

DIFFERENTIABILITY

A function $f(x)$ is said to be derivable at $x = c \in D(f)$ if $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h}$ (called derivative $f'(c)$ at c) exist (finitely).

(i) **Left derivative at $x = c$**

$$Lf'(c) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(c-h) - f(c)}{-h}$$

(ii) **Right derivative at $x = c$**

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

Remark: From the above definitions, it follows that the derivative of a function f at c exists iff the left and right derivatives both exist separately at that point and are equal.

$$Lf'(c) = Rf'(c) = f'(c)$$

In other words, Derivative: Let $y = f(x)$ be a function of x and δx be an increment in the value of x and δy be the corresponding increment in the value of the function y , then

$\lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta y}{\delta x}$ (if it exists) is called the derivative of y with respect to x and is denoted by $\frac{dy}{dx}$ i.e. $\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{\delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\delta y}{\delta x}$.

THEOREM: If a function is finitely derivable at a point, then it is also continuous at that point; but the converse is not true.

Proof: - For let $f(x)$ be derivable at $x = a$, then $f'(a)$ exists, hence

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} \text{ exists and let it be equal to } f'(a).$$

$$\text{Then } \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} [f(a+h) - f(a)] = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f'(a) \cdot h = 0.$$

$$\therefore \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(a+h) = f(a) \text{ or equivalently } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a).$$

Hence the function is continuous at $x = a$.

Conversely, let $f(x) = |x|$, is continuous at $x = 0$ but it is not derivable at $x = 0$.

EXAMPLES

11. Let $f(x) = x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x}$ for $x \neq 0$, $f(0) = 0$. then

- (A) $f(x)$ is continuous and derivable at $x = 0$
- (B) $f(x)$ is continuous and not differentiable at $x = 0$.
- (C) $f(x)$ is neither continuous nor differentiable at $x = 0$
- (D) none of these

Sol. Continuity at $x = 0$:

$$L. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(0 - h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (0 - h)^2 \sin \frac{1}{0 - h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} -h^2 \sin \frac{1}{h} = 0 \times [\text{finite quantity}] = 0$$

$$R. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(0 + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (0 + h)^2 \sin \frac{1}{0 + h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h^2 \sin \frac{1}{h} = 0$$

Also $f(0) = 0$.

$$\therefore L. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = R. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = f(0).$$

$\therefore f(x)$ is continuous at $x = 0$.

Derivability at $x = 0$:

$$L. f'(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0 - h) - f(0)}{-h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(-h)^2 \sin \frac{1}{(-h)} - 0}{-h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h \sin \frac{1}{h} = 0 \times \text{finite quantity} = 0$$

$$R. f'(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(0 + h) - f(0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h^2 \sin \frac{1}{h} - 0}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h \sin \frac{1}{h} = 0$$

$$\therefore L. f'(0) = R. f'(0).$$

$\therefore f(x)$ is derivable at $x = 0$. **The correct answer is (A).**

12. The function $f(x) = |x - 1| + |x - 2|$ is not derivable at

(A) $x = 0$

(B) $x = 1$

(C) $x = 3$

(D) $x = 1, x = 2$

Sol. The given function is $f(x) = |x - 1| + |x - 2| \therefore f(x) =$

$$\begin{cases} (1 - x) + (2 - x) = 3 - 2x, & 0 \leq x < 1 \\ (x - 1) + (2 - x) = 1, & 1 \leq x < 2 \\ (x - 1) + (x - 2) = 2x - 3, & 2 \leq x \leq 3 \end{cases}$$

Clearly the function is derivable for $0 \leq x < 1, 1 < x < 2, 2 < x \leq 3$.

