

# Chapter 4

## **Applications of Derivatives**



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# 4.1

### **Extreme Values of Functions**



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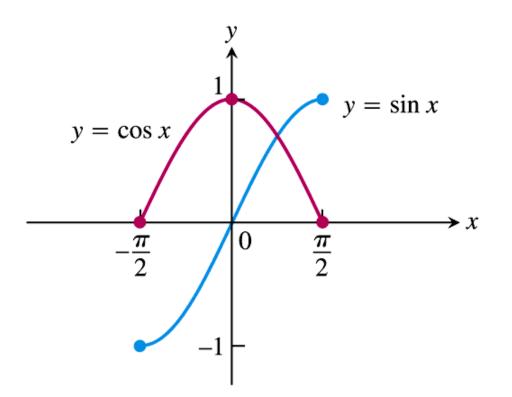
### **DEFINITIONS** Absolute Maximum, Absolute Minimum

Let f be a function with domain D. Then f has an **absolute maximum** value on D at a point c if

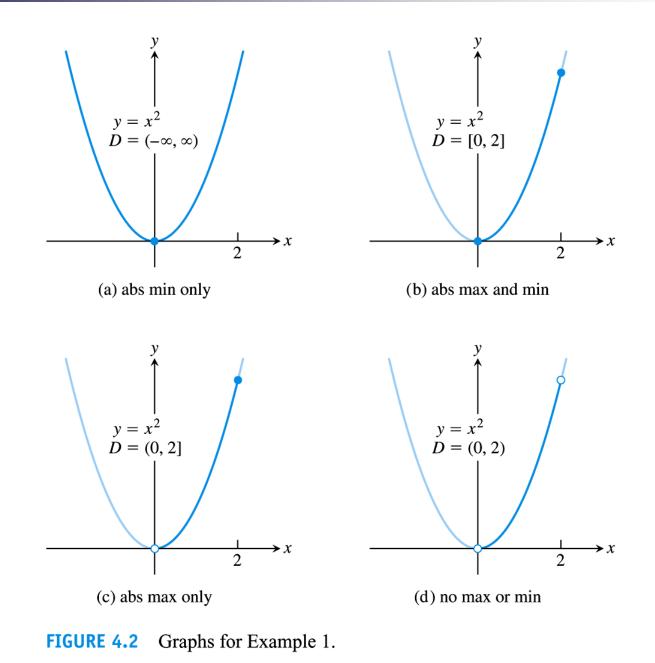
 $f(x) \le f(c)$  for all x in D

and an **absolute minimum** value on D at c if

 $f(x) \ge f(c)$  for all x in D.



**FIGURE 4.1** Absolute extrema for the sine and cosine functions on  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ . These values can depend on the domain of a function.

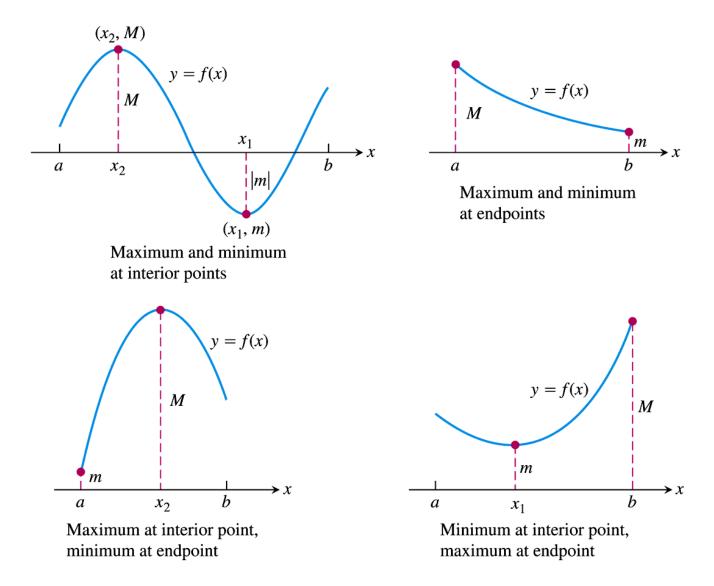


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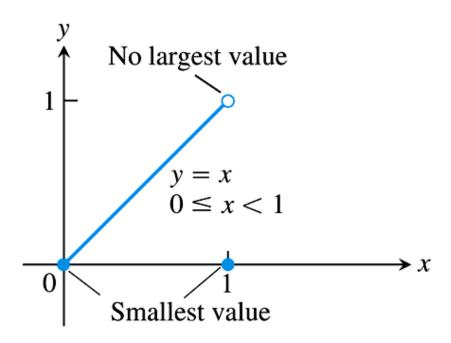
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### **THEOREM 1** The Extreme Value Theorem

If f is continuous on a closed interval [a, b], then f attains both an absolute maximum value M and an absolute minimum value m in [a, b]. That is, there are numbers  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in [a, b] with  $f(x_1) = m$ ,  $f(x_2) = M$ , and  $m \le f(x) \le M$  for every other x in [a, b] (Figure 4.3).



**FIGURE 4.3** Some possibilities for a continuous function's maximum and minimum on a closed interval [a, b].



**FIGURE 4.4** Even a single point of discontinuity can keep a function from having either a maximum or minimum value on a closed interval. The function

$$y = \begin{cases} x, & 0 \le x < 1 \\ 0, & x = 1 \end{cases}$$

is continuous at every point of [0, 1]except x = 1, yet its graph over [0, 1]does not have a highest point.

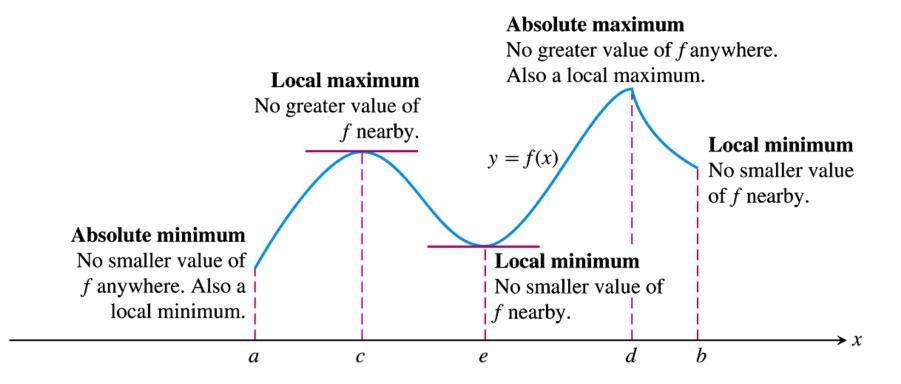
### **DEFINITIONS** Local Maximum, Local Minimum

A function f has a local maximum value at an interior point c of its domain if

 $f(x) \le f(c)$  for all x in some open interval containing c.

A function f has a local minimum value at an interior point c of its domain if

 $f(x) \ge f(c)$  for all x in some open interval containing c.

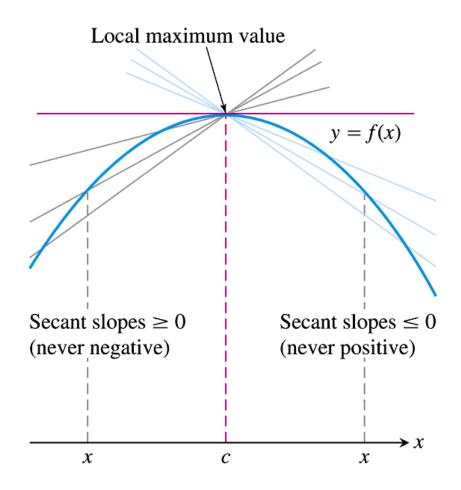


**FIGURE 4.5** How to classify maxima and minima.

### **THEOREM 2** The First Derivative Theorem for Local Extreme Values

If f has a local maximum or minimum value at an interior point c of its domain, and if f' is defined at c, then

$$f'(c)=0.$$



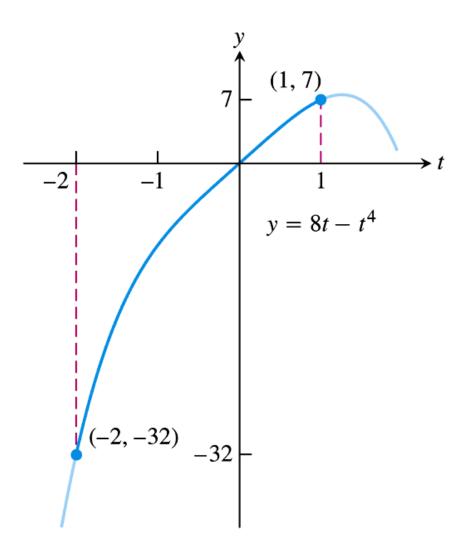
**FIGURE 4.6** A curve with a local maximum value. The slope at c, simultaneously the limit of nonpositive numbers and nonnegative numbers, is zero.

