# FORK1005 Preparatory Course in Mathematics 2015/16 Lecture 3 

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## 1 Introduction to Differentiation

To differentiate is to calculate the derivative of a function. A function's derivative is the rate of change of the function for each point $x$. This builds on the idea of a slope, which we studied for linear functions $f(x)=m x+c$.

### 1.1 Slope

For any function $f$, we could define the slope between two points $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ by

$$
\frac{f\left(x_{2}\right)-f\left(x_{1}\right)}{x_{2}-x_{1}}
$$

Recall for example that for the linear function $f(x)=m x+c$, the slope between any two points is always $m$. Another way of expressing the slope between two points is

$$
\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x}
$$

Here, the symbol $\Delta$ means change in, so $\Delta f=f\left(x_{2}\right)-f\left(x_{1}\right)$ and $\Delta x=x_{2}-x_{1}$.


Figure 1.1: The slope is the change in $y$ divided by the change in $x$

We can also look at the slope between two points for a non-linear graph:


Figure 1.2: The slope between two points for non-linear graph

The slope in the above graph tells us how much the function $f$ has risen from $x_{1}$ to $x_{2}$. But now the slope changes depending on $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$, since the graph is curved. It no longer makes sense to talk about the slope of a curve, because different points give different slopes.

### 1.2 Tangent

Instead, we think of each point $x$ as having its own slope. To determine the slope of $f$ at a point $x$, we have to draw the tangent line of $f$ at the point $x$.

Definition 1.1 (Tangent). Let $f$ be a function. The tangent line to $f$ at a point $x$ is the unique straight line that passes through the coordinate $(x, f(x))$ and that is "going in the same direction" as $f$ at $x$.

Another way of saying this is that the tangent line to $f$ at $x$ is the straight line that "just touches" the function curve at $x$.


Figure 1.3: The tangent (or slope) of the function at a point $x$,
Once we have defined the tangent to $f$ at $x$, we can also define the slope, or the rate of change, of $f$ at a point $x$ :

Definition 1.2 (Rate of change). Given a function $f$ and a point $x$, the rate of change of $f$ at $x$ is the slope of the tangent line to $f$ at $x$.

Intuitively, the rate of change of $f$ at $x$ is the rate of change of $f$ at that specific moment. Move $x$ slightly, and the rate of change might increase or decrease.

We conclude this section by saying that the derivative of $f$ at $x$ is exactly the rate of change of $f$ at $x$, and when we talk about differentiating a function, we are just talking about evaluating the slope of the function at each point $x$ :

Definition 1.3 (The derivative of $f$ at $x$ ). The derivative of $f$ at $x$ is the rate of change of $f$ at $x$. In other words, it is the slope of the tangent line to $f$ at $x$. We denote the derivative of $f$ at $x$ by $f^{\prime}(x)$ or $\frac{\mathrm{d} f}{\mathrm{~d} x}(x)$.

### 1.3 Motivation

Why do we care about rates of change and differentiation?

1. Rates of change is of great interest in all sciences. For example: Inflation in economics is the rate of change of the price level in a country.
2. Rates of change help us describe the world: The speed of a car is the rate of change of the car's position. The acceleration of a car is the rate of change of it's speed. Derivatives tell us in what direction something is changing, and how quickly.
3. Differentiation can be used for optimization: Suppose a company's profits is given by a profit function $P(x)$, where $x$ is the output level of its product. Then if the company wanted to maximize its profits, it could look at the derivative of $P(x)$ to find out where the function reaches its maximum.

## 2 Differentiation

Hopefully you now get the idea of differentiating, and why it's important. Now we'll move on to the formal mathematics of differentiation.

### 2.1 Formal Definition of Differentiation

Recall that the derivative of $f$ at $x$, or $f^{\prime}(x)$, is the slope of the tangent line to $f$ at $x$. So how do we calcuate this slope?

1. Let $h>0$ be a small positive number.
2. Recall that the slope between the points $f(x)$ and $f(x+h)$ is given by

$$
\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{(x+h)-x}=\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h} .
$$

3. When $h$ is very small, the slope between $f(x)$ and $f(x+h)$ gets very close to the tangent line to $f$ at $x$.
4. So if we let $h$ "go to zero", the slope value

$$
\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}
$$

goes to the derivative $f^{\prime}(x)$.

To illustrate the point of decreasing $h$, see the figures below:


Figure 2.1: $\operatorname{Big} h$


Figure 2.2: Smaller $h$

Figure 2.3: As $h$ goes towards zero, the slope approaches the tangent to $f$ at $x$.

