

Definition of a Derivative

1

The rate of change $f'(t)$ of a function $f(t)$, as its argument t changes, can be expressed as the limit

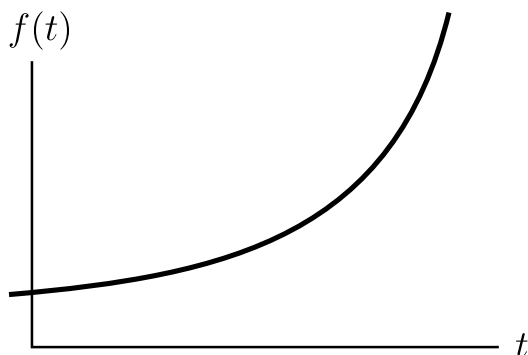
$$f'(t) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t+h) - f(t)}{h}$$

provided this limit exists.

The function f' is called *the derivative* of f .
Calculating f' from f is called *differentiation*.

Sketch:

$f'(t)$ gives
the slope of
the tangent
at $(t, f(t))$



Note. A subtle point is that we temporarily introduce a new variable h in the expression

$$\frac{f(t+h) - f(t)}{h}$$

which is a function of *two* variables t and h . We treat t as a constant in calculating $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0}$ which, then, eliminates h , so that $f'(t)$ depends only on t .

Alternative forms

2

Several different notations can be used to represent the derivative of $f(t)$, namely

$$f'(t) = f^{(1)}(t) = \frac{d}{dt}f(t) = \frac{df}{dt}(t) = Df(t) = f_t(t) = \dot{f}(t)$$

The definition can also be written in an alternative (but equivalent) way, simply by setting $h = s - t$.

It follows that

$$f'(t) = \frac{d}{dt}f(t) = \lim_{s \rightarrow t} \frac{f(s) - f(t)}{s - t}$$

Higher derivatives

If the function $f'(t)$ is differentiated, the result is the 'second' derivative of f , written as $f''(t)$.

Repeated differentiation gives third, fourth, fifth, etc., derivatives, $f'''(t)$, $f^{(4)}(t)$, $f^{(5)}(t)$, etc.

It is convenient to write the n^{th} derivative of $f(t)$ as

$$f^{(n)} = \frac{d^n}{dt^n}f = \frac{d^n f}{dt^n} = D^n f$$

The first three of these notations are the ones that are most commonly used

Derivative of an Inverse function

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If a function f has the inverse f^{-1} and we write $u = f(x)$ and $w = f(z)$, then

$$\frac{f(z) - f(x)}{z - x} = \frac{w - u}{f^{-1}(w) - f^{-1}(u)}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{du} f^{-1}(u) &= \lim_{w \rightarrow u} \frac{f^{-1}(w) - f^{-1}(u)}{w - u} \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow x} \frac{z - x}{f(z) - f(x)} \\ &= 1 / \frac{d}{dx} f(x) \end{aligned}$$

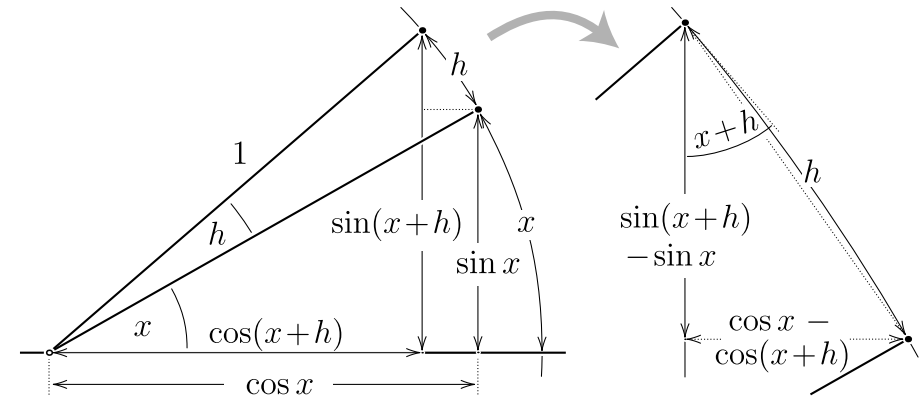
unless $\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = 0$, in which case $\frac{d}{du} f^{-1}(u)$ is not defined.

