Math for Economists, Calculus 1

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WEEK 3

1 Applications of Derivatives

1.1 Using the Derivative for Graphing

Theorem 1 (a) If $f'(x_0) > 0$, then there is an open interval containing x_0 on which f is increasing.

(b) If $f'(x_0) < 0$, then there is an open interval containing x_0 on which f is decreasing.

Proof. (a) By definition

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} = f'(x_0) > 0.$$

Thus if h is small enough, since $f'(x_0) > 0$, we have

$$\frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} > 0$$

too, and assuming h being positive we obtain

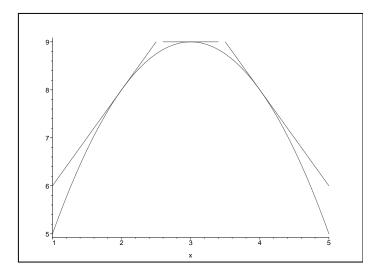
$$f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0) > 0$$

that is $f(x_0 + h) > f(x_0)$, i.e. f is increasing near x_0 .

(b) Similarly, if $f'(x_0) < 0$ then $f(x_0+h) - f(x_0) < 0$, thus f is decreasing near x_0 . Q.E.D. (quod erat demonstrandum).

Definition 1 A point x_0 is called **critical point** of f if $f'(x_0) = 0$ or $f'(x_0)$ is not defined.

A critical point is potential local minimum or local maximum point of f.



Examples

1. For $f(x) = x^2$ the point x = 0 is critical: $f'(0) = 2x|_{x=0} = 0$, and it is a point of minimum.

2. For $f(x) = -x^2$ the point x = 0 is critical: $f'(0) = -2x|_{x=0} = 0$, and it is a point of maximum.

3. For $f(x) = x^3$ the point x = 0 is critical: $f'(0) = 3x^2|_{x=0} = 0$, but this is neither minimum nor minimum.

4. For f(x) = |x| the point x = 0 is critical: the derivative f'(0) does not exist, and it is a point of minimum.

5. For $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ the point x = 0 is "critical": the derivative f'(0) does not exist (as well as f(0)), but this is neither minimum nor maximum.

1.1.1 Graphing Algorithm "Sign Chart"

1. Find all critical points, say x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n .

2. Find (if possible) $f(x_1)$, $f(x_2)$, ..., $f(x_n)$ and plot the corresponding points of the graph.

3. Check the sign of f' on each of intervals

$$(-\infty, x_1), (x_1, x_2), \dots, (x_{n-1}, x_n), (x_n, +\infty).$$

4. If f' > 0 on interval (x_i, x_{i+1}) , draw the graph increasing connecting $f(x_i)$ and $f(x_{i+1})$. If f' < 0 on interval (x_i, x_{i+1}) , draw the graph decreasing connecting $f(x_i)$ and $f(x_{i+1})$.

Example

Plot the graph of the function $f(x) = 2x^3 + 3x^2 - 12x$. Solution.

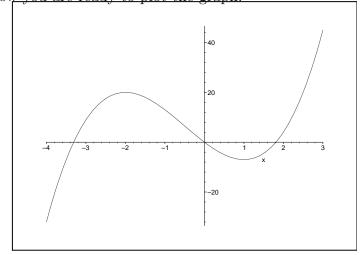
- 1. Derivative $f'(x) = 3x^2 + 6x 12$.
- 2. Critical points $6x^2 + 6x 12 = 0$, $x_1 = -2$, $x_2 = 1$.

3. Sign Chart

x	$-\infty, -2)$	-2	(-2,1)	1	$(1, +\infty)$
$\int f'(x)$		0	+	0	—
f(x)	K	20	\nearrow	-7	X

4. *y*-intercept f(0) = 0.

