## Revision Notes

## Class - 12 Mathematics

## Chapter 5-Continuity and Differentiability

## CONTINUITY

## 1. DEFINITION

A function $f(\mathrm{x})$ is said to be continuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$; where $\mathrm{a} \in$ domain of $f(\mathrm{x})$, if $\lim _{x \rightarrow a^{-}} f(x)=\lim _{x \rightarrow a^{+}} f(x)=f(a)$
i.e., $L H L=$ RHL $=$ value of a function at $x=a$
or $\quad \lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=f(a)$

### 1.1 Reasons of discontinuity

If $f(\mathrm{x})$ is not continuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$, we say that $f(\mathrm{x})$ is discontinuous at $x=a$
There are following possibilities of discontinuity:

1. $\lim _{x \rightarrow a^{-}} f(x)$ and $\lim _{x \rightarrow a^{+}} f(x)$ exist but they are not equal.
2. $\lim _{x \rightarrow a^{-}} f(x)$ and $\lim _{x \rightarrow a^{+}} f(x)$ exists and are equal but not equal to $f(a)$
3. $f(a)$ is not defined.
4. At least one of the limits does not exist. The graph of the function will show a break at the location of discontinuity from a geometric standpoint.


The graph as shown is discontinuous at $x=1,2$ and 3 .

## 2. PROPERTIES OF CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS

Let $f(\mathrm{x})$ and $g(\mathrm{x})$ be continuous functions at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$. Then,

1. $\mathrm{c} f(\mathrm{x})$ is continuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$, where c is any constant.
2. $f(\mathrm{x}) \pm g(\mathrm{x})$ is continuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$.
3. $f(x) \cdot g(x)$ is continuous at $x=a$.
4. $\quad f(\mathrm{x}) / \mathrm{g}(\mathrm{x})$ is continuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$, provided $g(\mathrm{a}) \neq 0$.-
5. Assuming $f(\mathrm{x})$ be continuous on $[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}]$ in such a way that the function $f(\mathrm{a})$ and $f(\mathrm{~b})$ will be at opposite signs, then there will exists at least one solution of equation $f(x)=0$ in the open interval $(a, b)$

## 3. THE INTERMEDIATE VALUE THEOREM

Suppose $f(\mathrm{x})$ is continuous on an interval I , and a and b are any two points of $I$. Then if $y_{0}$ is a number between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, their exits a number $c$ between $a$ and $b$ such that $f(c)=y_{0}$

The Function $f$, being continuous on ( $a, b$ ) takes on every value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$

## Note:

That a function $f$ which is continuous in [a, b] possesses the following properties:
(i) If $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ possess opposite signs, then there exists at least one solution of the equation $f(x)=0$ in the open interval $(a, b)$
(ii) If $K$ is any real number between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, then there exists at least one solution of the equation $f(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{K}$ in the open interval $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$

## 4. CONTINUITY IN AN INTERVAL

(a) A function $f$ is said to be continuous in (a, b) if $f$ is continuous at each and every point $\in(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$
(b) A function $f$ is said to be continuous in a closed interval $[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}]$ if :
(1) $f$ is continuous in the open interval $(a, b)$ and
(2) $f$ is right continuous at 'a' i.e. Limit $_{x \rightarrow a^{+}} f(\mathrm{x})=f(\mathrm{a})=\mathrm{a}$ finite quantity
(3) $f$ is left continuous at ' b '; i.e. Limit $\operatorname{Lin}_{x \rightarrow b^{-}} f(x)=f(b)=a$ finite quantity

## 5. A LIST OF CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS

## Function f(x)

1. constant c
2. $\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{n}}, \mathrm{n}$ is an integer $\geqslant 0$
3. $\mathrm{x}^{-\mathrm{n}}, \mathrm{n}$ is a positive integer
4. $|x-a|$
5. $\mathrm{P}(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{a}_{0} \mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{n}}+\mathrm{a}_{1} \mathrm{x}^{n-1}+\ldots . .+\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{n}}$ $(-\infty, \infty)$
6. $\frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ where $p(x)$ and $(-\infty, \infty)-\{x ; q(x)=0\} q(x)$ are polynomial in $x$
7. $\operatorname{Sin} x$

$$
(-\infty, \infty)
$$

8. $\cos x$

$$
(-\infty, \infty)
$$

9. $\tan x$

$$
(-\infty, \infty)-\left\{(2+1) \frac{-}{2}: \in\right\}
$$

10. $\cot x$

$$
(-\infty, \infty)-\{n \pi: n \in I\}
$$

11. $\sec x$

$$
(-\infty, \infty)-\{(2 n+1)
$$

12. $\operatorname{cosec} x$

$$
\pi / 2: n \in I\}
$$

13. $\mathrm{e}^{x}$

$$
(-\infty, \infty)-\{n \pi: n \in I\}
$$

14. $\log _{c} x$ $(-\infty, \infty)(0, \infty)$

## 6. TYPES OF DISCONTINUITIES

## Type-1: (Removable type of discontinuities)

In this case, Limit $f(\mathrm{x})$ exists but it will not equal to $f(\mathrm{c})$. As a result, the function is said to have a removable discontinuity or discontinuity of the first kind. In such scenario, we can redefine the function such that $\operatorname{Limit}_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=f(c)$ and make it continuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{c}$. It can be further categorised as:

## (a) Missing Point Discontinuity:

Where $\underset{x \rightarrow a}{\operatorname{Limit}} f(x)$ exists finitely but $f(a)$ is not defined.
E.g. $f(x)=\frac{(1-x)\left(9-x^{2}\right)}{(1-x)}$ will have a missing point discontinuity at $x=1$, and $f(x)=\frac{\sin x}{x}$ will have a missing point discontinuity at $x=0$

missing point discontinuity at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$

## (b) Isolated Point Discontinuity :

Where Limit $f(x)$ exists $f$ (a) also exists but;
$\operatorname{Limit}_{\mathrm{x} \rightarrow \mathrm{a}} \neq f(\mathrm{a})$
E.g. $f(x)=\frac{x^{2}-16}{x-4}, x \neq 4$ and $f(4)=9$ will have an isolated point discontinuity at $x=4$

In the same way $f(x)=[x]+[-x]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}0 & \text { if } x \in I \\ -1 & \text { if } x \notin I\end{array}\right.$ will have an isolated point discontinuity at all $x \in I$.


## Type-2 : (Non-Removable type of discontinuities)

In case, Limit $f(x)$ does not exist, then it is not possible to make the function continuous by redefining it. Such discontinuities are known as non-removable discontinuity or discontinuity of the 2nd kind. Non-removable type of discontinuity can be further classified as:

non - removable discontinuity at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$
(a) Finite Discontinuity:
E.g., $f(x)=x-[x]$ at all integral $x ; f(x)=\tan ^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$ at $x=0$ and $f(\mathrm{x})=\frac{1}{1+2^{\frac{1}{x}}}$ at $\mathrm{x}=0$ (note that $\left.f\left(0^{+}\right)=0 ; f\left(0^{-}\right)=1\right) 1+2^{-}$
(b) Infinite Discontinuity:
E.g., $f(x)=\frac{1}{x-4}$ or $g(x)=\frac{1}{(x-4)^{2}}$ at $x=4 ; f(x)=2^{\tan x}$
at $x=\frac{\pi}{2}$ and $f(x)=\frac{\cos x}{x}$ at $x=0$
(c) Oscillatory Discontinuity:
E.g., $f(x)=\sin \frac{1}{x}$ at $x=0$

In all these cases the value of $f(a)$ of the function at $x=a$ (point of discontinuity) may or may not exist but Limit does not exist.


From the adjacent graph note that
$-f$ is continuous at $x=-1$
$-f$ has isolated discontinuity at $\mathrm{x}=1$
$-f$ has missing point discontinuity at $x=2$
$-f$ has non-removable (finite type) discontinuity at the origin.

## Note:

(a) In case of dis-continuity of the second kind the nonnegative difference between the value of the RHL at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$ and LHL at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$ is called the jump of discontinuity. A function having a finite number of jumps in a given interval I is called a piece wise continuous or sectionally continuous function in this interval.
(b) All Polynomials, Trigonometrical functions, exponential and Logarithmic functions are continuous in their domains.
(c) If $f(\mathrm{x})$ is continuous and $g(\mathrm{x})$ is discontinuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$ then the product function $\phi(x)=f(x) \cdot g(x)$ is not necessarily be discontinuous at $x=a$. e.g.
$f(x)=x$ and $g(x)=\left[\begin{array}{cl}\sin \frac{\pi}{x} & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x=0\end{array}\right.$ (d) If $f(\mathrm{x})$ and $g(\mathrm{x})$ both are discontinuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$ then the product function $\phi(x)=f(x) \cdot g(x)$ is not necessarily be discontinuous at $x=$ a. e.g
$f(x)=-g(x)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}1 & x \geqslant 0 \\ -1 & x<0\end{array}(\right.$ e $)$ Point functions are to be treated as discontinuous
eg. $f(x)=\sqrt{1-x}+\sqrt{x-1}$ is not continuous at $x=1$
(f) A continuous function whose domain is closed must have a range also in closed interval.
(g) If $f$ is continuous at $x=a$ and $g$ is continuous at $\mathrm{x}=f$ (a) then the composite $g[f(\mathrm{x})]$ is continous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$
E.g $f(\mathrm{x})=\frac{\mathrm{x} \sin \mathrm{x}}{\mathrm{x}^{2}+2}$ and $g(\mathrm{x})=|\mathrm{x}|$ are continuous at $\mathrm{x}=0$, hence the composite $(g o f)(x)=\left|\frac{\mathrm{x} \sin \mathrm{x}}{\mathrm{x}^{2}+2}\right|$ will also be continuous at $\mathrm{x}=0$.