Definition 2.1 (Derivative). Let $f$ be a function and $x$ a point. The derivative of $f$ at $x$ is given by the formula

$$
f^{\prime}(x):=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h} .
$$



Figure 2.4: Graph of $f(x)=x^{2}$


Figure 2.5: Graph of derivative, $f^{\prime}(x)=2 x$

Above, the left figure shows the graph of $f(x)=x^{2}$, while the right figure shows its derivative, which is $f^{\prime}(x)=2 x$. Notice that when $f(x)$ is decreasing, $f^{\prime}(x)$ is negative, and when $f(x)$ is increasing, $f^{\prime}(x)$ is positive.

### 2.2 Examples of Derivatives

Let's calculate some derivatives.

## Textbook recipe for calculating derivative:

1. Add $h>0$ to $x$ and compute $f(x+h)$.
2. Compute the change in $f, f(x+h)-f(x)$.
3. Write out the slope quotient

$$
\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h} .
$$

4. Simplify the fraction, trying to cancel out as many $h$-terms as possible.
5. Then $f^{\prime}(x)$ is the limit of $\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}$ as $h$ goes to 0 .

Example 2.2 (Linear functions). The derivative of a linear function is an easy one, because the slope is the same everywhere. Take

$$
f(x)=5 x-2 .
$$

For any $h>0$, we have

$$
\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}=\frac{(5(x+h)-2)-(5 x-2)}{h}=\frac{5 h}{h}=5 .
$$

Since the slope remains constant for all values of $h$, we can conclude that the limit of

$$
\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}
$$

as $h$ goes to zero also equals 5 . That is,

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} 5=5,
$$

for all $x$.
So the derivative of $f(x)=5 x-2$ is constant and is equal to 5 , which is what we'd expect, as $f$ is a linear function with slope 5 .
Example 2.3 (The square function). Consider $f(x)=x^{2}$. You can see the curve of this function in the figure above. For any $h>0$, we have

$$
\frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}=\frac{(x+h)^{2}-x^{2}}{h}=\frac{x^{2}+2 x h+h^{2}-x^{2}}{h}=\frac{2 x h+h^{2}}{h}=2 x+h .
$$

We take $h$ to zero, and get the derivative

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h)-f(x)}{h}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0}(2 x+h)=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} 2 x+\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} h=2 x+0=2 x
$$

### 2.3 Table of Derivatives and Rules

## Table of Derivatives:

| $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})$ | $\mathbf{f}^{\prime}(\mathbf{x})$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $x$ | 1 |
| $x^{n}$ | $n x^{n-1}$ |
| $a^{x}$ | $\ln (a) \cdot a^{x}$ |
| $e^{x}$ | $\ln (e) \cdot e^{x}=e^{x}$ |
| $\log _{a}(x)$ | $\frac{1}{\ln (a)} \cdot \frac{1}{x}$ |

## Table of Rules:

| Addition | $F(x)=f(x)+g(x) \Longrightarrow F^{\prime}(x)=f^{\prime}(x)+g^{\prime}(x)$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Coefficient | $F(x)=c f(x) \Longrightarrow F^{\prime}(x)=c f^{\prime}(x)$ |
| Product rule | $F(x)=f(x) \cdot g(x) \Longrightarrow F^{\prime}(x)=f^{\prime}(x) \cdot g(x)+f(x) \cdot g^{\prime}(x)$ |
| Quotient rule | $F(x)=\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \Longrightarrow F^{\prime}(x)=\frac{f^{\prime}(x) \cdot g(x)-f(x) \cdot g^{\prime}(x)}{(g(x))^{2}}$ |
| Chain rule | $F(x)=f(g(x)) \Longrightarrow F^{\prime}(x)=g^{\prime}(x) \cdot f^{\prime}(g(x))$ |

More concisely:

| Addition | $(f+g)^{\prime}=f^{\prime}+g^{\prime}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| Coefficient | $(c f)^{\prime}=c f^{\prime}$ |
| Product rule | $(f g)^{\prime}=f^{\prime} g+f g^{\prime}$ |
| Quotient rule | $\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)^{\prime}=\frac{f^{\prime} g-f g^{\prime}}{g^{2}}$ |
| Chain rule | $(f(g))^{\prime}=g^{\prime} f^{\prime}(g)$ |

A possibly easier way of remembering the chain rule: Suppose that we have $y=f(u)$ and $u=g(x)$. Then $y=f(g(x))$ is a composite function of $x$, and the derivative of $y$ with respect to $x$ is

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d} y}{\mathrm{~d} x}=\frac{\mathrm{d} y}{\mathrm{~d} u} \cdot \frac{\mathrm{~d} u}{\mathrm{~d} x}
$$

## 3 Applications of the Derivative

### 3.1 Knowing When a Function is Increasing/Decreasing

We know the following facts about the derivative of a function:

1. $f(x)$ is increasing if and only if $f^{\prime}(x)>0$.
2. $f(x)$ is decreasing if and only if $f^{\prime}(x)<0$.