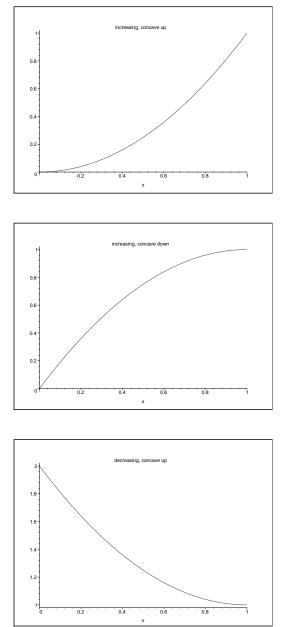
5. x-intercept f(x) = 0, $2x^3 + 3x^2 - 12 * x = 0$, $x(2x^2 - 3x - 12) = 0$ $x_1 = \frac{-1 - \sqrt{105}}{4} \approx -3.3$, $x_2 = 0$, $x_3 = \frac{-1 + \sqrt{105}}{4} \approx 1.8$. Now you are ready to plot the graph:

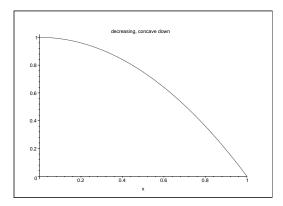


1.1.2 Second Derivatives and Convexity

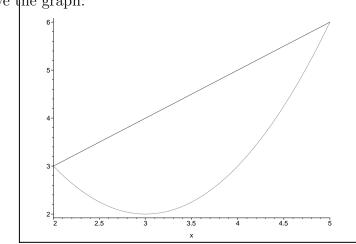


Using calculus we can learn about the function more than where it is increasing or decreasing. For example where a function is *concave up* or *concave down*.

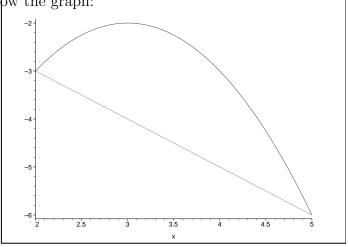




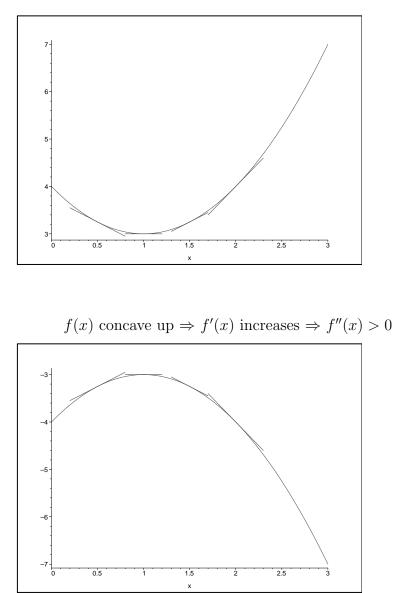
A function f is called **concave up** or simply convex if the secant line lies above the graph:



A function f is called **concave down** or simply concave if the secant line lies below the graph:

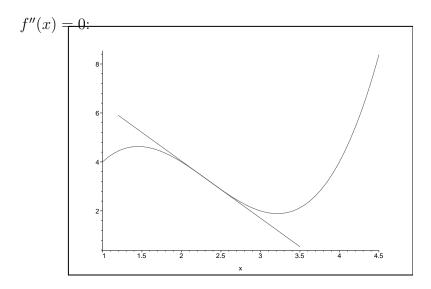


Second derivative test for concavity: f is concave up if f'' > 0, and f'' is concave down if f'' < 0.



f(x) concave down $\Rightarrow f'(x)$ decreases $\Rightarrow f''(x) < 0$

A second order critical point, or inflection point, is a point where



2 Graphing Rational Functions

2.1 Vertical Asymptotes

A rational function is a ratio of two polynomials

$$f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}.$$

Suppose x_0 is a root of denominator, i.e. $Q(x_0) = 0$. Then f(x) is not defined for x_0 (that is x_0 is not in the domain of f), so the graph of f can not intersect the vertical line that crosses the x-axes at x_0 . This vertical line is called **vertical asymptote** of f. Its equation is $x = x_0$.

On either side of vertical asymptote the graph goes to $+\infty$ or $-\infty$. The sign chart clarifies to find out which, but do not forget to include that x_0 (a zero of the denominator) to the list of critical points. Namely,

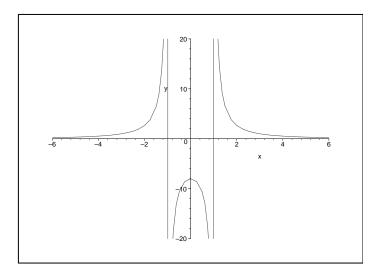
(left+) If f' > 0 just to the left of the asymptote, then f must go to $+\infty$ to the left of asymptote.