Example. Given that $\frac{d}{dx} x^n = nx^{n-1}$, for $n \in \mathbb{N}$, what is $\frac{d}{dx} \sqrt[n]{x}$, for $x \geq 0$?

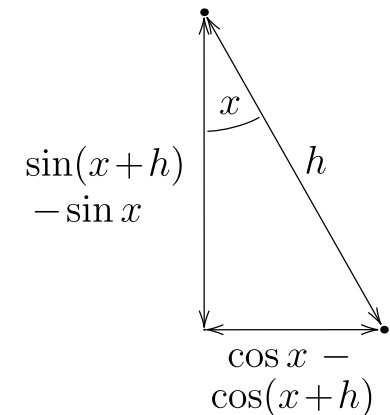
Differentiating sin and cos

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Increasing the angle x by h in the diagram



we can see that,
as $h \rightarrow 0$, the
enlarged diagram
approaches this
triangle \rightarrow
(stretched by $\frac{1}{h}$)



which demonstrates that

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sin x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x+h) - \sin x}{h} = \cos x$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \cos x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(x+h) - \cos x}{h} = -\sin x$$

Differentiating e^x and $\ln x$

5

Recall that the number e is chosen such that the slope of the tangent to the graph of e^x at $x = 0$ is exactly 1.

This means that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{0+h} - e^0}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^h - 1}{h} = 1$$

We can easily use this to calculate

$$\frac{d}{dx} e^x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{x+h} - e^x}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} e^x \frac{e^h - 1}{h} = e^x$$

since e^x is constant in taking the limit $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0}$

If we write $z = e^x$, so that the inverse function gives $x = \ln z$, we know that

$$\frac{d}{dz} \ln z = 1 / \frac{d}{dx} e^x = 1/e^x = 1/z$$

So we can write

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$$

Differentiating x^r

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We can write

$$(x+h)^r = x^r + \frac{r}{1}hx^{r-1} + \frac{r \times (r-1)}{1 \times 2}h^2x^{r-2} + \dots$$

using the binomial theorem, for *any* value of r .

If $r \notin \mathbb{N}$ then this results in an infinite power series in h (a topic to be covered in more detail later).

This can be rearranged to give

$$(x+h)^r = x^r + rhx^{r-1} + \mathbf{O}(h^2) \quad \text{as } h \rightarrow 0$$

so that

$$\frac{(x+h)^r - x^r}{h} = \frac{rhx^{r-1} + \mathbf{O}(h^2)}{h} = rx^{r-1} + \mathbf{O}(h)$$

It follows that

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^r = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (rx^{r-1} + \mathbf{O}(h)) = rx^{r-1}$$

More on Order Notation

If $f(h) = \mathbf{O}(h^n)$ as $h \rightarrow 0$, with $n > 0$, then

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left| \frac{f(h)}{h^n} \right| \leq C \implies \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left| \frac{f(h)}{h^n} \right| |h^n| \leq \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} C|h^n|$$

and so

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(h)| \leq 0 \implies \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(h) = 0$$

Sums and Products

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

derivative of a sum

Example. 1st and 2nd derivatives of $\sin x + \cos x - x^3$

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

derivative of a product

first times derivative of second
plus second times derivative of first

Example. differentiate $e^x \sin x \cos x$

$$\frac{d}{dx} (cf(x)) = cf'(x)$$

derivative with a constant factor

Example. differentiate $7e^x \sin x \cos x$

Quotients and Chain Rule

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$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g^2(x)}$$

derivative of a quotient

bottom times derivative of top minus top times
derivative of bottom, over bottom squared

Example. Find $\frac{d}{dt} \frac{3t^2 - 2}{t^2 + 1}$

$$\frac{d}{dx} f(g(x)) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$$

chain rule

or function of a function rule

derivative of the outer function
times derivative of the inner function

Example. If $y = (x^3 + 2)^5$ find $\frac{dy}{dx}$

Example. Find $\frac{d}{dt} f(at + b)$

More Trigonometric Derivatives

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$$\begin{aligned}\boxed{\tan x} \quad \frac{d}{dx} \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} &= \frac{\cos x \cos x - \sin x(-\sin x)}{\cos^2 x} \\ &= \frac{\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x}{\cos^2 x} = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} \\ &= \sec^2 x\end{aligned}$$

this also equals $1 + \tan^2 x$ (why?)