### **DEFINITION** Critical Point

An interior point of the domain of a function f where f' is zero or undefined is a **critical point** of f.

## How to Find the Absolute Extrema of a Continuous Function *f* on a Finite Closed Interval

- **1.** Evaluate f at all critical points and endpoints.
- 2. Take the largest and smallest of these values.



**FIGURE 4.7** The extreme values of  $g(t) = 8t - t^4$  on [-2, 1] (Example 3).

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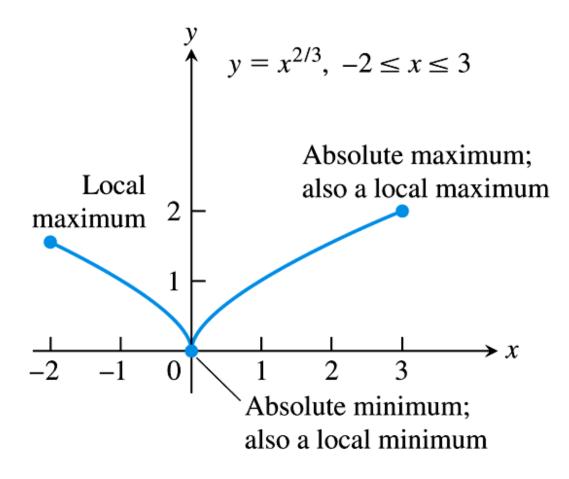
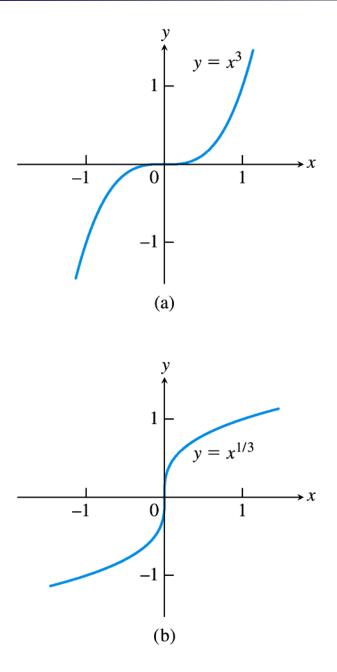


FIGURE 4.8 The extreme values of  $f(x) = x^{2/3}$  on [-2, 3] occur at x = 0 and x = 3 (Example 4).



**FIGURE 4.9** Critical points without extreme values. (a)  $y' = 3x^2$  is 0 at x = 0, but  $y = x^3$  has no extremum there. (b)  $y' = (1/3)x^{-2/3}$  is undefined at x = 0, but  $y = x^{1/3}$  has no extremum there.

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## 4.2

### The Mean Value Theorem



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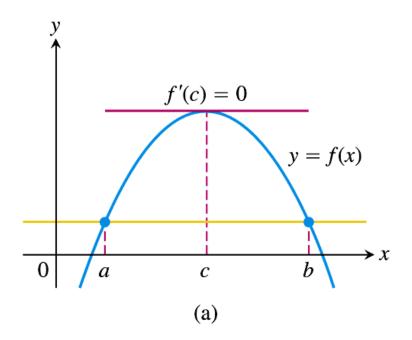
### THEOREM 3 Rolle's Theorem

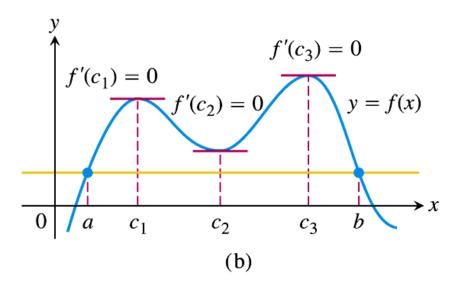
Suppose that y = f(x) is continuous at every point of the closed interval [a, b] and differentiable at every point of its interior (a, b). If

$$f(a)=f(b),$$

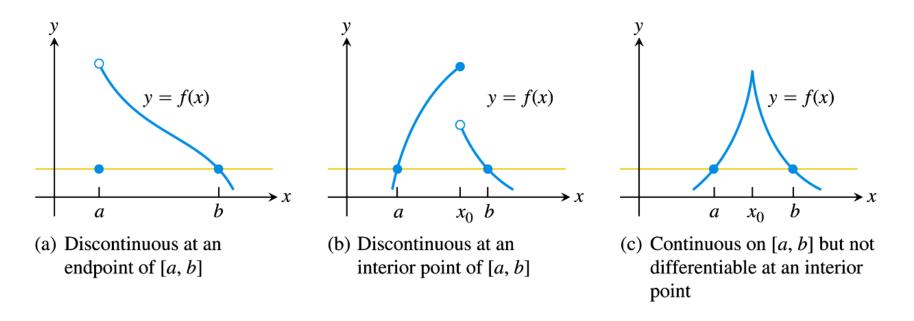
then there is at least one number c in (a, b) at which

$$f'(c)=0.$$

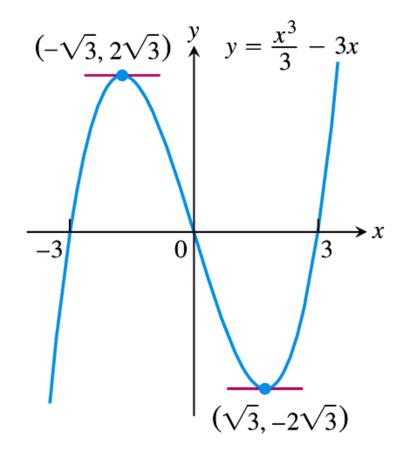




**FIGURE 4.10** Rolle's Theorem says that a differentiable curve has at least one horizontal tangent between any two points where it crosses a horizontal line. It may have just one (a), or it may have more (b).



**FIGURE 4.11** There may be no horizontal tangent if the hypotheses of Rolle's Theorem do not hold.



**FIGURE 4.12** As predicted by Rolle's Theorem, this curve has horizontal tangents between the points where it crosses the *x*-axis (Example 1).

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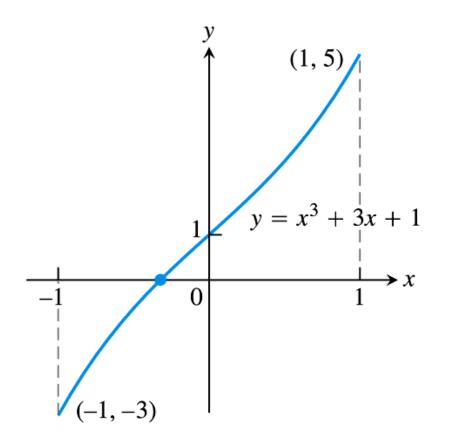
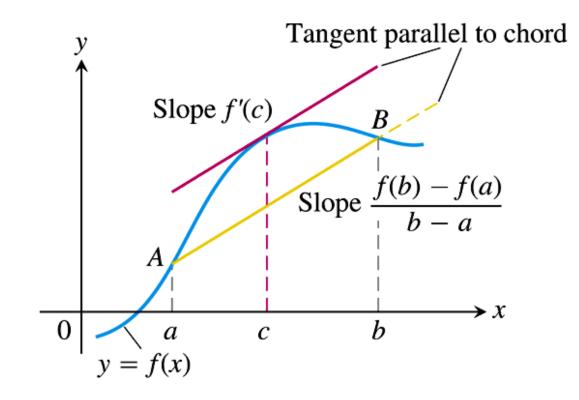


FIGURE 4.13 The only real zero of the polynomial  $y = x^3 + 3x + 1$  is the one shown here where the curve crosses the *x*-axis between -1 and 0 (Example 2).

