# Calculus 1 - 09

# Applications of differential calculus

# L'Hospital's rule

#### Theorem (L'Hospital's rule).

Assume that  $a \in \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty, \infty\}$ , *I* is a neighbourhood of *a*, the functions *f* and *g* are differentiable

on  $I \setminus \{a\}$  and  $g(x) \neq 0$ ,  $g'(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in I \setminus \{a\}$ . Assume moreover that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \to a} |f(x)| = \lim_{x \to a} |g(x)| = \infty.$$

If  $\exists \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = b \in \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  then  $\exists \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = b$ .

Remark. The theorem holds for right-hand and left-hand limits as well.

**Proof.** We prove it in the case when  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  (for right-hand limit).

Assume that  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \to a^+} g(x) = 0$  and  $\exists \lim_{x \to a^+} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Extend the functions f and g such that f(a) = g(a) = 0 and let  $x \in I$ , x > a.

Then f and g are continuous on [a, x] and differentiable on (a, x),

so by Cauchy's mean value theorem there exists  $c \in (a, x)$  such that

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

Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence such that  $x_n \rightarrow a$  and choose  $c_n \in (a, x_n)$  for all n. Then  $c_n \rightarrow a$  and  $\frac{f(x_n)}{g(x_n)} = \frac{f'(c_n)}{g'(c_n)}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Therefore  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x_n)}{g(x_n)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(c_n)}{g'(c_n)} = b$  and by the sequential criterion for the limit,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = b$ .

## **Undefined forms**

**Remark.** The theorem can be applied for limits of the following type:

1) 
$$\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\infty}{\infty} \implies$$
 L'Hospital's rule can be applied directly  
2)  $0 \cdot \infty \implies$  transformation:  $f(x) g(x) = \frac{f(x)}{\frac{1}{g(x)}}$  or  $f(x) g(x) = \frac{g(x)}{\frac{1}{f(x)}}$   
3)  $\infty - \infty \implies f(x) - g(x) = \frac{1}{h(x)} - \frac{1}{k(x)} = \frac{k(x) - h(x)}{h(x) k(x)} \quad \left(\frac{0}{0}\right)$ 

4) 
$$0^0$$
,  $1^{\infty}$ ,  $\infty^0 \implies (f(x))^{g(x)} = e^{g(x) \cdot \ln(f(x))}$ 

# Exercises

Pages 171-172 of the pdf file (first 9 examples): https://math.bme.hu/~tasnadi/merninf\_anal\_1/anal1\_elm.pdf

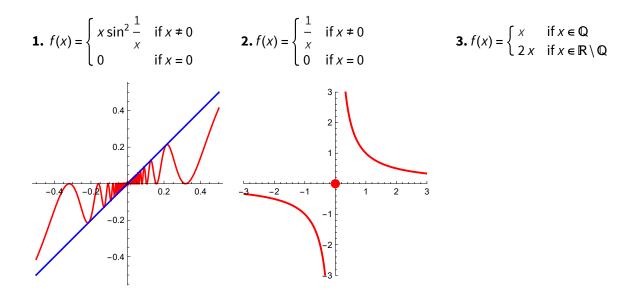
Pages 72-73 of the pdf file, exercise 26: https://math.bme.hu/~tasnadi/merninf\_anal\_1/anal1\_gyak.pdf In exercises 26. g), h) the L'Hospital's rule cannot be applied.

# Local properties and the derivative

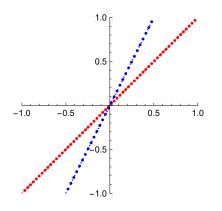
	<b>Definition.</b> Assume that $x_0 \in D_f$ and there exists $\delta > 0$ such that for all $x, y \in D_f$ , if $x_0 - \delta < x < x_0 < y < x_0 + \delta$ ,								
then	$\begin{cases} f(x) \le f(x_0) \le f(y) \\ f(x) \ge f(x_0) \ge f(y) \\ f(x) < f(x_0) < f(y) \\ f(x) > f(x_0) > f(y) \end{cases}$ . Then we say that f is a	locally increasing locally decreasing strictly locally increasing strictly locally decreasing	at x <sub>0</sub> .						

**Remarks.** (1) If f is monotonically increasing on (a, b), then f is locally increasing for all  $x_0 \in (a, b)$ .

- (2) If f is locally increasing **for all**  $x_0 \in (a, b)$ , then f is monotonically increasing on (a, b).
- (3) However, if f is locally increasing at  $x_0$  then it doesn't imply that there exists a neighbourhood  $B(x_0, r)$  where f is monotonically increasing. The following functions are locally increasing at  $x_0 = 0$  but on any interval that contains 0, the functions are not monotonically increasing.



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**Theorem.** Assume that *f* is differentiable at *x*<sub>0</sub>.

- (1) If f is locally increasing at  $x_0$  then  $f'(x_0) \ge 0$ .
- (2) If f is locally decreasing at  $x_0$  then  $f'(x_0) \le 0$ .
- (3) If  $f'(x_0) > 0$  then f is strictly locally increasing at  $x_0$ .
- (4) If  $f'(x_0) < 0$  then f is strictly locally decreasing at  $x_0$ .

