



# **MTH4100 Calculus I**

**Lecture notes for Week 8**

**Thomas' Calculus, Sections 4.1 to 4.4**

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## Extreme values of functions

### 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

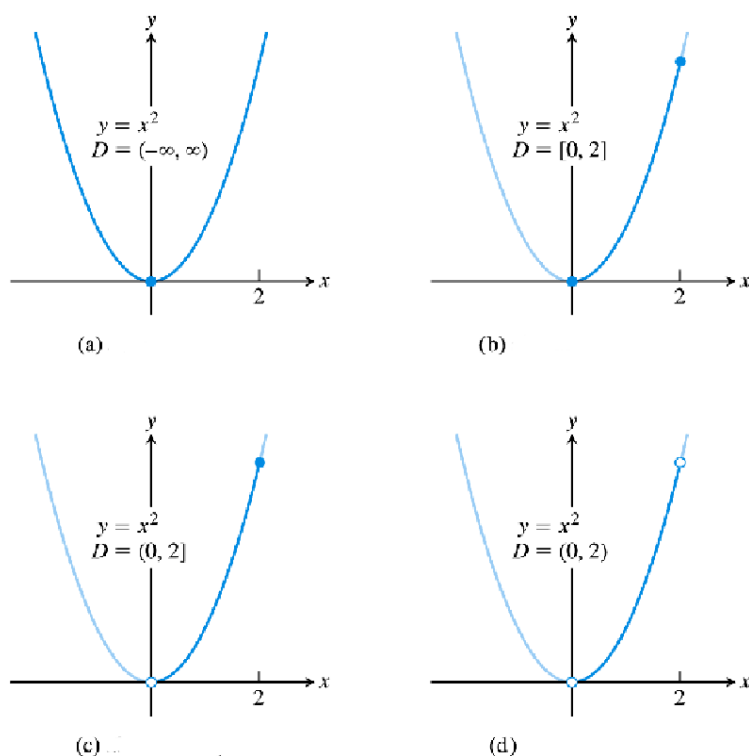
$$f(x) \leq f(c) \quad \text{for all } x \text{ in } D$$

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

$$f(x) \geq f(c) \quad \text{for all } x \text{ in } D.$$

These values are also called *absolute extrema*, or *global extrema*.

Example:



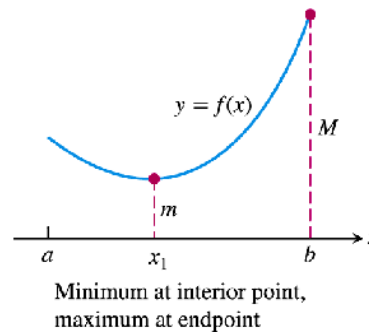
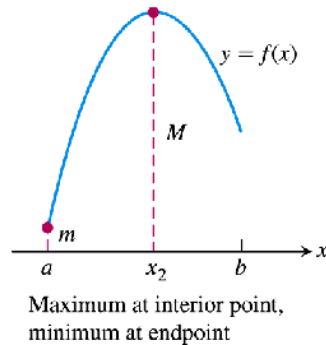
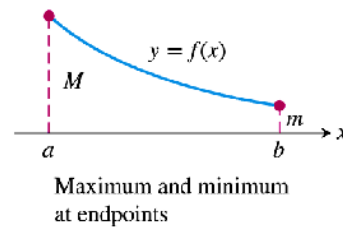
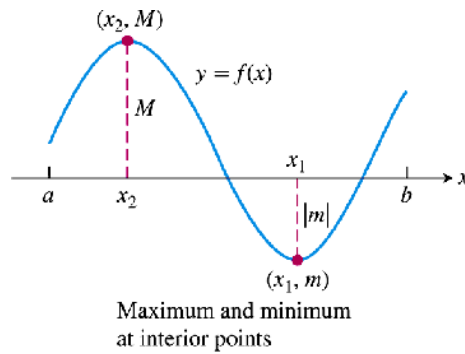
	Domain	abs. max.	abs. min.
(a)	$(-\infty, \infty)$	none	0, at $x = 0$
(b)	$[0, 2]$	4, at $x = 2$	0, at $x = 0$
(c)	$(0, 2]$	4, at $x = 2$	none
(d)	$(0, 2)$	none	none

When the domain of  $f$  is a closed interval, the existence of a global maximum and minimum is ensured by:

**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  $m \leq f(x) \leq M$  for every other  $x$  in  $[a, b]$  (Figure 4.3).