$\boxed{\cot x}$

$$\begin{aligned}\boxed{\operatorname{cosec} x} \quad \frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{\sin x} &= -\frac{\cos x}{\sin^2 x} \\ &= -\frac{\cos x}{\sin x} \frac{1}{\sin x} \\ &= -\cot x \operatorname{cosec} x\end{aligned}$$

$\boxed{\sec x}$

Inverse Trigonometric Derivatives

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$\boxed{\sin^{-1} x}$

$\boxed{\cos^{-1} x}$

Let $y = \cos^{-1} x$ for $x \in [-1, 1]$, $y \in [0, \pi]$

so $x = \cos y$ giving $\frac{dx}{dy} = -\sin y$

so $\frac{d}{dx} \cos^{-1} x = \frac{dy}{dx} = 1/\frac{dx}{dy} = -1/\sin y$

Using $\cos^2 y + \sin^2 y = 1$ and $\sin y \geq 0$

(for $y \in [0, \pi]$) we can solve for $\sin y$:

$\sin y = \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 y} = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$, and so
 $\frac{d}{dx} \cos^{-1} x = -1/\sqrt{1 - x^2}$ for $x \in (-1, 1)$.

$\boxed{\tan^{-1} x}$

Derivatives of sinh and cosh

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$$\boxed{\sinh x} \quad \frac{d}{dx} \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \\ = \cosh x$$

$\boxed{\cosh x}$

$\boxed{\sinh^{-1} x}$

$\boxed{\cosh^{-1} x}$

Let $y = \cosh^{-1} x$ for $x \in [1, \infty)$, $y \in [0, \infty)$

so $x = \cosh y$ giving $\frac{dx}{dy} = \sinh y$

so $\frac{d}{dx} \cosh^{-1} x = \frac{dy}{dx} = 1 / \frac{dx}{dy} = 1 / \sinh y$

Using $\cosh^2 y - \sinh^2 y = 1$ and $\sinh y \geq 0$
(for $y \in [0, \infty)$) we can solve for $\sinh y$:

$\sinh y = \sqrt{\cosh^2 y - 1} = \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$, and so
 $\frac{d}{dx} \cosh^{-1} x = 1 / \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$ for $x \in (1, \infty)$.

More Hyperbolic Derivatives

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$\boxed{\tanh x}$

$$\boxed{\coth x} \quad \frac{d}{dx} \frac{\cosh x}{\sinh x} = \frac{\sinh x \sinh x - \cosh x \cosh x}{\sinh^2 x} \\ = \frac{\sinh^2 x - \cosh^2 x}{\sinh^2 x} = \frac{-1}{\sinh^2 x} \\ = -\operatorname{cosech}^2 x$$

this also equals $1 - \coth^2 x$ (why?)

$\boxed{\operatorname{sech} x}$

$\boxed{\operatorname{cosech} x}$

Derivatives of \tanh^{-1} and \coth^{-1} 13

$$\tanh^{-1} x$$

$$\coth^{-1} x$$

l'Hôpital's Rule 14

The definition of derivative helps to make it clear why l'Hôpital's rule works.