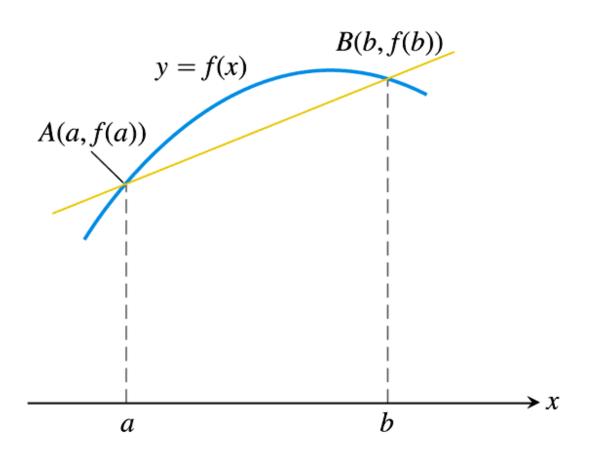
#### **THEOREM 4** The Mean Value Theorem

Suppose y = f(x) is continuous on a closed interval [a, b] and differentiable on the interval's interior (a, b). Then there is at least one point c in (a, b) at which

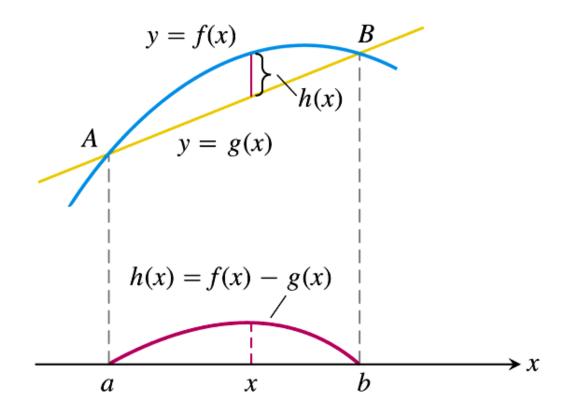
$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = f'(c).$$
 (1)



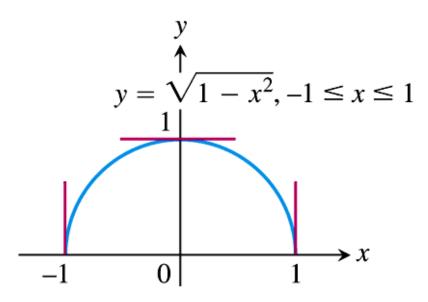
**FIGURE 4.14** Geometrically, the Mean Value Theorem says that somewhere between *A* and *B* the curve has at least one tangent parallel to chord *AB*.



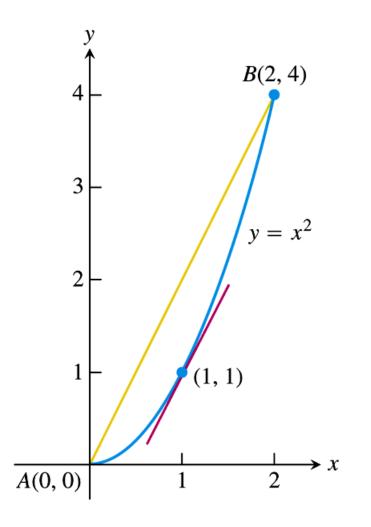
**FIGURE 4.15** The graph of f and the chord *AB* over the interval [a, b].



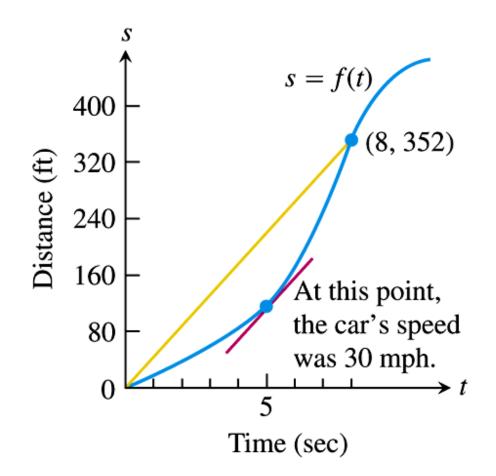
**FIGURE 4.16** The chord *AB* is the graph of the function g(x). The function h(x) =f(x) - g(x) gives the vertical distance between the graphs of *f* and *g* at *x*.



**FIGURE 4.17** The function  $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$  satisfies the hypotheses (and conclusion) of the Mean Value Theorem on [-1, 1] even though f is not differentiable at -1 and 1.



**FIGURE 4.18** As we find in Example 3, c = 1 is where the tangent is parallel to the chord.

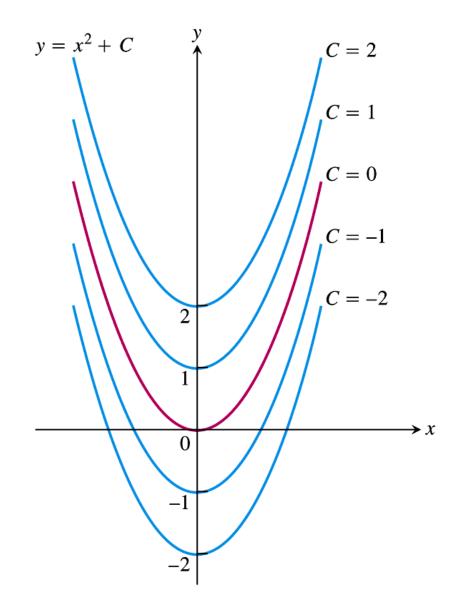


# **FIGURE 4.19** Distance versus elapsed time for the car in Example 4.

### **COROLLARY 1** Functions with Zero Derivatives Are Constant If f'(x) = 0 at each point x of an open interval (a, b) then f(x) = C

If f'(x) = 0 at each point x of an open interval (a, b), then f(x) = C for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , where C is a constant.

## **COROLLARY 2** Functions with the Same Derivative Differ by a Constant If f'(x) = g'(x) at each point x in an open interval (a, b), then there exists a constant C such that f(x) = g(x) + C for all $x \in (a, b)$ . That is, f - g is a constant on (a, b).



**FIGURE 4.20** From a geometric point of view, Corollary 2 of the Mean Value Theorem says that the graphs of functions with identical derivatives on an interval can differ only by a vertical shift there. The graphs of the functions with derivative 2x are the parabolas  $y = x^2 + C$ , shown here for selected values of *C*.

# 4.3

## Monotonic Functions and The First Derivative Test



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### **DEFINITIONS** Increasing, Decreasing Function

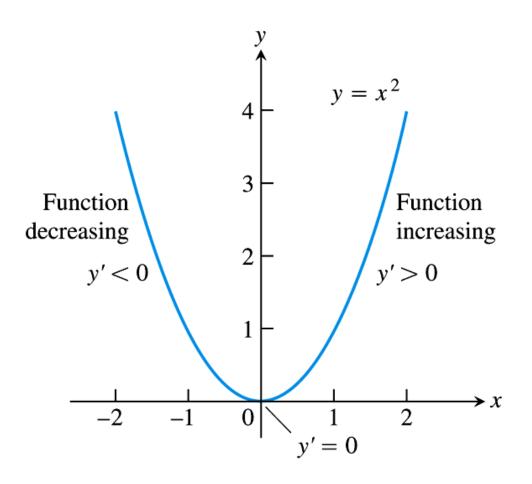
Let *f* be a function defined on an interval *I* and let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be any two points in *I*.

- 1. If  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$  whenever  $x_1 < x_2$ , then f is said to be increasing on I.
- 2. If  $f(x_2) < f(x_1)$  whenever  $x_1 < x_2$ , then f is said to be decreasing on I.

A function that is increasing or decreasing on *I* is called **monotonic** on *I*.