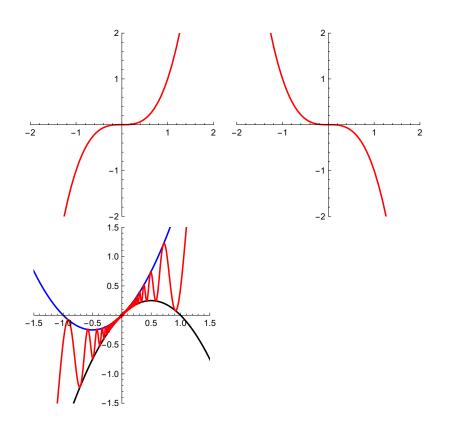
**Proof.** (1) If f is locally increasing at  $x_0$  then  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that

 $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \implies \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \ge 0.$ (If  $x < x_0$  then  $x - x_0 < 0$  and  $f(x) - f(x_0) \le 0$  and if  $x > x_0$  then  $x - x_0 > 0$  and  $f(x) - f(x_0) \ge 0.$ ) Since f is differentiable at  $x_0$  then  $f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \ge 0.$ (2) Similar to case (1). (3) If  $f'(x_0) = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} > 0$ , then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta$  then  $\frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} > 0.$   $\implies \text{if } \begin{cases} x_0 < x < x_0 + \delta \\ x_0 - \delta < x < x_0 \end{cases}$  then  $\begin{cases} f(x) > f(x_0) \\ f(x) < f(x_0) \end{cases}$   $\implies f \text{ is strictly locally increasing at } x_0.$ (3) Similar to case (4).

**Remarks.** Assume that *f* is differentiable at *x*<sub>0</sub>.

(1) If *f* is strictly locally increasing at  $x_0$  then it doesn't imply that  $f'(x_0) > 0$ . If *f* is strictly locally increasing at  $x_0$  then  $f'(x_0) \ge 0$ , since  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \implies \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} > 0$ , but for the limit  $\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \ge 0$ . For example  $f(x) = x^3$  is strictly locally increasing at  $x_0 = 0$ , but  $f'(0) = 3x^2 |_{x=0} = 0$ .

**1.** 
$$f(x) = x^3$$
  
**2.**  $f(x) = -x^3$   
**3.**  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x + x^2 \sin\left(\frac{10}{x}\right) & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$ 



- (2) If  $f'(x_0) \ge 0$  then it doesn't imply that f is locally increasing at  $x_0$ . For example  $f(x) = -x^3$  is not locally increasing at  $x_0 = 0$ , but  $f'(0) = \ge 0$ .
- (3) If  $f'(x_0) > 0$  then it doesn't imply that f is monotonically increasing on an interval containing  $x_0$ .

For example, let f be a function such that  $x - x^2 \le f(x) \le x + x^2 \quad \forall x \implies f(0) = 0$ . If x > 0 then  $1 - x \le \frac{f(x)}{x} = \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} \le 1 + x$ , If x < 0 then  $1 - x \ge \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} \ge 1 + x$ , so by the sandwich theorem  $f'(0) = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = 1 > 0$ . For example, let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x + x^2 \sin\left(\frac{10}{x}\right) & \text{if } x \neq 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$ 

### Darboux's theorem

**Theorem.** Assume that  $f : [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable and f'(a) < y < f'(b) or f'(b) < y < f'(a). Then there exists  $c \in (a, b)$  such that f'(c) = y.

**Remark.** We say that f' has the intermediate value property of Darboux property.

**Proof.** 1) Let  $g:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $g(x) = f(x) - y \cdot x \implies g$  is differentiable and g'(x) = f'(x) - y. 2) Assume that  $f'(a) < y < f'(b) \implies g'(a) = f'(a) - y < 0 < f'(b) - y < g'(b)$ 3) g is differentiable, so it is continuous on [a, b]

 $\implies$  by Weierstrass extreme value theorem it has a minimum and a maximum on [a, b].

4) Since  $\begin{cases} g'(a) < 0 \\ g'(b) > 0 \end{cases}$  then  $\begin{cases} g \text{ is strictly locally decreasing at } a \\ g \text{ is strictly locally increasing at } b \end{cases}$  $\implies g \text{ does not have a minimum at } a \text{ and } b \text{ but on the open interval } (a, b)$  $\implies \text{ there exists } c \in (a, b) \text{ such that } g \text{ has a local minimum at } c \\ \implies g'(c) = 0 = f'(c) - y \implies f'(c) = y \text{ for some } c \in (a, b). \end{cases}$ 

٦	-1	if <i>x</i> < 0			
<b>Example.</b> The sign function or signum function is defined as $\operatorname{sgn} x = \begin{cases} x = x \\ y = x \\ y$	0	if $x = 0$ .			
l	1	if <i>x</i> > 0			
This function is not continuous at $x_0 = 0$ , so there is no function	his function is not continuous at $x_0 = 0$ , so there is no function $f : \mathbb{R} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$				
for which $f'(x) = \operatorname{sgn} x$ on $\mathbb{R}$ (or on any interval that contains	<i>x</i> <sub>0</sub> =	0).			

