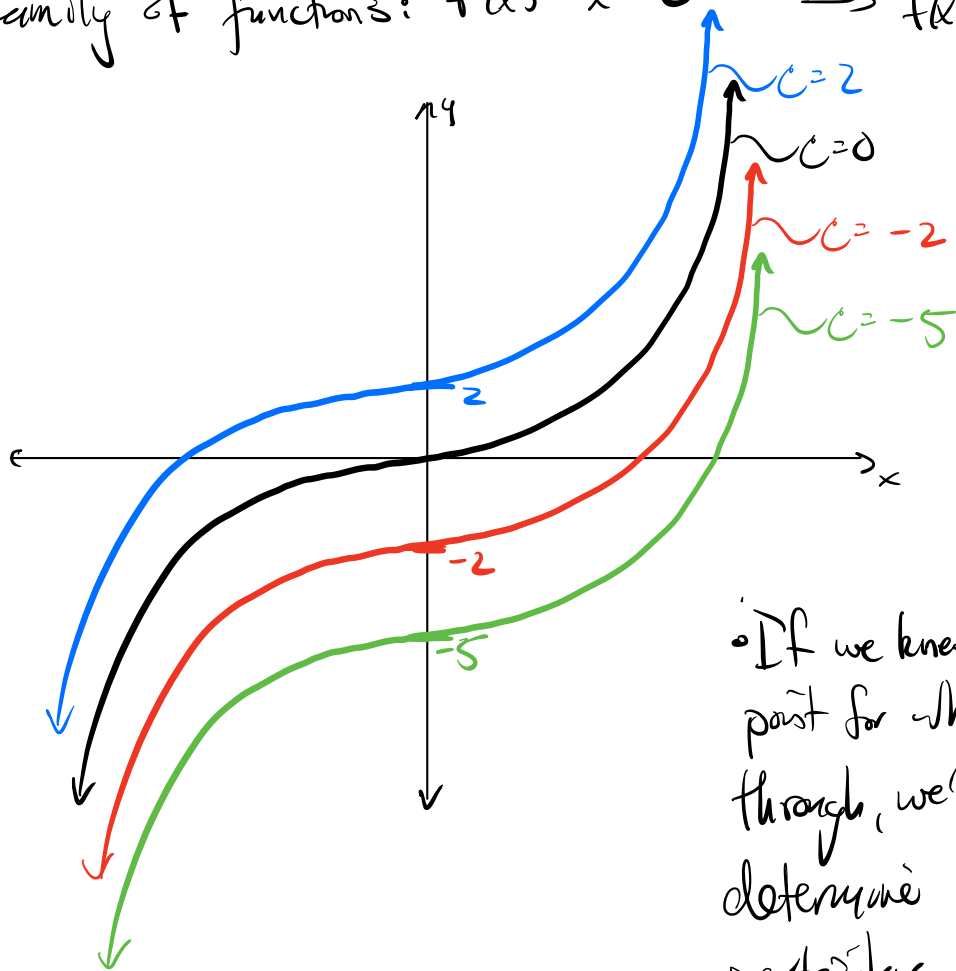
$$f(x) = 1$$

→ Thus, we write:

$$F(x) = x + C \text{ is the general antiderivative}$$

where C is any real #

• Consider the family of functions: $F(x) = x^3 + C \rightarrow f(x) = 3x^2$



• If we know one additional point for which $F(x)$ passes through, we'd be able to determine C — the particular solution.

Ex: Let $f(x) = \cos(x)$, then $F(x) = \sin(x) + C$.

Let $f(x) = e^x$, then $F(x) = e^x + C$.

Let $f(x) = \ln(3) \cdot 3^x$, then $F(x) = 3^x + C$.

Thy: (Reverse Power Rule) Let $f(x) = x^p$ for $p \neq -1$, then the antiderivative is

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{p+1} x^{p+1} + C.$$

Ex: Let $f(x) = x^2$, then $F(x) = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$

Check: $F'(x) = \frac{1}{3}(3x^2) = x^2$

Ex: Let $f(x) = x^4$, then $F(x) = \frac{1}{5}x^5 + C$.

Ex: Consider the following list

$$F(x) = e^x + C$$

$$F'(x) = e^x + C$$

$$F(x) = e^x + C$$

$$f(x) = e^x$$

$$f'(x) = e^x$$

$$f''(x) = e^x$$

$$f'''(x) = e^x$$

$$f^{(4)}(x) = e^x$$



Differenzieren

Integrations

Ex: Let $f(x) = x^{-1} = \frac{1}{x}$, then $F(x) = \ln(x) + C$.

Eg: let $f(x) = x^n$, then $F(x) = \frac{1}{n+1} x^{n+1} + C$.

Thm: (Exp. functions) let $f(x) = b^x$, then the ant. derivative is

$$F(x) = \frac{1}{\ln(b)} \cdot b^x + C$$

A differential equation is an equation involving a function and its derivatives.

general solutions

(Easy)

Ex: $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 2x + 5$

Anti derivative

$\hookrightarrow f(x) = x^3 - x^2 + 5x + C$

(Hard)

Ex: $f'(x) = f(x)$

~~$f(x) = Ae^x$~~

• An Initial Value Problem (IVP) is a diff. equ. coupled with initial data.

particular sbls.

Ex: $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 2x + 5$, $f(1) = 5$

Anti Diff

$\hookrightarrow f(x) = x^3 - x^2 + 5x + C$

$f(1) = 1^3 - 1^2 + 5(1) + C$

$$\Rightarrow S = 1 - 1 + 5 + C$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma = C$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{f(x) = x^3 - x^2 + 5x}$$

Partizijalar SGI.
