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WEEK 5 Reading [SB], 4.1-4.2, pp. 70-81

1 Chain Rule

1.1 Composition of Functions

Suppose $f: X \to Y$ and $g: Y \to Z$. The the composition $g \cdot f: X \to Z$ is defined by $g \cdot f(x) = g(f(x))$. In this composition $g \cdot f$ the function f is the **inside function**, and the function g is the **outside function**.

Examples

1. Let $f(x) = x^2$ and g(x) = 2x + 3, then $f \cdot g(x) = (2x + 3)^2$ and $g \cdot f(x) = 2x^2 + 3$.

2. Let $f(x) = x^3$ and $g(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$, then $f \cdot g(x) = (\sqrt[3]{x})^3 = x$ and $g \cdot f(x) = \sqrt[3]{x^3} = x$, so the compositions both are identity functions $f \cdot g = id$, $g \cdot f = id$.

3. Let $f(x) = e^x$ and $g(x) = \ln x$, then $f \cdot g(x) = e^{\ln x} = x$ and $g \cdot f(x) = \ln e^x = x$, so the compositions both are identity functions $f \cdot g = id$, $g \cdot f = id$.

Exercise

For the composite function $f \cdot g(x) = 5e^{2x} + 3e^x + 1$, what are the inside and outside functions?

Solution. $5e^{2x} + 3e^x + 1 = 5(e^x)^2 + 3e^x + 1$, so the inside function is $g(x) = e^x$ and the outside function is $f(x) = 5x^2 + 3x + 1$.

1.2 Differentiating of Composite Functions: the Chain Rule

Theorem. The derivative of composite function $(h \circ g)(x)$ can be calculated as

$$(h \circ g)'(x) = h'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$$

(the chain rule).

Proof*.

$$(h \circ g)'(x_0) = \lim_{x_1 \to x_0} \frac{(h \circ g)(x_1) - (h \circ g)(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} = \lim_{x_1 \to x_0} \frac{h(g(x_1)) - h(g(x_0))}{x_1 - x_0} =$$
$$= \lim_{x_1 \to x_0} \frac{h(g(x_1)) - h(g(x_0))}{g(x_1) - g(x_0)} \cdot \frac{g(x_1) - g(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} =$$
$$\lim_{x_1 \to x_0} \frac{h(g(x_1)) - h(g(x_0))}{g(x_1) - g(x_0)} \cdot \lim_{x_1 \to x_0} \frac{g(x_1) - g(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} =$$
$$\lim_{x_1 \to x_0} \frac{h(g(x_1)) - h(g(x_0))}{g(x_1) - g(x_0)} \cdot \lim_{x_1 \to x_0} \frac{g(x_1) - g(x_0)}{x_1 - x_0} =$$
$$h'(g(x_0) \cdot g'(x_0).$$

Well, this proof has small gap, but forget it!

In particular

$$\frac{d}{dx}(g(x))^k = k(g(x))^{k-1} \cdot g'(x)$$

Examples

1. Find the derivative of $f(x) = (2x+3)^7$.

Solution. The function f(x) is a composition f(x) = h(g(x)) with g(x) = 2x + 3 and $h(z) = z^7$. Thus, by chain rule

$$f'(x) = h'(g(x) \cdot g'(x)) = 7(2x+3)^6 \cdot (2x+3)' = 7(2x+3) \cdot 2 = 14(2x+3)^6.$$

2. A firm computes that at the present moment its output is increasing at the rate of 2 units per hour and that its marginal cost is 12. At what rate is its cost increasing per hour?

Solution. Let x(t) be the production function (output x depends on time t) and in this moment $t = t_0$ we have $x'(t_0) = 2$. Let C(x) be the cost function, so we have $C'(x_0) = 12$, where $x_0 = x(t_0)$. Then

$$\frac{dC}{dt}(t_0) = \frac{dC}{dx}(x(t_0)) \cdot \frac{dx}{dt}(t_0) = 12 \cdot 2 = 24.$$

Exercises 4.1-4.6

2 Again About Functions

A function (map, transformation) from the set X (domain, or source) to the set Y (codomain, or target)

$$f: X \to Y$$

is a rule that assigns to each element $x \in X$ one element $f(x) \in Y$.

The *image* of f is the set of all elements $y \in Y$ that correspond to some x:

$$Im \ f = \{ y \in Y, y = f(x) \}.$$

For an element $y \in Y$ its preimage $f^{-1}(y)$ is the set of all elements $x \in X$ such that f(x) = y:

$$f^{-1}(y) = \{ x \in X, f(x) = y \}.$$

2.1 Again About Surjections, Injections, Bijections

A function $f: X \to Y$ is called *surjective* (onto) if

$$\forall y \in Y \ \exists x \in X \ s.t. \ f(x) = y.$$

A function $f: X \to Y$ is called *injective* (**one-to-one**) if

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2) \quad \Rightarrow \quad x_1 = x_2.$$

A function is called *bijection* if it is a surjection and injection simultaneously.

