

MA1200 Calculus and Basic Linear Algebra I
Chapter 7 Techniques of Differentiation

1 Differentiability and Differentiation

We say that a function $y = f(x)$ is differentiable at $x = a$ if the limit

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

exists. If it exists, we denote it by $f'(a)$. Now, if we consider all those points x at which f is differentiable, then we can establish a function f' which gives the value of the limit (that is, $f'(x)$) at each x . This function is called the derivative of f with respect to x (or the first derivative of f with respect to x), and is denoted by $\frac{dy}{dx}$, y' , $f'(x)$, $\frac{df(x)}{dx}$ or $Df(x)$. Note that $f'(a)$, $\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=a}$, $Df(a)$ are representing the same thing. We will establish techniques which help us to find the derivative of a function.

1.1 Differentiation from the first principle (p.283 – p.284)

A natural way to find the derivative of a function is to evaluate the limit directly. It is called *differentiation from the first principle*. The following examples illustrate the procedure.

Example 1

Let $f(x) = x^n$ where n is a positive integer. Now,

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

By the Binomial Theorem for a positive index n ,

$$(x+h)^n = x^n + {}_nC_1 x^{n-1} h + {}_nC_2 x^{n-2} h^2 + \cdots + {}_nC_r x^{n-r} h^r + \cdots + h^n$$

$$\text{Hence } f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} ({}_nC_1 x^{n-1} + {}_nC_2 x^{n-2} h + \cdots + h^{n-1}) = {}_nC_1 x^{n-1} = nx^{n-1}.$$

□

Example 2

Let $f(x) = \sin x$.

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{\sin(x+h) - \sin x}{h} \right] = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{2}{h} \sin \frac{h}{2} \cos \left(x + \frac{h}{2} \right) \right), \text{ since } \sin C - \sin D = 2 \cos \frac{C+D}{2} \sin \frac{C-D}{2}. \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\sin \frac{h}{2}}{\frac{h}{2}} \cos \left(x + \frac{h}{2} \right) \right) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \frac{h}{2}}{\frac{h}{2}} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos \left(x + \frac{h}{2} \right) = (1)(\cos x) = \cos x. \end{aligned}$$

□

1.2 Simple differentiation rules (p.294 – p.303, p.318 – p.323, p.325 – p.330, p.344 – p.346)

In order to speed up the calculations of derivatives, the following rules are set up.

(1) Differentiate a constant function:

If $f(x) = k$ where k is a constant, then $f'(x) = 0$.

(2) Differentiate a linear combination of functions:

If $f(x) = \lambda u(x) + \mu v(x)$ where λ and μ are real numbers and $u(x), v(x)$ are differentiable functions of x , then $f'(x) = \lambda u'(x) + \mu v'(x)$.

(3) Differentiate a product of functions:

If $f(x) = u(x)v(x)$ where $u(x), v(x)$ are both differentiable functions of x , then $f'(x) = u'(x)v(x) + u(x)v'(x)$.

(4) Differentiate a quotient of functions:

If $f(x) = \frac{u(x)}{v(x)}$ where $u(x), v(x)$ are both differentiable functions of x , then $f'(x) = \frac{v(x)u'(x) - u(x)v'(x)}{v^2(x)}$, provided $v(x) \neq 0$.

(5) Differentiate a composite function $f \circ u(x) = f(u(x))$ (Chain Rule):

If $f \circ u(x) = f(u(x))$ where f is differentiable at u and u is differentiable at x , then

$$f'(x) = \frac{df}{du} \frac{du}{dx}.$$

The following examples illustrate how to apply these rules.

Example 3

Let $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ where a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are real numbers. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= (a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0)' \\ &= (a_n x^n)' + (a_{n-1} x^{n-1})' + \cdots + (a_1 x)' + a_0', \text{ from 6.2(2).} \\ &= n a_n x^{n-1} + (n-1) a_{n-1} x^{n-2} + \cdots + a_1. \end{aligned}$$

□

Example 4

If $f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x^2 + 1}$, find $f'(x)$.