This makes it easier to see on what intervals certain functions are increasing or decreasing.
Example 3.1. Consider the function $f(x)=2 \sqrt{x-1}-\frac{x}{2}+1$. We want to know where this function is increasing:

1. We differentiate $f$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
f^{\prime}(x) & =2 \cdot \frac{1}{2}(x-1)^{1 / 2-1}-\frac{1}{2} \\
& =\frac{1}{\sqrt{x-1}}-\frac{1}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

2. $f$ is increasing whenever $f^{\prime}(x)>0$, so we want

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{x-1}}-\frac{1}{2}>0
$$

and rearranging

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{\sqrt{x-1}} & >\frac{1}{2} \\
2 & >\sqrt{x-1} \\
2^{2} & >(\sqrt{x-1})^{2} \\
4 & >x-1 \\
5 & >x .
\end{aligned}
$$

3. So $f^{\prime}(x)$ is positive whenever $x<5$. Equivalently, $f$ is increasing as long as $x<5$.
4. Since $\sqrt{x-1}$ is only defined when $x-1 \geq 0$, our function is only defined for $x \geq 1$. We therefore conclude that $f$ is increasing for $1 \geq x<5$.
5. Similarly, we see that $f^{\prime}<0$ whenever $x>5$, so $f$ is decreasing for $x>5$.


Figure 3.1: The function increase up to 5 and then decreases

### 3.2 Locating Maxima and Minima

Determining where a function $f$ is maximized and/or minimized is one of the most important applications of derivatives.

Definition 3.2 (Maximum). Let $f$ be a function. We say that $x_{*}$ maximizes $f$ if

$$
f\left(x_{*}\right) \geq f(x)
$$

for all $x$.

Definition 3.3 (Minimum). Let $f$ be a function. We say that $x_{*}$ minimizes $f$ if

$$
f\left(x_{*}\right) \leq f(x)
$$

for all $x$.
Definition 3.4 (Stationary Point). Let $f$ be a function. A stationary point of $f$ is a point $x_{*}$ such that

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{*}\right)=0
$$

Important fact: If $\boldsymbol{x}_{*}$ is a maximizer or minimizer of a function $f$, then

$$
f^{\prime}\left(x_{*}\right)=0
$$

In other words, all maximizers and minimizers are stationary points. Why is this?

- The simplest explanation is that at a maximum or a minimum, the tanget to the graph is a horizontal line, and a horizontal line has a slope of zero!
- A more technical explanation: If $x_{*}$ is a maximizer, then $f(x)$ is increasing for $x<x_{*}$ and decreasing for $x>x_{*}$. In other words, $f^{\prime}(x)$ positive when $x<x_{*}$ and negative when $x>x_{*}$. Therefore, the graph of $f^{\prime}$ must be crossing the $x$-axis at $x_{*}$, which means that $f^{\prime}\left(x_{*}\right)=0$.
- And if $x_{*}$ is a minimizer, then we have the reverse situation: $f(x)$ is decreasing for $x<x_{*}$ and increasing for $x>x_{*}$, so $f^{\prime}(x)$ is negative when $x<x_{*}$ and positive when $x>x_{*}$. Again, the graph of $f^{\prime}$ has to cross the $x$-axis at $x_{*}$, so $f^{\prime}\left(x_{*}\right)=0$.

Example 3.5. The function below has a maximum at $x=1$. Therefore, for $x<1, f$ is increasing and $f^{\prime}(x)>0$. And for $x>1, f$ is decreasing and $f^{\prime}(x)<0$. Therefore $f^{\prime}(1)=0$.


Figure 3.2: The function has a maximum at $x=1$.

How can we utilize the fact that $f^{\prime}(x)=0$ for all minimizers and maximizers? We can use it to locate maximums and minimums:

Example 3.6. A company produces one product (televisons) and it has to decide on how many televisions to produce this year. The company knows that if it produces $x$ televisions this year, its profit will be

$$
P(x)=-4 x^{2}+400 x
$$

Since the company wants to maximize profits, it wants to maximize $P(x)$ with respect to $x$.

