Calculus 微積分

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Chapter 2

Differentiation

2.1 The Derivatives of Functions

Definition 2.1

Let f be a function defined on an open interval containing c . If the limit $\lim_{\Delta x \to 0}$ $f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)$ $\frac{\Delta x - f(c)}{\Delta x} = m$ exists, then the line passing through $(c, f(c))$ with slope m is the tangent line to the graph of f at point $((c, f(c))$.

Definition 2.2

Let f be a function defined on an open interval I containing c . f is said to be differentiable at *c* if the limit

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)}{\Delta x}
$$

exists. If the limit above exists, the limit is denoted by $f'(c)$ and called the derivative of *f* at *c*. When the derivative of *f* at each point of *I* exists, *f* is said to be differentiable on *I* and the derivative of f is a function denoted by f' .

• Notation: The prime notation ' is associated with a function (of one variable) and is used to denote the derivative of that function. For a given function *f* defined on an open interval *I* and *x* being the name of the variable, the limit operation

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}
$$

is denoted by $\frac{d}{dx}f(x)$ (or $\frac{df(x)}{dx}$ or even $\frac{dy}{dx}$ if $y = f(x)$), and the limit $\lim_{\Delta x \to 0}$ $f(c + \Delta) - f(c)$ ∆*x*

is denoted by $\frac{d}{dx}$ $\int_{x=c}^{d} f(x)$ but not $\frac{d}{dx} f(c)$ $\left(\frac{d}{dx} f(c)\right)$ is in fact 0). The operator $\frac{d}{dx}$ is a differential operator called the differentiation and is applied to functions of variable *x*. However, for historical (and convenient) reason, $\frac{d}{dx}f(x)$ is sometimes denoted by $(f(x))'$ (so that ' is treated as the differential operator $\frac{d}{dx}$) and f' is sometimes denoted by $\frac{df}{dx}$ (so that f is always treated as a function of variable x).

Remark 2.3. Letting $x = c + \Delta x$ in the definition of the derivatives, then

$$
f'(c) = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}
$$

if the limit exists.

Example 2.4. Let f be a constant function. Then f' is the zero function.

Example 2.5. Let $f(x) = x^n$, where *n* is a positive integer. Then

$$
f(x + \Delta x) = x^{n} + C_{1}^{n} x^{n-1} \Delta x + C_{2}^{n} x^{n-2} (\Delta x)^{2} + \cdots + C_{n-1}^{n} x (\Delta x)^{n-1} + (\Delta x)^{n};
$$

thus if $\Delta x \neq 0$,

$$
\frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} = nx^{n-1} + C_2^n x^{n-2} \Delta x + \dots + C_{n-1}^n x (\Delta x)^{n-2} + (\Delta x)^{n-1}.
$$

The limit on the right-hand side is clearly nx^{n-1} , so we establish that

$$
\frac{d}{dx}x^n = nx^{n-1}.
$$

Example 2.6. Now suppose that $f(x) = x^{-n}$, where *n* is a positive integer. Then if $x + \Delta x \neq 0$,

$$
f(x + \Delta x) = \frac{1}{x^n + C_1^n x^{n-1} \Delta x + C_2^n x^{n-2} (\Delta x)^2 + \cdots + C_{n-1}^n x (\Delta x)^{n-1} + (\Delta x)^n};
$$

thus if $x \neq 0$, $\Delta x \neq 0$, and $x + \Delta x \neq 0$ (which can be achieved if $|\Delta x| \ll 1$),

$$
\frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} = \frac{-\left[C_1^n x^{n-1} + C_2^n x^{n-2} \Delta x + \dots + C_{n-1}^n x (\Delta x)^{n-2} + (\Delta x)^{n-1}\right]}{x^n \left[x^n + C_1^n x^{n-1} \Delta x + C_2^n x^{n-2} (\Delta x)^2 + \dots + C_{n-1}^n x (\Delta x)^{n-1} + (\Delta x)^n\right]}.
$$

Therefore, if $x \neq 0$,

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} = \frac{-nx^{n-1}}{x^{2n}} = -nx^{-n-1}
$$

which shows $\frac{d}{dx}x^{-n} = -nx^{-n-1}$.