In other words:

f is a surjection if the equation f(x) = y has at least one solution; f is an injection if the equation f(x) = y has at most one solution. f is bijection if the equation f(x) = y has exactly one solution.

2.2 Inverse Function

When $f: X \to Y$ is *bijective*, there is an *inverse* function $g: Y \to X$ which assigns to $y \in Y$ the unique element g(y) = x such that f(x) = y. **Definition** Function g is the inverse of f if g(f(x)) = x and f(g(y)) = y for arbitrary $x \in X$ and $y \in Y$. In other words

$$f \cdot g = id, \quad g \cdot f = id.$$

If f is invertible, then its inverse function often is denoted as f^{-1} .

Theorem 1 If $f : X \to Y$ is invertible then it is a bijection.

Proof.

(i) Surjectivity. For any $y \in Y$ we must find $x \in X$ s.t. f(x) = y. Let us take x := g(y). Then

$$f(x) = f(g(y)) = y$$
 since $f \circ g = id_Y$, QED

(i) Injectivity. Suppose $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, we must show that $x_1 = x_2$. Indeed,

$$f(x_1) = f(x_2) \Rightarrow g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2)) \Rightarrow x_1 = x_2 \text{ since } g \circ f = id_X, QED.$$

Theorem 2 If $f : X \to Y$ is invertible then its inverse is uniquely determined.

Proof. Suppose $g, h: Y \to X$ are two inverses of f:

$$f \circ g = id_Y, \quad g \circ f = id_X \quad and \quad f \circ h = id_Y, \quad h \circ f = id_X.$$

Then g = h, i.e. g(y) = h(y) for arbitrary $y \in Y$, indeed, since of bijectivity (in fact by surjectivity) of f

$$\exists x \in X \quad s.t. \quad f(x) = y.$$

Then

$$g(y) = g(f(x)) = x$$
 and $h(y) = h(f(x)) = x$ since $g \circ f = h \circ f = id_x$,

thus g(y) = h(y), QED.

Theorem 3 A continuous function f defined on an interval $I \subset R$ is invertible if and only if it is monotonically increasing or or monotonically decreasing.

Examples

1. The function $f: R \to R$ given by $f(x) = x^2$ is not invertible (why?), but the function $f: [0, \infty) \to [0, \infty)$ is: The inverse function $g = f^{-1}: [0, \infty) \to [0, \infty)$ is $g(y) = \sqrt{y} = y^{1/2}$. Indeed,

$$f(g(y)) = (\sqrt{y})^2 = y, \quad g(f(x)) = \sqrt{x^2} = x.$$

Remark. This example shows that in the definition of inverse function both conditions

$$f \cdot g = id, \ g \cdot f = id.$$

are essential: here we have $f(g(x)) = (\sqrt{x})^2 = x$, i.e. the first condition $f \cdot g = id$ is satisfied, but $g(f(-3)) = \sqrt{(-3)^2} = \sqrt{9} = 3 \neq -3$, that is the second condition $g \cdot f = id$ is not satisfied for $f : R \to [0, \infty)$.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} R \xrightarrow{f} R \\ neither \ inj. \ nor \ surj. \end{array} \\ [0,+\infty) \xrightarrow{f} R \\ inj. \ but \ not \ surj. \end{array} \begin{array}{c} R \xrightarrow{f} [0,+\infty) \\ not \ inj. \ but \ surj. \end{array} \\ [0,+\infty) \xrightarrow{f} [0,+\infty) \\ inj. \ and \ surj. \end{array}$$

2. The function $f: R \to R_+$ given by $f(x) = e^x$ is invertible, and its inverse is $g: R_+ \to R$ given by $f(y) = \ln y$ (why?).

Exercise

Calculate an expression for the inverse of the function $y = \frac{1}{x+1}$ specifying the domain.

Solution. Solve x from the equation $y = \frac{1}{x+1}$:

$$y \cdot (x+1) = 1$$
, $x+1 = \frac{1}{y}$, $x = \frac{1}{y} - 1$.

So the inverse function for $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$ is $g(y) = \frac{1}{y} - 1$, indeed

$$f(g(y)) = \frac{1}{(\frac{1}{y} - 1) + 1} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{y}} = y$$

and

$$g(f(x)) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{x+1}} - 1 = (x+1) - 1 = x.$$

The domain of the inverse function is $(-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$.