\therefore Let us consider the points $x = 1$ and $x = 2$

$$\text{At } x = 1. L. f'(1) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1 - h) - f(1)}{-h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{3 - 2(1 - h) - f(1)}{-h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (-2) = -2$$

$$R. f'(1) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1 + h) - f(1)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - 1}{h} = 0.$$

$$\therefore L. f'(1) \neq R. f'(1).$$

$\therefore f(x)$ is not derivable at $x = 1$.

$$\text{At } x = 2. L. f'(2) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2 - h) - f(2)}{-h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - 1}{h} = 0$$

$$R. f'(2) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2 + h) - f(2)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2(2 + h) - 3 - 1}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (2) = 2$$

$$\therefore L. f'(2) \neq R. f'(2).$$

$\therefore f(x)$ is not derivable at $x = 2$. **The correct answer is (D).**

DIFFERENTIATION: - STANDARD RESULTS

Sr no	Function	Differentiation(dy/dx)	Remarks
1	$y = x^n$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = nx^{n-1}$	$y = u^n, \frac{dy}{dx} = nu^{n-1} \frac{du}{dx}$
2	$y = e^x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = e^x$	$y = e^u, \frac{dy}{dx} = e^u \frac{du}{dx}$
3	$y = \log x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = 1/x$	$y = \log u, \frac{dy}{dx} = 1/u \frac{du}{dx}$
4	$y = a^x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = a^x \log a$	$y = a^u, \frac{dy}{dx} = a^u \log a \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$
5	$y = \sin x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x$	$y = \sin u, \frac{dy}{dx} = \cos u \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$
6	$y = \cos x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\sin x$	$y = \cos u, \frac{dy}{dx} = -\sin u \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$
7	$y = \tan x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sec^2 x$	$y = \tan u, \frac{dy}{dx} = \sec^2 u \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$
8	$y = \cot x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\operatorname{cosec}^2 x$	$y = \cot u, \frac{dy}{dx} = -\operatorname{cosec}^2 u \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$
9	$y = \sec x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sec x \tan x$	$y = \sec u \rightarrow \text{Apply } \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}$
10	$y = \operatorname{cosec} x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\operatorname{cosec} x \cot x$	----- Do as above -----
11	$y = \sin^{-1} x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	----- Do as above -----
12	$y = \cos^{-1} x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	----- Do as above -----
13	$y = \tan^{-1} x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$	----- Do as above -----
14	$y = \cot^{-1} x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{1}{1+x^2}$	----- Do as above -----
15	$y = \sec^{-1} x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{ x \sqrt{x^2-1}}, x > 0$	----- Do as above -----
16	$y = \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{1}{ x \sqrt{x^2-1}}, x > 0$	----- Do as above -----

SOME FUNDAMENTAL THEOREMS

Let u, v, w, \dots be functions of x whose derivatives exist.

1. Differential coefficient of constant is zero, i.e., $\frac{d}{dx}(k) = 0$

2. $\frac{d}{dx}(ku) = k \frac{du}{dx}$

3. $\frac{d}{dx}(u \pm v) = \frac{du}{dx} \pm \frac{dv}{dx}$

4. $\frac{d}{dx}(uv) = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$

5. $\frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \frac{v \frac{du}{dx} - u \frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2}$ or $\frac{DN' - ND'}{D^2}$

6. If $y = f(t)$ and $t = \phi(x)$, then $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dt} \frac{dt}{dx}$

7. If $u = f(y)$, then $\frac{du}{dx} = \frac{du}{dy} \frac{dy}{dx} = f'(y) \frac{du}{dx}$

8. $\frac{dy}{dx} \cdot \frac{dx}{dy} = 1$ or $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{dx/dy}$

DIFFERENTIATION OF ONE FUNCTION WITH RESPECT TO ANOTHER FUNCTION

Let $y = f(x)$, $z = \phi(x)$ and

Then derivative of $f(x)$ w.r.t. $\phi(x)$, i.e., y with respect to z is:

$$\frac{dy}{dz} = \frac{dy}{dx} \div \frac{dz}{dx}$$

LOGARITHMIC DIFFERENTIATION

If $y = [f_1(x)]^{f_2(x)}$ or $y = f_1(x) f_2(x) f_3(x) \dots$ or $y = \frac{f_1(x).f_2(x)..}{\phi_1(x).\phi_2(x)..}$

Then it will be convenient to take log of both sides before performing differentiation

IMPLICIT FUNCTION

$f(x, y) = c$. Differentiate each term w.r.t. x and note that $\frac{d}{dx}(\phi(y)) = \frac{d}{dy}(\phi(y)) \frac{dy}{dx}$