Combining the previous three examples, we conclude that

$$
\frac{d}{dx}x^n = \begin{cases}\nnx^{n-1} & \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ if } n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}, \\
nx^{n-1} & \forall x \neq 0 \text{ if } n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } n < 0.\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(2.1.1)

Combining Example [2.4](#page-2-0)[-2.6](#page-2-1), we conclude that

$$
\frac{d}{dx}x^n = \begin{cases}\nnx^{n-1} & \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ if } n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}, \\
nx^{n-1} & \forall x \neq 0 \text{ if } n \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } n < 0.\n\end{cases}
$$
\n(2.1.2)

我們注意到當 *ⁿ* 是負整數時,在計算 *^d dx* ˇ ˇ ˇ *x*=*c x ⁿ* 時,已經必須先假設 *c* ‰ 0 才能計算導 數,並非最後算出來 *^d dx* ˇ ˇ ˇ *x*=*c x ⁿ* = *ncⁿ*´¹ 時發現 *c* 不可為零所以不能代入。這是一個非常 重要的觀念!不能搞錯順序!

Example 2.7. Let $f(x) = \sin x$. By the sum and difference formula,

$$
f(x + \Delta x) - f(x) = \sin(x + \Delta x) - \sin x = \sin x \cos \Delta x + \sin \Delta x \cos x - \sin x
$$

$$
= \sin x (\cos \Delta x - 1) + \sin \Delta x \cos x ;
$$

thus by the fact that $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$ $\frac{\ln x}{x} = 1$ and $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\cos x - 1}{x}$ $\frac{x-1}{x} = 0$, we find that

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \left[\sin x \frac{\cos \Delta x - 1}{\Delta x} + \frac{\sin \Delta x}{\Delta x} \cos x \right] = \cos x. \tag{2.1.3}
$$

In other words, the derivative of the sine function is cosine.

On the other hand, let $g(x) = \cos x$. Then $g(x) = -f(x - \frac{\pi}{2})$ 2). Then if $\Delta x \neq 0$,

$$
\frac{g(x + \Delta x) - g(x)}{\Delta x} = -\frac{f(x - \frac{\pi}{2} + \Delta x) - f(x - \frac{\pi}{2})}{\Delta x};
$$

thus

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{g(x + \Delta x) - g(x)}{\Delta x} = -\cos\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\sin x.
$$

In other words, the derivative of the cosine function is minus sine. To summarize,

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\sin x = \cos x \qquad \text{and} \qquad \frac{d}{dx}\cos x = -\sin x. \tag{2.1.4}
$$

Example 2.8. Consider the function $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$
g(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \text{ is rational,} \\ -x^2 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational.} \end{cases}
$$

Then $g(x) = xf(x)$, where *f* is given in Example [1.22.](#page--1-0) By the fact that $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x) = 0$,

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{g(\Delta x) - g(0)}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} f(\Delta x) = 0.
$$

In other words, *g* is differentiable at 0. Moreover, similar argument used to explain that the function *f* in Example [1.22](#page--1-0) is only continuous at 0 can be used to show that the function *g* is only continuous at 0. Therefore, we obtain a function which is differentiable at one point but discontinuous elsewhere.

Remark 2.9. If *f* is a function defined on a interval *I*, and *c* is one of the end-point. Then it is possible to define the one-sided derivative. For example, if *c* is the left end-point of *I*, then we can consider the limit

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0^+} \frac{f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)}{\Delta x} = \lim_{x \to c^+} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}
$$

if it exists. The limit above, if exists, is called the derivatives of *f* at *c* from the right.

Theorem 2.10: 可微必連續

Let f be a function defined on an open interval I, and $c \in I$. If f is differentiable at *c*, then *f* is continuous at *c*.

Proof. If $x \neq c$, $f(x) - f(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}(x - c)$. Since the limit $\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$ $x - c$ exists and $\lim_{x \to c} (x - c) = 0$, by Theorem [1.14](#page--1-1) we conclude that

$$
\lim_{x \to c} \left[f(x) - f(c) \right] = \left(\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \right) \left(\lim_{x \to c} (x - c) \right) = 0.
$$

 \Box

Therefore, $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = f(c)$ which shows that *f* is continuous at *c*.