Solution:

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

□

Example 5

Let $f(x) = \sin^5(x^5)$. Find $f'(x)$.

Solution:

$$f'(x) = 5 \sin^4(x^5) [\sin(x^5)]' = 5 \sin^4(x^5) \cos(x^5) (x^5)' = 5 \sin^4(x^5) \cos(x^5) 5x^4 = 25x^4 \sin^4(x^5) \cos(x^5).$$

□

Example 6

If $y = \sqrt{ax^2 + 2bx + c}$, where a, b, c are constants, prove that $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{ax+b}{y}$.

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} (\sqrt{ax^2 + 2bx + c}) = \frac{d}{dx} \left[(ax^2 + 2bx + c)^{\frac{1}{2}} \right] = \frac{1}{2} (ax^2 + 2bx + c)^{-\frac{1}{2}} (2ax + 2b) \\ &= \frac{ax + b}{(ax^2 + 2bx + c)^{\frac{1}{2}}} = \frac{ax + b}{y}. \end{aligned}$$

□

1.3 Implicit functions and their derivatives (p.340 – p.344)

Most functions that we have encountered are expressed explicitly as

$$y = f(x).$$

However, the dependence between two variables x and y can also be described by writing

$$F(x, y) = 0.$$

A typical example of such a relationship is

$$x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0.$$

Observe that there are two continuous functions (both with domain $(-1, 1)$)

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \sqrt{1 - x^2} \\ y &= -\sqrt{1 - x^2} \end{aligned}$$

defined by this equation implicitly.

The derivative of an implicit function can be calculated in a completely straightforward fashion.

Example 7

Curve: $x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0$ (*)

Differentiating both sides of (*) with respect to x

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx}(x^2) + \frac{d}{dx}(y^2) - \frac{d}{dx}(1) &= 0 \\ 2x + 2y \frac{dy}{dx} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

It follows that $\frac{dy}{dx} = -\frac{x}{y}$.

□

Example 8

Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ from the implicit relationship

$$xy^2 + 3x^3 = \frac{y}{x}.$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx}(xy^2 + 3x^3) &= \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{y}{x}\right) \\ 2xy \frac{dy}{dx} + y^2 + 9x^2 &= \frac{x \frac{dy}{dx} - y}{x^2} \\ 2xy \frac{dy}{dx} + y^2 + 9x^2 &= \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{y}{x^2} \\ 2xy \frac{dy}{dx} - \frac{1}{x} \frac{dy}{dx} &= -\frac{y}{x^2} - y^2 - 9x^2 \\ \therefore \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{-\frac{y}{x^2} - y^2 - 9x^2}{2xy - \frac{1}{x}}.\end{aligned}$$

□

1.4 Inverse functions and their derivatives (p.618 – p.624, p.669 – p.680)

Review

A function f takes a number x from its domain D and assigns to it a single value y from its range R . For some functions, say, for example, $f(x) = 2x - 3$, we can reverse f . That is, for any given y in R , we can unambiguously go back and find the x from which it came. This new function (takes y and assigns x to it) is denoted by f^{-1} and is called the *inverse* of f .

Recall from Chapter 2 that, the criterion that a function f possesses an inverse function f^{-1} is that it must be one-to-one.

In practice, the inverse function f^{-1} is calculated from f by the following procedure:

- 1) check whether the function $y = f(x)$ is one-to-one,
- 2) solve x in terms of y (if possible),
- 3) rewrite the independent variable as x and the dependent variable as y .

Example 9

(a) Let $f(x) = |2x - 4|$ for $x \geq 2$. Note that $f(x) = 2x - 4$ for $x \geq 2$.

The function $f(x)$ is one-to-one.

$$\begin{aligned}y &= 2x - 4 \\ \Rightarrow x &= \frac{1}{2}(y + 4)\end{aligned}$$

The inverse function is $f^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{2}(x + 4)$ for $x \geq 0$.

(b) Let $f(x) = |2x - 4|$ for all $x \in \mathbf{R}$.

