

# PS 2010: 2. Derivative

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- Recitation time: Friday, 8:30-9:45 at 4801
- Extra Material ([click me](#))
- The first Homework Assignment is out. Due: Sep 8th, 8:59:59am

# Agenda

- Motivation
- Tangent Line
- Limit
- Rules of Differentiation
- Partial and Total Derivative
- Optimization

# Motivation

- Political scientist interested in marginal effect of...
  - unemployment rate on voter turnout
  - economic performance on government trust
  - ethnic diversity on conflict
  - return to interest groups lobbying for a judicial nomination
- We also want to know
  - decision to join collective actions
  - best defense and offense strategies during conflicts
  - optimal sentencing length to minimize repeat offenses
- Derivatives, differentiation, and optimization provide analytical tools

# Tangent Lines

**Definition:** A tangent line to the function  $f(x)$  at the point  $x = a$  is a line that just touches the graph of the function at the point in question and is “parallel” (in some way) to the graph at that point.

Two Key Words:

- Just touches the graph
- For a given value on  $x$

# Tangent Lines

Figure: This is a tangent line

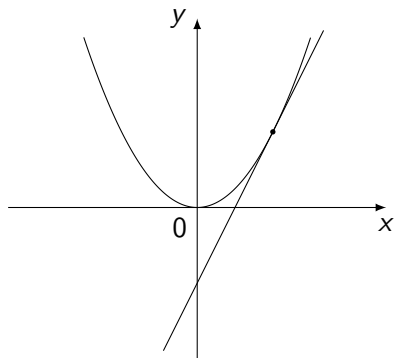
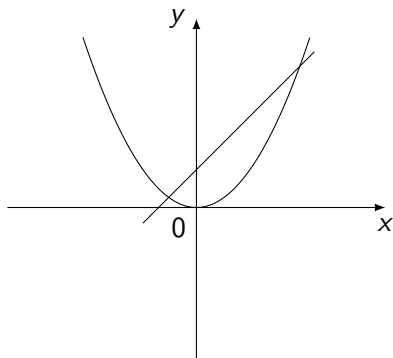


Figure: This is not a tangent line



- However, the line in the right graph is a **secant line**.

# Calculate Slope

- We need to know how to calculate the slope of a line:

$$m = \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{y_2 - y_1}{x_2 - x_1}$$

- Example:  $f(x) = 3x$ ,  $x_1 = 1$ ,  $x_2 = 2$

$$m = \frac{f(2) - f(1)}{2 - 1}$$

$$m = \frac{6 - 3}{2 - 1}$$

$$m = 3$$

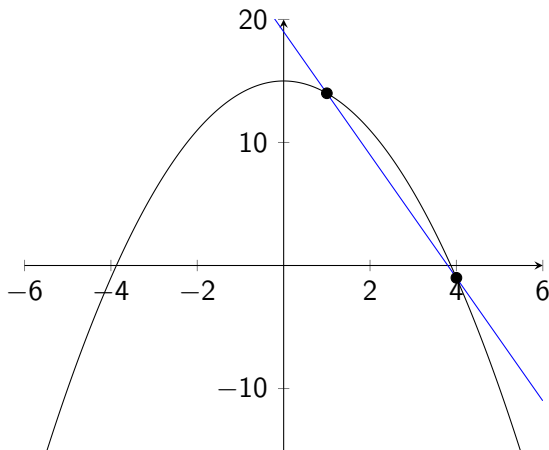
# Find Tangent Line

- $f(x) = 15 - x^2$ , at  $x = 1$
- Logic: to find a line, we need to find at least two points on the line or we know the slope of the line.
- We already have one point  $x = 1 \Rightarrow (1, 14)$
- So the next job is to find the slope, then we can define a line



