

MATH *007* A

Lecture 18

How to Sketch a Graph of a Function?

# This Week's Assignments

- **Homework 5.5, 5.6:** Due on *Friday* 12/05, 11:59 PM.
- **Microtutorials 9 and 10:** Due on *Friday* 12/05, 11:59 PM.

# Gathering Information About a Function

Today we will learn how to use analytical information about a function in order to produce an accurate sketch of its graph.

**Recall the following key ideas:**

- 1 the first derivative,  $f'(x)$ , allows to determine intervals where the function is *increasing* or *decreasing*;
- 2 second derivative,  $f''(x)$ , allows to determine intervals where the function is *concave up* or *concave down*.

Using these, we can locate:

- **critical points** (where  $f'(c) = 0$  or  $f'(c)$  is undefined);
- **local max/min**, via the First or Second Derivative Test;
- **inflection points**, where the concavity changes.

**Goal:** use all of this information to create a reliable sketch of the graph that reflects the function's key features.

# Gathering Information About a Function

In addition, to refine the sketch, we also determine:

- **asymptotic behavior** of  $f(x)$  as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ ,
- **$x$ - and  $y$ -intercepts.**

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

We start by computing the first derivative:

$f'(x) = 5 - 4x - x^2 = (x + 5)(1 - x)$ , so the critical points are  $x = -5$  and  $x = 1$ .

To determine where the function is increasing or decreasing, we examine the sign of  $f'(x)$ :

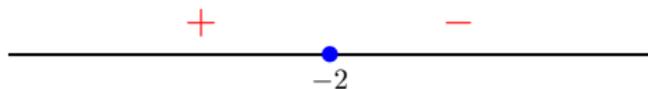


From the sign chart, we conclude that  $f(x)$  is **decreasing** on  $(-\infty, -5) \cup (1, \infty)$ , **increasing** on  $(-5, 1)$ , and **decreasing** on  $(1, \infty)$ . Thus,  $x = -5$  corresponds to a local minimum and  $x = 1$  corresponds to a local maximum.

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

Next, compute the second derivative:  $f''(x) = -4 - 2x$ . Since  $f''(-5) = 6 > 0$ , the point  $(-5, f(-5))$  is a local minimum; and since  $f''(1) = -6 < 0$ , the point  $(1, f(1))$  is a local maximum.

Finally, solving  $f''(x) = 0$  gives  $x = -2$ . Because the concavity changes there,  $(-2, f(-2))$  is the (only) inflection point:



From the sign of  $f''(x)$ , we conclude that the function is **concave up** on  $(-\infty, -2)$  and **concave down** on  $(-2, \infty)$ .

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

Next, we evaluate the function at the important points:

- $f(-5) = 3 + 5 \cdot (-5) - 2 \cdot (-5)^2 - \frac{(-5)^3}{3} = -30\frac{1}{3};$

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

- $f(-2) = 3 + 5 \cdot (-2) - 2 \cdot (-2)^2 - \frac{(-2)^3}{3} = -12\frac{1}{3}.$

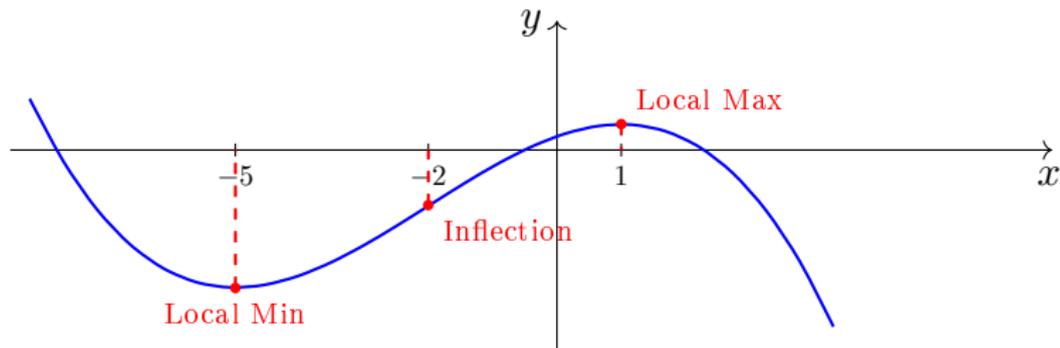
and analyze the behavior of  $f(x)$  as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ :

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \left( 3 + 5x - 2x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} \right) = -\frac{1}{3} \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} (x^3) = \infty;$

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( 3 + 5x - 2x^2 - \frac{x^3}{3} \right) = -\frac{1}{3} \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x^3) = \infty.$

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

Combining the data from the previous three slides, we obtain the following sketch of the graph:



## One More Example: $g(x) = e^{-x^2/2}$

Let's carry out a similar analysis for the function  $g(x) = e^{-x^2/2}$ .  
The first derivative is

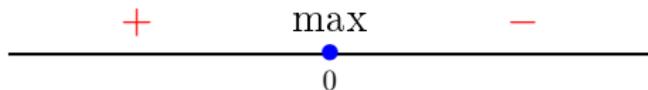
$$g'(x) = e^{-x^2/2} \cdot (-x) = -x e^{-x^2/2}.$$

The derivative equals zero only at  $x = 0$ , so this is the only critical point.

As  $e^{-x^2/2} > 0$  for all  $x$ , the sign of  $g'(x)$  coincides with that of  $-x$ :

$$\begin{cases} g'(x) > 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ g'(x) < 0 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$$

Thus, the function increases for  $x < 0$  and decreases for  $x > 0$ , so the point  $(0, 1)$  is a local maximum.



## One More Example: $g(x) = e^{-x^2/2}$

Next, compute the second derivative (using the chain rule):

$$g''(x) = \left(-xe^{-x^2/2}\right)' = -e^{-x^2/2} + x^2e^{-x^2/2} = (x^2 - 1)e^{-x^2/2}.$$

Since the  $e^{-x^2/2}$  is always positive, the sign of  $g''(x)$  depends only on  $x^2 - 1 = (x + 1)(x - 1)$ :

$$g''(x) \begin{cases} < 0, & -1 < x < 1, \\ > 0, & x < -1 \text{ or } x > 1. \end{cases}$$

Thus the concavity changes at the solutions to  $g''(x) = 0$ , namely  $x = \pm 1$ . These are the two inflection points:



## One More Example: $g(x) = e^{-x^2/2}$

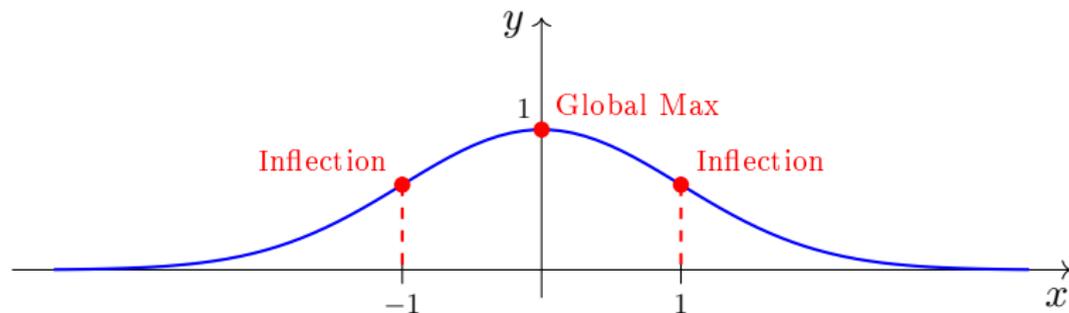
For completeness, we evaluate the function at critical and inflection points:

$$g(0) = 1, \quad g(1) = e^{-1/2}, \quad g(-1) = e^{-1/2};$$

analyze the behavior as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} e^{-x^2/2} = 0.$$

Combining this information, we obtain the following sketch:



# Gauss in the Haus

The curve we just analyzed,  $g(x) = e^{-x^2/2}$ , is not only a convenient example—it is the graph of the *normal* (or *Gaussian*) distribution, named after the famous German mathematician **Carl Friedrich Gauss**, one of the most influential in history.

- Many small, independent effects acting together tend to produce outcomes whose overall pattern is very close to this distribution.
- This phenomenon lies behind the *Central Limit Theorem*: the average distribution of many such independent contributions, resembles the Gaussian.
- Because of this universality, a huge portion of modern statistics, including the most widely used hypothesis tests, are built on the assumption that real-world data is distributed approximately in the shape of this curve.