$f(x)$ takes the same value twice for $x \neq 2$. (e.g. $f(6) = 8 = f(-2)$)

Therefore $f(x)$ has no inverse.

Derivative of an Inverse Function

The derivative of a function and the derivative of its inverse have the following relationship:

Theorem (Inverse function theorem)

Let f be differentiable and strictly monotonic on an interval \mathbf{I} . If $f'(x) \neq 0$ at a certain x in \mathbf{I} , then f^{-1} is differentiable at the corresponding point $y = f(x)$ in the range of f and

$$(f^{-1})'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(x)}.$$

It is customarily written as

$$\frac{dx}{dy} = \frac{1}{\frac{dy}{dx}}.$$

This theorem will be applied frequently in the following sections.

Example 10 (Inverse trigonometric functions)

We know that the function $\sin x$ (with domain \mathbf{R}) has no inverse. However, by restricting the domain, the function $\sin x$ can have well-defined inverses. For example, the following function has inverse:

$$f: \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}, f(x) = \sin x$$

To be definite, we define the inverse sine function by

$$\sin^{-1}: [-1, 1] \rightarrow \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right],$$

where $\sin^{-1} y = x$ for $y = \sin x$.

The interval $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$ is called the principal range of $\sin^{-1} y$.

Similarly, the inverse cosine function and inverse tangent function can be defined by choosing $[0, \pi]$ and $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$ as their corresponding principal ranges.

□

Now, we can apply the inverse function theorem to find the derivatives for the functions $\sin^{-1} y$, $\cos^{-1} y$ and $\tan^{-1} y$. Since $y = \sin x \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \cos x$. Hence,

$$y = \sin^{-1} x \Rightarrow x = \sin y \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dy} = \cos y \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\frac{dx}{dy}} = \frac{1}{\cos y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \sin^2 y}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}, -1 < x < 1.$$

Similarly, we can show

$$(\cos^{-1} x)' = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}, \quad -1 < x < 1 \quad \text{and} \quad (\tan^{-1} x)' = \frac{1}{1+x^2}.$$

Example 11

Differentiate $x \sin^{-1}(2x)$ with respect to x .

Solution:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(x \sin^{-1}(2x)) = x \frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1}(2x)) + \sin^{-1}(2x) \frac{d}{dx}(x) = \frac{2x}{\sqrt{1-4x^2}} + \sin^{-1}(2x).$$

□

Example 12

Differentiate $\tan^{-1}(x+1)$ with respect to x .

Solution:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1}(x+1)) = \frac{1}{1+(x+1)^2} (x+1)' = \frac{1}{x^2 + 2x + 2}.$$

□

Example 13

Differentiate $\cos^{-1} \frac{2x}{1+x^2}$ with respect to x .

Solution:

$$\text{Let } y = \cos^{-1} \frac{2x}{1+x^2}.$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-\left(\frac{2x}{1+x^2}\right)^2}} \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{2x}{1+x^2}\right) = -\frac{\frac{(1+x^2)2-2x(2x)}{(1+x^2)^2}}{\sqrt{1-\left(\frac{2x}{1+x^2}\right)^2}} = \frac{2x^2-2}{(1+x^2)^2 \sqrt{1-\left(\frac{2x}{1+x^2}\right)^2}}.$$

□

1.5 Logarithmic functions, exponential functions and their derivatives (p.628 – p.652)

Exponential functions arise in many real life problems. For example, in an ideal environment, the mass m of a cell will grow according to the following equation:

$$\frac{dm}{dt} = km, \quad \text{where } k \text{ is a constant.}$$

In words, it means that the cell's growth rate is proportional to its mass at each instance of time. The solution of the above equation is given by:

$$m = m_0 e^{kt},$$

where m_0 is the initial mass of the cell.

In fact, we can define the exponential function as follow:

The function $y = f(x) = e^x$ is the solution of the differential equation

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y \quad \text{with } y(0) = 1$$

Note that $e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \approx 2.71828$.