(left-) If f' < 0 just to the left of the asymptote, then f must go to $-\infty$ to the left (right) of asymptote.

(right+) If f' < 0 just to the right of the asymptote, then f must go to $+\infty$ to the right of asymptote.

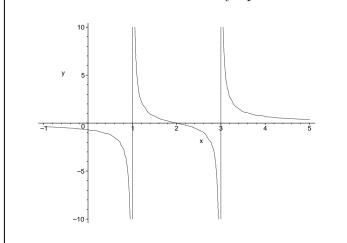
(right-) If f' > 0 just to the right of the asymptote, then f must go to $-\infty$ to the right of asymptote.

All four cases are demonstrated on this graph:

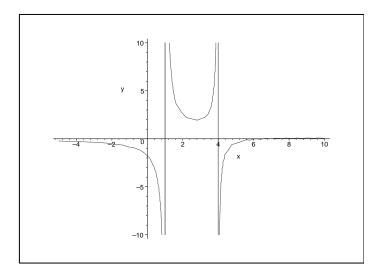


$$f(x) = \frac{8}{x^2 - 1}, \quad f'(x) = -\frac{16x}{(x^2 - 1)^2}$$

Two more functions with vertical asymptotes:



$$f(x) = \frac{x-2}{(x-1)(x-3)}, f'(x) = -\frac{x^2-4x+5}{(x-1)^2(x-3)^2}$$



$$f(x) = \frac{x-7}{(x-1)(x-4)} \quad f'(x) = -\frac{x^2 - 14x + 31}{(x-1)^2(x-4)^2}$$

2.2 Tails and Horizontal Asymptotes

The "tail" of the graph is the shape of the graph for large positive and large negative values of x.

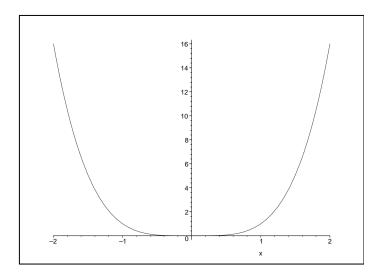
2.2.1 Tails of a monomial

For a monomial $f(x) = ax^n$ with a > 0 we have:

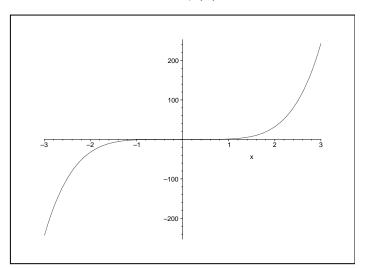
When $x \to +\infty$ then $f(x) \to +\infty$, so the right tail goes to $+\infty$;

If n is even, when $x \to -\infty$ then $f(x) \to +\infty$, so the left tail goes to $+\infty$;

If n is odd, when $x \to -\infty$ then $f(x) \to -\infty$, so the left tail goes to $-\infty$. For a < 0 the situation is symmetric to the above (observe it!).



 $f(x) = x^4$



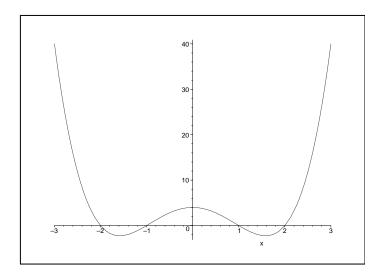
$$f(x)=x^5$$

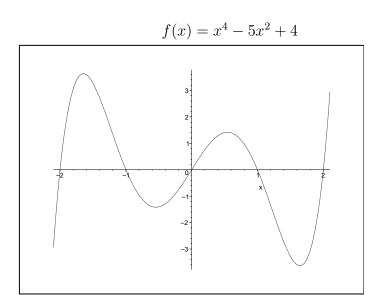
2.2.2 Tails of a polynomial

The shape of the tail of a polynomial

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 \dots + a_n x^n,$$

is the same as the shape of the **leading term** $a_n x^n$.