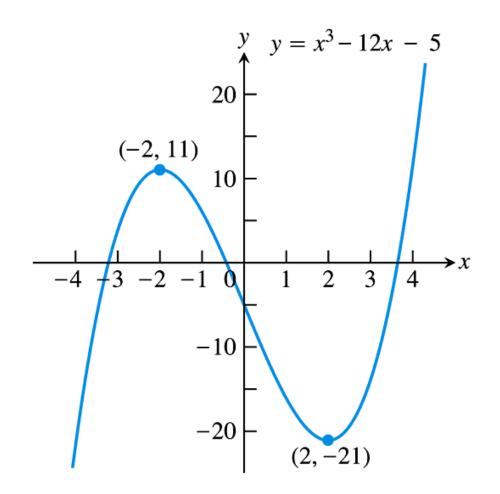
### **COROLLARY 3** First Derivative Test for Monotonic Functions Suppose that f is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b).

If f'(x) > 0 at each point  $x \in (a, b)$ , then f is increasing on [a, b]. If f'(x) < 0 at each point  $x \in (a, b)$ , then f is decreasing on [a, b].



**FIGURE 4.21** The function  $f(x) = x^2$  is monotonic on the intervals  $(-\infty, 0]$  and  $[0, \infty)$ , but it is not monotonic on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .

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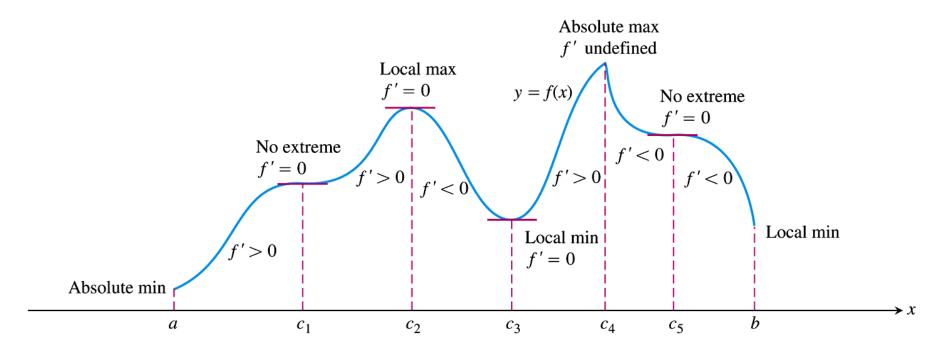
**FIGURE 4.22** The function  $f(x) = x^3 - 12x - 5$  is monotonic on three separate intervals (Example 1).

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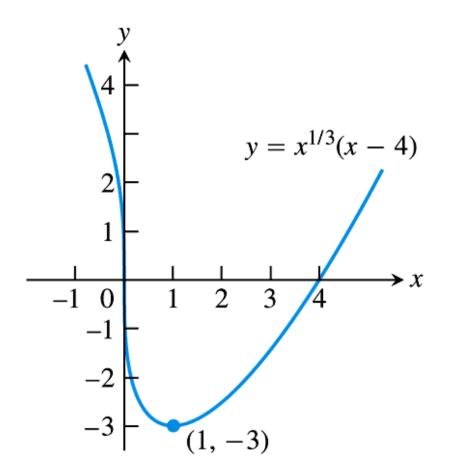
#### **First Derivative Test for Local Extrema**

Suppose that c is a critical point of a continuous function f, and that f is differentiable at every point in some interval containing c except possibly at c itself. Moving across c from left to right,

- 1. if f' changes from negative to positive at c, then f has a local minimum at c;
- 2. if f' changes from positive to negative at c, then f has a local maximum at c;
- 3. if f' does not change sign at c (that is, f' is positive on both sides of c or negative on both sides), then f has no local extremum at c.



**FIGURE 4.23** A function's first derivative tells how the graph rises and falls.



**FIGURE 4.24** The function  $f(x) = x^{1/3}(x - 4)$  decreases when x < 1 and increases when x > 1 (Example 2).

# 4.4

## **Concavity and Curve Sketching**

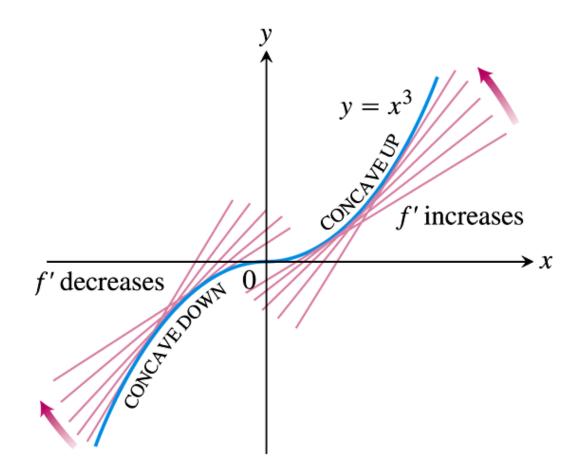


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### **DEFINITION** Concave Up, Concave Down

The graph of a differentiable function y = f(x) is

- (a) concave up on an open interval I if f' is increasing on I
- (b) concave down on an open interval I if f' is decreasing on I.

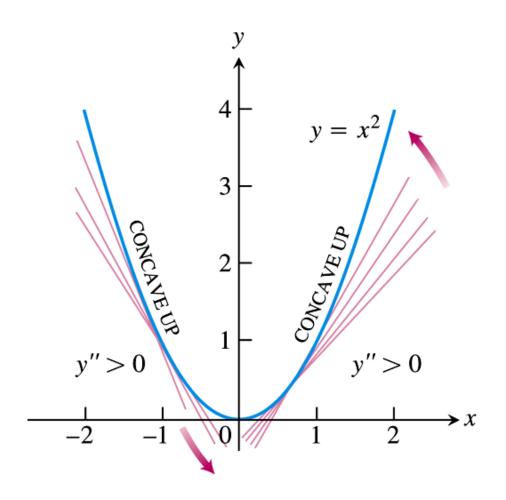


**FIGURE 4.25** The graph of  $f(x) = x^3$  is concave down on  $(-\infty, 0)$  and concave up on  $(0, \infty)$  (Example 1a).

#### The Second Derivative Test for Concavity

Let y = f(x) be twice-differentiable on an interval *I*.

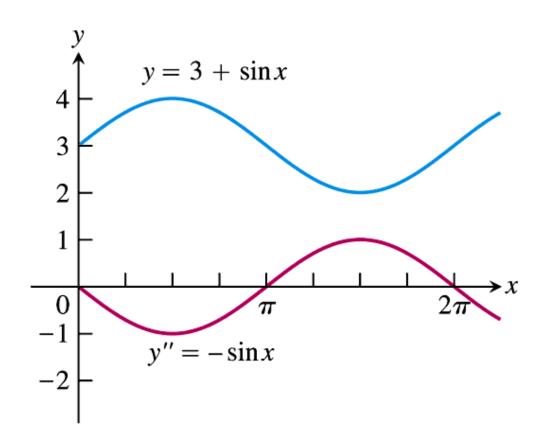
- 1. If f'' > 0 on *I*, the graph of *f* over *I* is concave up.
- 2. If f'' < 0 on *I*, the graph of *f* over *I* is concave down.



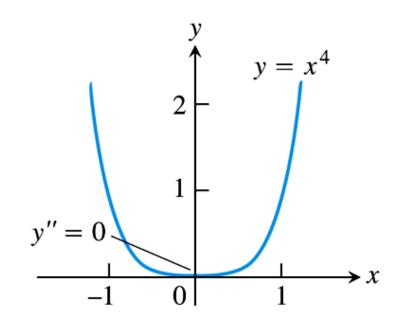
**FIGURE 4.26** The graph of  $f(x) = x^2$  is concave up on every interval (Example 1b).

### **DEFINITION** Point of Inflection

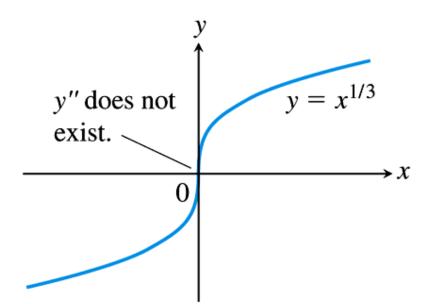
A point where the graph of a function has a tangent line and where the concavity changes is a **point of inflection**.