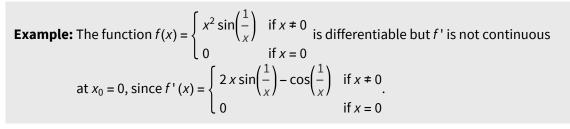
**Remark.** From Darboux's theorem it follows that if *f* ' is not continuous at a point then *f* ' cannot have a discontinuity of the first type at that point, so at least one of the one-sided limits doesn't exist or exists but is not finite

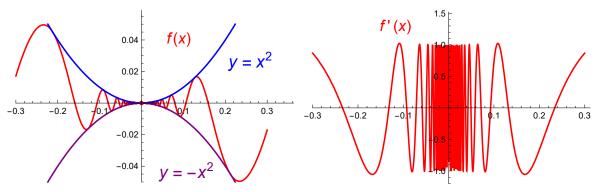
 $\implies$  f' has an essential discontinuity at the given point.

**Statement.** If *f* is differentiable on  $[a, a + \delta]$  ( $\delta > 0$ ) and *f* ' has a discontinuity at *a* then the limit  $\lim_{x \to a \neq 0} f(x)$  doesn't exist or  $\exists \lim_{x \to a \neq 0} f(x) \notin \mathbb{R}$ .

## Continuously differentiable functions

**Definition.** Assume that *I* is a neighbourhood of  $a \in D_f$  and *f* is differentiable on  $I \cap D_f$ . Then *f* is **continuous differentiable at** *a* if *f*' is continuous at *a*. *f* is **continuously differentiable** on *A* if *f* is continuous differentiable  $\forall x \in A$ . Notation:  $C^1(A) = \{f : f \text{ is continuously differentiable on } A\}.$ 





## Higher order derivatives

**Definition.** If f' is differentiable at x then we say that f is twice differentiable at x and the second derivative or second order derivative of f at  $x_0$  is f''(x) = (f')'(x). Differentiating f repeatedly, we get the third, ..., nth derivative of f.

Notation: 
$$f''(x) = f^{(2)}(x) = \frac{d^2 f(x)}{d x^2}$$
  
 $f'''(x) = f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{d^3 f(x)}{d x^3}$   
...  
 $f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{d^n f(x)}{d x^n}$   
By definition:  $f^{(0)}(x) = f(x)$ 

**Example:**  $f(x) = \sin x \implies f'(x) = \cos x, f''(x) = -\sin x, f'''(x) = -\cos x, f^{(4)}(x) = \sin x, \dots$  $f(x) = e^x \implies f^{(n)}(x) = e^x \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ 

# Investigation of differentiable functions

## Monotonicity on an interval

**Theorem.** Assume that  $f:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable. Then (1) f is monotonically increasing  $\iff f'(x) \ge 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ (2) f is monotonically decreasing  $\iff f'(x) \le 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ (3) f is constant  $\iff f'(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ (4) f'(x) > 0 for all  $x \in (a, b) \implies f$  is strictly monotonically increasing (5) f'(x) < 0 for all  $x \in (a, b) \implies f$  is strictly monotonically decreasing

#### **Proof.** (1)

- (i) If *f* is monotonically increasing then *f* is locally monotonically increasing for all  $x \in (a, b)$  $\implies f'(x) \ge 0 \quad \forall x \in (a, b).$
- (ii) Assume that  $f'(x) \ge 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ . Let  $a < x_1 < x_2 < b$  and apply Lagrange's mean value theorem for  $[x_1, x_2]$ . Then there exists  $c \in (x_1, x_2) \subset (a, b)$  such that

$$\frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} = f'(c) \ge 0 \implies f(x_2) \ge f(x_1)$$

Therefore if  $x_1 < x_2$  then  $f(x_1) \le f(x_2)$ , so f is monotonically increasing on (a, b).

- (2) Similar to case (1).
- (3) *f* is constant  $\iff$  *f* is monotonically increasing and decreasing  $\iff$  *f*'(*x*)  $\ge$  0 and *f*'(*x*)  $\le$  0  $\forall$  *x*  $\in$  (*a*, *b*)  $\iff$  *f*'(*x*) = 0  $\forall$  *x*  $\in$  (*a*, *b*)

(4) and (5): similar to case (1) (ii)

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Remark. Statements (4) and (5) cannot be reversed.
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For example,  $f(x) = x^3$  is strictly monotonically increasing on  $\mathbb{R}$ , however f'(x) > 0 does not hold for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , since  $f'(x) = 3x^2 \implies f'(0) = 0$ .

**Remark.** If the domain of *f* is not an interval then the above theorem is not true, as the following examples show.

1) Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = \{x\} = x - [x]$ . Then f is differentiable on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$ and f'(x) = 1 > 0 for all  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$  but f is not monotonically increasing.

2) Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z} \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , f(x) = [x]. Then f is differentiable on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$ and f'(x) = 0 for all  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Z}$  but f is not constant.

#### Local extremum, sufficient conditions

**Definition.** If f is differentiable at  $x_0$  and  $f'(x_0) = 0$  then  $x_0$  is a **stationary point** of f. If  $f'(x_0) = 0$  or f is not differentiable at  $x_0$  then  $x_0$  is a **critical point** of f.

**Remark.** Recall that if f is differentiable at  $x_0 \in \text{int } D_f$  and f has a local extremum at  $x_0$  then  $f'(x_0) = 0$ . This is a necessary condition for the existence of a local extremum. The next two theorems formulate sufficient conditions.

**Theorem (Sufficient condition for a local extremum, first derivative test).** Assume that *f* is differentiable at  $x_0 \in \operatorname{int} D_f$ . If  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and f' changes sign at  $x_0$ , then *f* has a local extremum at  $x_0$ . Namely, if  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and f' is (strictly) locally  $\begin{cases} \operatorname{increasing} \\ \operatorname{decreasing} \end{cases}$  at  $x_0$ then *f* has a (strict) local  $\begin{cases} \operatorname{minimum} \\ \operatorname{maximum} \end{cases}$  at  $x_0$ .

**Proof.** Assume that  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and f' is locally increasing at  $x_0$ (that is, f' changes sign from negative to positive)  $\implies \exists \ \delta > 0$  such that  $\begin{cases} f'(x) \le 0 \text{ if } x_0 - \delta < x < x_0 \\ f'(x) \ge 0 \text{ if } x_0 < x < x_0 + \delta \end{cases}$  $\implies \begin{cases} f \text{ is monotonically decreasing on } (x_0 - \delta, x_0) \\ f \text{ is monotonically increasing on } (x_0, x_0 + \delta) \end{cases}$ 

$$\implies \begin{cases} f(x) \ge f(x_0) \text{ if } x_0 - \delta < x < x_0 \\ f(x) \ge f(x_0) \text{ if } x_0 < x < x_0 + \delta \end{cases} \implies f \text{ has a local minimum at } x_0.$$

Theorem (Sufficient condition for a local extremum, second derivative test).

Assume that f is twice differentiable at  $x_0 \in \text{int } D_f$ .

If  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and  $f''(x_0) \neq 0$  then f has a local extremum at  $x_0$ .

If  $\begin{cases} f''(x_0) > 0\\ f''(x_0) < 0 \end{cases}$  then *f* has a strict local  $\begin{cases} minimum \\ maximum \end{cases}$  at  $x_0$ .

- **Proof.**  $f''(x_0) > 0 \implies f'$  is locally increasing at  $x_0$  and  $f'(x_0) = 0$  $\implies$  by the previous theorem f has a local minimum at  $x_0$ .
- **Remark.** The sign change of f' at  $x_0$  is only a sufficient but not a necessary condition for the existence of a local extremum at  $x_0$ .

For example, if 
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \left(2 + \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)\right) & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

then f is differentiable for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . At x = 0:

$$f'(0) = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x^2 \left(2 + \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)\right)}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} x \left(2 + \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)\right) = 0 \text{ (since it is } 0 \cdot \text{bounded),}$$
  
so the necessary condition holds at  $x_0 = 0$ .

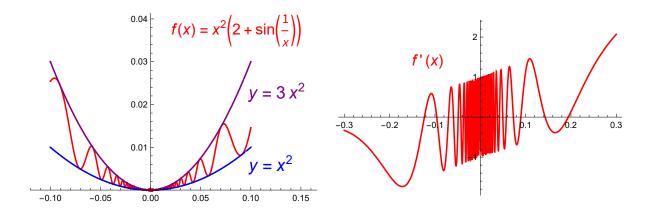
However, in any neighbourhood of  $x_0 = 0$ :

f has strictly monotonic increasing and decreasing sections  $\implies$ 

f' has both positive and negative values  $\implies$ 

f' doesn't change sign at  $x_0 = 0$ .

Yet f has a local extreme value at  $x_0 = 0$ , and it is even an absolute minimum here.



Local extremum and higher order derivatives

**Remark.** If  $f'(x_0) = 0$  and  $f''(x_0) = 0$  then it cannot be decided whether f has a local extremum at  $x_0$ . For example:

1)  $f(x) = x^3$  does not have a local extremum at  $x_0 = 0$ , 2)  $f(x) = x^4$  has a local minimum at  $x_0 = 0$ , 3)  $f(x) = -x^4$  has a local maximum at  $x_0 = 0$ , and in each case f'(0) = f''(0) = 0.

**Theorem.** (1) Assume that f is 2k times differentiable at  $x_0, k \ge 1$ . If  $f'(x_0) = \dots = f^{(2k-1)}(x_0) = 0$  and  $\begin{cases} f^{(2k)}(x_0) > 0 \\ f^{(2k)}(x_0) < 0 \end{cases}$ then f has a strict local  $\begin{cases} \text{minimum} \\ \text{maximum} \end{cases}$  at  $x_0$ .