$$f(x) = x^5 - 5x^3 + 4x$$

2.2.3 Horizontal Asymptotes

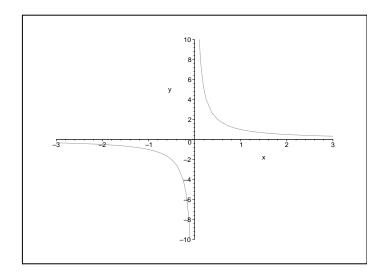
The line y = b is a **horizontal asymptote** of f if either of following conditions hold:

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} f(x) = b, \quad \lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) = b.$$

Examples

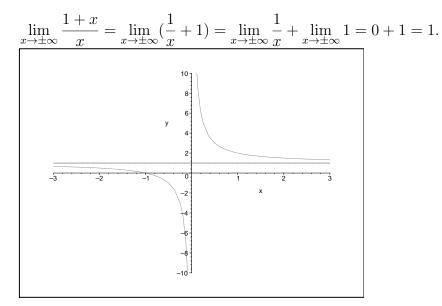
1. The function $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ has horizontal asymptote y = 0, i.e. the x-axis:

$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0.$$



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

2. The function $f(x) = \frac{1+x}{x}$ has horizontal asymptote y = 1. Indeed, $\frac{1+x}{x} = \frac{1}{x} + 1$, so

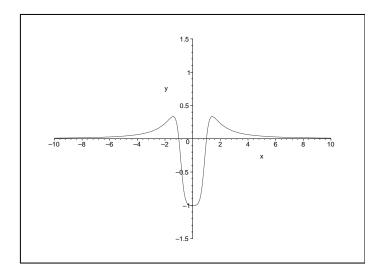


$$f(x) = \frac{x+1}{x}$$

3. The function $f(x) = \frac{x^4-1}{x^6+1}$ has horizontal asymptote y = 0, i.e. the x-axis:

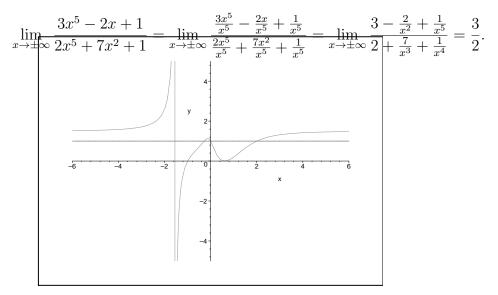
$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \frac{x^4 - 1}{x^6 + 1} = \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \frac{\frac{x^4}{x^6} - \frac{1}{x^6}}{\frac{x^6}{x^6} + \frac{1}{x^6}} = \lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x^2} - \frac{1}{x^6}}{1 + \frac{1}{x^6}} = \frac{0}{1} = 0.$$

Pay attention that this function *intersects* its horizontal asymptote y = 0: x = -1 and x = 1 are the solutions of the equation f(x) = 0.



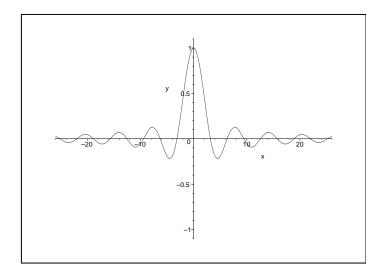
$$f(x) = \frac{x^4 - 1}{x^6 + 1}$$

4. The function $f(x) = \frac{3x^5 - 2x + 1}{2x^5 + 7x^2 + 1}$ has horizontal asymptote $y = \frac{3}{2}$:



$$f(x) = \frac{3x^5 - 2x + 1}{2x^5 + 7x^2 + 1}$$

5. The function $y = \frac{1}{x} \cdot \sin x$ has a horizontal asymptote y = 0 and the graph of the function intercepts his asymptote infinitely many times at the points $x = \pi k + \pi/2$.



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x} \cdot \sin x$$

Generally, the behavior of a rational function

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0 + a_1 \cdot x + \dots + a_m \cdot x^m}{b_0 + b_1 \cdot x + \dots + b_n \cdot x^n}$$

"ad infinitum" mirrors the behavior of the quotient of leading terms

$$l(x) = \frac{a_m \cdot x^m}{b_n \cdot x^n} = \frac{a_m}{b_n} x^{m-n}$$

Case 1 m > n, in this case

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \to \infty} l(x) = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{a_m}{b_n} x^{m-n} = +\infty,$$

so no horizontal asymptote in this case.