# **FIGURE 4.27** Using the graph of y'' to determine the concavity of *y* (Example 2).



**FIGURE 4.28** The graph of  $y = x^4$  has no inflection point at the origin, even though y'' = 0 there (Example 3).

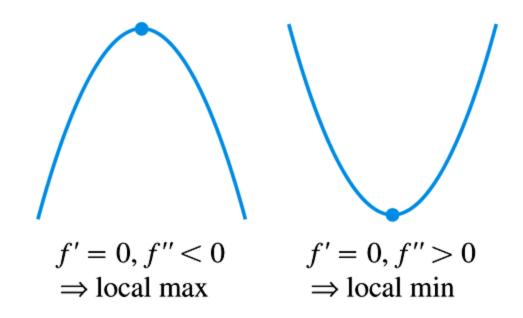


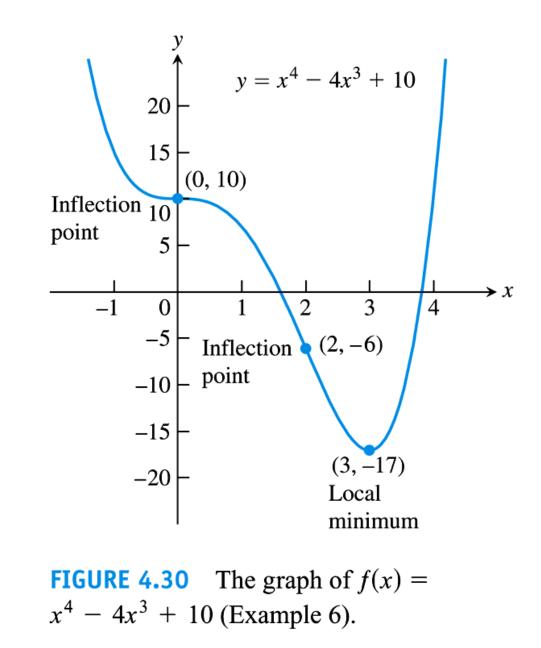
**FIGURE 4.29** A point where y'' fails to exist can be a point of inflection (Example 4).

#### **THEOREM 5** Second Derivative Test for Local Extrema

Suppose f'' is continuous on an open interval that contains x = c.

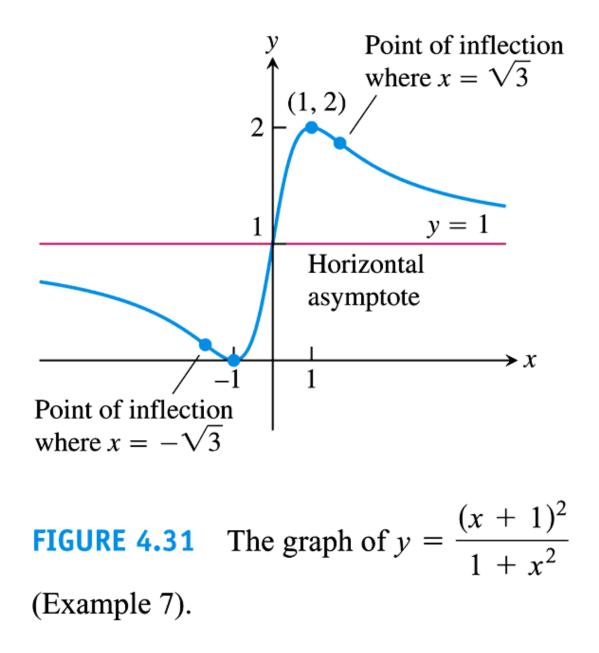
- 1. If f'(c) = 0 and f''(c) < 0, then f has a local maximum at x = c.
- 2. If f'(c) = 0 and f''(c) > 0, then f has a local minimum at x = c.
- 3. If f'(c) = 0 and f''(c) = 0, then the test fails. The function f may have a local maximum, a local minimum, or neither.



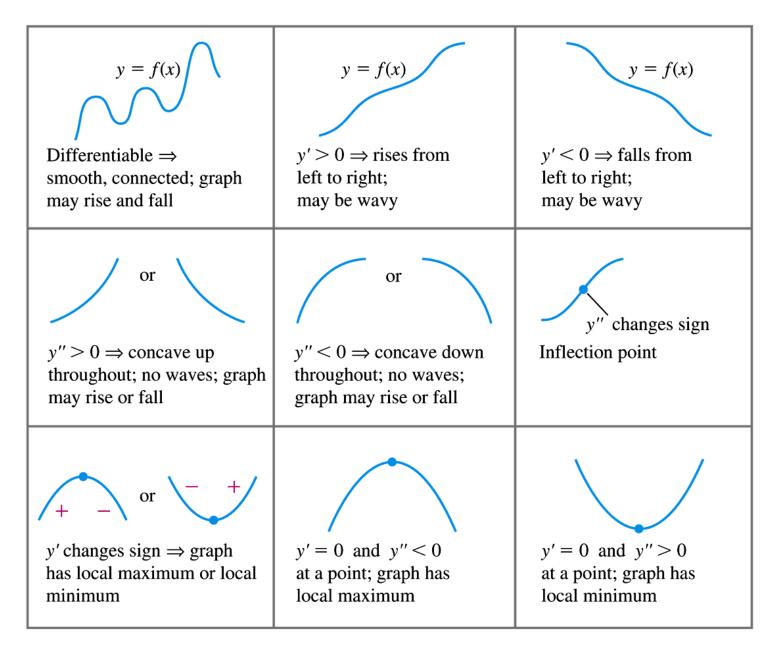


## Strategy for Graphing y = f(x)

- 1. Identify the domain of *f* and any symmetries the curve may have.
- **2.** Find y' and y''.
- 3. Find the critical points of f, and identify the function's behavior at each one.
- 4. Find where the curve is increasing and where it is decreasing.
- 5. Find the points of inflection, if any occur, and determine the concavity of the curve.
- 6. Identify any asymptotes.
- 7. Plot key points, such as the intercepts and the points found in Steps 3–5, and sketch the curve.



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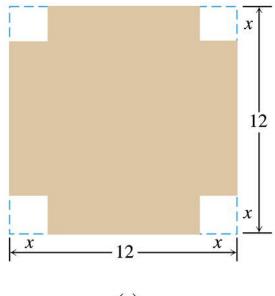


# 4.5

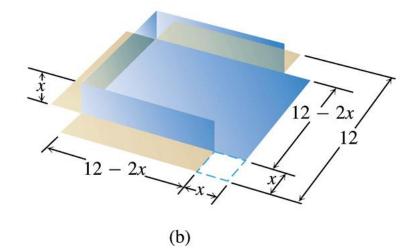
# **Applied Optimization Problems**



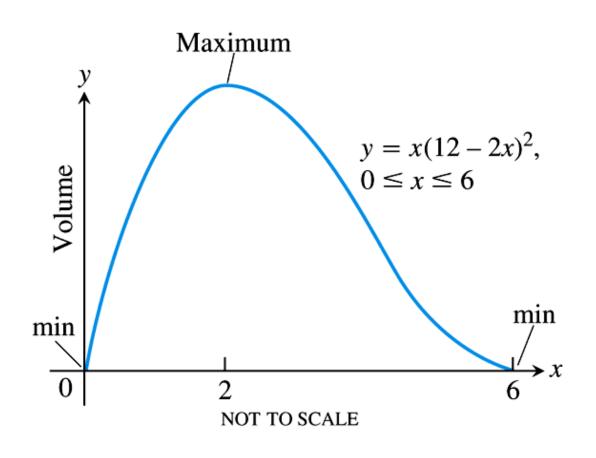
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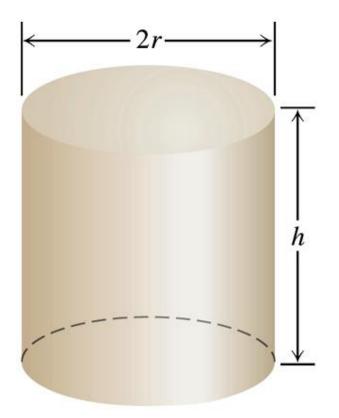
(a)