Examples:


**DEFINITIONS    Local Maximum, Local Minimum**

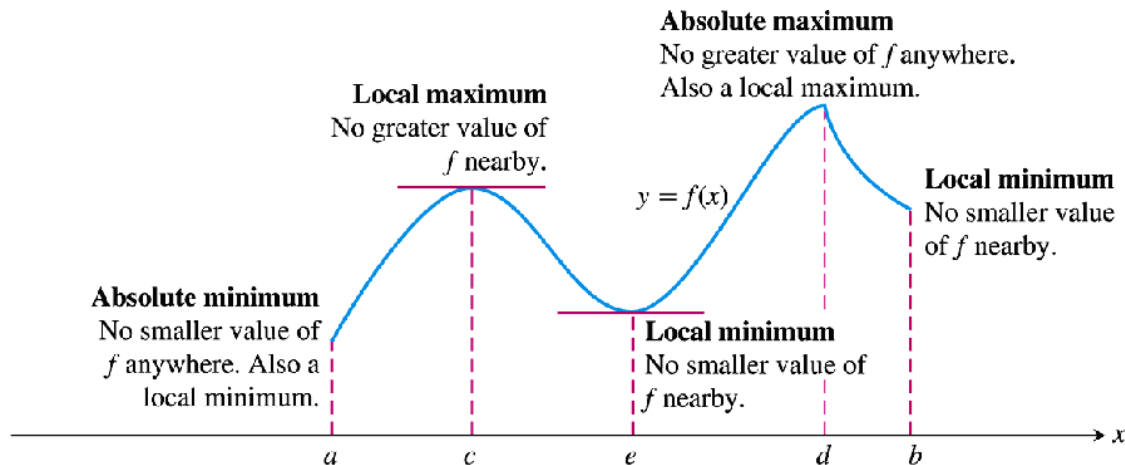
A function  $f$  has a **local maximum** value at an interior point  $c$  of its domain if

$$f(x) \leq f(c) \quad \text{for all } x \text{ in some open interval containing } c.$$

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

$$f(x) \geq f(c) \quad \text{for all } x \text{ in some open interval containing } c.$$

These values are also called *local extrema*.



**Note:** Absolute extrema are automatically local extrema, but the converse need not be true. We can find local extreme points for a differential function by using the following result.

**Theorem 1 (First Derivative Theorem for Local Extrema)** Suppose that  $f$  has a local maximum or minimum value at an interior point  $c$  of its domain, and that  $f$  is differentiable at  $c$ . Then  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Proof idea:** Lets suppose that  $f(c)$  is a local maximum - the proof for a local minimum is similar. We have

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

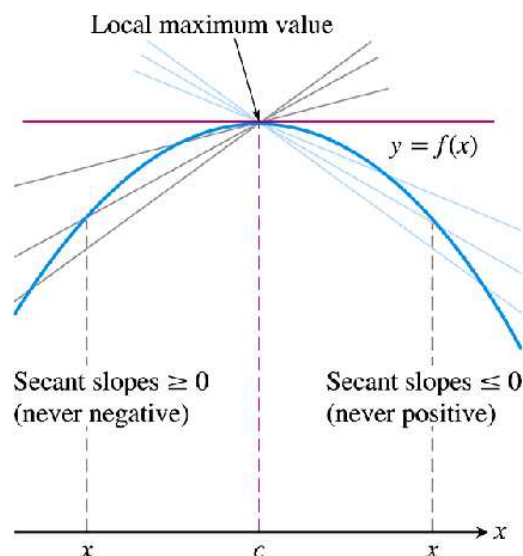
Consider the right and left hand limits separately. Since  $f(c)$  is local maximum of  $c$  we have  $f(x) - f(c) \leq 0$  for all  $x$  sufficiently close to  $c$ . Thus

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

and

$$f'(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \geq 0.$$

Hence  $f'(c) = 0$ .



**Note:** the converse is false! (*counterexample?*)

Where can a function  $f$  possibly have an extreme value according to this theorem?

**Answer:**

1. at interior points where  $f' = 0$
2. at interior points where  $f'$  is not defined
3. at endpoints of the domain of  $f$ .

Points at which 1 or 2 occur are combined in the following definition:

**DEFINITION      Critical Point**

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

The Extreme Value Theorem tells us that a continuous function  $f$  on a bounded closed interval has absolute maximum and minimum values. The First Derivative Theorem for Local Extrema gives us a method to determine these values:

Step 1 Determine the critical points of  $f$ .

Step 2 Evaluate  $f$  at each critical point AND at the end points of the interval.

Step 3 Take the largest and smallest values appearing in Step 2.