Case 2 m = n, in this case

$$lim_{x\to\infty}f(x) = lim_{x\to\infty}l(x) = lim_{x\to\infty}\frac{a_m}{b_m}x^{m-m} = \frac{a_m}{b_m}$$

so the horizontal asymptote in this case is the line $y = \frac{a_m}{b_m}$.

Case 3 m < n, in this case

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \to \infty} l(x) = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{a_m}{b_n} \frac{1}{x^{n-m}} = 0,$$

so the horizontal asymptote in this case is the x-axes y = 0.

2.2.4 Oblique Asymptotes

The line y = ax + b is an **oblique asymptote** of $f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ if

$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} (f(x) - (ax + b)) = 0.$$

Such asymptote exists if deg P(x) = deg Q(x) + 1. This is the linear function y = ax + b which is the quotient of division P(x) : Q(x).

Reminder. The quotient of division of 14: 4 is q = 3 and the reminder is r = 2, that is

$$\frac{14}{4} = 3 + \frac{2}{4}, \quad or \quad 14 = 3 \cdot 4 + 2,$$

notice that r = 2 < 4.

Generally, The quotient of division of a : b is q and the reminder is r if

$$\frac{a}{b} = q + \frac{r}{b}, \quad a = b \cdot q + r,$$

and $0 \leq r < b$.

If a and b are polynomials, then the quotient of division of a : b is q and the reminder is r if $a = b \cdot q + r$ and $0 \le \deg r < \deg b$.

For example for $a = x^3 + 2x^2 + 3x$ and $b = x^2 - x + 1$ we have q = x + 3 and r = 5x - 3, indeed

$$b \cdot q + r = (x^2 - x + 1) \cdot (x + 3) + 5x - 3 = x^3 - x^2 + x + 3x^2 - 3x + 3 + 5x - 3 = x^3 + 2x^2 + 3x = a$$

Division of polynomials by MAPLE:

 $>a := x^3 + 2 * x^2 + 3 * x;$

$$a := x^3 + 2 * x^2 + 3 * x$$

$$> b := x^2 - x + 1;$$

$$b := x^2 - x + 1$$

> q := quo(a, b, x);

$$q = x + 3$$

>r := rem(a, b, x);

$$r = 5x + 3$$

> evala(b * q + r);

$$x^3 + 2 * x^2 + 3 * x$$

Examples 1. Find the oblique asymptote of $\frac{x^3+1}{x^2-1}$.

Solution. Division gives

$$(x^{3}+1):(x^{2}-1)=x \ rem(x+1),$$

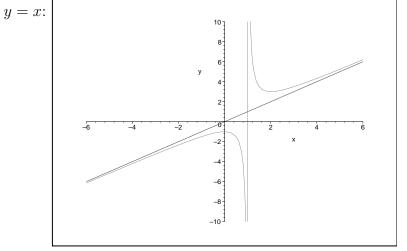
that is

$$\frac{x^3+1}{x^2-1} = x + \frac{x+1}{x^2-1}$$

or

$$x^{3} + 1 = (x^{2} - 1) \cdot x + (x + 1),$$

so the <u>quotient is x and the remainder is x - 1. The oblique asymptote is</u>



2. Find the oblique asymptote of $\frac{2x^3+4x^2-9}{-x^2+3}$.

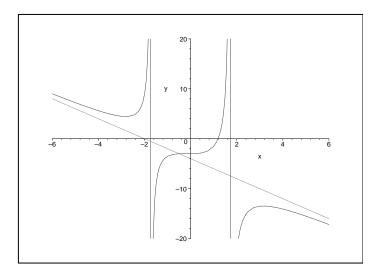
Solution. Division gives

$$(2x^{3} + 4x^{2} - 9) : (-x^{2} + 3) = (-2x - 4) \ rem(6x + 3),$$

that is

$$\frac{x^3+1}{x^2-1} = -2x - 4 + \frac{6x+3}{-x^2+1}$$

so the quotient is -2x-4 and the remainder is 6x+3. The oblique asymptote is y = -2x - 4.