## Step 1

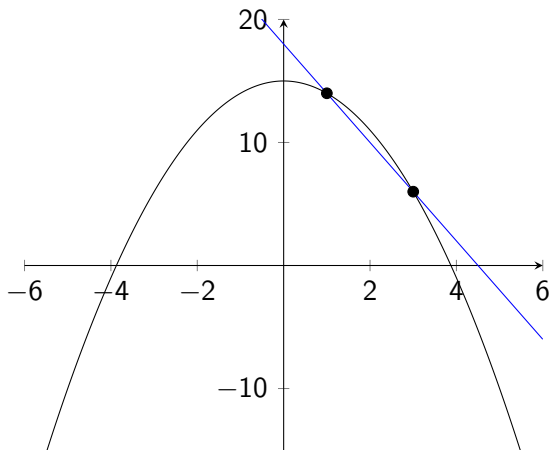
Let use point when  $x = 4$ , that is  $y = -1$



It is a secant line, not tangent. So let's decrease to  $x = 3$

## Continue Step 1

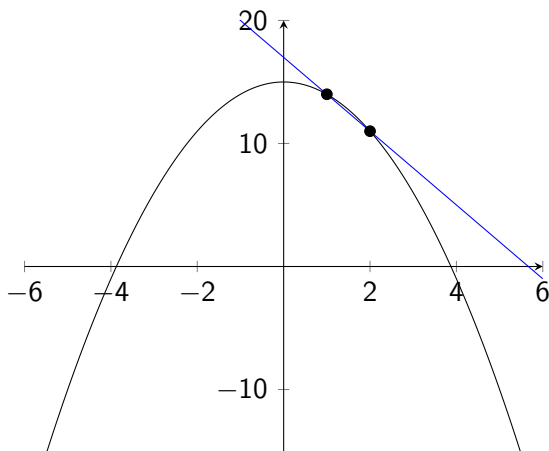
When  $x = 3$ , that is  $y = 6$ , we draw the line again



Pretty close but not good enough, let's try  $x = 2$

## Continue Step 1

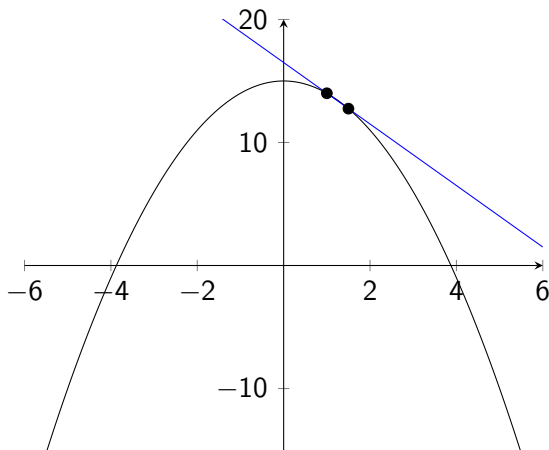
When  $x = 2$ , that is  $y = 11$ , we draw the line again



Pretty close but not good enough, let's try  $x = 1.5$

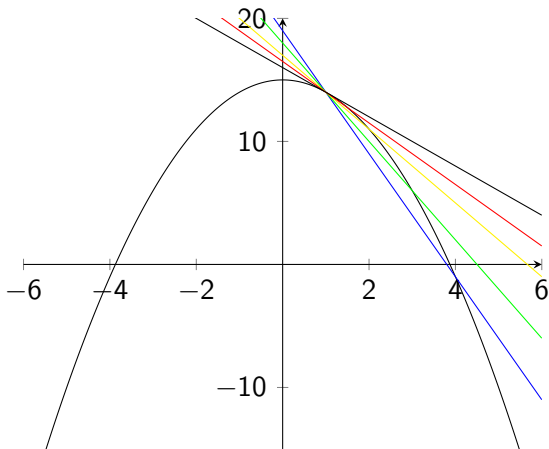
## Continue Step 1

When  $x = 1.5$ , that is  $y = 12.75$



Pretty close but not good enough, let's try  $x = 1.5$

Pattern: when  $x$  approaches to 1, the secant lines also approach to the tangent line.