> (2) Assume that f is 2k + 1 times differentiable at  $x_0, k \ge 1$ . If  $f'(x_0) = \dots = f^{(2k)}(x_0) = 0$  and  $f^{(2k+1)}(x_0) \ne 0$ , then f is strictly monotonic in a neighbourhood of  $x_0$ , so f doesn't have a local extremum at  $x_0$ .

**Remark.** Part (1) in other words: If the first non-zero derivative (after the first one) has an even order

then f has a local extremum at  $x_0$ .

**Proof.** (1) We prove the statement for a strict local minimum by induction.

(i) If k = 1 then the statement is true. (ii) Assume that the statement holds for k - 1 and let g = f''.  $(\Longrightarrow g' = f''', ..., g^{(2k-3)} = f^{(2k-1)}, g^{(2k-2)} = f^{(2k)}.)$ From the induction hypothesis it follows that if  $g'(x_0) = ... = g^{(2k-3)}(x_0) = 0$  and  $g^{(2k-2)}(x_0) > 0$  then the function g = f'' has a strict local minimum at  $x_0$ . (iii) We want to prove that if  $f'(x_0) = f''(x_0) = f'''(x_0) = ... = f^{(2k-1)}(x_0) = 0$  and  $f^{(2k)}(x_0) > 0$  then f has a strict local minimum at  $x_0$ . Since  $f''(x_0) = 0$  and f'' has a strict local minimum at  $x_0$ , then  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that f''(x) > 0,  $\forall x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta) \setminus \{x_0\}$   $\Longrightarrow f'$  is strictly monotonically increasing on  $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$  $\Longrightarrow f$  has a strict local minimum at  $x_0$ .

(2) Assume that  $f'(x_0) = f''(x_0) = \dots = f^{(2k)}(x_0) = 0$  and  $f^{(2k+1)}(x_0) \neq 0$ . Let g = f', then  $g'(x_0) = \dots = g^{(2k-1)}(x_0) = 0$  and  $g^{(2k)}(x_0) \neq 0$ .  $\implies$  by part (1), g = f' has a strict local extremum at  $x_0$ . Since  $f'(x_0) = 0$ , then either f'(x) > 0 or f'(x) < 0,  $\forall x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta) \setminus \{x_0\}$   $\implies f$  is strictly monotonic on  $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$  $\implies f$  doesn't have a local extremum at  $x_0$ .

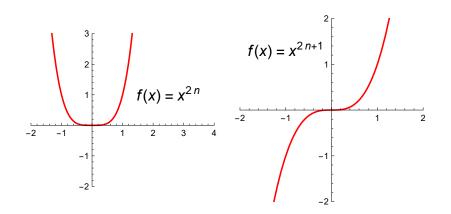
**Example.**  $f(x) = x^n$  is *n* times differentiable,

$$f^{(k)}(x) = n(n-1)(n-2)...(n-k+1)x^{n-k}, \quad k = 1, 2, ..., n-1$$
  

$$f^{(n)}(x) = n!$$
  

$$\implies \text{ if } x_0 = 0, \text{ then } f'(0) = f''(0) = ... = f^{(n-1)}(0) = 0, \quad f^{(n)}(0) = n! > 0$$
  

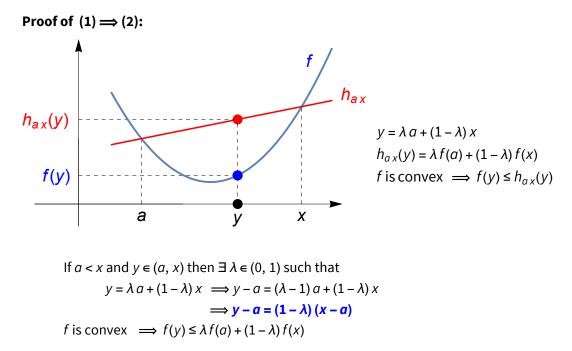
$$\implies \text{ at } x_0 = 0 \text{ f has a local minimum if } n \text{ is even and } f \text{ doesn't have a local extremum if } n \text{ is odd}$$



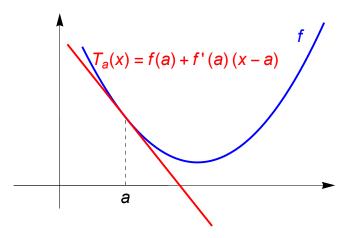
## Convexity / concavity on an interval

**Theorem (Necessary and sufficient condition for convexity).** If *f* is differentiable on the interval *I*, then the following statements are equivalent. (1) *f* is convex on *I* (2)  $f(x) \ge f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$  if  $x, a \in I$ (3) *f*' is monotonically increasing on *I* 

