Calculus and Linear Algebra for Biomedical Engineering

# Week 8: Applications of differential calculus

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## **Motivation**

Consider the function  $f(x) = 2x^2 - \sqrt{x}$  on the interval [0, 1].



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*f* is continuous on  $[0, \pi]$ , hence we know that there exist  $x_{\text{max}}$  and  $x_{\min} \in [0, \pi]$  such that

 $f(x_{\max}) = \max\{f(x) : 0 \le x \le \pi\}$ ,  $f(x_{\min}) = \min(\{f(x) : 0 \le x \le \pi\}$ .

How do we find  $x_{\text{max}}, x_{\text{min}}$ ? How do we determine monotonicity of f?

## Theorem 1.

Let  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous, and differentiable on (a, b).

- ▶ f is increasing on [a, b] iff  $f'(x) \ge 0$ , for all  $x \in (a, b)$ .
- ▶ *f* is strictly increasing on [a, b] if f'(x) > 0, for all  $x \in (a, b)$ .
- ▶ *f* is decreasing on [a, b] iff  $f'(x) \leq 0$ , for all  $x \in (a, b)$ .
- ▶ *f* is strictly decreasing on [a, b] if f'(x) < 0, for all  $x \in (a, b)$ .

(Partial) Proof: Assume that  $x, y \in (a, b)$  with x < y. By the mean value theorem,

$$\frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} = f'(z) ,$$

for a suitable *z* between *x* and *y*. Since y > x, this equation implies that  $f(y) - f(x) \ge 0$  iff  $f'(z) \ge 0$ .

Let *f* be continuously differentiable on (a, b), and suppose that *f'* has only finitely many roots in (a, b). Then the monotonicity behaviour of *f* is determined as follows:

- Compute f'.
- ▶ Compute all roots  $x_0, \ldots, x_k$  of f' in (a, b).
- ▶ In each interval  $(x_i, x_{i+1})$ , determine the sign of f' by evaluating  $f'(c_i)$ , for suitable  $c_i \in (x_i, x_{i+1})$ .
- ▶ On  $[x_i, x_{i+1}]$ , *f* is strictly increasing, if  $f'(c_i) > 0$ ; otherwise *f* is strictly decreasing.

## An example

**Consider**  $f(x) = x^3 - 10x^2 - 7x + 50$ 







Hence, f' has roots -1/3 and 7



f (blue) increases wherever f' (red) is positive. Hence:

- ▶ f'(x) > 0 for  $x \in (-\infty, -1/3)$  and  $x \in (7, \infty)$  implies: f is strictly increasing on  $(-\infty, -1/3]$  and on  $[7, \infty)$ .
- ▶ f'(x) < 0 in (-1/3, 7) implies: f is strictly decreasing on [-1/3, 7].



## Extreme values

**Definition:** Let  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ , and  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ .

- ►  $x_0$  is called local minimum point if for a suitable  $\delta > 0$  and all  $x \in (b \delta, b + \delta) \cap [a, b], f(x_0) \leq f(x)$
- ►  $x_0$  is called local maximum point if for a suitable  $\delta > 0$  and all  $x \in (b \delta, b + \delta) \cap [a, b]$ ,  $f(x_0) \ge f(x)$
- ►  $x_0$  is called global minimum point of f on [a, b] if for all  $x \in [a, b]$ ,  $f(x_0) \leq f(x)$ .
- ►  $x_0$  is called global maximum point of f on [a, b] if for all  $x \in [a, b]$ ,  $f(x_0) \ge f(x)$ .
- The local (or global) minimum and maximum points are called local (or global) extrema.

Note: Global extrema are local extrema as well.

#### Illustration: Extreme values

The function  $f(x) = x^3 - 10x^2 - 7x + 50$  has two local maximum and two local minimum points in the interval [-3, 10] (which will be determined later).



#### Theorem 2

Let  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ , and  $x \in [a, b]$ .

- Suppose that *f* is decreasing in  $(x \delta, x] \cap [a, b]$ , and increasing in  $[x, x + \delta)$ , for some  $\delta > 0$ . Then *x* is a local minimum point.
- Suppose that *f* is increasing in  $(x \delta, x] \cap [a, b]$ , and decreasing in  $[x, x + \delta)$ , for some  $\delta > 0$ . Then *x* is a local maximum point.

### Informally:

- If f increases to the left of x and decreases to the right of x, then x is a local maximum point.
- For the boundary points a, b, only one-sided behaviour must be considered.

## Theorem 3.

Let  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be continuous, and differentiable on (a, b).