1. We differentiate $P$ :

$$
P^{\prime}(x)=-4 \cdot 2 x+400=400-8 x .
$$

2. We know that any maximizer (or minimizer) $x_{*}$ will satisfy $P^{\prime}\left(x_{*}\right)=0$. So we set up the equality

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =P^{\prime}(x)=400-8 x \\
8 x & =400 \\
x & =50 .
\end{aligned}
$$

3. So $x=50$ is the only point which satisfies $P^{\prime}(x)$. And knowing the shape of a quadratic function of the form $P(x)=-4 x^{2}+400 x$, as displayed in the graph below, we can deduce that $x=50$ must be a maximizer.

4. So $x_{*}:=50$ maximizes the company's profits, which is

$$
P(100)=-4 \cdot 50^{2}+400 \cdot 50=20,000-10,000=10,000
$$

### 3.3 Classifying Stationary Points

In the last section, we saw that minimizers and maximizers of $f$ are also stationary points of $f: f^{\prime}(x)=0$. Therefore, locating the stationary points of $f$ can help us in locating a maximizer or a minimizer of $f$. However, there are three types of stationary points:


Figure 3.3: Maximum


Figure 3.4: Minimum


Figure 3.5: Inflection

So how do we know when a stationary point is a maximizer or a minimizer? In the example of maximizing profits above, we cheated a bit, since we knew what the graph looked like. But often, we want to maximize more complicated graphs and we need a mathematically sound way of checking if a stationary point is a maximizer, minimizer or a point of inflection. Thankfully, this can easily be done by taking the derivative of the derivative.

When differentiating a function $f$, we get a new function $f^{\prime}$. We can also differentiate this function, to get a derivative of a derivative: The derivative of $f^{\prime}$ is denoted $f^{\prime \prime}$ or $\frac{\mathrm{d}^{2} f}{\mathrm{~d} x^{2}}$. Definition 3.7 (First- and Second-Order Derivative). Let $f$ be a function. Then $f^{\prime}$ is called its first-order derivative and $f^{\prime \prime}$ its second-order derivative.

Example 3.8. Suppose a car is driving along a straight line. We let $p(t)$ denote the position of the car at time $t$. Then, by differentiating $p$, we get a new function $p^{\prime}(t)$ which is the car's speed at time $t$. Then, differentiating $p^{\prime}$, we get another function $p^{\prime \prime}(t)$ which is the car's acceleration at time $t$.

We have the following, very useful result:
Theorem 3.9 (Second-order condition). Suppose $f$ is a function and $x_{*}$ is a stationary point, so a point that satisfies $f^{\prime}\left(x_{*}\right)=0$. Then if

1. $f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{*}\right)<0, x_{*}$ is a maximizer.
2. $f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{*}\right)>0, x_{*}$ is a minimizer.
3. $f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{*}\right)=0$, it could be a minimizer, maximizer or a point of inflection.

Sketch proof.

1. If $x_{*}$ is a maximizer, then $f(x)$ is increasing for $x<x_{*}$ and decreasing for $x>x_{*}$. In other words, $f^{\prime}(x)>0$ for $x<x_{*}$ and $f^{\prime}(x)<0$ for $x>x_{*}$. This means than $f^{\prime}$ is decreasing at $x_{*}$, since when $x<x_{*}, f^{\prime}(x)$ is positive and when $x>x_{*}, f^{\prime}(x)$ is negative. Therefore $f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{*}\right)<0$.
2. If $x_{*}$ is a minimizer, then $f(x)$ is decreasing for $x<x_{*}$ and increasing for $x>x_{*}$. In other words, $f^{\prime}(x)<0$ for $x<x_{*}$ and $f^{\prime}(x)>0$ for $x>x_{*}$. This means than $f^{\prime}$ is increasing at $x_{*}$, since when $x<x_{*}, f^{\prime}(x)$ is negative and when $x>x_{*}, f^{\prime}(x)$ is positive. Therefore $f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{*}\right)>0$.
3. If $f^{\prime \prime}\left(x_{*}\right)=0$, then we can't say anything. The functions $x^{3}, x^{4}$ and $-x^{4}$ all satisfy $f^{\prime}(0)=f^{\prime \prime}(0)=0$, but the first function has a point of inflection, the second has a minimizer and the third has a maximizer.