Remark 2.11. When *f* is continuous on an open interval *I*, *f* is **not** necessary differentiable on *I*. For example, consider $f(x) = |x|$. Then Theorem [1.14](#page--1-1) implies that f is continuous on *I*, but $\lim_{\Delta x \to 0}$ $f(\Delta x) - f(0)$ $\frac{\partial}{\partial x} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0}$ |∆*x*| $\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta x}$ D.N.E.

2.2 Rules of Differentiation

Theorem 2.12

We have the following differentiation rules:

1. If k is a constant, then
$$
\frac{d}{dx}k = 0
$$
.

2. If *n* is a non-zero integer, then $\frac{d}{dx}x^n = nx^{n-1}$ (whenever x^{n-1} makes sense).

3.
$$
\frac{d}{dx}\sin x = \cos x, \frac{d}{dx}\cos x = -\sin x.
$$

4. If *k* is a constant and $f : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $c \in (a, b)$, then *kf* is differentiable at *c* and

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\Big|_{x=c}\big[kf(x)\big] = kf'(c).
$$

5. If $f, g : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable at $c \in (a, b)$, then $f \pm g$ is differentiable at *c* and

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\Big|_{x=c}\big[f(x)\pm g(x)\big]=f'(c)\pm g'(c).
$$

Proof of 5. Let $h(x) = f(x) + g(x)$. Then if $\Delta x \neq 0$,

$$
\frac{h(c + \Delta x) - h(c)}{\Delta x} = \frac{f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)}{\Delta x} + \frac{g(c + \Delta x) - g(c)}{\Delta x}.
$$

Since *f, g* are differentiable at *c*,

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)}{\Delta x} = f'(c) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{g(c + \Delta x) - g(c)}{\Delta x}
$$

exist. Therefore, by Theorem [1.14](#page--1-1),

$$
h'(c) = f'(c) + g'(c).
$$

The conclusion for the difference can be proved in the same way.

Example 2.13. Let $f(x) = 3x^2 - 5x + 7$. Then

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

$$
= 3\frac{d}{dx}x^2 - 5\frac{d}{dx}x = 3 \cdot (2x) - 5 = 6x - 5.
$$

 \Box

In general, for a polynomial function

$$
p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0 \equiv \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k,
$$

where $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$, by induction we can show that

$$
\frac{d}{dx}p(x) = na_n x^{n-1} + (n-1)a_{n-1}x^{n-2} + \dots + a_1 = \sum_{k=1}^n ka_k x^{k-1}.
$$

Theorem 2.14: Product Rule

Let $f, g : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be real-valued functions, and $c \in (a, b)$. If f and g are differentiable at c , then fg is differentiable at c and

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\Big|_{x=c}(fg)(x) = f'(c)g(c) + f(c)g'(c).
$$

Proof. Let $h(x) = f(x)g(x)$. Then

$$
h(c + \Delta x) - h(c) = f(c + \Delta x)g(c + \Delta x) - f(c)g(c)
$$

=
$$
f(c + \Delta x)g(c + \Delta x) - f(c)g(c + \Delta x) + f(c)g(c + \Delta x) - f(c)g(c)
$$

=
$$
[f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)]g(c + \Delta x) + f(c)[g(c + \Delta x) - g(c)].
$$

Therefore, if $\Delta x \neq 0$,

$$
\frac{h(c + \Delta x) - h(c)}{\Delta x} = \frac{f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)}{\Delta x}g(c + \Delta x) + f(c)\frac{g(c + \Delta x) - g(c)}{\Delta x}
$$

Since *f, g* are differentiable at *c*,

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)}{\Delta x} = f'(c), \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{g(c + \Delta x) - g(c)}{\Delta x}, \text{ and } \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} g(c + \Delta x) = g(c)
$$

exist. By Theorem [1.14](#page--1-1),

$$
h'(c) = f'(c)g(c) + f(c)g'(c)
$$

which concludes the product rule.

Example 2.15. Let $f(x) = x^3 \sin x$. Then the product rule implies that

$$
f'(x) = 3x^2 \sin x + x^3 \cos x.
$$

 \Box

.