For example, $x^3 + y^3 - 3axy = 0$. Differentiating w.r.t. x , we get

$$3x^2 + 3y^2 \frac{dy}{dx} - 3a \left(1.y + x \frac{dy}{dx} \right) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (x^2 - ay) + (y^2 - ax) \frac{dy}{dx} = 0.$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x^2 - ay}{y^2 - ax}$$

BY THE HELP OF PARTIAL DIFFERENTIATION

If $f(x, y) = c$, then we can find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ by the help of partial differentiation as under

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{f_x}{f_y} \text{ where,}$$

f_x is differential coefficient of $f(x, y)$ w.r.t. x treating y as constant.

Similarly f_y is differentiation of $f(x, y)$ w.r.t. y treating x as constant.

For example, if $f(x, y) = x^3 + y^3 - 3axy = 0$, then $f_x = 3x^2 - 3ay$, $f_y = 3y^2 - 3ax$.

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{f_x}{f_y} = -\frac{x^2 - ay}{y^2 - ax}$$

TRIGONOMETRY FORMULAE

Sometimes by a trigonometric transformation the derivatives of various functions can be calculated in much simpler way than otherwise. The following trigonometric expansions and formulae are to be remembered.

$$1 \quad i \quad \tan^{-1} x - \tan^{-1} y = \tan^{-1} \frac{x - y}{1 + xy}$$

$$ii \quad \tan^{-1} x + \tan^{-1} y = \tan^{-1} \frac{x + y}{1 - xy}$$

$$iii \quad 2 \tan^{-1} x = \tan^{-1} \frac{2x}{1 - x^2}$$

$$iv \quad \sin^{-1} x \pm \sin^{-1} y = \sin^{-1} \left[x\sqrt{1 - y^2} \pm y\sqrt{1 - x^2} \right]$$

$$v \quad \cos^{-1} x \pm \cos^{-1} y = \cos^{-1} \left[xy \mp \sqrt{1 - x^2} \sqrt{1 - y^2} \right]$$

$$2. \quad \sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x = \tan^{-1} x + \cot^{-1} x = \sec^{-1} x + \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$3. \quad \sin^{-1} x = \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} (1/x) ; \tan^{-1} x = \cot^{-1} (1/x)$$

$$4. \quad \sin^{-1} \cos x = \sin^{-1} \sin \left(\frac{1}{2} \pi - x \right) = \frac{1}{2} \pi - x$$

$$5. \quad \tan^{-1} (\tan \theta) = \theta, \sin^{-1} (\sin \theta) = \theta, \cos^{-1} (\cos \theta) = \theta$$

$$6 \quad \frac{1 - \cos x}{1 + \cos x} = \frac{2 \sin^2(x/2)}{2 \cos^2(x/2)} = \tan^2 \frac{x}{2}; \quad \frac{1 + \cos x}{1 - \cos x} = \cot^2 \frac{x}{2};$$

$$\frac{1 - \cos x}{\sin x} = \frac{2 \sin^2(x/2)}{2 \sin(x/2) \cos(x/2)} = \tan \frac{x}{2}; \quad \frac{1 + \cos x}{\sin x} = \cot \frac{x}{2}$$

$$7. \quad \sqrt{1 \pm \sin x} = \cos(x/2) \pm \sin(x/2),$$

$$8. \quad \tan A \pm \tan B = \frac{\sin A \cos B \pm \cos A \sin B}{\cos A \cos B} = \frac{\sin(A \pm B)}{\cos A \cos B}$$

$$9. \quad \tan\left(\frac{1}{4}\pi + \theta\right) = \frac{1 + \tan \theta}{1 - \tan \theta}; \quad \tan\left(\frac{1}{4}\pi - \theta\right) = \frac{1 - \tan \theta}{1 + \tan \theta}$$

$$10. \quad \cos x = 2 \cos^2(x/2) - 1 = 1 - 2 \sin^2(x/2) = \cos^2(x/2) - \sin^2(x/2)$$

$$11. \quad \sin x = \frac{2 \tan(x/2)}{1 + \tan^2(x/2)} \quad 12. \quad \cos x = \frac{1 - \tan^2(x/2)}{1 + \tan^2(x/2)} \quad 13. \quad \tan x = \frac{2 \tan(x/2)}{1 - \tan^2(x/2)}$$

$$14. \quad \sin 3x = 3 \sin x - 4 \sin^3 x \quad 15. \quad \cos 3x = 4 \cos^3 x - 3 \cos x$$