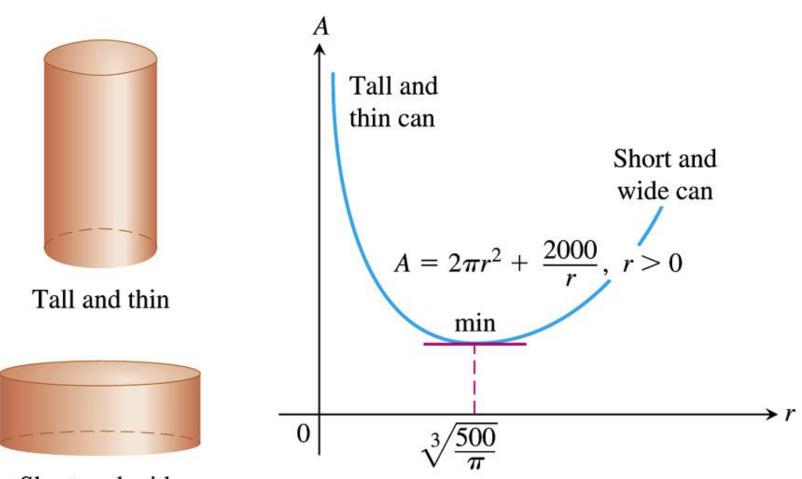
**FIGURE 4.32** An open box made by cutting the corners from a square sheet of tin. What size corners maximize the box's volume (Example 1)?



# **FIGURE 4.33** The volume of the box in Figure 4.32 graphed as a function of *x*.



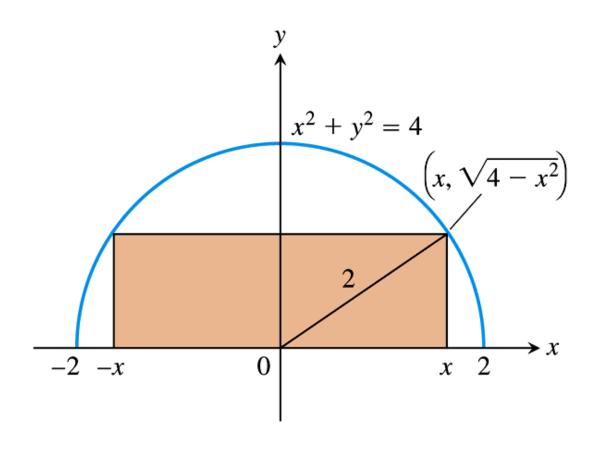
# **FIGURE 4.34** This 1-L can uses the least material when h = 2r (Example 2).



Short and wide

**FIGURE 4.35** The graph of  $A = 2\pi r^2 + 2000/r$  is concave up.

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**FIGURE 4.36** The rectangle inscribed in the semicircle in Example 3.

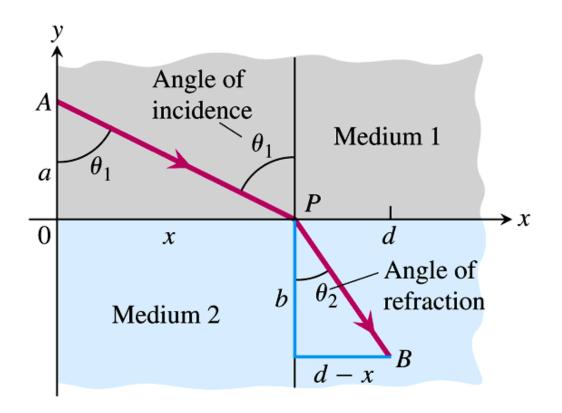
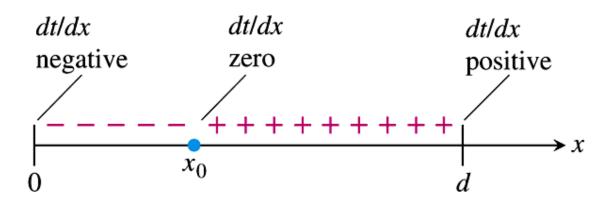
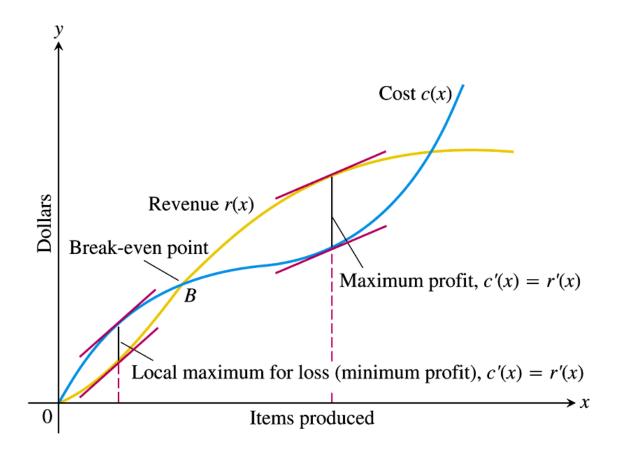


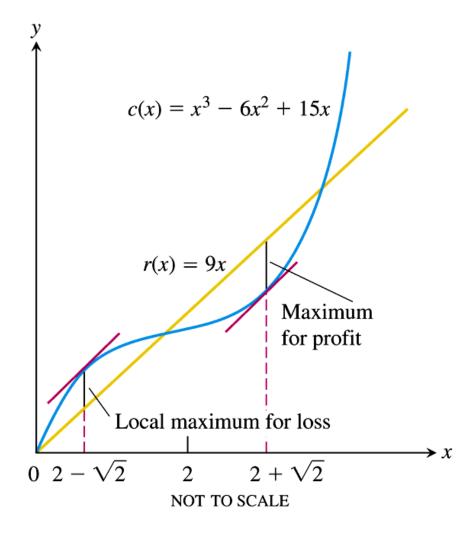
FIGURE 4.37 A light ray refracted (deflected from its path) as it passes from one medium to a denser medium (Example 4).



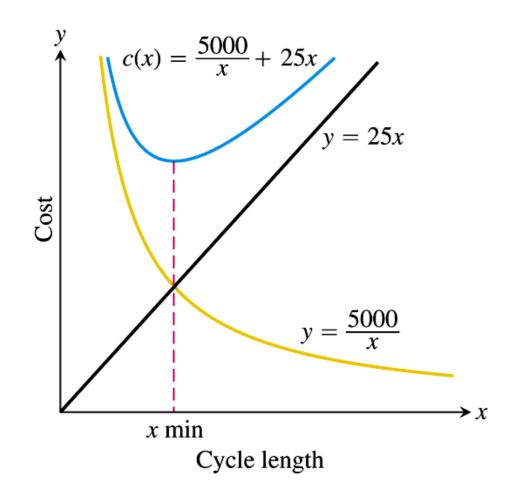
**FIGURE 4.38** The sign pattern of dt/dx in Example 4.



**FIGURE 4.39** The graph of a typical cost function starts concave down and later turns concave up. It crosses the revenue curve at the break-even point *B*. To the left of *B*, the company operates at a loss. To the right, the company operates at a profit, with the maximum profit occurring where c'(x) = r'(x). Farther to the right, cost exceeds revenue (perhaps because of a combination of rising labor and material costs and market saturation) and production levels become unprofitable again.



**FIGURE 4.40** The cost and revenue curves for Example 5.



**FIGURE 4.41** The average daily  $\cot c(x)$  is the sum of a hyperbola and a linear function (Example 6).

# 4.6

# Indeterminate Forms and L' Hôpital's Rule



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## **THEOREM 6** L'Hôpital's Rule (First Form)

Suppose that f(a) = g(a) = 0, that f'(a) and g'(a) exist, and that  $g'(a) \neq 0$ . Then

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(a)}{g'(a)}.$$

### **THEOREM 7** L'Hôpital's Rule (Stronger Form)

Suppose that f(a) = g(a) = 0, that f and g are differentiable on an open interval I containing a, and that  $g'(x) \neq 0$  on I if  $x \neq a$ . Then

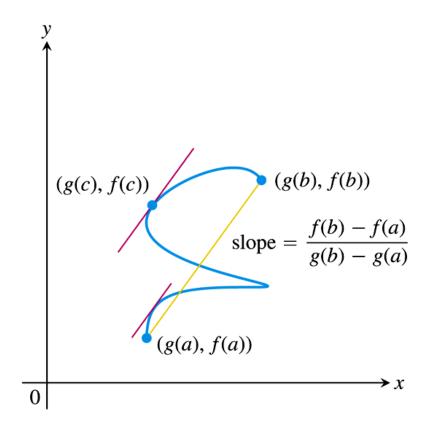
$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)},$$

assuming that the limit on the right side exists.