The general properties of the function $y = e^x$ are:

- By definition, we know that $\frac{d}{dx}(e^x) = e^x$ and $e^0 = 1$.
- Since e is a positive number, all index laws can be applied. (For example $e^{x_1} \cdot e^{x_2} = e^{x_1+x_2}$).
- It is continuous (because it is differentiable) and is an increasing function of x .
- The domain of e^x is \mathbf{R} and its range is the set of all positive numbers.

Since e^x is strictly increasing on its domain, it has an inverse. This inverse is called the natural logarithm and is denoted by

$$\log_e x \text{ or } \ln x.$$

The natural logarithm function has the following properties:

- (i) $\ln xy = \ln x + \ln y$ where $x, y > 0$.
- (ii) $\ln \frac{x}{y} = \ln x - \ln y$.
- (iii) $\ln x^a = a \ln x$.
- Since it is the inverse of e^x , by inverse function theorem, we have

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

- The domain and range of this function are:
Domain: The set of all positive real numbers. Range: The set of all real numbers.
- It is differentiable and increasing everywhere on its domain.

Example 14

Consider the following three functions:

$$f(x) = a^x = e^{x \ln a}$$

$$g(x) = \log_a x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln a}$$

$$h(x) = x^a = e^{a \ln x}$$

where a is a real constant. We see that

$$(i) \quad y = a^x \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = \frac{d}{dx}(e^{x \ln a}) = e^{x \ln a} \frac{d}{dx}(x \ln a) = e^{x \ln a} \ln a = a^x \ln a.$$

$$(ii) \quad y = \log_a x \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln a}\right) = \frac{1}{\ln a} \frac{d}{dx}(\ln x) = \frac{1}{x \ln a}.$$

$$(iii) \quad y = x^a \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx}(e^{a \ln x}) = e^{a \ln x} \frac{d}{dx}(a \ln x) \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{a}{x} e^{a \ln x} = \frac{a}{x} a^x = a x^{a-1}.$$

□

Example 15

We can apply the natural logarithm function to find the derivatives of some functions. Find $f'(x)$

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

Solution:

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

$$\Rightarrow \ln y = \ln x - \ln(x-1) - \ln(x-2) - \ln(x-3) \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{x}{(x-1)(x-2)(x-3)} \left(\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{x-1} - \frac{1}{x-2} - \frac{1}{x-3} \right).$$

This method simplifies the calculations. □

Example 16

If $f(x) = e^{-\frac{x}{n}} \cos \frac{x}{a}$, find the value of $f(0) + af'(0)$.

Solution:

$$f(x) = e^{-\frac{x}{n}} \cos \frac{x}{a} \Rightarrow f(0) = 1.$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = e^{-\frac{x}{n}} \frac{d\left(\cos \frac{x}{a}\right)}{dx} + \cos \frac{x}{a} \frac{d\left(e^{-\frac{x}{n}}\right)}{dx} = -e^{-\frac{x}{n}} \frac{1}{a} \sin \frac{x}{a} - \frac{1}{n} e^{-\frac{x}{n}} \cos \frac{x}{a} \Rightarrow f'(0) = -\frac{1}{n}.$$

$$\text{So } f(0) + af'(0) = 1 - \frac{a}{n}. \quad \square$$

Example 17

If $y = \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax}$, find $\frac{dy}{dx}$.

Solution:

Method 1:

$$\ln y = \ln \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax} \Rightarrow \ln y = ax \ln \left(\frac{a}{x}\right).$$

Differentiate both sides of $\ln y = ax \ln \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)$ with respect to x , we have

$$\frac{1}{y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = ax \frac{-\frac{a}{x^2}}{\frac{a}{x}} + a \ln \left(\frac{a}{x}\right) \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = y \left[-a + a \ln \left(\frac{a}{x}\right) \right] = -a \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax} + a \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax} \ln \left(\frac{a}{x}\right).$$

In general for function $y = u(x)^{v(x)}$, where $u(x) > 0$, we may use the above method to obtain $\frac{dy}{dx}$.