Theorem 2.16: Quotient Rule

Let $f, g : (a, b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be real-valued functions, and $c \in (a, b)$. If f and g are differentiable at *c* and $g(c) \neq 0$, then $\frac{f}{g}$ is differentiable at *c* and *d dx* $\Big|_{x=c}$ *f* $\frac{f}{g}(x) = \frac{f'(c)g(c) - f(c)g'(c)}{g(c)^2}$ $\frac{f(c)}{g(c)^2}$.

Proof. Let $h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$. Then

$$
h(c + \Delta x) - h(c) = \frac{f(c + \Delta x)}{g(c + \Delta x)} - \frac{f(c)}{g(c)} = \frac{f(c + \Delta x)g(c) - f(c)g(c + \Delta x)}{g(c)g(c + \Delta x)}
$$

=
$$
\frac{f(c + \Delta x)g(c) - f(c)g(c) + f(c)g(c) - f(c)g(c + \Delta x)}{g(c)g(c + \Delta x)}
$$

=
$$
\frac{[f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)]g(c) - f(c)[g(c + \Delta x) - g(c)]}{g(c)g(c + \Delta x)}
$$
.

Therefore, if $\Delta x \neq 0$,

$$
\frac{h(c+\Delta x)-h(c)}{\Delta x}=\frac{1}{g(c)g(c+\Delta x)}\Big[\frac{f(c+\Delta x)-f(c)}{\Delta x}g(c)-f(c)\frac{g(c+\Delta x)-g(c)}{\Delta x}\Big].
$$

Since *f, g* are differentiable at *c*,

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(c + \Delta x) - f(c)}{\Delta x} = f'(c), \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{g(c + \Delta x) - g(c)}{\Delta x}, \text{ and } \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} g(c + \Delta x) = g(c)
$$

exist. By Theorem [1.14](#page--1-1),

$$
h'(c) = \frac{1}{g(c)^2} \Big[f'(c)g(c) - f(c)g'(c) \Big]
$$

which concludes the quotient rule.

Remark 2.17. Suppose that in addition to the assumption in Theorem [2.16](#page-7-0) one has already known that $h = f/g$ is differentiable at *c*, then applying the product rule to $f = gh$ one finds that

$$
f'(c) = g'(c)h(c) + g(c)h'(c) = g'(c)\frac{f(c)}{g(c)} + g(c)h'(c)
$$

which, after rearranging terms, shows the quotient rule. The proof of Theorem [2.16](#page-7-0) indeed is based on the fact that we do not know the differentiability of *h* at *c* yet.

 \Box

Example 2.18. Let *n* be a positive integer and $f(x) = x^{-n}$. We have shown by definition that $f'(x) = -nx^{-n-1}$ if $x \neq 0$. Now we use Theorem [2.16](#page-7-0) to compute the derivative of f: if $x \neq 0$,

$$
\frac{d}{dx}x^{-n} = \frac{d}{dx}\frac{1}{x^n} = -\frac{\frac{d}{dx}x^n}{x^{2n}} = -\frac{nx^{n-1}}{x^{2n}} = -nx^{-n-1}.
$$

Example 2.19. Since $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{x}$ $\frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$, by Theorem [2.16](#page-7-0) we have

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\tan x = \frac{\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x}{\cos^2 x} = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} = \sec^2 x.
$$

Similarly, we also have

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\cot x = \frac{-\sin^2 x - \cos^2 x}{\sin^2 x} = -\csc^2 x,
$$

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\sec x = -\frac{-\sin x}{\cos^2 x} = \sec x \tan x,
$$

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\csc x = -\frac{\cos x}{\sin^2 x} = -\csc x \cot x.
$$

We note that without using the quotient rule, the derivative of the tangent function can be found using the sum-and-difference formula

$$
\tan(x - y) = \frac{\tan x - \tan y}{1 + \tan x \tan y}.
$$
 (2.2.1)