**Examples:** (1) Find the absolute extrema of  $f(x) = x^2$  on  $[-1, 1]$ .

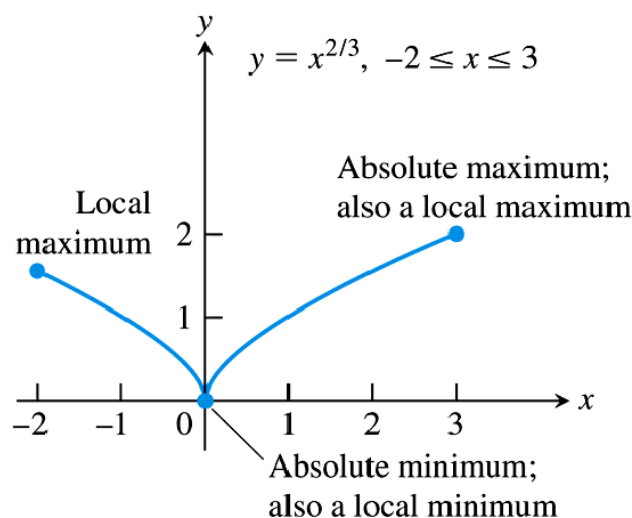
- $f$  is differentiable on  $[-1, 1]$  with  $f'(x) = 2x$
- critical points:  $f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$
- endpoints:  $x = -1$  and  $x = 1$
- Evaluate  $f$  at all critical points and endpoints:  $f(0) = 0$ ,  $f(-1) = 1$ ,  $f(1) = 1$

Therefore  $f$  has an *absolute maximum value* of 1 which occurs at  $x = \pm 1$ , and an *absolute minimum value* of 0 which occurs at  $x = 0$ .

(2) Find the absolute extrema of  $f(x) = x^{2/3}$  on  $[-2, 3]$ .

- $f$  is differentiable with  $f'(x) = \frac{2}{3}x^{-1/3}$  *except* at  $x = 0$
- critical points:  $f'(x) = 0$  or  $f'(x)$  undefined  $\Rightarrow x = 0$
- endpoints:  $x = -2$  and  $x = 3$
- Evaluate  $f$  at all critical points and endpoints:  $f(-2) = \sqrt[3]{4}$ ,  $f(0) = 0$ ,  $f(3) = \sqrt[3]{9}$

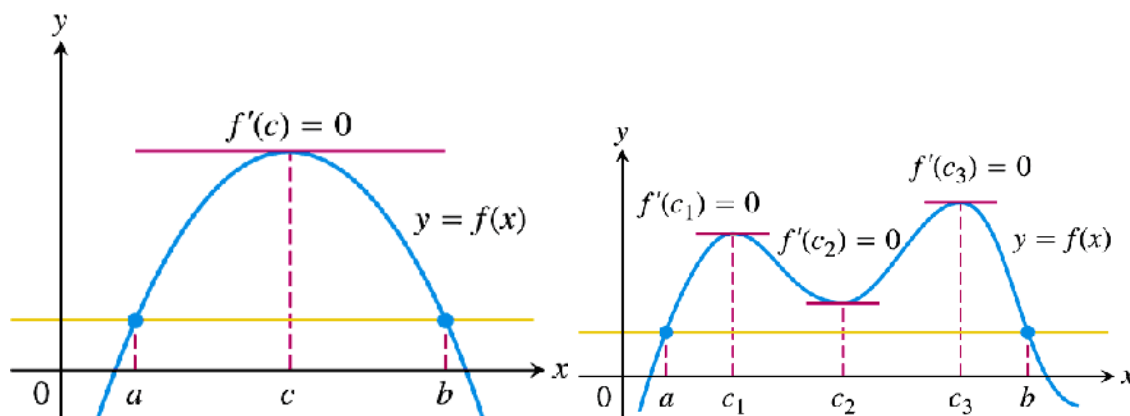
Therefore  $f$  has an *absolute maximum value* of  $\sqrt[3]{9}$  at  $x = 3$  and an *absolute minimum value* of 0 at  $x = 0$ .



### Rolle's theorem

This result tells us that a function which is continuous on a bounded closed interval and takes the same value at the both endpoints of the interval must have at least one critical point in the interval.