Method 2:

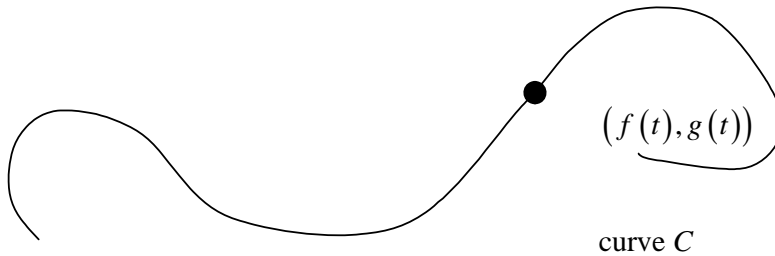
$$\begin{aligned} y &= \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax} \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = ax \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax-1} \frac{d\left(\frac{a}{x}\right)}{dx} + \left(\ln \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)\right) \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax} \frac{d(ax)}{dx} \\ &= -ax \frac{\left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax}}{\frac{a}{x}} \frac{a}{x^2} + a \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax} \ln \left(\frac{a}{x}\right) \\ &= -a \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax} + a \left(\frac{a}{x}\right)^{ax} \ln \left(\frac{a}{x}\right) \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

2 Differentiation of parametric equations (p.330 – p.336)

A plane curve C is usually described by a pair of equations

$$\begin{cases} x = f(t) \\ y = g(t) \end{cases}$$

where $t \in I$ with f and g continuous on the interval I . t is called the parameter and the above equations are called the parametric equation for the curve C .



Now, to determine the slope of the tangent at a given point $(x(t), y(t))$, we have to calculate the value

$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{(x(t), y(t))}$$

This value can be calculated by the following rule:

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

Example 18

The parametric equation of a parabola is given by $\begin{cases} x = at^2 \\ y = 2at \end{cases}$.

As $\frac{dx}{dt} = 2at$ and $\frac{dy}{dt} = 2a$, we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2a}{2at} = \frac{1}{t}$$

That is, the slope of the tangent at a given point $(x(t), y(t))$ is equal to $1/t$.

□

3 Higher Derivatives

The operation of differentiation takes a function $f(x)$ and produces a new function $f'(x)$. If $f'(x)$ is again differentiable, we produce still another function (by differentiation $f'(x)$). It is denoted by $f''(x)$ and called the second derivative of $f(x)$. In general, we can define the n^{th} derivative of $f(x)$ (written as $f^{(n)}(x)$) by $f^{(n)}(x) = (f^{(n-1)}(x))'$ for $n \geq 2$, provided that $f^{(n-1)}(x)$ is differentiable.

Note that the n^{th} derivative $f^{(n)}(x)$ can also be written as $\frac{d^n y}{dx^n}$ or $D^n y$.

Example 19

Find $D^n(x^m)$ where m is a positive integer.

Solution:

Consider separately the following 3 cases:

(a) $n < m$, $D^n(x^m) = m(m-1)\cdots(m-n+1)x^{m-n}$

(b) $n = m$, $D^n(x^m) = m!$

(c) $n > m$, $D^n(x^m) = 0$

□

Example 20

Find $D^n[\sin(ax+b)]$ where a, b are constants and n is a positive integer.

Solution:

$$D[\sin(ax+b)] = a \cos(ax+b) = a \sin\left(ax+b+\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$D^2[\sin(ax+b)] = D\left[a \sin\left(ax+b+\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right] = a\left[a \sin\left(ax+b+\frac{\pi}{2}+\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right] = a^2 \sin\left(ax+b+2\times\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$D^3[\sin(ax+b)] = D\left[a^2 \sin\left(ax+b+2\times\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right] = a^2\left[a \sin\left(ax+b+2\times\frac{\pi}{2}+\frac{\pi}{2}\right)\right] = a^3 \sin\left(ax+b+3\times\frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

and in general

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

□

Example 21

If any $ay^2 + by + c = x$, show that $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2a\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^3 = 0$.