## Final Step

- If so, let  $x = 1.001$ , then  $y = 13.998$
- Then, we have two point  $(1, 14)$ , and  $(1.001, 13.998)$
- We can get slope of the secant line, which is very very very close to the slope of tangent line

$$m = \frac{13.998-14}{1.001-1} = \frac{-0.002}{0.001} = -2$$

- Finally, we have slope = -2 and a point  $(1, 14)$ , we can define:

$$-2 = \frac{f(x) - 14}{x - 1}$$

$$-2(x - 1) = f(x) - 14$$

$$-2x + 2 = f(x) - 14$$

$$f(x) = -2x + 16$$

# Summary

- Another example here
- In all examples, we approach the point from one direction. Results are the same when approach from both left and right.
- Remember: they are tangent lines at given points
- The slope of the tangent reflect the **instantaneous rate of change** at a point.

# Limit

- When we choose  $x$  value (e.g  $x = 1.001$ ) that approach to certain value (e.g  $x = 1$ )
- And we plug in this value ( $x = 1.001$ ) to function and get the output
- If we do this from both side, that is  $x = 1.001$  and  $x = 0.999$ , and get function outputs
- Then, this is actually taking the limit of a function at a point.



# Definition of Limit

**Definition:** We say that the limit of  $f(x)$  is  $L$  as  $x$  approaches point  $h$  and write this as:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow h} f(x) = L$$

provided we can make  $f(x)$  as close to  $L$  as we want **for all  $x$  sufficiently close to  $h$** , from both sides, **without actually letting  $x$  be  $h$** .

- This is not precise definition of a limit, but it is enough for our class.

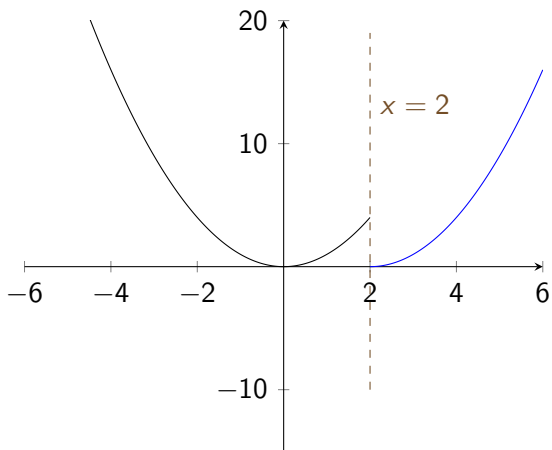
# Examples

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x + 4$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 3x + 5}{x - 2}$

# Special Cases

Notice: Limits are asking what the function is doing around  $x = h$ , we are not concerned with what the function is actually doing at  $x = h$ .

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{8-x^3}{x^2-4}$
- $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & : x < 2 \\ (x-2)^2 & : x \geq 2 \end{cases}$



# Properties of Limits

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow h}(f(x) + g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow h} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow h} g(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow h}(f(x) - g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow h} f(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow h} g(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow h}(f(x) * g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow h} f(x) * \lim_{x \rightarrow h} g(x)$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow h} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow h} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow h} g(x)}$

# Derivative

- **Definition:** The instantaneous rate of change of a function (also means the slope of tangent line) at a given  $x$ .
- Formally, The derivative of  $f(x)$  with respect to  $x$  is the function  $f'(x)$  and is defined as,

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

- We also write it as:  $\frac{d}{dx} f(x)$  or  $\frac{dy}{dx}$

## Example

- $f(x) = 3 - 14x^2$ 
  - Is the function increasing or decreasing when  $x = 1$
  - Is the function increasing or decreasing when  $x = -1$
- Determine  $f'(0)$  for  $f(x) = |x|$

# Differentiation

- A function  $f(x)$  is called differentiable at  $x = a$  if  $f'(a)$  exists
- $f(x)$  is called differentiable on an interval if the derivative exists for each point in that interval.
- Discontinuity at a point implies no limit at that point, which further implies not differentiable at that point.