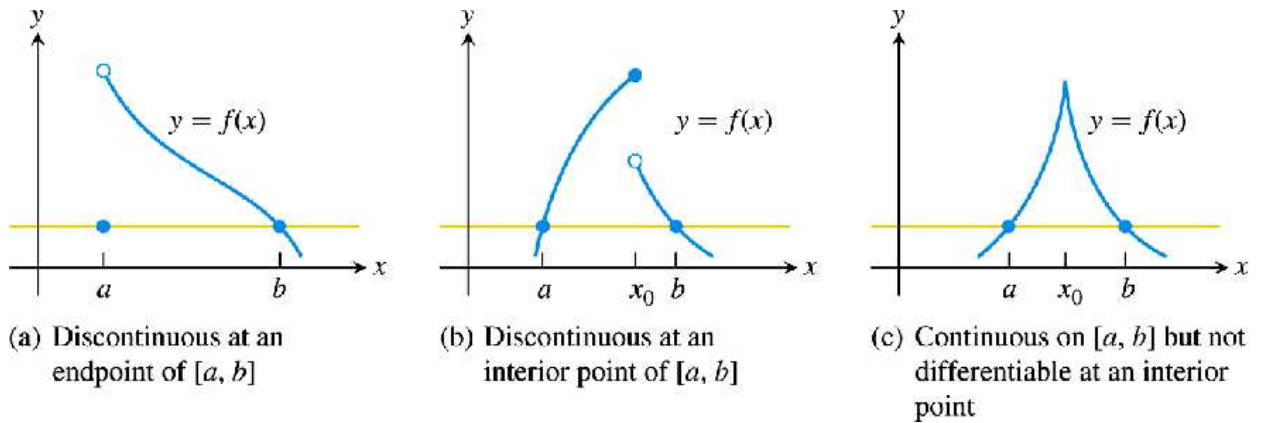
**Theorem 2 (Rolle's Theorem)** *Let  $f$  be continuous on the closed interval  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on the open interval  $(a, b)$ . If  $f(a) = f(b)$  then there exists a  $c \in (a, b)$  with  $f'(c) = 0$ .*



### Proof idea:

Apply extreme value theorem and first derivative theorem for extrema to interior points and consider endpoints separately; for details see the textbook Section 4.2.

**Note:** It is essential that *both* the hypotheses in the theorem are fulfilled i.e.  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ :

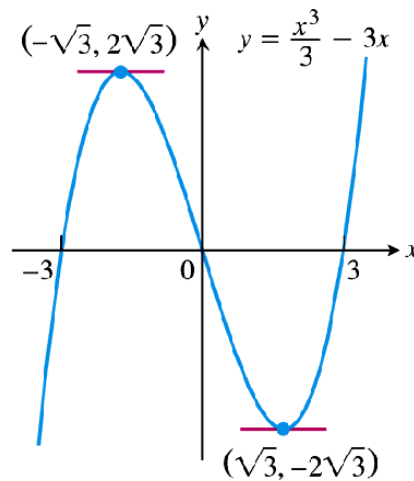


In each case there is no point  $c \in (a, b)$  with  $f'(c) = 0$ .

**Example:** Apply Rolle's theorem to  $f(x) = \frac{x^3}{3} - 3x$  on  $[-3, 3]$ .

- The function  $f$  is continuous on  $[-3, 3]$ , differentiable on  $(-3, 3)$ , and satisfies  $f(-3) = f(3) = 0$ .
- By Rolle's theorem there exists (at least) one  $c \in [-3, 3]$  with  $f'(c) = 0$ .

From  $f'(x) = x^2 - 3 = 0$  we find that  $f'(x) = 0$  when  $x = \pm\sqrt{3}$ .

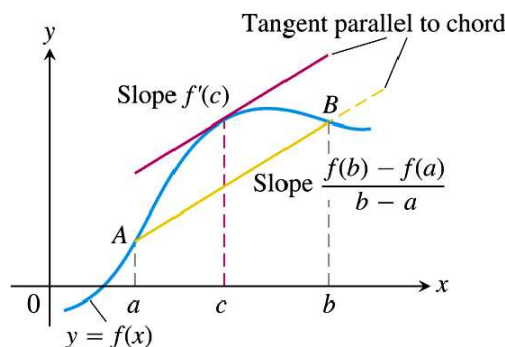


### The Mean Value Theorem

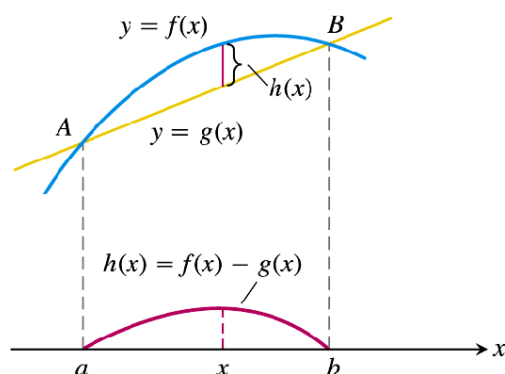
This extends Rolle's theorem to the case when  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ .

**Theorem 3 (Mean Value Theorem)** Let  $f(x)$  be continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then there exists a  $c \in (a, b)$  with

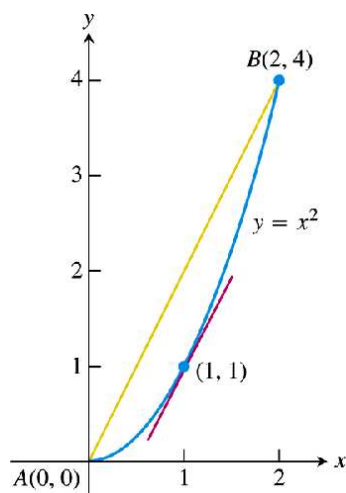
$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$



**Proof idea:** Let  $y = g(x)$  be the equation of the line through the points  $A = (a, f(a))$  and  $B = (b, f(b))$ . Define a new function  $h$  by putting  $h(x) = f(x) - g(x)$ . Then  $h(a) = 0 = h(b)$  and we can deduce the Mean Value Theorem for  $f$  by applying Rolle's Theorem to  $h$ .



**Example:** Consider  $f(x) = x^2$  on  $[0, 2]$ .



- $f(x)$  is continuous and differentiable on  $[0, 2]$ .
- Therefore there is a  $c \in (0, 2)$  with  $f'(c) = \frac{f(2) - f(0)}{2 - 0} = 2$ .
- Since  $f'(x) = 2x$ , we can solve  $f'(c) = 2c = 2$  to find that  $c = 1$ .

The following corollaries use the Mean Value Theorem to deduce information about a function from its derivative.



**Corollary 1 (Functions with zero derivatives are constant)** If  $f'(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$  then  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  for all  $x_1, x_2 \in (a, b)$ .

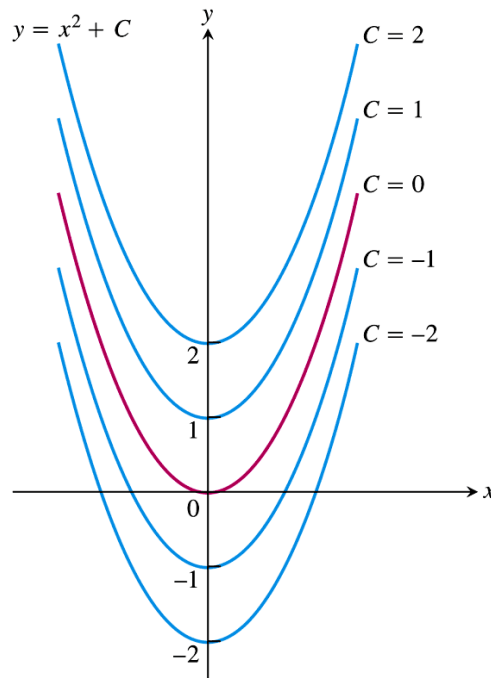
**Proof idea:**

Apply the Mean Value Theorem to the closed interval  $[x_1, x_2]$ .

**Corollary 2 (Functions with the same derivative differ by a constant)** If  $f'(x) = g'(x)$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , then  $f(x) = g(x) + C$  for some constant  $C \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Proof:** Consider  $h(x) = f(x) - g(x)$ . As  $h'(x) = f'(x) - g'(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ ,  $h(x) = C$  for some constant  $C \in \mathbb{R}$  by the previous corollary. Hence  $f(x) = g(x) + C$ . •

**Example:** If  $f(x) = x^2$  then  $f'(x) = 2x$ . Hence every function  $h$  for which  $h'(x) = f'(x) = 2x$  is of the form  $h(x) = f(x) + C = x^2 + C$  for some  $C \in \mathbb{R}$ .



## Monotonic functions

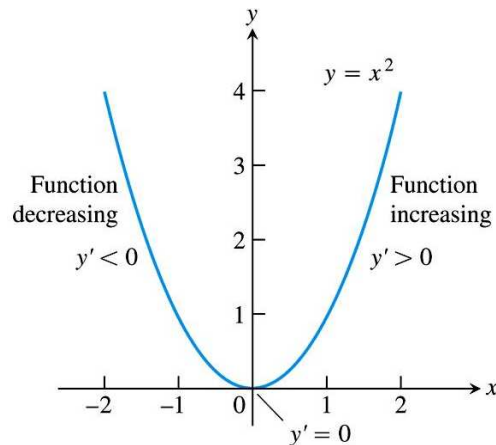
### DEFINITIONS Increasing, Decreasing Function

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  $I$ .