Using $(2.2.1)$ $(2.2.1)$, we find that

$$
\tan(x + \Delta x) - \tan x = \tan \Delta x [1 + \tan(x + \Delta x) \tan x];
$$

thus if $\Delta x \neq 0$,

$$
\frac{\tan(x + \Delta x) - \tan x}{\Delta x} = \frac{\sin \Delta x}{\Delta x} \cdot \frac{1 + \tan(x + \Delta x) \tan x}{\cos \Delta x}
$$

which, using $(1.2.2)$ $(1.2.2)$, shows that

$$
\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\tan(x + \Delta x) - \tan x}{\Delta x} = \left(\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{\sin \Delta x}{\Delta x}\right) \left(\lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{1 + \tan(x + \Delta x) \tan x}{\cos \Delta x}\right) = \sec^2 x.
$$

' **Higher-order derivatives**:

Let f be defined on an open interval $I = (a, b)$. If f' exists on I and possesses derivatives at every point in *I*, by definition we use f'' to denote the derivative of f' . In other words,

$$
f''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}f'(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\frac{d}{dx}f(x) \equiv \frac{d^2}{dx^2}f(x) = \frac{d^2f(x)}{dx^2} \left(= \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \text{ if } y = f(x) \right).
$$

The function f'' is called the second derivative of f . Similar as the "first" derivative case, $f''(c) = \frac{d^2}{1}$ dx^2 $\Big|_{x=c} f(x).$

The third derivatives and even higher-order derivatives are denoted by the following: if $y = f(x),$

³*f*(*x*)

Third derivative:
$$
y'''
$$
 $f'''(x)$ $\frac{d^3}{dx^3}f(x)$ $\frac{d^3f(x)}{dx^3}$
Fourth derivative: $y^{(4)}$ $f^{(4)}(x)$ $\frac{d^4}{dx^4}f(x)$ $\frac{d^4f(x)}{dx^4}$
:

 \vdots n-th derivative: $y^{(n)}$ $f^{(n)}(x)$ $\frac{d^n}{dx^n}f(x)$ $\frac{d^n f(x)}{dx^n}$.

2.3 The Chain Rule

The chain rule is used to study the derivative of composite functions.

Theorem 2.20: Chain Rule - 連鎖律

Let *I*, *J* be open intervals, $f: J \to \mathbb{R}$, $g: I \to \mathbb{R}$ be real-valued functions, and the range of *g* is contained in *J*. If *g* is differentiable at $c \in I$ and *f* is differentiable at $g(c)$, then $f \circ g$ is differentiable at c and

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\Big|_{x=c}(f\circ g)(x)=f'(g(c))g'(c).
$$

Proof. To simplify the notation, we set $d = g(c)$.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be given. Since f is differentiable at d and g is differentiable at c, there exist $\delta_1, \delta_2 > 0$ such that

$$
\left|\frac{f(d+k)-f(d)}{k}-f'(d)\right|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|g'(c)|)}\quad\text{whenever}\quad 0<|k|<\delta_1\,,
$$
\n
$$
\left|\frac{g(c+h)-g(c)}{h}-g'(c)\right|<\min\left\{1,\frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|f'(d)|)}\right\}\quad\text{whenever}\quad 0<|h|<\delta_2\,.
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{aligned} \left| f(d+k) - f(d) - f'(d)k \right| &\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|g'(c)|)} |k| \quad \text{whenever} \quad |k| < \delta_1 \,, \\ \left| g(c+h) - g(c) - g'(c)h \right| &\leq \min\left\{ 1, \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|f'(d)|)} \right\} |h| \quad \text{whenever} \quad |h| < \delta_2 \,. \end{aligned}
$$

By Theorem [2.10](#page-4-0), *g* is continuous at *c*; thus $\lim_{h\to 0} g(c+h) = g(c)$. This fact provides $\delta_3 > 0$ such that

$$
|g(c+h) - g(c)| < \delta_1 \quad \text{whenever} \quad |h| < \delta_3 \, .
$$

Define $\delta = \min\{\delta_2, \delta_3\}$. Then $\delta > 0$. Moreover, if $|h| < \delta$, the number $k \equiv g(c+h) - g(c)$ satisfies $|k| < \delta_1$. As a consequence, if $|h| < \delta$,