# Rules of Differentiation 1

- The derivative of a constant is zero: If  $f(x) = c$ , then  $f'(x) = 0$
- **The power rule:** If  $f(x) = x^n$ , then  $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$
- Examples:
  - $f(x) = 2x^6 + 7x^{-6}$
  - $f(x) = \sqrt{x} + 9\sqrt[3]{x^7} - \frac{2}{\sqrt[5]{x^2}}$

## Rules of Differentiation 2

- **Product Rule:** If the two functions  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are differentiable, then the product is differentiable and,

$$\frac{d}{dx}[f(x)g(x)] = g(x)\frac{d}{dx}f(x) + f(x)\frac{d}{dx}g(x)$$

- **Quotient Rule:** If the two functions  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are differentiable, then the quotient is differentiable and,

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right] = \frac{g(x)\frac{d}{dx}f(x) - f(x)\frac{d}{dx}g(x)}{g(x)^2}$$

- Examples:

- $f(x) = (6x^3 - x)(10 - 20x)$

- $f(x) = \frac{3x+9}{2-x}$

## Rules of Differentiation 3

- **Derivatives Of Exponential and Logarithm Functions:**

- $f(x) = e^x$  then,  $f'(x) = e^x$

- $f(x) = a^x$  then,  $f'(x) = a^x \ln(a)$

- $f(x) = \ln(x)$  then,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

- $f(x) = \log_a(x)$  then,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x \ln(a)}$

- **Examples:**

- $f(x) = 4^x - 5 \log_9 x$

- $f(x) = 3e^x + 10x^3 \ln x$

## Rules of Differentiation 4

- **Chain Rule:** If two functions  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are both differentiable, then

$$[f(g(x))]' = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

- Or If we have  $y = f(u)$  and  $u = g(x)$ , then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}$$

- Examples:

- $f(x) = e^{x^4 - 3x^2 + 9}$
- $f(x) = \ln(x^{-4} + x^4)$

# Partial Derivative

- A partial derivative is the derivative with respect to one of the variables
- Example:  $f(x, y, z) = x^2 + xy + 2yz$

# Summary of Rules of Differentiation

Table 6.1: List of Rules of Differentiation

Sum rule	$(f(x) + g(x))' = f'(x) + g'(x)$
Difference rule	$(f(x) - g(x))' = f'(x) - g'(x)$
Multiply by constant rule	$f'(ax) = af'(x)$
Product rule	$(f(x)g(x))' = f'(x)g(x) + f(x)g'(x)$
Quotient rule	$\left(\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}\right)' = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$
Chain rule	$(g(f(x)))' = g'(f(x))f'(x)$
Inverse function rule	$(f^{-1}(x))' = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(x))}$
Constant rule	$(a)' = 0$
Power rule	$(x^n)' = nx^{n-1}$
Exponential rule 1	$(e^x)' = e^x$
Exponential rule 2	$(a^x)' = a^x(\ln(a))$
Logarithm rule 1	$(\ln(x))' = \frac{1}{x}$
Logarithm rule 2	$(\log_a(x))' = \frac{1}{x(\ln(a))}$
Trigonometric rules	$(\sin(x))' = \cos(x)$ $(\cos(x))' = -\sin(x)$ $(\tan(x))' = 1 + \tan^2(x)$
Piecewise rules	Treat each piece separately

# Interpretation of First Derivatives

First derivative,  $f'(x)$

- Slope of a tangent line
- Also provide you the instantaneous rate of change
- Implies a function is increasing or decreasing, and by how much it is increasing or decreasing
- A fancier term: marginal effect!

## Example

$$f(x) = 3x^3 - 6x^2 + 2x$$

- $f'(x) = 9x^2 - 12x + 2$
- So the instantaneous rate of change when  $x = 0$  is 2
- This also means the function is **increasing** at that point
- So the instantaneous rate of change when  $x = 1$  is -1
- This also means the function is **decreasing** at that point



# Critical Point

- **Definition:** We say that  $x = c$  is a critical point of the function  $f(x)$  if  $f(c)$  **exists** and if either of the following are true.