#### THEOREM 8 Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem

Suppose functions f and g are continuous on [a, b] and differentiable throughout (a, b) and also suppose  $g'(x) \neq 0$  throughout (a, b). Then there exists a number c in (a, b) at which

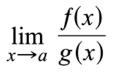
$$\frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}.$$



**FIGURE 4.42** There is at least one value of the parameter t = c, a < c < b, for which the slope of the tangent to the curve at (g(c), f(c)) is the same as the slope of the secant line joining the points (g(a), f(a)) and (g(b), f(b)).

#### Using L'Hôpital's Rule

To find



by l'Hôpital's Rule, continue to differentiate f and g, so long as we still get the form 0/0 at x = a. But as soon as one or the other of these derivatives is different from zero at x = a we stop differentiating. L'Hôpital's Rule does not apply when either the numerator or denominator has a finite nonzero limit.

# 4.7

# Newton's Method

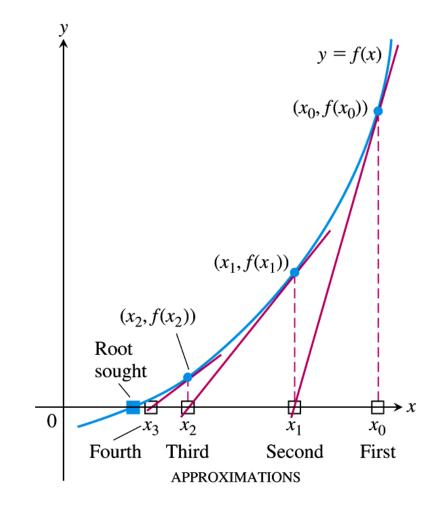


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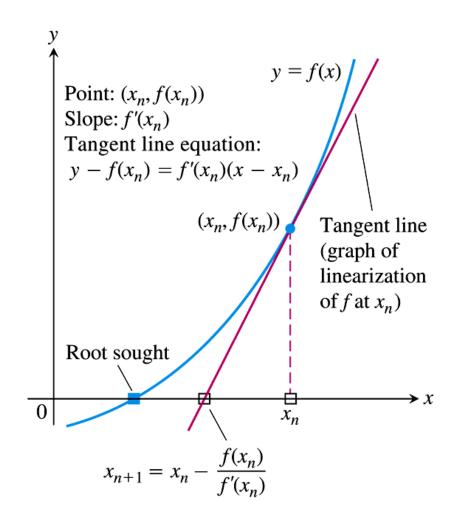
## **Procedure for Newton's Method**

- 1. Guess a first approximation to a solution of the equation f(x) = 0. A graph of y = f(x) may help.
- 2. Use the first approximation to get a second, the second to get a third, and so on, using the formula

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}, \quad \text{if } f'(x_n) \neq 0$$
 (1)

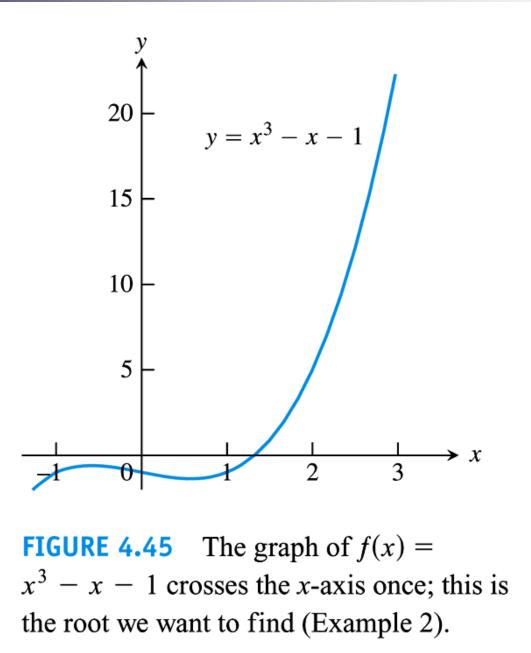


**FIGURE 4.43** Newton's method starts with an initial guess  $x_0$  and (under favorable circumstances) improves the guess one step at a time.



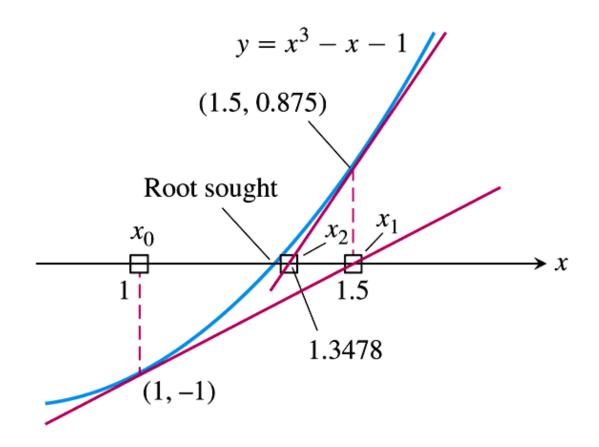
**FIGURE 4.44** The geometry of the successive steps of Newton's method. From  $x_n$  we go up to the curve and follow the tangent line down to find  $x_{n+1}$ .

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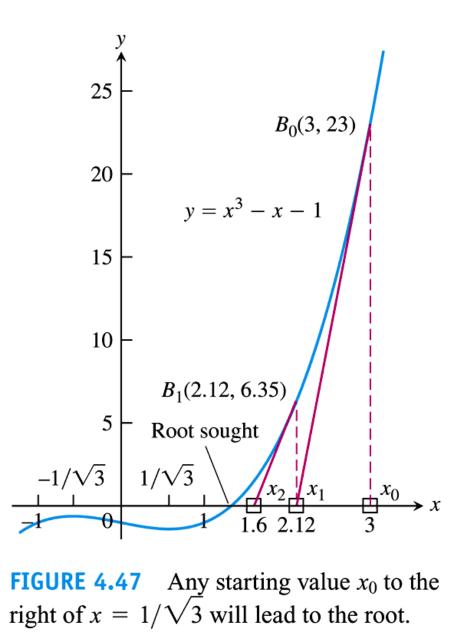


**TABLE 4.1** The result of applying Newton's method to  $f(x) = x^3 - x - 1$  with  $x_0 = 1$ 

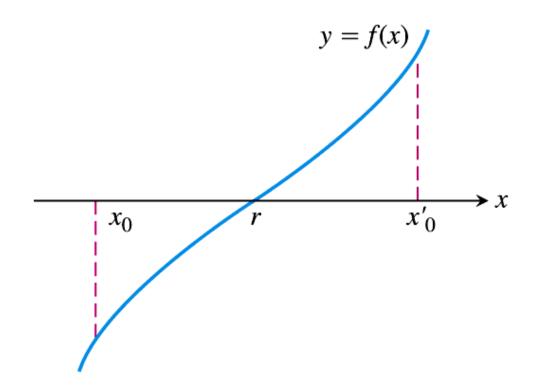
n	$x_n$	$f(x_n)$	$f'(x_n)$	$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$
0	1	-1	2	1.5
1	1.5	0.875	5.75	1.3478 26087
2	1.3478 26087	0.1006 82173	4.4499 05482	1.3252 00399
3	1.3252 00399	0.0020 58362	4.2684 68292	1.3247 18174
4	1.3247 18174	0.0000 00924	4.2646 34722	1.3247 17957
5	1.3247 17957	-1.8672E-13	4.2646 32999	1.3247 17957



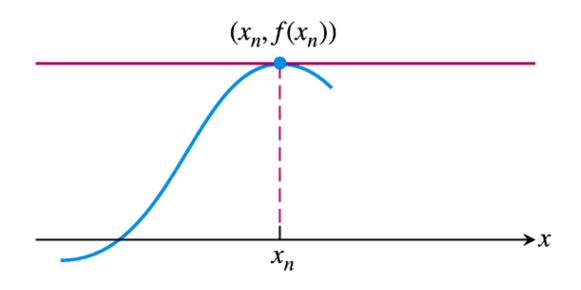
# **FIGURE 4.46** The first three *x*-values in Table 4.1 (four decimal places).