**Remark.** The geometrical meaning of (2) is that for all  $a \in I$ , the graph of f lies above the tangent line at a.

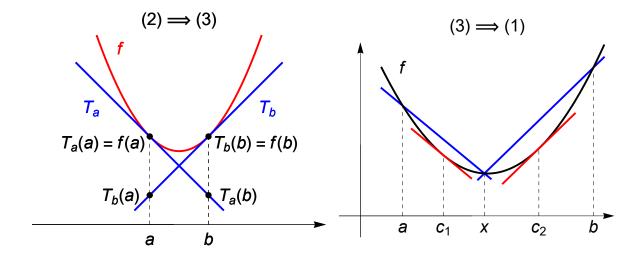


 $\Rightarrow f(y) - f(a) \le (\lambda - 1) f(a) + (1 - \lambda) f(x)$   $\Rightarrow f(y) - f(a) \le (1 - \lambda) (f(x) - f(a))$ Dividing both sides by  $y - a = (1 - \lambda) (x - a) > 0 \Rightarrow \frac{f(y) - f(a)}{y - a} \le \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$ If  $y \rightarrow a +$ , then  $f'(a) \le \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \Rightarrow f(x) \ge f(a) + f'(a) (x - a)$  if  $x, a \in I$ . If a > x then the proof is similar and if a = x then the statement is obvious.



**Proof of (2)** 
$$\Longrightarrow$$
 (3): Let  $T_a(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x - a)$ .  
If  $a, b \in I$ ,  $a < b \implies T_a(a) = f(a) \ge T_b(a)$  and  $T_a(b) \le f(b) = T_b(b)$ 

$$\implies f'(a) = \frac{T_a(b) - T_a(a)}{b - a} = \frac{T_a(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \le \frac{f(b) - T_b(a)}{b - a} = \frac{T_b(b) - T_b(a)}{b - a} = f'(b)$$
$$\implies f' \text{ is monotonically increasing on } I$$



Proof of (3) 
$$\Longrightarrow$$
 (1): Let  $a, b \in I$ ,  $a < b, \lambda \in (0, 1)$  for which  $x = \lambda a + (1 - \lambda) b$   
 $\Longrightarrow x - a = (1 - \lambda) (b - a)$   
 $b - x = \lambda(b - a)$ 

Then by Lagrange's mean value theorem there exist  $c_1 \in (a, x)$  and  $c_2 \in (x, b)$  such that

$$\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = f'(c_1) \text{ and } f'(c_2) = \frac{f(b) - f(x)}{b - x}.$$

f' is monotonically increasing  $\implies f'(c_1) \leq f'(c_2)$ 

$$\implies \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} \le \frac{f(b) - f(x)}{b - x} \implies \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{(1 - \lambda)(b - a)} \le \frac{f(b) - f(x)}{\lambda(b - a)} \implies f(x) \le \lambda f(a) + (1 - \lambda)f(b)$$
$$\implies f \text{ is convex on } I.$$

#### Consequence (Necessary and sufficient condition for convexity).

Assume that *f* is twice differentiable on the interval *I*. Then

(1)  $f''(x) \ge 0 \forall x \in I$  if and only if f is convex on I.

(2)  $f''(x) \le 0 \forall x \in I$  if and only if f is concave on I.

#### Consequence.

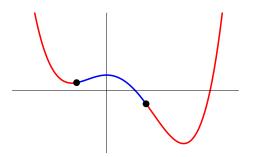
Assume that f is twice differentiable on the interval I. Then (1) If  $f''(x) > 0 \forall x \in I$  then f is strictly convex on I. (2) If  $f''(x) < 0 \forall x \in I$  then f is strictly concave on I.

## Inflection point

**Definition.** Assume that f is continuous at  $a \in int D_f$  and there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

*f* is convex on  $(a - \delta, a)$  and concave on  $(a, a + \delta)$ or *f* is concave on  $(a - \delta, a)$  and convex on  $(a, a + \delta)$ .

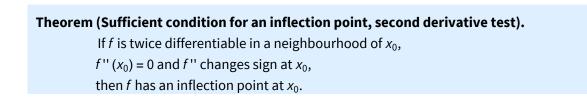
Then *a* is called a point of inflection of the function *f*.



### **Theorem (Necessary condition for an inflection point, second derivative test).** If *f* is twice differentiable at $x_0$ and *f* has an inflection point at $x_0$ then $f''(x_0) = 0$ .

**Proof.** If *f* is convex on  $(x_0 - \delta, x_0]$  and concave on  $[x_0, x_0 + \delta)$  then

f' is monotonically increasing on  $(x_0 - \delta, x_0]$  and monotonically decreasing on  $[x_0, x_0 + \delta)$  $\implies$  f' has a local maximum at  $x_0 \implies$  f''  $(x_0) = 0$ .



**Theorem (Sufficient condition for an inflection point, third derivative test).** If *f* is three times differentiable in a neighbourhood of  $x_0$ ,  $f''(x_0) = 0$  and  $f'''(x_0) \neq 0$ , then *f* has an inflection point at  $x_0$ .

## Inflection point and higher order derivatives

**Theorem.** (1) Assume that f is 2k + 1 times differentiable at  $x_0, k \ge 1$ . If  $f''(x_0) = \dots = f^{(2k)}(x_0) = 0$  and  $f^{(2k+1)}(x_0) \neq 0$ then f has an inflection point at  $x_0$ .

