

Differentiable Functions

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Abstract

In this paper I will briefly discuss one of the two fundamental operations of calculus-differentiation.

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1 Introduction

In this paper I will give a definition of the derivative of a function, state some basic rules for differentiation, and give some examples of functions that are and are not differentiable

2 Definition

The **derivative** of f at x is give by

$$f'(x) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

provided the limit exists.

Note: The process of finding the derivative of a function is called *differentiation*. A function is *differentiable* at x if its derivative exists at s and *differentiable* on an open interval (a, b) if it is differentiable at every point in the interval.

Other notations for the derivative of f include: $D_y[f(x)]$, $\frac{dy}{dx}$, or y' . The last two are used when the rule for f is written in the form $y = f(x)$.

3 Calculating the Derivative

The calculation of the derivative of f is facilitated using the following four-step process.

1. Compute $f(x + \Delta x)$.
2. Form the *difference* $f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)$.
3. Form the *quotient* $\frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$.
4. Compute $f'(x) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$.

Example 3.1 Let $f(x) = x^2$. Compute $f'(x)$.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x + \Delta x) &= (x + \Delta x)^2 = x^2 + 2x\Delta x + \Delta x^2 \\ f(x + \Delta x) - f(x) &= x^2 + 2x\Delta x + \Delta x^2 - x^2 = 2x\Delta x + \Delta x^2 = \Delta x(2x + \Delta x) \\ \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} &= \frac{\Delta x(2x + \Delta x)}{\Delta x} = 2x + \Delta x \\ f'(x) &= \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} (2x + \Delta x) = 2x \end{aligned}$$

4 Differentiability and Continuity

In practical applications, you encounter functions that fail to be *differentiable*—that is, do not have a derivative at certain values in the domain of the function f . It can be shown that a continuous function f fails to be differentiable at a point when the graph of f makes an abrupt change of direction at that point. The following alternative limit form of the derivative is useful in investigating the relationship between differentiability and continuity. The derivative of f at c is

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

provided this limit exists. Note that the limit in this alternative form requires that the one-sided limits

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$$

exists and are equal. These one-sided limits are called the **derivatives from the left and from the right**, respectively.

Example 4.1 *The function*

$$f(x) = |x - 2|$$

is continuous at $x = 2$. However, the one-sided limits

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{f(x) - f(2)}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{|x - 2| - 0}{x - 2} = -1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} \frac{f(x) - f(2)}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} \frac{|x - 2| - 0}{x - 2} = 1$$

are not equal. Therefore, f is not differentiable at $x = 2$.

Theorem 4.1 *Differentiability Implies Continuity*

If f is differentiable at $x = c$, then f is continuous at $x = c$.

Proof: You can prove that f is continuous at $x = c$ by showing that $f(x)$ approaches $f(c)$ as $x \rightarrow c$. To do this, use the differentiability of f at $x \rightarrow c$ and consider the following limit:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim [f(x) - f(c)] &= \lim [(x - c) \left(\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} \right)] \\ &= [\lim (x - c)] [\lim \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}] \\ &= (0) [f'(c)] \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Because the difference $f(x) - f(c)$ approaches zero as $x \rightarrow c$, you can conclude that $\lim f(x) = f(c)$. Therefore, f is continuous at $x = c$.

q.e.d.

Note: If a function is differentiable at $x = c$, then it is continuous at $x = c$. Hence, differentiability implies continuity. It is possible for a function to be continuous at $x = c$ and *not* be differentiable at $x = c$. Hence, continuity does not imply differentiability.

5 A few Theorems for Differentiable Functions

There are many theorems related to differentiable functions. We already saw, for example, that differentiability implies continuity. Other important theorems are *Rolle's Theorem* and its generalized form.

Theorem 5.1 *Rolle's Theorem* Let f be continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ and differentiable on the open interval (a, b) . If $f(a) = f(b)$ then there is at least one number c in (a, b) such that $f'(c) = 0$.

Example 5.1 Suppose $f(x) = x^4 - 2x^2$ and we consider the interval $[-2, 2]$. Does Rolle's Theorem apply, and if so find the points guaranteed to exist by the theorem.