$$
\begin{split}\n\left| (f \circ g)(c+h) - (f \circ g)(c) - f'(d)g'(c)h \right| &= \left| f(g(c+h)) - f(d) - f'(d)g'(c)h \right| \\
&= \left| f(d+k) - f(d) - f'(d)g'(c)h \right| \\
&= \left| f(d+k) - f(d) - f'(d)k + f'(d)k - f'(d)g'(c)h \right| \\
&\leq \left| f(d+k) - f(d) - f'(d)k \right| + \left| f'(d) \right| \left| k - g'(c)h \right| \\
&\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|g'(c)|)} |k| + \left| f'(d) \right| |g(c+h) - g(c) - g'(c)h| \\
&\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|g'(c)|)} \left(|k - g'(c)h| + |g'(c)| |h| \right) + \left| f'(d) \right| \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|f'(d)|)} \\
&\leq \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|g'(c)|)} \left(|h| + |g'(c)| |h| \right) + \left| f'(d) \right| \frac{\varepsilon|h}{2(1+|f'(d)|)} \\
&= \frac{\varepsilon}{2} |h| + \frac{|f'(d)|}{2(1+|f'(d)|)} \varepsilon |h| \,.\n\end{split}
$$

The inequality above implies that if $0 < |h| < \delta$,

$$
\left|\frac{(f\circ g)(c+h)-(f\circ g)(c)}{h}-f'(d)g'(c)\right|\leqslant \frac{\varepsilon}{2}+\frac{\left|f'(d)\right|}{2(1+\left|f'(d)\right|)}\varepsilon<\varepsilon
$$

 \Box

which concludes the chain rule.

How to memorize the chain rule? Let $y = g(x)$ and $u = f(y)$. Then the derivative $u = (f \circ g)(x)$ is $\frac{du}{dx} = \frac{du}{dy}$ *dy* $\frac{dy}{dx}$.

Example 2.21. Let $f(x) = (3x - 2x^2)^3$. Then $f'(x) = 3(3x - 2x^2)^2(3 - 4x)$.

Example 2.22. Let $f(x) = \left(\frac{3x-1}{2}, x\right)$ $\left(\frac{3x-1}{x^2+3}\right)^2$. Then

$$
f'(x) = 2\left(\frac{3x-1}{x^2+3}\right)^{2-1} \frac{d}{dx} \frac{3x-1}{x^2+3} = \frac{2(3x-1)}{x^2+3} \cdot \frac{3(x^2+3) - 2x(3x-1)}{(x^2+3)^2}
$$

$$
= \frac{2(3x-1)(-3x^2+2x+9)}{(x^2+3)^3}.
$$

Example 2.23. Let $f(x) = \tan^3[(x^2 - 1)^2]$. Then

$$
f'(x) = \left\{ 3\tan^2 \left[(x^2 - 1)^2 \right] \sec^2 \left[(x^2 - 1)^2 \right] \right\} \times \left[2(x^2 - 1) \cdot (2x) \right]
$$

= $12x(x^2 - 1) \tan^2 \left[(x^2 - 1)^2 \right] \sec^2 \left[(x^2 - 1)^2 \right].$

Example 2.24. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}
$$

Then if $x \neq 0$, by the chain rule we have

$$
f'(x) = \left(\frac{d}{dx}x^2\right)\sin\frac{1}{x} + x^2\left(\frac{d}{dx}\sin\frac{1}{x}\right) = 2x\sin\frac{1}{x} + x^2\cos\frac{1}{x}\left(\frac{d}{dx}\frac{1}{x}\right)
$$

= $2x\sin\frac{1}{x} + x^2\cos\frac{1}{x}\left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) = 2x\sin\frac{1}{x} - \cos\frac{1}{x}.$

Next we compute $f'(0)$. If $\Delta x \neq 0$, we have

$$
\left|\frac{f(\Delta x) - f(0)}{\Delta x}\right| = \left|\Delta x \sin \frac{1}{\Delta x}\right| \leqslant \left|\Delta x\right|;
$$

thus $-|\Delta x| \le \frac{f(\Delta x) - f(0)}{\Delta x} \le |\Delta x|$ for all $\Delta x \ne 0$ and the Squeeze Theorem implies that

$$
f'(0) = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(\Delta x) - f(0)}{\Delta x} = 0.
$$

Therefore, we conclude that

$$
f'(x) = \begin{cases} 2x \sin \frac{1}{x} - \cos \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}
$$

Definition 2.25

Let f be a function defined on an open interval I . f is said to be continuously differentiable on *I* if f is differentiable on I and f' is continuous on I .