Solution:

Now, $ay^2 + by + c = x$. Differentiating with respect to x , we get $2ay\frac{dy}{dx} + b\frac{dy}{dx} = 1$. Therefore,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2ay + b}. \text{ Differentiating again with respect to } x, \text{ we get } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{-2a}{(2ay + b)^2} \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-2a}{(2ay + b)^3}.$$

$$\text{So } \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} + 2a\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^3 = \frac{-2a}{(2ay + b)^3} + 2a\left(\frac{1}{2ay + b}\right)^3 = 0.$$

□

3.1 Leibnitz' rule for higher derivatives of product of two differentiable functions

Leibnitz' rule for higher derivatives of product of differentiable functions says that

$$\frac{d^n}{dx^n}(fg) = \frac{d^n f}{dx^n} g + n \frac{d^{n-1} f}{dx^{n-1}} \frac{dg}{dx} + \dots + \frac{n(n-1)\dots(n-k+1)}{k!} \frac{d^{n-k} f}{dx^{n-k}} \frac{d^k g}{dx^k} + \dots + n \frac{df}{dx} \frac{d^{n-1} g}{dx^{n-1}} + f \frac{d^n g}{dx^n}, \text{ where}$$
$$k! = k \times (k-1) \times \dots \times 2 \times 1.$$

Example 22

Evaluate $\frac{d^{10}}{dx^{10}}[(x^2 + 3)\sin x]$.

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d^{10}}{dx^{10}}[(\sin x)(x^2 + 3)] &= (\sin x)^{(10)}(x^2 + 3) + 10(\sin x)^{(9)}(x^2 + 3)^{(1)} + \frac{10 \times 9}{2!}(\sin x)^{(8)}(x^2 + 3)^{(2)} \\ &= \sin\left(x + \frac{10\pi}{2}\right)(x^2 + 3) + 10\sin\left(x + \frac{9\pi}{2}\right)(2x) + 45\sin\left(x + \frac{8\pi}{2}\right)(2) \\ &= -(x^2 + 3)\sin x + 20x \cos x + 90 \sin x \\ &= (87 - x^2)\sin x + 20x \cos x. \end{aligned}$$

□

Short Table of Derivatives of $y = f(u)$ with respect to x , where u is a function of x

Functions, $y = f(u)$	Derivative of y with respect to x
$y = c$, where c is a constant.	$\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$
$y = cu$, where c is a constant.	$\frac{dy}{dx} = c \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = u^p$, where p is a constant.	$\frac{dy}{dx} = pu^{p-1} \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = u + v$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx} + \frac{dv}{dx}$
$y = uv$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \frac{u}{v}$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{v \frac{du}{dx} - u \frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2}$
$y = f(u)$, where u is a function of x .	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{df(u)}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$, the chain rule
$y = \log_a u$, $a > 0$.	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{u} \log_a e \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = a^u$, $a > 0$.	$\frac{dy}{dx} = a^u \log_e a \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = e^u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = e^u \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = u^v$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = vu^{v-1} \frac{du}{dx} + u^v \log_e u \frac{dv}{dx}$
$y = \sin u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \cos u \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \cos u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\sin u \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \tan u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sec^2 u \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \cot u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\operatorname{cosec}^2 u \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \sec u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sec u \tan u \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \operatorname{cosec} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = -\operatorname{cosec} u \cot u \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \sin^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \cos^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \tan^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{1+u^2} \frac{du}{dx}$

$y = \cot^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{1+u^2} \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \sec^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{ u \sqrt{u^2-1}} \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \operatorname{cosec}^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{ u \sqrt{u^2-1}} \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \sinh u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \cosh u \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \cosh u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \sinh u \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \sinh^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+u^2}} \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \cosh^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{u^2-1}} \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \tanh^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{1-u^2} \frac{du}{dx}$
$y = \coth^{-1} u$	$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{u^2-1} \frac{du}{dx}$

N.B. $\frac{d}{dx}(\sinh u) = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{1}{2}(e^u - e^{-u})\right) = \frac{1}{2}(e^u + e^{-u}) \frac{du}{dx} = \cosh u \frac{du}{dx}.$