Notice that just the condition $f \cdot g = id$ guarantees the surjectivity of f; just the condition $g \cdot f = id$ guarantees the injectivity of f; and only both conditions $f \cdot g = id$, $g \cdot f = id$ guarantee the bijectivity of f, consequently its invertibility.

2.2.1 Graph of Inverse Function

Suppose f is invertible and g is its inverse. This means that if f(a) = b then g(b) = a.

Suppose a point (a, b) belongs to the graph of f (notation $(a, b) \in \Gamma(f)$), i.e. f(a) = b. Then we have g(b) = a, thus the point (b, a) belongs to the graph of g. Shortly

$$(a,b) \in \Gamma(f) \Rightarrow f(a) = b \Rightarrow g(b) = a \Rightarrow (b,a) \in \Gamma(g).$$

Similarly,

$$(b,a) \in \Gamma(g) \Rightarrow g(b) = a \Rightarrow f(a) = b \Rightarrow (a,b) \in \Gamma(f).$$

This means that the graphs of f and g are symmetric with respect to the bisectrix y = x.



2.2.2 The Derivative of the Inverse Function

Theorem 4 Let f be a C^1 function on an interval $I \subset R$ and $f'(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in I$. Then f is invertible on I, its inverse g is C^1 on the interval f(I)and

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

Proof. Invertibility of f on I follows from its monotonicity. Suppose $g = f^{-1}$, then f(g(y)) = y for each $y \in f(I)$. Differentiating this equality using the chain rule we obtain

$$f'(g(y)) \cdot g'(y) = y' = 1,$$

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

2.2.3 Application*

The formula

$$(x^k)' = kx^{k-1},$$

was proven only for **natural** k-s. The above theorem allows to generalize this formula for arbitrary **rational** k:

1. The function $g(y) = y^{\frac{1}{n}}$ is the inverse of $f(x) = x^n$ (why?). This allows to calculate the derivative of $g(y) = y^{\frac{1}{n}}$:

$$(y^{\frac{1}{n}})' = g'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(g(y))} = \frac{1}{((g(y))^n)'} =$$
$$\frac{1}{n \cdot g(y))^{n-1}} = \frac{1}{n \cdot (y^{1/n})^{n-1}} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot y^{\frac{1-n}{n}} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot y^{\frac{1}{n}-1}$$

2. Now take any arbitrary rational number $\frac{m}{n} \in Q$. Let us proof that

$$(x^{\frac{m}{n}})' = \frac{m}{n} x^{\frac{m}{n}-1}.$$

Indeed, first let us assume that $m, n \in N$, i.e. $q = \frac{m}{n}$ is a positive rational number. Since $x^{\frac{m}{n}} = (x^{\frac{1}{n}})^m$ by the Chain Rule we have

$$(x^{\frac{m}{n}})' = ((x^{\frac{1}{n}})^m)' = m(x^{\frac{1}{n}})^{m-1} \cdot (x^{\frac{1}{n}})' = mx^{\frac{m-1}{n}} \cdot \frac{1}{n}x^{\frac{1}{n}-1} = mx^{\frac{m-1}{n}} \cdot \frac{1}{n}x^{\frac{1-n}{n}} = \frac{m}{n}x^{\frac{m-1}{n}+\frac{1-n}{n}} = \frac{m}{n}x^{\frac{m-1+1-n}{n}} = \frac{m}{n}x^{\frac{m}{n}-1}.$$

So we already have proved $(x^q)' = qx^{q-1}$ for any positive rational $q \in Q$. It remains to generalize this formula for negative rational numbers $(x^{-q})' = -qx^{-q-1}$, indeed,

$$(x^{-q})' = (\frac{1}{x^q})' = \frac{1' \cdot x^q - 1 \cdot (x^q)'}{x^{2q}} = \frac{-qx^{q-1}}{x^{2q}} = -qx^{-q-1}.$$

The further generalization of the formula $(x^r)' = rx^{r-1}$ for a **real** $r \in R$ uses approximation of a real number by a sequence of rational numbers.

Exercise

Calculate the derivative of the inverse of the function $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$ at the point $f(1) = \frac{1}{2}$.

Solution.

$$g'(\frac{1}{2}) = g'(f(1)) = \frac{1}{f'(g(f(1)))} = \frac{1}{f'(1)} = \frac{1}{-\frac{1}{(x+1)^2}}|_{x=1} = -(x+1)^2|_{x=1} = -4.$$

By the way, as we know the inverse for $f(x) = \frac{1}{x+1}$ is $g(y) = \frac{1}{y} - 1$. The direct calculation of $g'(\frac{1}{2})$ gives the same result. Exercises 4.7-4.10

Homework 4

Exercises 4.3 (c), 4.5 (e,g), 4.6, 4.8 (c), 4.9 (c)