The function f given in Example [2.24](#page-11-0) is differentiable on $\mathbb R$ but not continuously differentiable since $\lim_{x\to 0} f'(x)$ D.N.E.

2.4 Implicit Differentiation

An implicit function is a function that is defined implicitly by an equation that *x* and *y* satisfy, by associating one of the variables (the value *y*) with the others (the arguments *x*). For example, $x^2 + y^2 = 1$ and $x = \cos y$ are implicit functions. Sometimes we know how to express y in terms of x from the equation (such as the first case above $y =$ $\ddot{}$ $1 - x^2$ or $y = \ddot{}$ $(1-x^2)$, while in most cases there is no way to know what the function *y* of *x* exactly is.

Given an implicit function (without solving for *y* in terms of *x* from the equation), can we find the derivative of *y*? This is the main topic of this section. We first focus on implicit functions of the form $f(x) = g(y)$. If $f(a) = g(b)$, we are interested in how the set $\{(x, y) | f(x) = g(y)\}\)$ looks like "mathematically" near (a, b) .

Theorem 2.26: Implicit Function Theorem - 隱函數定理簡單版

Let f, g be continuously differentiable functions defined on some open intervals, and $f(a) = g(b)$. If $g'(b) \neq 0$, then there exists a unique continuously differentiable function $y = h(x)$, defined in an open interval containing *a*, satisfying that $b = h(a)$ and $f(x) = g(h(x))$.

Example 2.27. Let us compute the derivative of $h(x) = x^r$, where $r = \frac{p}{x}$ $\frac{p}{q}$ for some $p, q \in \mathbb{N}$ and $(p, q) = 1$. Write $y = h(x)$. Then $y^q = x^p$. Since $\frac{d}{dy}y^q = qy^{q-1} \neq 0$ if $y \neq 0$, by the Implicit Function Theorem we find that *h* is differentiable at every *x* satisfying $x \neq 0$. Since $h(x)^q = x^p$, by the chain rule we find that

$$
qh(x)^{q-1}h'(x) = px^{p-1} \qquad \forall x \neq 0;
$$

thus

$$
h'(x) = \frac{p}{q}h(x)^{1-q}x^{p-1} = \frac{p}{q}x^{\frac{p}{q}(1-q)+p-1} = rx^{r-1} \qquad \forall x \neq 0.
$$

If *r* is a negative rational number, we can apply the quotient and find that

$$
\frac{d}{dx}x^r = \frac{d}{dx}\frac{1}{x^{-r}} = \frac{rx^{-r-1}}{x^{-2r}} = rx^{r-1} \qquad \forall x \neq 0.
$$

Therefore, we conclude that

$$
\frac{d}{dx}x^r = rx^{r-1} \qquad \forall x \neq 0.
$$
\n(2.4.1)

Remark 2.28. The derivative of x^r can also be computed by first finding the derivative of $x^{\frac{1}{p}}$ (that is, find the limit $\lim_{\Delta x \to 0}$ $(x + \Delta x)^{\frac{1}{p}} - x^{\frac{1}{p}}$ ∆*x*) and then apply the chain rule.

Example 2.29. Suppose that *y* is an implicit function of *x* given that $y^3 + y^2 - 5y - x^2 = -4$.

- 1. Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$.
- 2. Find the tangent line passing through the point $(3, -1)$.

Let $f(x) = x^2 - 4$ and $g(y) = y^3 + y^2 - 5y$. Then $g'(y) = 3y^2 + 2y - 5$; thus if $y \neq 1$ or $y \neq -\frac{5}{5}$ 3 (or equivalently, $x \neq \pm 1$ or $x \neq \pm \sqrt{\frac{283}{27}}$ 27) , *dy* 2*x*

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2x}{3y^2 + 2y - 5}.
$$

Since $(1, -3)$ satisfies the relation $y^3 + y^2 - 5y - x^2 = -4$, the slope of the tangent line passing through $(3, -1)$ is $\frac{2 \cdot 3}{3(-1)^2 + 2(-1) - 5} = -\frac{3}{2}$ $\frac{3}{2}$; thus the desired tangent line is

$$
y = -\frac{3}{2}(x-3) - 1.
$$

Example 2.30. Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ implicitly for the equation sin $y = x$.

