

Differential Calculus Formula Sheet

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Fundamentals

By Definition, the derivative of function $f(x)$ at $x = a$ is given

by : $f'(a) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$ if it exists and is finite.

Alternatively, we can also define $f'(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$ provided the limit exists and is finite.

- Right Hand Derivative (**RHD**) of f' at $x = a$ denoted by $f'(a^+)$ is defined by : $f'(a^+) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$

provided the limit exists and is finite.

- Left Hand Derivative (**LHD**) of f' at $x = a$ denoted by $f'(a^-)$ is defined by : $f'(a^-) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a) - f(a-h)}{h}$

provided the limit exists and is finite.

- If $f'(a)$ exists, then $f(x)$ is derivable at $x = a \implies f(x)$ is continuous at $x = a$.
- If $f(x)$ is derivable at $x = a$, then $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = a$. **But the converse is not true.** If $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = a$, then it need not be derivable at $x = a$.
- Derivability over an Interval $\rightarrow f(x)$ is said to be derivable over an interval if it is derivable at each and every point of the interval.
- If 2 functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are derivable at $x = a$, then sum, product, difference, composition* of the 2 functions will also be derivable at $x = a$ and if $g(a) \neq 0$, then the function $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ will also be derivable at $x = a$.

Theorems of Derivatives

If u and v are derivable functions of x , then

- $\frac{d(u \pm v)}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx} \pm \frac{dv}{dx}$
- $\frac{d}{dx}(Ku) = K \frac{du}{dx}$
- **Product Rule** $\rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}(u \cdot v) = u \frac{dv}{dx} + v \frac{du}{dx}$
- **Quotient Rule** $\rightarrow \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \frac{v \frac{du}{dx} - u \frac{dv}{dx}}{v^2}$
- **Chain Rule** If $y = f(u)$ and $u = g(x)$ then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$$

Derivatives of Standard Functions

- $\frac{d(x^n)}{dx} = nx^{n-1} \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}^+, n \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\frac{d(a^x)}{dx} = a^x \cdot \ln(a) \rightarrow \frac{d(e^x)}{dx} = e^x$
- $\frac{d(\ln(x))}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}$
- $\frac{d(\log_a(x))}{dx} = \frac{1}{x \ln(a)}$
- $\frac{d(\sin x)}{dx} = \cos x$
- $\frac{d(\cos x)}{dx} = -\sin x$
- $\frac{d(\tan x)}{dx} = \sec^2 x$
- $\frac{d(\sec x)}{dx} = \sec x \cdot \tan x$
- $\frac{d(\csc x)}{dx} = -\csc x \cdot \cot x$
- $\frac{d(\cot x)}{dx} = -\csc^2 x$
- $\frac{d(\text{Constant})}{dx} = 0$
- $\frac{d(\sin^{-1} x)}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \rightarrow |x| < 1$
- $\frac{d(\cos^{-1} x)}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \rightarrow |x| < 1$
- $\frac{d(\tan^{-1} x)}{dx} = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\frac{d(\sec^{-1} x)}{dx} = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}} \rightarrow |x| > 1$
- $\frac{d(\csc^{-1} x)}{dx} = \frac{-1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}} \rightarrow |x| > 1$
- $\frac{d(\cot^{-1} x)}{dx} = \frac{-1}{1+x^2} \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}$
- For 2 functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$,
 $[f(x)^{g(x)}]' = f(x)^{g(x)} \left[f'(x) \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} + g'(x) \cdot \ln f(x) \right]$
If $f(x) = \text{Constant}$, then
 $[f(x)^{g(x)}]' = f(x)^{g(x)} [g'(x) \cdot \ln f(x)]$

Some Chad Differentiation Tricks

- Differentiation of Implicit Functions : To find the derivative of $f(x, y) = 0$, we may use the following formula :

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = - \frac{\text{Partial Derivative of } f(x, y) \text{ w.r.t } x}{\text{Partial Derivative of } f(x, y) \text{ w.r.t } y}$$

- Differentiation of Functions in Parametric Form : If $x = f(t)$ and $y = g(t)$,

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

- Differentiation using Logarithms :

$$\begin{aligned} - y &= [f_1(x)]^{f_2(x)} \\ \frac{1}{y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} &= (f_2'(x)) \ln f_1(x) + f_2(x) \frac{f_1'(x)}{f_1(x)} \\ - y &= \frac{\prod f_i(x)}{\prod g_i(x)} \\ \frac{1}{y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} &= \left[\sum \frac{f_i'(x)}{f_i(x)} \right] - \left[\sum \frac{g_i'(x)}{g_i(x)} \right] \end{aligned}$$

- Inverse Functions : If $y = f(x)$ and $x = g(y)$ are inverse functions, then

$$g'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(x)}$$

$$g''(y) = - \frac{f''(x)}{(f'(x))^3}$$

- Even and Odd Functions : If $f(x)$ is an even function, then $f'(x)$ will be an odd function, and conversely, if $f(x)$ is an odd function, then $f'(x)$ will be an even function.
- Leibnitz Theorem (Derivative for product of 2 functions) : For 2 functions u and v , n^{th} derivative of the product function $u \cdot v$ is given by

$$y_n = \sum_{r=0}^n \binom{n}{r} u_{n-r} v_r$$

Types of Discontinuities

- Removable Type of Discontinuities :
 - Missing Point Discontinuities
 - Isolated Point Discontinuities
- Non-Removable Type of Discontinuities
 - Finite Type
 - Infinite Type
 - Oscillatory Type

(Dis)continuity of Composite Functions

If $g(x)$ is defined as $g(x) = f(f(x))$, then discontinuities of $g(x)$ will be the union of the set of the discontinuities of $f(x)$ and $f(f(x))$.