Summary: Asymptotes of rational Functions 2.3

A rational function

$$f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{a_0 + a_1 \cdot x + \dots + a_n \cdot x^n}{b_0 + b_1 \cdot x + \dots + b_m \cdot x^m}$$

has:

(a) Vertical asymptotes at zeros of denominator.

(b) If deg P(x) > deg Q(x) then f has no Horizontal asymptotes.

(c) If deg P(x) = deg Q(x) + 1 then f has an oblique asymptote, which is the linear function y = ax + b, the quotient of division P(x) : Q(x).

(d) If deg P(x) = deg Q(x) then f has Horizontal asymptote $y = \frac{a_n}{b_m}$.

(e) If deg P(x) < deg Q(x) then f has Horizontal asymptote y = 0.

Examples of Graphing $\mathbf{2.4}$

Example 1. Sketch the graph of $f(x) = \frac{8}{x^2-4}$. Solution.

1. Intercepts. There are no x-intercepts, and the y-intercept is f(0) =-2.

2. Asymptotes.

Vertical: $x^2 - 4 = 0$, x = -2, x = 2. Horizontal: y = 0. Oblique: no. **3. Derivatives.** $f'(x) = \frac{-16x}{(x^2-4)^2}$, $f''(x) = \frac{16(3x^2+4)}{(x^2-4)^3}$. **4. Critical points.** x = -2, x = 2, and $f'(x) = \frac{-16x}{(x^2-4)^2} = 0$, x = 0.

5. Increasing and decreasing intervals of f.

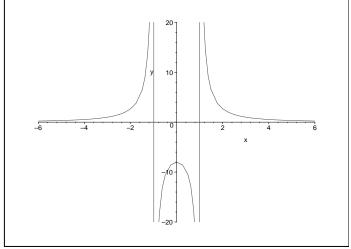
x	$(-\infty, -2)$	-2	(-2,0)	0	(0, 2)	2	$(2, +\infty)$
f'(x)	+	no	+	0	—	no	—
f(x)	\nearrow	no	\nearrow	-2	\searrow	no	\searrow

6. Inflection points. x = -2, x = 2, and $f''(x) = \frac{16(3x^2+4)}{(x^2-4)^3} = 0$ has no solution.

7. Concavity.

ſ	x	$(-\infty, -2)$	-2	(-2,2)	2	$(2, +\infty)$
	f''(x)	+	no	—	no	+
	f(x)	$conc. \ up$	no	conc. down	no	conc. up

8. Sketch the graph. Now you are ready to sketch the graph using this inf<u>ormation</u>:



Example 2. Sketch the graph of $f(x) = \frac{x^2+4}{x}$. Solution.

1. Intercepts. There are no *x*-intercepts, and no *y*-intercept.

2. Asymptotes.

Vertical: x = 0. Horizontal: no. Oblique: yes, the division gives f(x) = $x + \frac{4}{x}$, f has the oblique asymptote y = x. **3. Derivatives.** $f'(x) = \frac{x^2-4}{x^2}$, $f''(x) = \frac{8}{x^3}$. **4. Critical points.** x = -2, x = 0, x = 2.

- 5. Increasing and decreasing intervals of f.

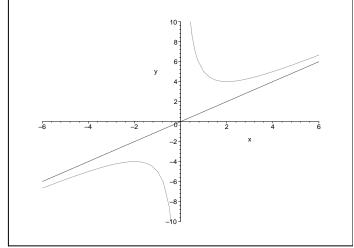
x	$(-\infty,-2)$	-2	(-2,0)	0	(0,2)	2	$(2, +\infty)$
f'(x)	+	0	-	no		0	+
f(x)	\nearrow	-4	X	no	X	4	\nearrow

6. Inflection points. $f''(x) = \frac{8}{x^3} = 0$ has no solution, and f''(0) does not exists, so x = 0 can be considered as an inflection point (where may be concavity changes).

7. Concavity.

x	$(-\infty,0)$	0	$(0, +\infty)$
f''(x)	_	no	+
f(x)	conc. down	no	conc. up

8. Sketch the graph. Now you are ready to sketch the graph using this inf<u>ormation:</u>



3 Maxima and Minima

A function f has a local (or relative) interior maximum at x_0 if $f(x) \le f(x_0)$ for all x in some open interval containing x_0 .