We will show why it works for functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ that are continuous at $x = a$, with $f(a) = g(a) = 0$

Since $f(a) = 0$ we must have

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

Likewise $g'(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{g(x)}{x - a}$ (since $g(a) = 0$)

and so

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{x - a} \frac{x - a}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(a)}{g'(a)}.$$

Given that l'Hôpital's rule applies as $x \rightarrow a$, for functions tending to either zero or plus or minus infinity, it is easy to demonstrate that the rule applies for functions that tend to either 0 or $\pm\infty$, as $x \rightarrow \infty$

Let $x = 1/z$ then, using l'Hôpital's rule and the chain rule

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(1/z)}{g(1/z)} = \lim_{z \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{-f'(1/z)/z^2}{-g'(1/z)/z^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}. \end{aligned}$$

Parametric Differentiation

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Curves defined parametrically involve two functions, such as $x = t^3 - t$, $y = t^2$

Sketch:

In general we would have $x = f(t)$, $y = g(t)$ for two functions f and g .

The slope of the curve at any point $(f(t), g(t))$ is:

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy/dt}{dx/dt} = \frac{g'(t)}{f'(t)}$$

Example. What is the slope of the curve (x, y) given that $x = t^3 - t$ and $y = t^2$?

Hence show that the curve is multivalued for $x \in \left[-\frac{2}{3\sqrt{3}}, \frac{2}{3\sqrt{3}}\right]$.

Implicit Differentiation

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Curves of (x, y) that are defined through a single relation between x and y can also be differentiated to find $\frac{dy}{dx}$, using the procedure

- treat y as the function $y(x)$
- differentiate with respect to x
- solve for $\frac{dy}{dx}$

Example 1. If $\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$ find $\frac{dy}{dx}$

Note. The derivative is often found in terms of both x and y and is only meaningful at points on the curve.

Example 2. If $u + v^2 = \sin(u^2 + v)$ find $\frac{du}{dv}$

Logarithmic Differentiation

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Differentiating a function consisting of positive terms multiplied or divided together can often be made easier by first taking logarithms

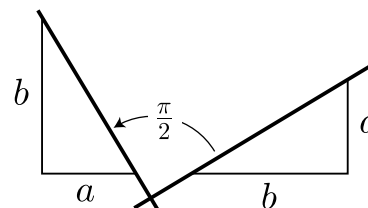
Example 1. $y = \frac{x(1+x^2)\sqrt{x^2-1}}{x-2}$ for $x > 2$

Example 2. $v = t^t$ for $t > 0$

Example 3. $w = \frac{e^s(1-s)}{2-s^2}$ for $s > \sqrt{2}$

Curves at Right Angles

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If a line has slope a/b
then a line rotated by $\frac{\pi}{2}$
has slope $-b/a$.

Product of the slopes is -1

Generally:

If curves A and B have slopes $\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_A$ and $\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_B$
and $\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_A \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_B = -1$ where the curves intersect,
then the curves intersect at right angles ($\frac{\pi}{2}$ or 90°)

Example. The formulae $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ and $y = x \tan \theta$
define two curves for constant r or θ
(r and θ represent polar coordinates)

Sketch:

For $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ we have $\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_r = -x/y$.

For $y = x \tan \theta$ we have $\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_\theta = \tan \theta = y/x$.

So $\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_r \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_\theta = -1$ where the curves intersect.

i.e.: r and θ offer an 'orthogonal coordinate system'

Turning Points and Critical Points ¹⁹

A function $f(t)$ has a *critical point* where $f'(t) = 0$

A critical point a (where $f'(a) = 0$) is a

'*maximum*' if $f(t) < f(a)$ for all t close to a

'*minimum*' if $f(t) > f(a)$ for all t close to a

If $f(t) < f(a)$ on one side of a and $f(t) > f(a)$ on the other (for all t close enough to a) then a is called a

'*point of inflection*'.

Sketch:

At a critical point a , if

$f''(a) > 0$ then the point is a minimum

$f''(a) < 0$ then the point is a maximum

$f''(a) = 0$ then further information is needed

In fact, if the *first* non-zero derivative is of odd order, then a is a point of inflection. If it is of even order, then it has the same effect as $f''(a)$ above.

Derivatives in Curve Sketching ²⁰

Knowing the location and type (max, min, inflection) of critical points is valuable additional information that can be used in curve sketching.

Example 1. Sketch the function $6\frac{1+x^2}{3+x^4}$.

Example 2. Sketch the function $\frac{t(t-2)}{t^2-1}$

(even knowing there are no turning points is useful)