SUBSTITUTION FOR DIFFERENTIATION OF ALGEBRAIC FUNCTIONS

Form	Substitution
$a^2 + x^2$	$x = a \tan \theta$ or $a \cot \theta$
$a^2 - x^2$	$x = a \sin \theta$ or $a \cos \theta$
$x^2 - a^2$	$x = a \sec \theta$ or $a \operatorname{cosec} \theta$
$\sqrt{\frac{a-x}{a+x}}$ or $\sqrt{\frac{a+x}{a-x}}$	$x = a \cos 2\theta$
$\sqrt{\frac{x-\alpha}{\beta-x}}$ or $\sqrt{(x-\alpha)(x-\beta)}$	$\alpha \cos^2 \theta + \beta \sin^2 \theta$

SUCCESSIVE DIFFERENTIATION

Let $y = f(x)$. Then if $f(x)$ is differentiable then, $y_1 = \frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x)$ is also differentiable function of x .

The derivate of $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is denoted by $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ or y_2 or $f''(x)$ is also a differentiable function x .

Thus, we can differentiate $f(x)$ any number (positive integer) of times.

If n is a positive integer then n th derivation of y or f is denoted by y_n or $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$ or $y^{(n)}$ or $D^n y$.

Thus $y_n = y^{(n)} = \frac{d^n y}{dx^n} = f^{(n)}(x) = D^n y$.

Leibnitz's Theorem: If u and v are any two functions of x such that their desired differential coefficients exist, then the n th differential coefficient of uv is given by

$$D^n (uv) = (D^n u) \cdot v + {}^nC_1 (D^{n-1} u) \cdot (Dv) + {}^nC_2 (D^{n-2} u) \cdot (D^2 v) + \dots + u (D^n v)$$

Methods of Successive Differentiation

- By the use of **standard results** given above.
- By **decomposition into a sum**: Sometimes standard results given earlier can be used by decomposing the given functions as the sum or difference of suitable functions with the help of algebraic or trigonometric formulae.
- By the use of **partial fractions**: If numerator and denominator of a function are both rational, integral algebraic functions, then results given can be used by decomposing the given function into partial fractions.
- By **Leibnitz's Theorem**: To find the n th derivate of the product of two functions, Leibnitz's theorem is useful.

SOME IMPORTANT Nth DERIVATIVE RESULTS

FUNCTION $y = f(x)$	y_n
$y = a^x$	$a^x (\log a)^n$
$y = (ax + b)^m, m \in I,$	Case 1 - $m > n$ $\frac{m!}{(m-n)!} (ax + b)^{m-n} a^n$ Case 2 - $m = n$ $n! a^n$ Case 3 - $m < n$ 0
$y = \frac{1}{ax + b}$	$y_n = (-1)^n \frac{n!}{(ax + b)^{n+1}} a^n$
$y = \log (ax + b)$	$y_n = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{(n-1)!}{(ax + b)^n} a^n$
$y = \sin (ax + b)$	$y_n = a^n \sin \left(ax + b + n \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$
$y = \cos (ax + b)$	$y_n = a^n \cos \left(ax + b + n \frac{\pi}{2} \right)$

Proofs:

1. nth order derivative of a^x

Let $y = a^x$. Then $y_1 = a^x \log a$, $y_2 = a^x (\log a)^2$, $y_3 = a^x (\log a)^3$

So, in general $y_n = a^x (\log a)^n$. Thus $D^n (a^x) = a^x (\log a)^n$

2. nth order derivative of $\sin(ax + b)$

Let $y = \sin(ax + b)$. Then $y_1 = a \cos(ax + b)$ or $y_1 = a \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + ax + b\right)$

$$\rightarrow y_2 = a^2 \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + ax + b\right) = a^2 \sin\left(2\frac{\pi}{2} + ax + b\right).$$

$$\text{Thus, } D^n \{\sin(ax + b)\} = a^n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} + ax + b\right).$$

$$\text{In particular, when } a = 1, b = 0, D^n(\sin x) = \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{2} + x\right)$$