**Example:**  $f(x) = x^2$  decreases on  $(-\infty, 0]$  and increases on  $[0, \infty)$ . It is monotonic on  $(-\infty, 0]$  and on  $[0, \infty)$  but not monotonic on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .



**Theorem 4 (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  $[a, b]$ .

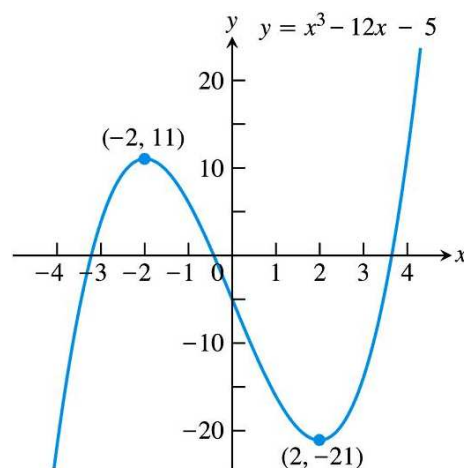
**Proof idea:**

The Mean Value theorem tells us that, for any  $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$  with  $x_1 < x_2$ , there exists a  $c \in [x_1, x_2]$  with  $f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(c)(x_2 - x_1)$ . Hence, the sign of  $f'(c)$  determines whether  $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$  or  $f(x_2) < f(x_1)$ .

**Example:** Find the critical points of  $f(x) = x^3 - 12x - 5$  and identify the intervals on which  $f$  is increasing and decreasing.

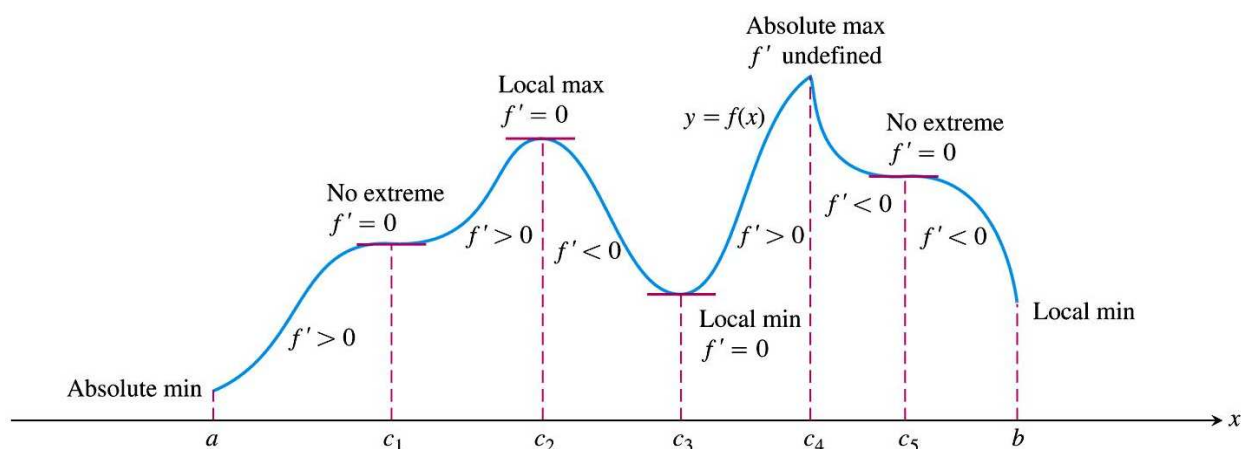
We have  $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 12 = 3(x^2 - 4) = 3(x + 2)(x - 2)$ . Hence  $f'(x) = 0$  implies that  $x = -2$  or  $x = 2$ . These critical points subdivide the natural domain of  $f$ ,  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , into three subintervals  $(-\infty, -2)$ ,  $(-2, 2)$ ,  $(2, \infty)$ . Since  $f'$  is continuous it will have constant sign on each of these subintervals by the Intermediate Value Theorem. Hence we can determine the sign of  $f'$  on each subinterval by computing  $f'(x)$  at *one* point  $x$  in the subinterval. We have:  $f'(-3) = 15$ ,  $f'(0) = -12$ ,  $f'(3) = 15$ . Thus

interval	$(-\infty, -2)$	$(-2, 2)$	$(2, \infty)$
sign of $f'$	+	-	+
behaviour of $f$	increasing	decreasing	increasing



## First derivatives and local extrema

Example:



- Whenever  $f$  has a local minimum,  $f' < 0$  to the left and  $f' > 0$  to the right.
- Whenever  $f$  has a local maximum,  $f' > 0$  to the left and  $f' < 0$  to the right.