## DIFFERENTIABILITY

## 1. DEFINITION

Let $f(\mathrm{x})$ bea real valued function defined on an open interval $(a, b)$ where $c \in(a, b)$. Then $f(x)$ is said to be differentiable or derivable at $x=c$
if, $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(\mathrm{x})-f(\mathrm{c})}{(\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{c})}$ exists finitely.
This limit is called the derivative or differentiable coefficient of the function $f(x)$ at $x=c$, and is denoted by $f^{\prime}(\mathrm{c})$ or $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}(f(\mathrm{x}))_{\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{c}}$


- Slope of Right hand secant $=\frac{f(\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{h})-f(\mathrm{a})}{\mathrm{h}}$ as $\mathrm{h} \rightarrow 0, \mathrm{P} \rightarrow \mathrm{A}$ and secant $(\mathrm{AP}) \rightarrow$ tangent at A
$\Rightarrow \quad$ Right hand derivative $=\operatorname{Lim}_{\mathrm{h} \rightarrow 0}\left(\frac{f(\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{h})-f(\mathrm{a})}{\mathrm{h}}\right)$
$=$ Slope of tangent at A (when approached from right) $f^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{a}^{+}\right)$
- Slope of Left hand secant $=\frac{f(\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{h})-f(\mathrm{a})}{-\mathrm{h}}$ as $\mathrm{h} \rightarrow 0, \mathrm{Q} \rightarrow \mathrm{A}$ and secant $\mathrm{AQ} \rightarrow$ tangent at A
$\Rightarrow \quad$ Left hand derivative $=\operatorname{Lim}_{h \rightarrow 0}\left(\frac{f(a-h)-f(a)}{-h}\right)$
$=$ Slope of tangent at A (when approached from left) $f^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{a}^{-}\right)$
Thus, $f(\mathrm{x})$ is differentiable at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{c}$.
$\Leftrightarrow \lim _{\rightarrow c} \frac{f(0-f(\mathrm{c})}{(-\mathrm{c})}$ exists finitely
$\Leftrightarrow \lim _{\rightarrow c^{-}} \frac{f(0)-f(\mathrm{c})}{(-\mathrm{c})}=\lim _{\rightarrow \mathrm{c}^{+}} \frac{f(0-f(\mathrm{c})}{(-\mathrm{c})}$
$\Leftrightarrow \lim _{\mathrm{h} \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathrm{c}-\mathrm{h})-f(\mathrm{c})}{-\mathrm{h}}=\lim _{\mathrm{h} \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathrm{c}+\mathrm{h})-f(\mathrm{c})}{\mathrm{h}}$
Hence, $\quad \lim _{x \rightarrow c^{-}} \frac{f(\mathbf{x})-f(\mathbf{c})}{(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{c})}=\lim _{\mathbf{h} \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{c}-\mathbf{h})-\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{c})}{-\mathbf{h}}$ is called the left hand derivative of $f(x)$ at $x=c$ and is denoted by $f^{\prime}\left(c^{-}\right)$or $L f^{\prime}(\mathrm{c})$ While, $\lim _{x \rightarrow c^{+}} \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})-\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{c})}{\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{c}}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{c}+\mathbf{h})-\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{c})}{\mathbf{h}}$ is called the right hand derivative of $f(x)$ at $x=c$ and is denoted by $f^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{c}^{+}\right)$or $\mathrm{R} f^{\prime}(\mathrm{c})$ If $f^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{c}^{-}\right) \neq f^{\prime}\left(\mathrm{c}^{+}\right)$, we say that $f(\mathrm{x})$ is not differentiable at $x=c$.


## 2. DIFFERENTIABILITY IN A SET

1. A function $f(x)$ defined on an open interval $(a, b)$ is said to be differentiable or derivable in open interval $(a, b)$, if it is differentiable at each point of $(a, b)$
2. A function $f(x)$ defined on closed interval $[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}]$ is said to be differentiable or derivable. "If f is derivable in the open interval $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$ and also the end points a and b , then $f$ is said to be derivable in the closed interval $[\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}]$ "
i.e., $\lim _{\rightarrow a^{+}} \frac{f()-f(a)}{-a}$ and $\lim _{\rightarrow b^{-}} \frac{f()-f(b)}{-b}$, both exist.

A function $f$ is said to be a differentiable function if it is differentiable at every point of its domain.

## Note:

1. If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are derivable at $x=\mathrm{a}$ then the functions $f(x)+g(x), f(x)-g(x), f(x) \cdot g(x)$ will also be derivable at $x=a$ and if $g(a) \neq 0$ then the function $f(\mathrm{x}) / \mathrm{g}(\mathrm{x})$ will also be derivable at $x=a$
2. If $f(x)$ is differentiable at $x=a$ and $g(x)$ is not differentiable at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$, then the product function $\mathrm{F}(\mathrm{x})=f(\mathrm{x}) \cdot g(\mathrm{x})$ can still be differentiable at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$. E.g. $f(\mathrm{x})=\mathrm{x}$ and $g(\mathrm{x})=|\mathrm{x}|$
3. If $f(x)$ and $g(\mathrm{x})$ both are not differentiable at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$ then the product function; $F(\mathrm{x})=f(\mathrm{x}) \cdot g(\mathrm{x})$ can still be differentiable at $x=$ a. E.g. $f(\mathrm{x})=|\mathrm{x}|$ and $\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{x})=|\mathrm{x}|$
4. If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ both are not differentiable at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$ then the sum function $F(\mathrm{x})=f(\mathrm{x})+g(\mathrm{x})$ may be a differentiable function. E.g., $f(x)=|x|$ and $g(\mathrm{x})=-|\mathrm{x}|$
5. If $f(x)$ is derivable at $x=a$
$\Rightarrow f^{\prime}(x)$ is continuous at $x=a$.
e.g. $f(x)=\left[\begin{array}{ll}2 & \text { if } \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text { if }=0\end{array}\right.$