Let $f(x) = x$ and $g(y) = \sin y$. Then $g'(y) = \cos y$; thus if $y \neq n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{2}$ (or equivalently, $x \neq \pm 1$,

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos y} \,. \tag{2.4.2}
$$

Similarly, for function *y* defined implicitly by $\cos y = x$, we find that if $y \neq n\pi$ (or equivalently, $x \neq \pm 1$),

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{1}{\sin y} \,. \tag{2.4.3}
$$

Remark 2.31. The curve consisting of points (x, y) satisfying the relation $\sin y = x$ cannot be the graph of a function since one *x* may corresponds to several *y*; however, the curve consisting of points (x, y) satisfying the relation $\sin y = x$ as well as $-\frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{\pi}{2}$ is the graph of a function called arcsin. In other words, for each $x \in (-1, 1)$, there exists a unique $y \in \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ $\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}$ 2) satisfying $\sin y = x$, and such *y* is denoted by arcsin *x*. Since for $y \in \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ $\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}$ 2) we must have $\cos y > 0$, by the fact that $\sin^2 y + \cos^2 y = 1$, using ([2.4.2\)](#page-13-0) we find that

$$
\frac{d}{dx}\arcsin x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \qquad \forall x \in (-1,1).
$$
\n(2.4.4)

Similarly, the curve consisting of points (x, y) satisfying the relation cos $y = x$ as well as $0 < y < \pi$ is the graph of a function called arccos, and ([2.4.3\)](#page-13-1) implies that

Figure 2.1: The graph of functions $y = \arcsin x$ and $y = \arccos x$

There are, unfortunately, many implicit functions that are not given by the equation of the form $f(x) = g(y)$. Nevertheless, there is a more powerful version of the Implicit Function Theorem that guarantees the continuous differentiability of the implicit functions defined through complicated relations between *x* and *y* (written in the form $f(x, y) = 0$). In the following, we always assume that the implicit function given by the equation that *x* and *y* satisfy is differentiable.

Example 2.32. Find the second derivative of the implicit function given by the equation $y = \cos(5x - 3y).$

Differentiate in x once, we find that
$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = -\sin(5x - 3y) \cdot (5 - 3\frac{dy}{dx})
$$
; thus

$$
\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-5\sin(5x - 3y)}{1 - 3\sin(5x - 3y)} = \frac{5}{3} \left[1 - \frac{1}{1 - 3\sin(5x - 3y)} \right].
$$
(2.4.6)

Differentiate the equation above in *x*, we obtain that

$$
\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\frac{5}{3} \cdot \frac{3\cos(5x - 3y)(5 - 3y')}{\left[1 - 3\sin(5x - 3y)\right]^2} = -\frac{5\cos(5x - 3y)(5 - 3y')}{\left[1 - 3\sin(5x - 3y)\right]^2}
$$

and ([2.4.6\)](#page-14-0) further implies that $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = -\frac{25\cos(5x-3y)}{[1-3\sin(5x-3y)]}$ $\frac{25 \cos(5x - 3y)}{[1 - 3 \sin(5x - 3y)]^3}.$ **Example 2.33.** Show that if it is possible to draw three normals from the point $(a, 0)$ to the parabola $x = y^2$, then $a > \frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$.

Suppose that the line *L* connecting $(a, 0)$ and (b^2, b) , where $b \neq 0$, is normal to the parabola $x = y^2$. The derivative of the function defined implicitly by $x = y^2$ satisfies that

$$
1 = 2y\frac{dy}{dx};
$$

thus the slope of the tangent line passing through (b^2, b) is $\frac{1}{2b}$. Since line *L* is perpendicular to the tangent line passing through (b^2, b) , we must have

$$
\frac{1}{2b} \cdot \frac{b-0}{b^2 - a} = -1 \, .
$$

Therefore, $a = \frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2} + b^2$. Since $b \neq 0$, $a > \frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$.