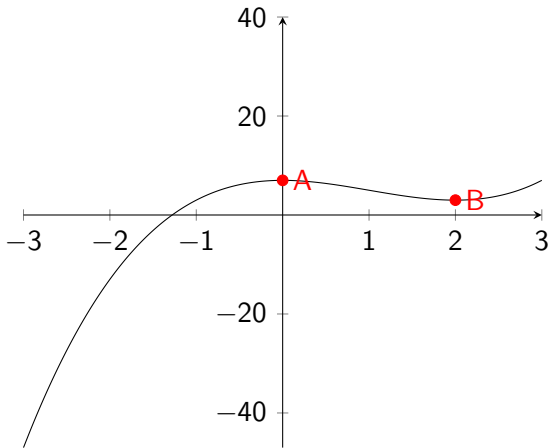
$$f'(c) = 0 \text{ or } f'(c) \text{ doesn't exist}$$

- **Critical points are important because local extrema occur at critical point.**

## Example

$$f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 7$$

- $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x$
- $f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow x^* = 0$  or  $x^* = 2$
- Let's plot it



- From the plot, we know A and B are local maxima and local minima
- However, we can not plot the function every time.
- We need the second derivative to determine

# Second Derivative

Second derivative,  $f''(x)$

- The derivative of the derivative of a function
- Change in slope
- Implies first derivative is increasing or decreasing

## Second Derivative Test

- After knowing the  $f'(x)$ , take the derivative again and find  $f''(x)$
- Substitute the critical point  $x^*$  into  $f''(x)$ 
  - If  $f''(x^*) < 0$ ,  $f(x)$  has a local maximum at  $x^*$
  - If  $f''(x^*) > 0$ ,  $f(x)$  has a local minimum at  $x^*$
- Repeat the above steps for all critical points.

## Example

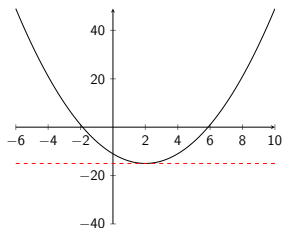
$$f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + 7$$

- $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 6x$
- $f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow x^* = 0$  or  $x^* = 2$
- $f''(x) = 6x - 6$
- $f''(0) = -6 \Rightarrow$  local maximum
- $f''(2) = 6 \Rightarrow$  local minimum

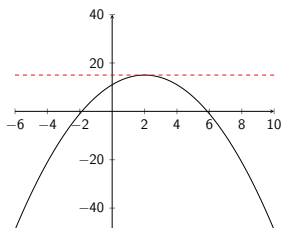
# Why Second Derivative

- $f''(x)$  tell us whether function is **concave** or **convex** at certain points
- $f''(x) < 0$  means concave near  $x$
- $f''(x) > 0$  means convex near  $x$
- So, when  $f''(x) < 0$  at critical point  $\Rightarrow$  local maximum
- When  $f''(x) > 0$  at critical point  $\Rightarrow$  local minimum

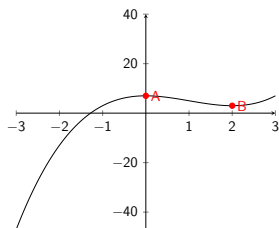
Convex at  $x = 2$



Concave at  $x = 2$



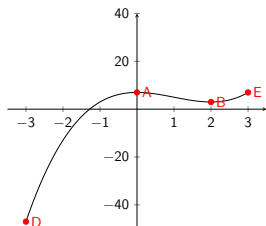
# Global Extrema



- The above procedures find the local extrema
- To find global extrema, we also need to look at the boundaries of the domain.



# Global Extrema



- The above procedures find the local extrema
- To find global extrema, we also need to look at the boundaries of the domain.
- For example, look at D and E where  $x = -3$  and  $3$
- Check both critical points and domain boundaries for global extrema

# Summary

To find local/global extrema, you need

- Find  $f'(x)$
- Set  $f'(x) = 0$  and solve for all critical points  $x^*$
- Find  $f''(x)$
- For each critical point, substitute it into  $f''(x)$ 
  - If  $f''(x^*) < 0$ ,  $f(x)$  has a local maximum at  $x^*$
  - If  $f''(x^*) > 0$ ,  $f(x)$  has a local minimum at  $x^*$
  - $f''(x^*) = 0$  is also possible, but too complicated for this class.
- Substitute each critical points into  $f(x)$  to find the function's value
- Substitute the lower and upper bounds of the domain into  $f(x)$  to find the function's values
- The smallest value is the global minimum and the largest value is global maximum.