## 3. Relation B/W Continuity \& Differentiability

We learned in the last section that if a function is differentiable at a point, it must also be continuous at that point, and therefore a discontinuous function cannot be differentiable. The following theorem establishes this fact.

Theorem: If a function is differentiable at a given point, it must be continuous at that same point. However, the inverse is not always true.
or $\quad f(x)$ is differentiable at $x=c$
$\Rightarrow f(\mathrm{x})$ is continuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{c}$
Converse: The reverse of the preceding theorem is not always true, i.e., a function might be continuous but not differentiable at a given point.
E.g., The function $f(x)=|x|$ is continuous at $x=0$ but it is not differentiable at $\mathrm{x}=0$

## Note:

(a) Let $f^{\prime+}(a)=p ; f^{\prime-}(a)=q$ where $p q$ are finite then
$\Rightarrow f$ is derivable at $x=a$
$\Rightarrow f$ is continuous at $x=a$
(ii) $\mathrm{p} \neq \mathrm{q} \Rightarrow f$ is not derivable at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$.

It is very important to note that f may be still continuous at $x=a$
In short, for a function f :
Differentiable $\Rightarrow$ Continuous;
Not Differentiable $\neq$ Not Continuous
(i.e., function may be continuous)

But,
Not Continuous $\Rightarrow$ Not Differentiable.
(b) If a function $f$ is not differentiable but is continuous at $\mathbf{x}=\mathrm{a}$ it geometrically implies a sharp corner at $\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{a}$

Theorem 2: Let $f$ and $g$ be real functions such that fog is defined if $g$ is continuous at $x=a$ and $f$ is continuous at $g$
(a), show that fog is continuous at $x=a$.

## DIFFERENTIATION:

## 1. DEFINITION

(a) Let us consider a function $\mathrm{y}=f(\mathrm{x})$ defined in a certain interval. It has a definite value for each value of the independent variable $x$ in this interval.

Now, the ratio of the function's increment to the independent variable's increment,

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

Now, as $\Delta \mathrm{x} \rightarrow 0, \Delta \mathrm{y} \rightarrow 0$ and $\frac{\Delta \mathrm{y}}{\Delta \mathrm{x}} \rightarrow$ finite quantity, then derivative $f(x)$ exists and is denoted by $y^{\prime}$ or $f^{\prime}(x)$ or $\frac{d y}{d x}$ Thus, $f^{\prime}(x)=\lim _{x \rightarrow 0}\left(\frac{\Delta y}{x}\right)=\lim _{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+\Delta x)-f(x)}{x}$ (if it exits) for the limit to exist,
$\lim _{\mathrm{h} \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathrm{x}+\mathrm{h})-f(\mathrm{x})}{\mathrm{h}}=\lim _{\mathrm{h} \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{h})-f(\mathrm{x})}{-\mathrm{h}}$
(Right Hand derivative) (Left Hand derivative)
(b) The derivative of a given function $f$ at a point $x=a$ of its domain is defined as:
$\operatorname{Limit}_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{h})-f(\mathrm{a})}{\mathrm{h}}$, provided the limit exists is denoted by $f^{\prime}(\mathrm{a})$
Note that alternatively, we can define

$$
f^{\prime}(\mathrm{a})=\operatorname{Limit}_{\mathrm{x} \rightarrow \mathrm{a}} \frac{f(\mathrm{x})-f(\mathrm{a})}{\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{a}} \text {, provided the limit exists. }
$$