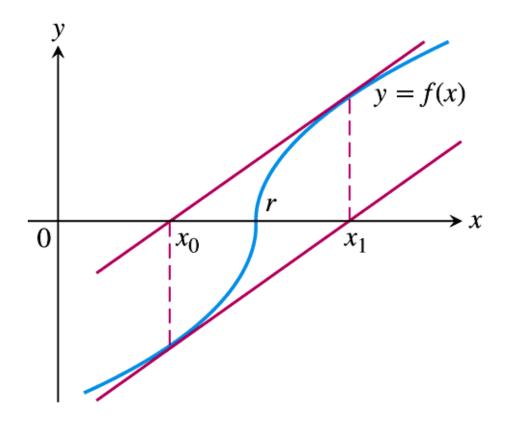
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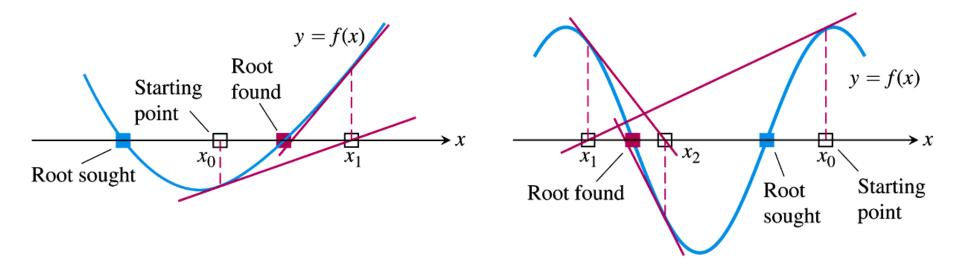
# **FIGURE 4.48** Newton's method will converge to *r* from either starting point.



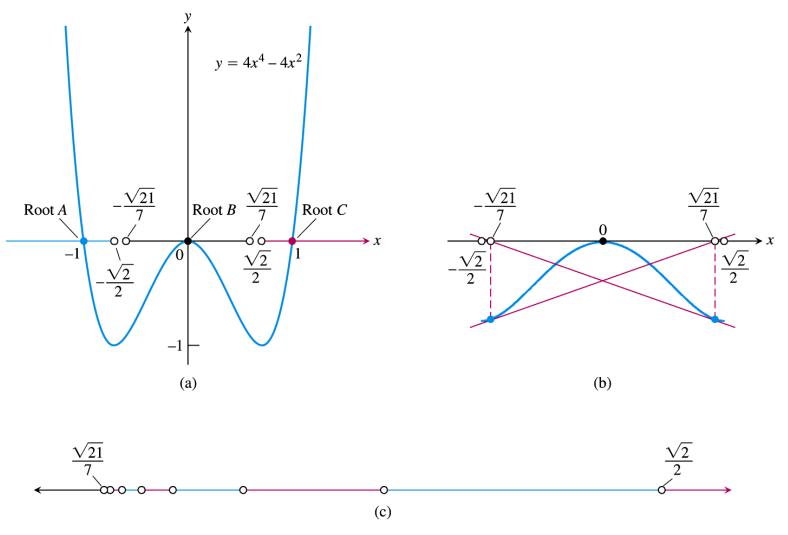
**FIGURE 4.49** If  $f'(x_n) = 0$ , there is no intersection point to define  $x_{n+1}$ .



# **FIGURE 4.50** Newton's method fails to converge. You go from $x_0$ to $x_1$ and back to $x_0$ , never getting any closer to *r*.

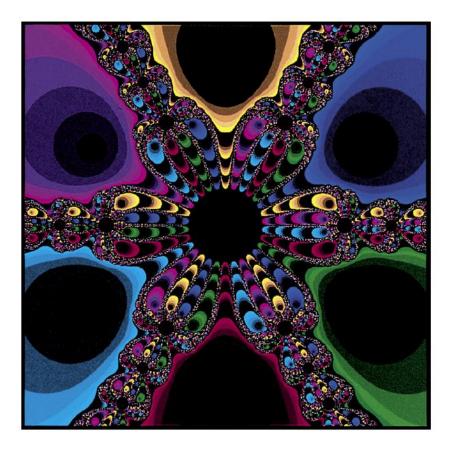


**FIGURE 4.51** If you start too far away, Newton's method may miss the root you want.



**FIGURE 4.52** (a) Starting values in  $(-\infty, -\sqrt{2}/2)$ ,  $(-\sqrt{21}/7, \sqrt{21}/7)$ , and  $(\sqrt{2}/2, \infty)$  lead respectively to roots *A*, *B*, and *C*. (b) The values  $x = \pm \sqrt{21}/7$  lead only to each other. (c) Between  $\sqrt{21}/7$  and  $\sqrt{2}/2$ , there are infinitely many open intervals of points attracted to *A* alternating with open intervals of points attracted to *C*. This behavior is mirrored in the interval  $(-\sqrt{2}/2, -\sqrt{21}/7)$ .

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**FIGURE 4.53** This computer-generated initial value portrait uses color to show where different points in the complex plane end up when they are used as starting values in applying Newton's method to solve the equation  $z^6 - 1 = 0$ . Red points go to 1, green points to  $(1/2) + (\sqrt{3}/2)i$ , dark blue points to  $(-1/2) + (\sqrt{3}/2)i$ , and so on. Starting values that generate sequences that do not arrive within 0.1 unit of a root after 32 steps are colored black.

# 4.8

# Antiderivatives



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## **DEFINITION** Antiderivative

A function *F* is an **antiderivative** of *f* on an interval *I* if F'(x) = f(x) for all *x* in *I*.

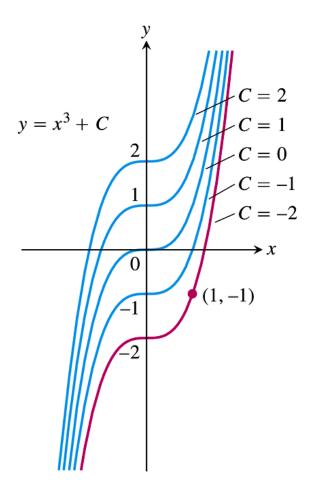
If F is an antiderivative of f on an interval I, then the most general antiderivative of f on I is

## F(x) + C

where C is an arbitrary constant.

Function		General antiderivative	
1.	$x^n$	$\frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} + C,  n \neq -1, n \text{ rational}$	
2.	sin kx	$-\frac{\cos kx}{k} + C,  k \text{ a constant, } k \neq 0$	
3.	$\cos kx$	$\frac{\sin kx}{k} + C,  k \text{ a constant, } k \neq 0$	
4.	$\sec^2 x$	$\tan x + C$	
5.	$\csc^2 x$	$-\cot x + C$	
6.	$\sec x \tan x$	$\sec x + C$	
7.	$\csc x \cot x$	$-\csc x + C$	

TABLE 4.3 Antiderivative linearity rules						
		Function	General antiderivative			
1.	Constant Multiple Rule:	kf(x)	kF(x) + C, k a constant			
2.	Negative Rule:	-f(x)	-F(x) + C,			
3.	Sum or Difference Rule:	$f(x) \pm g(x)$	$F(x) \pm G(x) + C$			



**FIGURE 4.54** The curves  $y = x^3 + C$ fill the coordinate plane without overlapping. In Example 5, we identify the curve  $y = x^3 - 2$  as the one that passes through the given point (1, -1).

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## **DEFINITION** Indefinite Integral, Integrand

The set of all antiderivatives of f is the **indefinite integral** of f with respect to x, denoted by

 $\int f(x) dx.$ 

The symbol  $\int$  is an integral sign. The function f is the integrand of the integral, and x is the variable of integration.