- (2) Assume that f is 2 k times differentiable at  $x_0, k \ge 1$ . If  $f''(x_0) = \dots = f^{(2k-1)}(x_0) = 0$  and  $f^{(2k)}(x_0) \ne 0$ , then f is strictly convex or concave in a neighbourhood of  $x_0$ , so f doesn't have an inflection point at  $x_0$ .
- **Remark.** Part (1) in other words: If the first non-zero derivative (after the second one) has an odd order then f has a local extremum at  $x_0$ .

#### Linear asymptotes

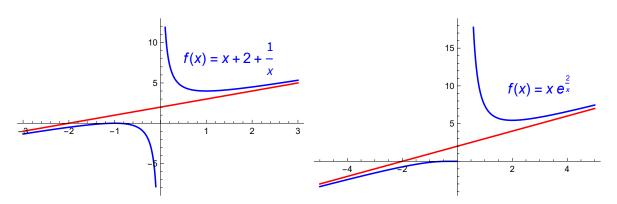
- **Definition.** The straight line x = a is a **vertical asymptote** of the function f if  $\lim_{x \to a_+} f(x) = \pm \infty \text{ or } \lim_{x \to a_-} f(x) = \pm \infty.$
- **Definition.** The straight line g(x) = Ax + B is a **linear asymptote** of the function f at  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$  if  $\lim_{x \to \infty} (f(x) g(x)) = 0$  or  $\lim_{x \to -\infty} (f(x) g(x)) = 0$ .

g(x) is a horizontal asymptote if A = 0 and an oblique or slant asymptote if  $A \neq 0$ .

**Statement.** g(x) = Ax + B is a linear asymptote of f at  $\pm \infty$  if and only if  $A = \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \frac{f(x)}{x}$  and  $B = \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} (f(x) - Ax)$ 

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \to \frac{\pi}{2} \pm} \tan x = \mp \infty \implies x = \frac{\pi}{2}$  is a vertical asymptote of  $f(x) = \tan(x)$ .

**Example.** If  $f(x) = x + 2 + \frac{1}{x}$  then g(x) = x + 2 is a linear asymptote of f at  $\pm \infty$ .



**Example.** If  $f(x) = x e^{\frac{2}{x}}$  then g(x) = x + 2 is a linear asymptote of f at  $\pm \infty$ .

**Solution.** 
$$A = \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \frac{f(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \frac{x e^{\frac{x}{x}}}{x} = \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} e^{\frac{2}{x}} = e^{0} = 1$$
  
 $B = \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \left(x e^{\frac{2}{x}} - x\right) = \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \frac{e^{\frac{2}{x}} - 1}{\frac{1}{x}}$ . Let  $y = \frac{2}{x}$ , then  $B = \lim_{y \to 0^{\pm}} \frac{e^{y} - 1}{\frac{1}{2} \cdot y} = 2$ ,  
using that  $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^{x} - 1}{x} = 1$ . The limit can also be calculate with the L'Hospital's rule.  
So  $g(x) = x + 2$ .

## Extreme values on a closed interval

**Remark.** If *f* is continuous on a closed and bounded interval then by the

Weierstrass extreme value theorem *f* has a minimum and a maximum. The possible points are:

1) the points where *f* is not differentiable

2) the points where the derivative of *f* is 0

3) the endpoints of the interval

Finally the largest and smallest of the possible values must be selected.

# Analyzing graphs of functions

#### Summary of the steps:

- 1) finding the domain of *f*
- 2) finding the zeros of *f*
- 3) parity, periodicity
- 4) limits at the endpoints of the intervals constituting the domain
- 5) investigation of  $f' \implies$  monotonicity, extreme values
- 6) investigation of  $f'' \implies$  convexity/concavity, inflection points
- 7) linear asymptotes
- 8) plotting the graph of f, finding the range of f

## Exercises

https://math.bme.hu/~nagyi/calculus1/functions.pdf

# Examples

1. 
$$f(x) = \frac{x}{x^3 + 1}$$

$$\begin{split} D_f &= (-\infty, -1) \cup (-1, \infty); \ f(x) = 0 \iff x = 0; \\ \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} f(x) &= 0, \ \lim_{x \to -1+0} f(x) = -\infty, \ \lim_{x \to -1-0} f(x) = +\infty \end{split}$$

#### Monotonicity, local extremum:

$$f'(x) = \frac{1-2x^3}{(x^3+1)^2} = 0 \iff x = \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}} \approx 0.79$$

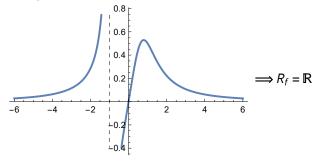
x	x<-1	$-1 < x < \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}}$	$\mathbf{X} = \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}}$	$x > \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{2}}$	
f'	+	+	0	-	
f	7	7	$\max: \frac{\sqrt[3]{4}}{3} \approx 0.53$	Ŕ	