Figure 1: Graph of $f(x) = x^4 - 2x^2$

To begin, note that f is continuous on the interval $[-2, 2]$ and differentiable on the interval $(-2, 2)$. Moreover, because $f(-2) = 8 = f(2)$ you can conclude that there exists at least one c in $(-2, 2)$ such that $f'(c) = 0$. Setting the derivative equal to 0 produces

$$\begin{aligned}f'(x) &= 4x^3 - 4x = 0 \\4x(x^2 - 1) &= 0 \\x &= 0, 1, -1\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 5.2 *Generalized Rolle's Theorem*

- f once differentiable, $f(a_1) = f(a_2) \Rightarrow f'(c_1) = 0$ for some c_1
- f twice differentiable, $f(a_1) = f(a_2) = f(a_3)$
 - $\Rightarrow f'(c_1) = 0$ and $f'(c_2) = 0$
 - $\Rightarrow f''(d_1) = 0$ for some d_1
- f thrice differentiable, $f(a_1) = f(a_2) = f(a_3) = f(a_4)$
 - $\Rightarrow f'(c_1) = 0$, $f'(c_2) = 0$, and $f'(c_3) = 0$
 - $\Rightarrow f''(d_1) = 0$ and $f''(d_2) = 0$
 - $\Rightarrow f'''(e_1) = 0$ for some e_1

Example 5.2 let $f(x) = x^4 - 2x^2$ on $[-1.3, 1.3]$ then by the Generalized Rolle's Theorem, $f(1.3) = -0.5239 = f(-1.3)$.

$$\begin{aligned}f'(x) &= 4x^3 - 4x = 0 \\4x(x^2 - 1) &= 0 \\x &= 0, 1, -1\end{aligned}$$

Thus there are three points where $f'(x) = 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}f''(x) &= 12x^2 - 4 = 0 \\12x^2 &= 4 \\x &= \frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}\end{aligned}$$

Thus there are two points where $f''(x) = 0$

$$\begin{aligned}f'''(x) &= 24x = 0 \\x &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Thus there is one point where $f'''(x) = 0$

Now we saw that functions that are differentiable more than once could be useful, we define new classes of functions as follows.

Definition 5.1 *The Space of C^n Functions* If $f(x)$ is n times differentiable on $[a, b]$ and if $f^n(x)$ is itself continuous on $[a, b]$, we shall write $f(x) \in C^n[a, b]$.

Note: $C^n[a, b]$ is a linear space of functions.

Example 5.3 Here is a function that is continuous but not differentiable (i.e. C^0):

Let $f(x) = |x|$ and we consider the interval $[-1, 1]$. The function is certainly continuous, but not differentiable at $x = 0$.

Example 5.4 Here is a function that is differentiable but f' is not continuous (i.e. again C^0):

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

Example 5.5 The function $f(x) = x^{\frac{4}{3}}$ is a function that is in C^1 but not C^2 .

$$f(x) = x^{\frac{4}{3}}, x \in \mathfrak{R}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{4}{3}x^{\frac{1}{3}} \Rightarrow f \in C^1$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{4}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3}x^{-\frac{2}{3}}$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{4}{9} \cdot \frac{1}{x^{\frac{2}{3}}}$$

The function is not defined at $x = 0$, and thus not in C^2 .

6 Taylor's Theorem

Now our basic question is this: if a function f is n -times differentiable, i.e. $f \in C^n$, then what does the function have to do with its derivatives, if anything? Or in other words, can I use the derivatives to approximate the function. The answer is yes, and Taylor's theorem helps us do so.

Theorem 6.1 *Taylor's Theorem* Let $f(x) \in C^{n+1}[a, b]$ and let $x_0 \in [a, b]$, then

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x-x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2!}(x-x_0)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!}(x-x_0)^n + \frac{1}{n!} \int_{t=x_0}^{t=x} f^{(n+1)}(t)(x-t)^n dt.$$

Theorem 6.2 *Taylor's Theorem with Exact Remainder* Let $f(x) \in C^n[a, b]$ and let $f^{(n+1)}(x)$ exists in (a, b) . Then there exists a ζ with $a < \zeta < b$ such that

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(b-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\zeta)}{(n+1)!}(b-a)^{n+1}.$$

Example 6.1 Let $f(x) = e^x \in C^5$ for $x = 2$, on $[-1, 1]$. $f(x)$ is differentiable infinitely many times and since $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$ for all n , $f^{(n)}(x_0) = 1$. The Taylor expansion is given by

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{24}x^4 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 + \frac{e^{\zeta_5}}{720}x^6 = 7.26667 + \text{some arbitrary number}$$

From Taylor's Theorem, it is now easy to obtain a polynomial approximation by deleting the remainder term from the formula. Now we have

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + \frac{1}{24}x^4 + \frac{1}{120}x^5 = 7.26667$$

$e^2 = 8.26667$. Taylor's theorem gives a close approximation to the value of a function which we can not easily compute.