This method is called first principle of finding the derivative of $f(x)$

## 2. DERIVATIVE OF STANDARD FUNCTION

(i) $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}\left(\mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{n}}\right)=\mathrm{n} \cdot \mathrm{x}^{\mathrm{n}-1} ; \mathrm{x} \in \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{n} \in \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{x}>0$
(ii) $\frac{d}{d x}\left(e^{x}\right)=e^{x}$
(iii) $\frac{d}{d x}\left(a^{x}\right)=a^{x} \cdot \ln a(a>0)$
(iv) $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}(\ln |\mathrm{x}|)=\frac{1}{\mathrm{x}}$
(v) $\frac{d}{d x}\left(\log _{\mathrm{a}}|\mathrm{x}|\right)=\frac{1}{\mathrm{x}} \log _{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{e}$
(vi) $\frac{d}{d x}(\sin x)=\cos x$
(vii) $\frac{d}{d x}(\cos x)=-\sin x$
(viii) $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}(\tan \mathrm{x})=\sec ^{2} \mathrm{x}$
(ix) $\frac{d}{d x}(\sec x)=\sec x \cdot \tan x$
(x) $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}(\operatorname{cosec} x)=-\operatorname{cosec} x \cdot \cot x$
(xi) $\frac{d}{d x}(\cot x)=-\operatorname{cosec}^{2} x$
(xii) $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}($ constant $)=0$
(xiii) $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}\left(\sin ^{-1} \mathrm{x}\right)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\mathrm{x}^{2}}}, \quad-1<\mathrm{x}<1$
(xiv) $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}\left(\cos ^{-1} \mathrm{x}\right)=\frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-\mathrm{x}^{2}}}, \quad-1<\mathrm{x}<1$
(xv) $\frac{d}{d x}\left(\tan ^{-1} x\right)=\frac{1}{1+x^{2}}, \quad x \in R$
(xvi) $\frac{d}{d x}\left(\cot ^{-1} x\right)=\frac{-1}{1+x^{2}}, \quad x \in R$
(xvii) $\frac{d}{d x}\left(\sec ^{-1} \mathrm{x}\right)=\frac{1}{|\mathrm{x}| \sqrt{\mathrm{x}^{2}-1}}, \quad|\mathrm{x}|>1$
(xviii) $\frac{d}{d x}\left(\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x\right)=\frac{-1}{|x| \sqrt{x^{2}-1}}, \quad|x|>1$
(xix) Results:

If the inverse functions $f(g)$ are defined by $y=f(x) ; x=g(y)$. Then
$g(f(x))=x \Rightarrow \quad g^{\prime}(f(x)) \cdot f^{\prime}(x)=1$
This result can also be written as, if $\frac{d y}{d x}$ exists and $\frac{d y}{d x} \neq 0$, then $\frac{\mathrm{dx}}{\mathrm{dy}}=1 /\left(\frac{\mathrm{dy}}{\mathrm{dx}}\right)$ or $\frac{d y}{d x} \cdot \frac{d x}{d y}=1$ or $\frac{d y}{d x}=1 /\left(\frac{d x}{d y}\right)\left[\frac{d x}{d y} \neq 0\right]$

## 3. THEOREMS ON DERIVATIVES

If $u$ and $v$ are derivable functions of $x$, then,
(i) Term by term differentiation: $\frac{d}{d x}(u \pm v)=\frac{d u}{d x} \pm \frac{d v}{d x}$
(ii) Multiplication by a constant $\frac{d}{d x}(K u)=K \frac{d u}{d x}$, where $K$ is any constant
(iii) "Product Rule" $\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}$ (u.v) $=\mathrm{u} \frac{\mathrm{dv}}{\mathrm{dx}}+\mathrm{v} \frac{\mathrm{du}}{\mathrm{dx}}$ known as In general,
(a) If $u_{1}, u_{2}, u_{3}, u_{4}, \ldots, u_{n}$ are the functions of $x$, then

$$
\left.\begin{array}{l}
\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}}\left(\mathrm{u}_{1} \cdot \mathrm{u}_{2} \cdot \mathrm{u}_{3} \cdot \mathrm{u}_{4} \ldots . \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{n}}\right) \\
=\left(\frac{\mathrm{du}}{\mathrm{dx}}\right. \\
\mathrm{dx}
\end{array}\right)\left(\mathrm{u}_{2} \mathrm{u}_{3} \mathrm{u}_{4} \ldots \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{n}}\right)+\left(\frac{\mathrm{du}}{\mathrm{dx}}\right)\left(\mathrm{u}_{1} \mathrm{u}_{3} \mathrm{u}_{4} \ldots \mathrm{u}_{\mathrm{n}}\right) .
$$

(iv) Quotient Rule
$\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{u}{v}\right)=\frac{v\left(\frac{d u}{d x}\right)-u\left(\frac{d v}{d x}\right)}{v^{2}}$ where $v \neq 0$ known as
(b) Chain Rule : If $y=f(\mathrm{u}), \mathrm{u}=g(\mathrm{w}), \mathrm{w}=h(\mathrm{x})$ then $\frac{d y}{d x}=\frac{d y}{d u} \cdot \frac{d u}{d w} \cdot \frac{d w}{d x}$

$$
\text { or } \frac{\mathrm{dy}}{\mathrm{dx}}=f^{\prime}(\mathrm{u}) \cdot g^{\prime}(\quad) \cdot h^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})
$$

## Note:

In general if $\mathrm{y}=f(\mathrm{u})$ then $\frac{\mathrm{dy}}{\mathrm{dx}}=f^{\prime}(\mathrm{u}) \cdot \frac{\mathrm{du}}{\mathrm{dx}}$