3. nth order derivative of $(ax + b)^m$

$$y_2 = m(m-1)(ax+b)^{m-2}a^2; y_3 = m(m-1)(m-2)(ax+b)^{m-3}a^3$$

$$\text{Thus, } D^n \{(ax+b)^m\} = m(m-1)(m-2)\dots(m-(n-1))(ax+b)^{m-n}a^n$$

This is the general formula for the nth order derivative of $(ax+b)^m$ for all values of m.

Now three cases arise -

Case I: When $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m > n$. In this case

$$D^n \{(ax+b)^m\} = m(m-1)(m-2)\dots m-(n-1)(ax+b)^{m-n}a^n = \frac{m!}{(m-n)!}(ax+b)^{m-n}a^n.$$

Case II: When $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m = n$. In this case $D^n \{(ax+b)^n\} = n! a^n$.

Case III: When $m \in \mathbb{N}$ and $m < n$. In this case $D^n \{(ax+b)^m\} = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Putting } m = -1, \text{ we get } D^n \{(ax+b)^{-1}\} &= (-1)(-2)(-3)\dots(-1-(n-1))(ax+b)^{-1-n}a^n \\ &= \frac{(-1)^n 1.2.3\dots n}{(ax+b)^{n+1}}a^n = \frac{(-1)^n n!}{(ax+b)^{n+1}}a^n. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus, } D^n \left(\frac{1}{ax+b} \right) = \frac{(-1)^n n!}{(ax+b)^{n+1}}a^n$$

$$\text{In Particular, putting } a = 1, b = 0, \text{ we get } D^n \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) = \frac{(-1)^n n!}{x^{n+1}}$$

EXAMPLES

1. If $y = \tan x$, prove that $y_2 = 2yy_1$

Sol. We have $y = \tan x$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = \sec^2 x \text{ or } y_1 = \sec^2 x$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}(y_1) = \frac{d}{dx}(\sec^2 x)$$

$$\Rightarrow y_2 = 2 \sec x \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(\sec x) = 2 \sec x \cdot \sec x \tan x = 2 \tan x \cdot \sec^2 x$$

$$\Rightarrow y_2 = 2yy_1 \quad [\because y = \tan x \text{ and } y_1 = \sec^2 x]$$

2. If $y = x^3 \sin x$, then $y_{20} = ?$

- (a) $x^3 \sin x - 60 x^2 \cos x - 1140 x \sin x + 6840 \cos x$
 (b) $x^3 \sin x - 60 x^2 \cos x + 1140 x \sin x - 6840 \cos x$
 (c) $x^3 \sin x + 60 x^2 \cos x + 1140 x \sin x + 6840 \cos x$
 (d) none of these

Sol. Using Leibnitz Theorem, considering $\sin x$ as 1st function, we have

$$\begin{aligned} y_{20} &= \sin(x + 20\pi/2) \cdot x^3 + 20 \cdot \sin(x + 19\pi/2) \cdot 3x^2 \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 20 \cdot 19 \cdot \sin(x + 18\pi/2) \cdot 6x + \left(\frac{1}{6}\right) \cdot 20 \cdot 19 \cdot 19 \cdot \sin(x + 17\pi/2) \cdot 6 \\ &= x^3 \sin x - 60 x^2 \cos x - 1140 x \sin x + 6840 \cos x. \text{ Answer: (a)} \end{aligned}$$

3. If y is a polynomial of degree n with its leading coefficient 2, then $D^{n-1}(y) = ?$

- (a) $2(n!)$ (b) $2(n!)x$ (c) $2(n-1)!x$ (d) none of these

Sol. Let $y = 2x^n + a_1 x^{n-1} + \dots + a_n$.

$$\text{Then, } y_{n-1} = 2 \cdot n(n-1) \dots 2 \cdot x + a_1(n-1)!$$

$$= 2 \cdot n!x + a_1(n-1)!$$

Since, we do not know the coeff. Of x^{n-1} . **Answer: (d)**