Similarly if $h(x) = f(f(f(x)))$, the discontinuities of $h(x)$ will be union of the set of discontinuities of $g(x)$ and $f(f(f(x)))$.

Intermediate Value Theorem (IMVT)

The Intermediate Value Theorem states that, if $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, then it takes on any given value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ at some point inside the interval.

Corollary : For a continuous function $f(x)$, if there exist $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(a) \cdot f(b) \leq 0$, i.e., they have opposite signs, then it is assured by IMVT that there exists a root in the interval $[a, b]$.

Tangents and Normals on the curve

The curve is given by $f(x, y) = 0$. We define $\frac{dy}{dx}$ as an expression we get after differentiating the equation of the curve w.r.t x .

- For a point on the curve
 - Equation of Tangent :

$$(y - y_1) = \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_{(x_1, y_1)} \cdot (x - x_1)$$

- Equation of Normal :

$$(y - y_1) = - \left(\frac{dx}{dy} \right)_{(x_1, y_1)} \cdot (x - x_1)$$

- For a point (a, b) not on the curve
 - Equation of Tangent :
Solve the following 2 equations simultaneously -

$$\frac{(y_1 - b)}{(x_1 - a)} = \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_{(x_1, y_1)}$$

$$f(x_1, y_1) = 0$$

- Equation of Normal :
Solve the following 2 equations simultaneously -

$$\frac{(y_1 - b)}{(x_1 - a)} = - \left(\frac{dx}{dy} \right)_{(x_1, y_1)}$$

$$f(x_1, y_1) = 0$$

Conditions for a line to be Tangent to a given Curve at a point

Slope of Line = Slope of tangent to the curve at the point of contact

$$-\frac{a}{b} = \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)_{(x_1, y_1)}$$

Angle Between Curves

$$m_1 = \left(\frac{df_1(x)}{dx} \right)_{(x_1, y_1)} \text{ and } m_2 = \left(\frac{df_2(x)}{dx} \right)_{(x_1, y_1)}$$

Acute angle between them is given by

$$\theta = \tan^{-1} \left| \frac{m_1 - m_2}{1 + m_1 m_2} \right|$$

Lengths in terms of derivatives

- Length of Tangent : $|y| \cdot \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dx}{dy} \right)^2}$
- Length of Normal : $|y| \cdot \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2}$
- Length of Sub-Tangent : $\left| y \cdot \frac{dx}{dy} \right|$
- Length of Sub-Normal : $\left| y \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} \right|$

Monotonicity

A function which in a given interval is increasing or decreasing is called 'Monotonic' in that interval.

If $f'(x) \geq 0$ at a point $x = a$, then the function at this point is increasing (or precisely non-decreasing). If $f'(x) \leq 0$, the function $f(x)$ at this point is decreasing (or precisely non-increasing). Even if $f'(a)$ is not defined, $f(x)$ can still be increasing or decreasing.

Rolle's Theorem

Let $f(x)$ be a function subject to the following conditions :

1. $f(x)$ is a continuous function of x in the closed interval of $[a, b]$.
2. $f(x)$ is differentiable for every point in the interval (a, b) .
3. $f(a) = f(b)$

Then there exists at least one point $x = c$ such that $a < c < b$ where $f'(c) = 0$

Mean Value Theorems

Lagrange's Mean Value Theorem

If a function $f(x)$ is

1. continuous in the interval $[a, b]$.
2. differentiable in the interval (a, b) .

Then there exists at least one point $x = c$ in the interval (a, b) such that $f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$

Cauchy's Mean Value Theorem

If functions $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are both continuous in the interval $[a, b]$, differentiable in the interval (a, b) , and $g'(x)$ is not zero in the interval (a, b) , then there exists some point $x = c$ in

$$(a, b) \text{ such that } \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}$$

Taylor's Theorem

Let $f : [a, x] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. If

1. $f^{(n-1)}$ exists and is continuous on $[a, x]$.
2. $f^{(n)}$ exists on (a, x) .

Then there exists $c \in (a, x)$ such that

$$f(x) = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a)^1 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n-1)}(a)}{(n-1)!}(x-a)^{n-1} + \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

Maxima - Minima

Types

- Absolute Maxima
- Relative/Local Maxima
- Absolute Minima
- Relative/Local Minima

Necessary Condition

If $f(x)$ is a maximum or minimum at $x = c$ and if $f'(c)$ exists, then $f'(c) = 0$.

Using Second Order Derivative

- $f(c)$ is a minimum value of the function $f(x)$ if $f'(c) = 0$ (If it exists) and $f''(c) > 0$ (Only if it exists).
- $f(c)$ is a maximum value of the function $f(x)$ if $f'(c) = 0$ (If it exists) and $f''(c) < 0$ (Only if it exists).

Point(s) of Inflection

The sign of the second order derivative determines the concavity of the curve.

- $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} > 0 \implies \text{ConcaveUpwards}$
- $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} < 0 \implies \text{ConcaveDownwards}$

At the point of Inflection, we find that $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 0$ and $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ flips sign.

Inflection Points can also occur if $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ fails to exist.

Newton-Raphson's Method for Approximations

1. Devise a *good* function $f(x)$

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

Do this till $n \rightarrow \infty$ (For practical purposes, take approximate value and do it a few times to improve accuracy)

2. $f(x + \Delta x) = f(x) + \frac{dy}{dx}(\Delta x)$