## 4. METHODS OF DIFFERENTIATION

### 4.1 Derivative by using Trigonometrical Substitution

The use of trigonometrical transforms before differentiation greatly reduces the amount of labour required. The following are some of the most significant findings:
(i) $\sin 2 x=2 \sin x \cos x=\frac{2 \tan x}{1+\tan ^{2} x}$
(ii) $\cos 2 x=2 \cos ^{2} x-1=1-2 \sin ^{2} x=\frac{1-\tan ^{2} x}{1+\tan ^{2} x}$
(iii) $\tan 2 x=\frac{2 \tan x}{1-\tan ^{2} x}, \tan ^{2} x=\frac{1-\cos 2 x}{1+\cos 2 x}$
(iv) $\sin 3 x=3 \sin x-4 \sin ^{3} x$
(v) $\cos 3 x=4 \cos ^{3} x-3 \cos x$
(vi) $\tan 3 x=\frac{3 \tan x-\tan ^{3} x}{1-3 \tan ^{2} x}$
(vii) $\tan \left(\frac{\pi}{4}+x\right)=\frac{1+\tan x}{1-\tan x}$
(viii) $\tan \left(\frac{\pi}{4}-x\right)=\frac{1-\tan x}{1+\tan x}$
(ix) $\sqrt{(1 \pm \sin x)}=\left|\cos \frac{x}{2} \pm \sin \frac{x}{2}\right|$
(x) $\tan ^{-1} x \pm \tan ^{-1} y=\tan ^{-1}\left(\frac{x \pm y}{1 \mp x y}\right)$
(xi) $\sin ^{-1} x \pm \sin ^{-1} y=\sin ^{-1}\left\{x \sqrt{1-y^{2}} \pm y \sqrt{1-x^{2}}\right\}$
(xii) $\cos ^{-1} x \pm \cos ^{-1} y=\cos ^{-1}\left\{x y \mp \sqrt{1-x^{2}} \sqrt{1-y^{2}}\right\}$
(xiii) $\sin ^{-1} x+\cos ^{-1} x=\tan ^{-1} x+\cot ^{-1} x=\sec ^{-1} x+\operatorname{cosec}^{-1} x=\pi / 2$
(xiv) $\sin ^{-1} x=\operatorname{cosec}^{-1}(1 / x) ; \cos ^{-1} x=\sec ^{-1}(1 / x) ; \tan ^{-1} x=\cot ^{-1}(1 / x)$

## Note:

## Some standard substitutions:

Expressions Substitutions
$\sqrt{\left(\mathrm{a}^{2}-\mathrm{x}^{2}\right)} \quad \mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a} \sin \theta$ or $\mathrm{a} \cos \theta$
$\sqrt{\left(\mathrm{a}^{2}+\mathrm{x}^{2}\right)} \mathrm{x}=\mathrm{atan} \theta$ or $\mathrm{a} \cot \theta$
$\sqrt{\left(\mathrm{x}^{2}-\mathrm{a}^{2}\right)} \mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a} \sec \theta$ or $\mathrm{a} \operatorname{cosec} \theta$
$\sqrt{\left(\frac{a+x}{a-x}\right)}$ or $\sqrt{\left(\frac{a-x}{a+x}\right)} x=a \cos \theta$ or $a \cos 2 \theta$
$\sqrt{(\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{x})(\mathrm{x}-\mathrm{b})}$ or $\quad \mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a} \cos ^{2} \theta+\mathrm{b} \sin ^{2} \theta$
$\sqrt{\left(\frac{a-x}{x-b}\right)}$ or $\sqrt{\left(\frac{x-}{a-x}\right)}$
$\sqrt{(x-a)(x-b)}$ or $\quad x=a \sec ^{2} \theta-b \tan ^{2} \theta$
$\sqrt{\left(\frac{x-a}{x-b}\right)}$ or $\sqrt{\left(\frac{x-}{x-a}\right)}$
$\sqrt{\left(2 a x-x^{2}\right)} x=a(1-\cos \theta)$

### 4.2 Logarithmic Differentiation

To find the derivative of:
If $\mathrm{y}=\left\{f_{1}(\mathrm{x})\right\}^{f_{2}(\mathrm{x})}$ or $\mathrm{y}=f_{1}(\mathrm{x}) \cdot f_{2}(\mathrm{x}) \cdot f_{3}(\mathrm{x}) \ldots$
or $\quad y=\frac{f_{1}(x) \cdot f_{2}(x) \cdot f_{3}(x) \ldots}{g_{1}(x) \cdot g_{2}(x) \cdot g_{3}(x) \ldots}$ then it's easier to take the function's logarithm first and then differentiate. This is referred to as the logarithmic function's derivative.