- ▶ If  $x \in [a, b]$  is such that  $f'(y) \leq 0$  for all  $y \in (x \delta, x) \cap [a, b]$ , and  $f'(y) \geq 0$  for all  $y \in (x, x + \delta) \cap [a, b]$ , then *f* is a local minimum point.
- ▶ If  $x \in [a, b]$  is such that  $f'(y) \ge 0$  for all  $y \in (x \delta, x) \cap [a, b]$ , and  $f'(y) \le 0$  for all  $y \in (x, x + \delta) \cap [a, b]$ , then *f* is a local maximum point.
- ▶ If  $x \in (a, b)$  is a local extremum point, then f'(x) = 0.

The analogous statements, with reversed inequalities, holds for local minimum points.

Note: The condition f'(x) = 0 (for an inner point) is only necessary, not sufficient. For sufficient criteria, we need higher derivatives.

Theorem 4. Assume that  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is 2k times differentiable, for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $a < x_0 < y$  be such that

$$f'(x_0) = f''(x_0) = \ldots = f^{(2k-1)}(x_0) = 0$$
.

▶ If  $f^{(2k)}(x_0) < 0$ , then *f* has a local maximum at  $x_0$ .

▶ If  $f^{(2k)}(x_0) > 0$ , then *f* has a local minimum at  $x_0$ .

If f<sup>(2k)</sup>(x<sub>0</sub>) = 0, and f is 2k+1 times differentiable with f<sup>(2k+1)</sup>(x<sub>0</sub>) ≠ 0, then f has neither a local maximum nor a local minimum at x<sub>0</sub>. (x<sub>0</sub> is a saddle point.)

## Example: Integer powers

Consider  $f(x) = x^n$ , with  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then

$$f'(0) = f''(0) = \dots = f^{(n-1)}(0) = 0$$
,  $f^{(n)}(0) = n! > 0$ .

Hence

▶ If *n* is even, say n = 2k, then  $x_0 = 0$  is a local minimum point.

▶ If *n* is odd, say n = 2k + 1, there is no local extremum at  $x_0 = 0$ 



We are interested in local and global extrema of  $f(x) = x^3 - 10x^2 - 7x + 50$  on the interval [-3, 10]. Recalling that

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 20x - 7 = (3x + 1)(x - 7), f''(x) = 6x - 20$$

we determine the following possible candidates for local extrema:

- ▶ Left boundary: x = -3. Because of f'(-3) = 80 > 0, x = -3 is a local minimum, with f(-3) = -46.
- First root: x = -1/3. We have f''(-1/3) = -22 < 0, which makes x = -1/3 a local maximum.
- Second root: x = 7. Here f''(7) = 22 > 0, hence x = 7 is a local minimum with f(7) = -146.
- ▶ Right boundary: x = 10. Because of f'(10) = 93 > 0, x = 10 is a local maximum, with f(x) = -20.

Comparing local extrema, we find that

▶  $x_{\min} = 7$  is a global minimum point in [-3, 10].

▶  $x_{\text{max}} = -1/3$  is a global maximum point in [-3, 10].



We study the function  $f(x) = 2x^2 - \sqrt{x}$  on the interval [0,1]. f is continuous on [0,1] and differentiable on (0,1).

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

$$f'(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow 4x = \frac{1}{2}x^{-1/2} \Leftrightarrow x^{3/2} = \frac{1}{8} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3$$
,

hence f'(x) = 0 only for  $x_0 = \frac{1}{4}$ .

- ►  $f''(x) = 4 + \frac{1}{4}x^{-3/2} > 0$ , for all  $x \in (0, 1)$ . In particular, f''(1/4) > 0, which makes 1/4 a local minimum point.
- For x < 1/4, we have 4x < 1, and  $x^{-1/2} > 1/2$ . Hence f'(x) < 0, and f is strictly decreasing on [0, 1/4].
- Similarly, f'(x) > 0 for x > 1/4, and f is strictly increasing.
- In particular, 0 is a local maximum point, and 1 is a local minimum point.

Conclusion: *f* strictly decreases on [0, 1/4], and strictly increases on [1/4, 1]. The boundaries are local maximum point, 1/4 is the unique local minimum point, which is therefore global.

f(1)=1 is the maximum of f on  $[0,1], \mbox{ and } f(1/4)=-0.375$  the minimum.



We want to prove the inequality

$$\sin(x) \ge \frac{2x}{\pi}$$

for all  $x \in [0, \pi/4]$ . For this purpose we let  $f(x) = \sin(x) - \frac{2x}{\pi}$ . We then need to show that  $f(x) \ge 0$  for all  $x \in [0, \pi/4]$ . We make the following observations:

$$\blacktriangleright f(0) = 0.$$

►  $f'(x) = \cos(x) - \frac{2}{\pi}$ . cos is decreasing on  $[0, \pi/4]$ , hence

$$f'(x) \ge f'(\pi/4) = \cos(\pi/4) - \frac{2}{\pi} \Longrightarrow 0.0705 > 0$$

► Hence *f* increases on  $[0, \pi/4]$ , in particular  $f(x) \ge f(0) = 0$ .