A function f has a global (or absolute) maximum at x_0 if $f(x) \leq f(x_0$ for all x in the domain of f.

A function f has a local (or relative) interior minimum at x_0 if $f(x) \ge f(x_0)$ for all x in some open interval containing x_0 .

A function f has a global (or absolute) minimum at x_0 if $f(x) \ge f(x_0$ for all x in the domain of f.

A max or min can also occur at a boundary point of the domain of f. In this case it is called **boundary max** or **boundary min**.

3.1 First Order Conditions

Theorem 2 If x_0 is an interior max or min of f then x_0 is a critical point.

This means that the criticality is a *necessary* condition for optimality So we must seek interior min or max points among critical points. But if x_0 is a critical point, how can we decide wether it is min, max or neither?

3.2 Second Order Condition

Theorem 3 (a) If $f'(x_0) = 0$ and $f''(x_0) < 0$, then x_0 is a local max of f; (b) If $f'(x_0) = 0$ and $f''(x_0) > 0$, then x_0 is a local min of f; (c) If $f'(x_0) = 0$ and $f''(x_0) = 0$, then the second derivative test fails.

So the second order condition is *sufficient* for optimality.

3.3 Global Maxima and Minima

What conditions guarantee that a given critical point x_0 of f is a **global** max or min?

3.3.1 Only One Critical Point Case

Suppose

(a) the domain of f is an open interval (finite or infinite) of R;

(b) x_0 is a local max (min) of f;

(c) x_0 is the only critical point of f

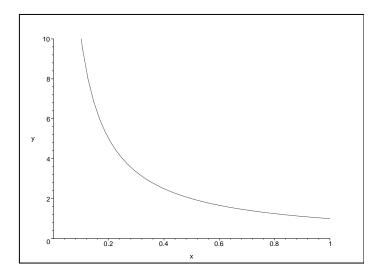
Then x_0 is the global max (min).

3.3.2 Nowhere Zero Second Derivative Case

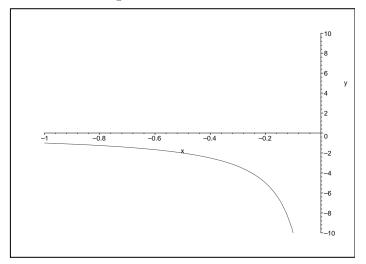
If the domain of f is an open interval (finite or infinite) I of R and f''(x) is newer zero on I, then f has at most one critical point in I. This critical point is global maximum if f'' < 0 and global minimum if f'' > 0.

3.3.3 How to Find Global max and min

A function f defined on an open interval need not have a global min or max:



 $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ does not have a global max on (0, 1)



 $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ does not have a global min on (-1, 0)

However, a function f defined on a closed and bounded interval [a, b] must have both a global min and global max.

How to find them?

(1) Find all critical points in (a, b);

(2) Evaluate f at these critical points and at the endpoints a and b;

(3) Choose the point from among these that gives the largest value of f (max) and smallest value of f (min).

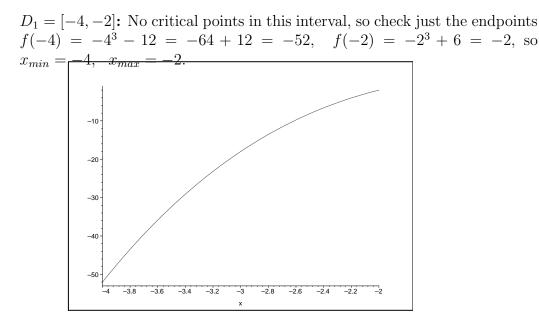
Example

Find the global max and global min for $f(x) = x^3 - 3x$ on

(a)
$$D = [-4, -2],$$
 (b) $D_2 = (0, \infty).$

Solution. Derivative $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 3$. Critical points

$$3x^2 - 3x = 0$$
, $x^2 - 1 = 0$, $(x - 1)(x + 1) = 0$, $x_1 = -1$, $x_2 = 1$.



 $D_2 = (0, \infty)$: The critical point $x_2 = 1$ belongs to D_2 , and it is a local min point: $f''(1) = 6x|_1 = 6 > 0$, besides, since f''(x) = 6x > 0 in whole interval $(0, \infty)$, it is global.