## Important Notes (Alternate methods)

1. If $\mathrm{y}=\{f(\mathrm{x})\}^{g^{(x)}}=\mathrm{e}^{g(x) \ln f(\mathrm{x})}\left((\text { variable })^{\text {varalle }}\right)\left\{\because \cdot \mathrm{x}=\mathrm{e}^{\ln \mathrm{x}}\right\}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \therefore \frac{\mathrm{dy}}{\mathrm{dx}}=\mathrm{e}^{g(\mathrm{x}) \ln f(\mathrm{x})} \cdot\left\{g(\mathrm{x}) \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}} \ln f(\mathrm{x})+\ln f(\mathrm{x}) \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}} g(\mathrm{x})\right\} \\
& =\{f(\mathrm{x})\}^{g(\mathrm{x})} \cdot\left\{g(\mathrm{x}) \cdot \frac{f^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})}{f(\mathrm{x})}+\ln f(\mathrm{x}) \cdot g^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

2. If $\mathrm{y}=\{f(\mathrm{x})\}^{g(\mathrm{x})}$
$\therefore \frac{\mathrm{dy}}{\mathrm{dx}}=$ Derivative of y treating $f(\mathrm{x})$ as constant + Derivative of y treating $g(\mathrm{x})$ as constant
$=\{f(\mathrm{x})\}^{g(\mathrm{x})} \cdot \ln f(\mathrm{x}) \cdot \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dx}} g(\mathrm{x})+g(\mathrm{x})\{f(\mathrm{x})\}^{g(\mathrm{x})-1} \cdot \frac{\mathrm{~d}}{\mathrm{dx}} f(\mathrm{x})$
$=\{f(\mathrm{x})\}^{g(\mathrm{x})} \cdot \ln f(\mathrm{x}) \cdot g^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})+g(\mathrm{x}) \cdot\{f(\mathrm{x})\}^{g(\mathrm{x})-1} \cdot f^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})$

### 4.3 Implicit Differentiation: $\phi(x, y)=0$

(i) To get dy/dx with the use of implicit function, we differentiate each term w.r.t. $x$ , regarding y as a function of $x \&$ then collect terms in dy/dx together on one side to finally find $\mathrm{dy} / \mathrm{dx}$.
(ii) In answers of dy/dx in the case of implicit function, both $x$ and $y$ are present.

Alternate Method: If $f(x, y)=0$
then $\frac{d y}{d x}=-\frac{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\right)}{\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\right)}=-\frac{\text { diff of } f \text { w.r.t. } x \text { treating } y \text { as constant }}{\text { diff . of } f \text { w.r.t. } y \text { treating } x \text { as constant }}$

### 4.4 Parametric Differentiation

If $\mathrm{y}=f(\mathrm{t}) ; \mathrm{x}=g(\mathrm{t})$ where t is a Parameter, then

$$
\frac{d y}{d x}=\frac{d y / d t}{d x / d t}
$$

Note:

1. $\frac{d y}{d x}=\frac{d y}{d t} \cdot \frac{d t}{d x}$
2. $\frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}=\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{d y}{d x}\right)=\frac{d}{d t}\left(\frac{d y}{d x}\right) \cdot \frac{d t}{d x}\left(\because \frac{d y}{d x}\right.$ in terms of $\left.t\right)$
$=\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{dt}}\left(\frac{f^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})}{g^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{f^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})}\{$ From (1) $\}$
$=\frac{f^{\prime \prime}(\mathrm{t}) g^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})-g^{\prime \prime}(\mathrm{t}) f^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})}{\left\{f^{\prime}(\mathrm{t})\right\}}$

### 4.5 Derivative of a Function w.r.t. another Function

Let $\mathrm{y}=f(\mathrm{x}) ; \mathrm{z}=g(\mathrm{x})$ then $\frac{\mathrm{dy}}{\mathrm{dz}}=\frac{\mathrm{dy} / \mathrm{dx}}{\mathrm{dz} / \mathrm{dx}}=\frac{f^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})}{g^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})}$

### 4.6 Derivative of Infinite Series

When one or more terms are removed from an infinite series, the series stays unaltered. as a result.
(A) If $y=\sqrt{f(x)+\sqrt{f(x)+\sqrt{f(x)+\ldots \ldots \infty}}}$
then $\mathrm{y}=\sqrt{f(\mathrm{x})+\mathrm{y}} \Rightarrow\left(\mathrm{y}^{2}-\mathrm{y}\right)=f(\mathrm{x})$
Differentiating both sides w.r.t. $x$, we get $(2 y-1) \frac{d y}{d x}=f^{\prime}(x)$
(B) If $\mathrm{y}=\{\mathrm{f}(\mathrm{x})\}^{\left[\mathrm{ff}(\mathrm{x}) \mathrm{ff}^{[(x)-1}\right.}$ then $\mathrm{y}=\{f(\mathrm{x})\}^{\mathrm{y}} \Rightarrow \mathrm{y}=\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{yn} f(\mathrm{x})}$

Differentiating both sides w.r.t. $x$, we get

$$
\frac{d y}{d x}=\frac{y\{f(x)\}^{y-1} \cdot f^{\prime}(x)}{1-\{f(x)\}^{y} \cdot \ell \operatorname{n} f(x)}=\frac{y^{2} f^{\prime}(x)}{f(x)\{1-y \ln f(x)\}}
$$

## 5. Derivative of Order Two \& Three

Let us assume a function $\mathrm{y}=f(\mathrm{x})$ be defined on an open interval $(a, b)$. It's derivative, if it exists on $(a, b)$, is a certain function $f^{\prime}(\mathrm{x})\left[\right.$ or $(\mathrm{dy} / \mathrm{dx})$ or $\left.\mathrm{y}^{\prime}\right]$ is called the first derivative of y w.r.t. x . If it occurs that the first derivative has a derivative on $(\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b})$
then this derivative is called the second derivative of y w.r.t. x is denoted by $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$ or $\left(d^{2} y / d x^{2}\right)$ or $y^{\prime \prime}$.