This implies that the sign of  $f'$  changes at local extrema.

### 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  $c$ .

**Example:** Find the critical points of  $f(x) = x^{4/3} - 4x^{1/3}$ , identify the intervals on which  $f$  is increasing and decreasing, and find the function's extrema.

We have

$$f'(x) = \frac{4}{3}x^{1/3} - \frac{4}{3}x^{-2/3} = \frac{4(x-1)}{3x^{2/3}} = \frac{4(x-1)}{3(x^{1/3})^2}.$$

Hence  $f$  has two critical points at  $x = 1$  and  $x = 0$  and we have:

intervals	$x < 0$	$0 < x < 1$	$1 < x$
sign of $f'$	–	–	+
behaviour of $f$	decreasing	decreasing	increasing

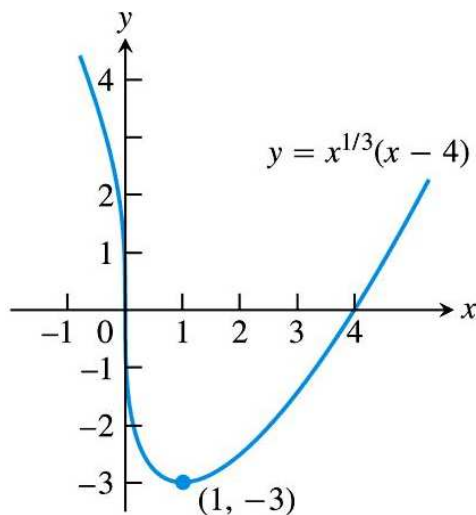
Apply the first derivative test to identify local extrema:

- $f'$  does not change sign at  $x = 0$  so  $f$  has no extremum at  $x = 0$ ;

- $f'$  changes sign from  $-$  to  $+$  at  $x = 1$  so  $f$  has a local minimum at  $x = 1$ .

Note that, since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = \infty$ , the local minimum at  $x = 1$  with  $f(1) = -3$  is also an *absolute minimum*.

Note also that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f'(x) = -\infty$  so the function is decreasing ‘infinitely fast’ when  $x = 0$ .

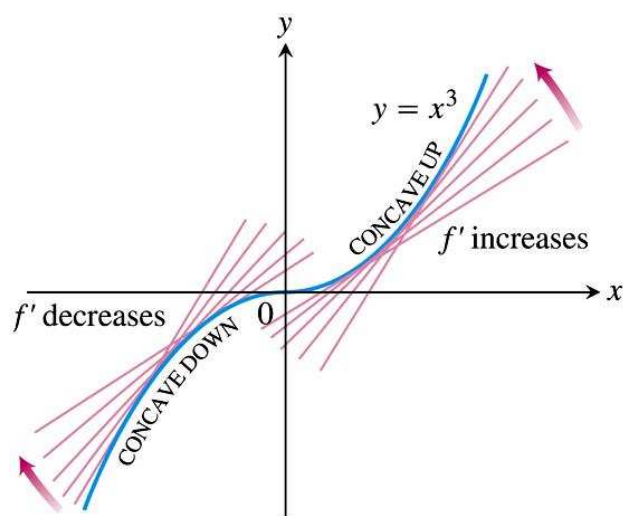


## Concave Functions

### 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  $I$ .



intervals	$x < 0$	$0 < x$
turning of curve	turns to the <i>right</i>	turns to the <i>left</i>
tangent slopes	decreasing	increasing

The turning or bending behaviour defines the *concavity* of the curve.

In the literature you often find that ‘concave up’ is referred to as *convex*, and ‘concave down’ is simply called *concave*.

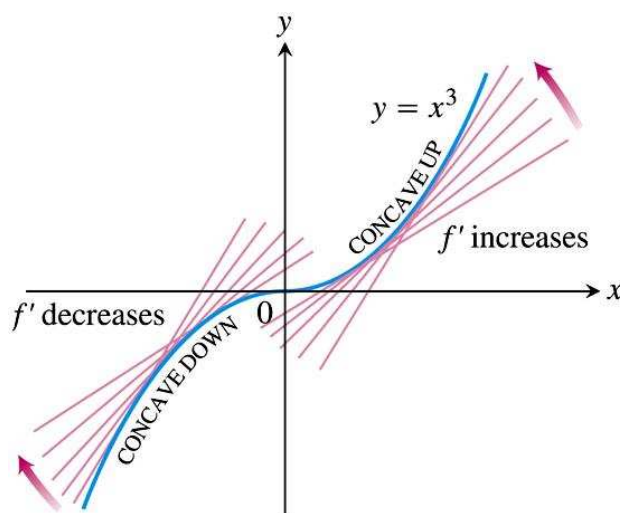
If  $f$  is twice differential on an interval  $I$ , the First Derivative Test for Monotonic Functions implies that  $f'$  *increases* on  $I$  if  $f''(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in I$  and *decreases* if  $f''(x) < 0$  for all  $x \in I$ . This gives:

### The Second Derivative Test for Concavity

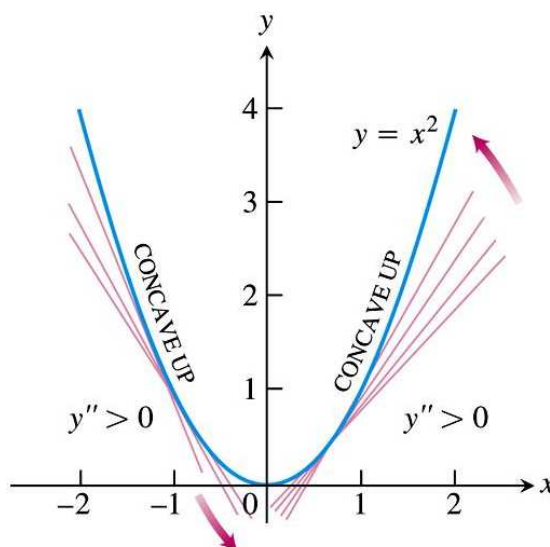
Let  $y = f(x)$  be twice-differentiable on an interval  $I$ .

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.

**Examples:** (1)  $y = x^3$ . We have  $y'' = 6x$ . For  $x \in (-\infty, 0)$ ,  $y''(x) < 0$  and so the graph is concave down. For  $x \in (0, \infty)$ ,  $y''(x) > 0$  and the graph is concave up.



(2)  $y = x^2$ . We have  $y''(x) = 2 > 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence the graph is concave up everywhere.



## Points of inflection

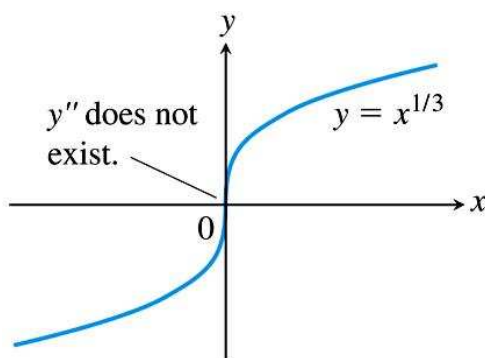
We saw in the first example above that the graph of  $y = x^3$  changes concavity at the point  $(0, 0)$ . Such a point is covered by the following definition.

### 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**.

The condition that the graph of the function has a tangent line at a point is more general than saying that the function is differentiable at the point since it allows the tangent line to be vertical (and hence the derivative to be ‘infinite’).

**Example** Consider  $y = x^{1/3}$ . We have  $y' = \frac{1}{3}x^{-2/3}$  and  $y'' = -\frac{2}{9}x^{-5/3}$ . Hence  $y''$  does not exist at  $x = 0$ . On the other hand  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} y''(x) = \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} y''(x) = -\infty$ . Thus  $y''$  changes sign as we pass through  $x = 0$  and we do have a point of inflection at  $x = 0$  (even though  $y''(0)$  does not exist).



Suppose  $f$  is a function. At a point of inflection  $(c, f(c))$  of  $f$  we have  $f''(x) > 0$  on one side of  $c$ ,  $f''(x) < 0$  on the other side of  $c$ , and either  $f''(c) = 0$  or  $f''$  is undefined at  $c$  itself. Thus, if  $f''(c)$  exists, then  $(c, f(c))$  is a point of inflection if and only if  $f''(c) = 0$  AND  $f'$  has a local maximum or minimum at  $x = c$ .

**Example:** Consider  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x$ . We have  $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 3$  and  $f''(x) = 6x$ . Since  $f''(0) = 0$  and  $f'(0) = -3$  is a local minimum of  $f'$ , the graph of  $f$  has a point of inflection at  $x = 0$ .

Note, however, that we can have  $f''(c) = 0$  without  $(c, f(c))$  being a point of inflection (when  $f'$  does not change sign at  $x = c$ ).

**Example** Consider  $y = x^4$ . We have  $y' = 4x^3$  and  $y'' = 12x^2$ . Thus  $y''(0) = 0$ . BUT  $y''$  does not change sign at  $x = 0$ . Hence there is no inflection point at  $x = 0$ .