Definition. A function  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  is called convex if for all  $x, y \in [a, b]$ and all  $0 < \lambda < 1$ :

$$f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \le \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y)$$
.

f is called concave if -f is convex.

Note: As  $\lambda$  runs through (0,1), the points  $(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y, \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y))$  run through all points on the secant between x and y. Thus, convexity means that the secant between two points on the graph is above (or on) the graph.

Graphically, convexity means that the graph of f curves upwards.

**Graphically:** The function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is convex iff for all x, y, the secant between x and y is above the graph of f:



Theorem 5. Let  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable. Then f is convex iff f' is increasing. In particular, if f is twice differentiable, f is convex iff for all  $x \in (a, b)$ ,  $f''(x) \ge 0$ .

**Example:** The function  $f(x) = x^k$  (with  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ) is convex on  $\mathbb{R}$  iff  $k \leq 1$ , or if k is even:

• If 
$$k \leq 1$$
, then  $f''(x) = 0 \geq 0$ .

▶ If k is even, then  $f''(x) = k(k-1)x^{k-2} \ge 0$ , because k-2 is even.

▶ If k is odd, then  $f''(x) \le 0$  for  $x \le 0$ , hence f is concave on  $(-\infty, 0]$ , and  $f''(x) \ge 0$  for  $x \ge 0$  implies that f is convex on  $[0, \infty)$ .

**Definition.** Let  $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be a differentiable function.  $x_0 \in (a, b)$  is called inflection point if it is a local extremum of f'.

## Remarks:

- ► At inflection points, *f* changes between convexity and concavity.
- Inflection points are determined from higher derivatives of f by applying Theorems 3 and 4 to f'. In particular, all inflection points are roots of the second derivative.

Consider  $f(x) = x^3 - 10x^2 - 7x + 50$ . Candidates for inflection points are the roots of f''. Here we have

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 20x - 7$$
,  $f''(x) = 6x - 20$ ,  $f'''(x) = 6 > 0$ 

Hence  $x_0 = \frac{10}{3}$  is an inflection point. *f* is concave on  $(-\infty, 10/3]$ , and convex on  $[10/3, \infty)$ .



We want to prove the inequality

$$\sin(x) \ge \frac{2x}{\pi}$$

for all  $x \in [0, \pi/2]$ . For this purpose we let  $f(x) = \sin(x) - \frac{2x}{\pi}$ . We want to show  $f \ge 0$  on  $[0, \pi/2]$ .

Noting that  $f''(x) = -\sin(x) \le 0$ , for all  $x \in [0, \pi/2]$ , we conclude that f is concave on  $[0, \pi/2]$ .

In particular, the secant between  $0, \pi/2$  is below the graph of f. But

$$f(0) = 0 = f\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

shows that the secant through  $0, \pi/2$  is on the *x*-axis, hence  $f(x) \ge 0$  for all  $x \in [0, \pi/2]$ .

## Convergence to $\infty$

**Definition.** Let  $f : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ , and  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = \infty$  if

- ▶ There exists a sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset (a, b)$  with  $x_0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$
- For every sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset (a, b)$  with  $x_0 = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n$ ,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) = \infty \; .$$

**Example:**  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ , defined on (0, 1), fulfills  $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x) = \infty$ 



Theorem 6. Let  $f, g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable functions, and  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ . Assume that either

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \to x_0} g(x) = 0 \text{ or } \lim_{x \to x_0} |f(x)| = \lim_{x \to x_0} |g(x)| = \infty .$$

If there exists  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$y = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

then

$$y = \lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

Consider f(x) = sin(x)/x, for x ≠ 0.
Both denominator and enumerator converge to 0 as x → 0. Hence, taking derivatives of both,

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\cos(x)}{1} = 1 \; .$$

► Consider  $g(x) = \frac{\cos(x)-1}{x^2}$ , for  $x \neq 0$ . Both denominator and enumerator converge to 0 as  $x \to 0$ . Taking derivatives of both gives  $\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$ , which we know to converge. Hence

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\cos(x) - 1}{x^2} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{-\sin(x)}{2x} = -\frac{1}{2}$$

Note that we obtained this result by a repeated application of L'Hospital's theorem.

- Properties of curves: Monotonicity, local and global extrema, convexity
- Criteria based on derivatives
- A systematic analysis of functions is based on
  - ▷ Computation of derivatives.
  - Computation of roots, signs of derivatives on
  - ▷ Interpretation of signs and roots: Roots of f' correspond to extrema, roots of f'' to inflection points. The sign of f' corresponds to monotonicity, the sign of f'' to convexity.
- L'Hopital's theorem for the computation of limits.