#### Convexity / concavity, inflection points:

$$f''(x) = \frac{6x^2(x^3 - 2)}{(x^3 + 1)^3} = 0 \iff x = 0 \text{ or } x = \sqrt[3]{2} \approx 1.26$$

x	x<-1	-1 <x<0< th=""><th>x=0</th><th><math>0 &lt; x &lt; \sqrt[3]{2}</math></th><th><math>\mathbf{x} = \sqrt[3]{2}</math></th><th><math>x &gt; \sqrt[3]{2}</math></th></x<0<>	x=0	$0 < x < \sqrt[3]{2}$	$\mathbf{x} = \sqrt[3]{2}$	$x > \sqrt[3]{2}$
f''	+	-	0	-	0	+
f	U	$\cap$		$\cap$	$infl: \frac{\sqrt[3]{2}}{3} \approx 0.42$	U

The graph of *f*:



# 2. $f(x) = 2 \sin x + \sin 2x$

 $D_f = \mathbb{R}; f \text{ is odd};$ 

*f* is periodic with period  $2\pi \implies$  it may be assumed that  $0 \le x \le 2\pi$ ;  $\implies$  on this interval  $f(x) = 0 \iff x = 0$  or  $x = \pi$  or  $x = 2\pi$ 

#### Monotonicity, local extremum:

$$f'(x) = 2\cos x + 2\cos 2x = 2(\cos x + \cos^2 x - (1 - \cos^2 x)) =$$
  
= 2 \cdot (2\cos^2 x + \cos x - 1) = 0 \Rightarrow (\cos x)\_{1,2} = \frac{-1 \pm 3}{4} \Rightarrow \cos x = -1 \cos x \cos x = \frac{1}{2}

$$\implies x_1 = \frac{\pi}{3}, x_2 = \pi, x_3 = \frac{5\pi}{3}$$

x	0	$\left(0, \frac{\pi}{3}\right)$	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	$\left(\frac{\pi}{3},\pi\right)$	π	$\left(\pi, \frac{5\pi}{3}\right)$	$\frac{5\pi}{3}$	$\left(\frac{5\pi}{3}, 2\pi\right)$	2π
f'	+	+	0	-	0	-	0	+	+
f		Л	$\max:\frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2}$	ר		ĸ	$\min:-\frac{3\sqrt{3}}{2}$	λ	

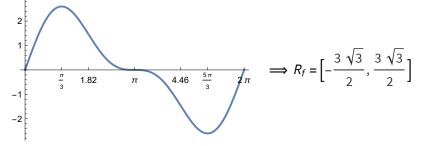
#### Convexity / concavity, inflection points:

 $f''(x) = -2\sin x - 4\sin 2x = -2\sin x - 8\sin x \cos x =$ 

$$= -2\sin x(1 + 4\cos x) = 0 \implies \sin x = 0 \text{ or } \cos x = -\frac{1}{4}$$
$$\implies x_1 = 0, x_2 = \pi, x_3 = 2\pi, x_4 = \arccos\left(-\frac{1}{4}\right) \approx 1.82, x_5 = 2\pi - \arccos\left(-\frac{1}{4}\right) \approx 4.46$$

x	0	(0, 1.82)	1.82	( <b>1.82</b> , <i>π</i> )	π	( <b>π, 4.46</b> )	4.46	(4.46, 2	2π
								<i>π</i> )	
f''	0	-	0	+	0	-	0	+	0
f	infl:0	$\cap$	infl:\n	U	infl:0	$\cap$	infl:\n	U	infl:0
			$\frac{3 \sqrt{15}}{8}$				$^{-}$ 3 $\sqrt{15}$		
							8		

The graph of *f*:



# Implicitely given curve

**Example.** The curve y = y(x) is given by the following implicit equation:

 $x \sinh x - y \cosh y = 0$ 

Study the properties of this curve in a neighbourhood of (0, 0).

**Solution.** The point (0, 0) is on the curve: y(0) = 0.

1) The first derivative of  $x \sinh x - y(x) \cosh y(x) = 0$  with respect to x:

 $\sinh x + x \cosh x - y'(x) \cosh y(x) - y(x) y'(x) \sinh y(x) = 0$ 

If 
$$x = 0$$
,  $y = 0 \implies 0 + 0 \cdot 1 - y'(0) \cdot 1 - 0 \cdot y'(0) \cdot 0 = 0 \implies y'(0) = 0$ 

2) The second derivative with respect to *x*:

 $\cosh x + \cosh x + x \sinh x - y''(x) \cosh y(x) - y'(x) y'(x) \sinh y(x)$ -y'(x) y'(x)  $\sinh y(x) - y(x) y''(x) \sinh y(x) - y(x) y'(x) \cosh y(x) = 0$ 

If x = 0,  $y = 0 \implies 1 + 1 + 0 - y''(0) - 0 - 0 - 0 = 0 \implies y''(0) = 2$ 

Since y'(0) = 0 and y''(0) = 2 > 0 then the curve y = y(x) has local minimum at x = 0 and it is convex in some neighbourhood of x = 0.