Similarly, the $3^{\text {rd }}$ order derivative of $y$ w.r.t. $x$, if it exists, is defined by $\frac{d^{3} y}{d x}=\frac{d}{d x}\left(\frac{d^{2} y}{d x^{2}}\right)$ it is also denoted by $f^{\prime \prime}(x)$ or $y^{\prime \prime \prime}$ Some Standard Results :
(i) $\frac{d^{n}}{d x^{n}}(a x+b)^{m}=\frac{m!}{(m-n)!} \cdot a^{n} \cdot(a x+b)^{m-n}, m \geqslant n$
(ii) $\frac{d^{n}}{d x^{n}} x^{n}=n$ !
(iii) $\frac{\mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{n}}}{\mathrm{dx}^{\mathrm{n}}}\left(\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{mx}}\right)=\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{n}} \cdot \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{mx}}, \mathrm{m} \in \mathrm{R}$
(iv) $\frac{\mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{n}}}{\mathrm{dx}^{\mathrm{n}}}(\sin (\mathrm{ax}+\mathrm{b}))=\mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{n}} \sin \left(\mathrm{ax}+\mathrm{b}+\frac{\mathrm{n} \pi}{2}\right), \mathrm{n} \in \mathrm{N}$
(v) $\frac{\mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{n}}}{\mathrm{dx}^{\mathrm{n}}}(\cos (\mathrm{ax}+\mathrm{b}))=\mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{n}} \cos \left(\mathrm{ax}+\mathrm{b}+\frac{\mathrm{n} \pi}{2}\right), \mathrm{n} \in \mathrm{N}$
(vi) $\frac{d^{n}}{d x^{\mathrm{n}}}\left\{\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{ax}} \sin (\mathrm{bx}+\mathrm{c})\right\}=\mathrm{r}^{\mathrm{n}} \cdot \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{ax}} \cdot \sin (\mathrm{bx}+\mathrm{c}+\mathrm{n} \phi), \mathrm{n} \in \mathrm{N}$ where $r=\sqrt{\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)}, \phi=\tan ^{-1}(b / a)$
(vii) $\frac{\mathrm{d}^{\mathrm{n}}}{\mathrm{dx}^{\mathrm{n}}}\left\{\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{ax}} \cdot \cos (\mathrm{bx}+\mathrm{c})\right\}=\mathrm{r}^{\mathrm{n}} \cdot \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{ax}} \cdot \cos (\mathrm{bx}+\mathrm{c}+\mathrm{n} \phi), \mathrm{n} \in \mathrm{N}$
where $r=\sqrt{\left(a^{2}+b^{2}\right)}, \phi=\tan ^{-1}(b / a)$

## 6. DIFFERENTIATION OF DETERMINANTS

If $F(\mathrm{X})=\left|\begin{array}{ccc}f(\mathrm{x}) & g(\mathrm{x}) & h(\mathrm{x}) \\ \ell(\mathrm{x}) & m(\mathrm{x}) & n(\mathrm{x}) \\ u(\mathrm{x}) & v(\mathrm{x}) & w(\mathrm{x})\end{array}\right|$ where $f, g, h, \ell, m, n, u, v, w$ are differentiable function of $x$ then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& F^{\prime}(x)=\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
f^{\prime}(x) & g^{\prime}(x) & h^{\prime}(x) \\
\ell(x) & m(x) & n(x) \\
u(x) & v(x) & w(x)
\end{array}\right|+\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
f(x) & g(x) & h(x) \\
\ell^{\prime}(x) & m^{\prime}(x) & n(x) \\
u(x) & v(x) & w(x)
\end{array}\right| \\
& +\left|\begin{array}{ccc}
f(x) & g(x) & h(x) \\
\ell(x) & m(x) & n(x) \\
u^{\prime}(x) & v^{\prime}(x) & w^{\prime}(x)
\end{array}\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

## 7. L' HOSPITAL'S RULE

If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are functions of $x$ such that:
(i) $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=0=\lim _{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ or $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=\infty=\lim _{x \rightarrow a} g(x) f(x)$ and
(ii) Both $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are continuous at $x=a$ and
(iii) Both $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are differentiable at $x=a$ and
(iv) Both $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are continuous at $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{a}$, Then $\operatorname{Limit}_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=\operatorname{Limit}_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f^{\prime}(x)}{g^{\prime}(x)}=\operatorname{Limit}_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f^{\prime \prime}(x)}{g^{\prime \prime}(x)} \&$ so on till determinant form vanishes.

