## Lecture \#21: The DIFFERENTIAL

### 21.1 The Definition of the Deferential

We have built up most of the tools that we need to express derivatives. In this section we revise a basic idea of the derivative.

Recall that the derivative of a function $f(x)$ can be used to find the slopes of lines tangent to the graph of $f(x)$ at a point $x=a$. That is at $x=$ $a$, the tangent line to the graph of $f(x)$ is stated by the equation:

$$
l(x)=f^{\prime}(a)(x-a)+f(a)
$$

In doing so, the tangent line can be used to find good approximations of $f(x)$ for values of $x$ near $a$.

For instance, we can approximate $\sin (1.1)$ using the tangent line to the graph of $f(x)=\sin x$ at $x=\frac{\pi}{3} \approx 1.05$. It is known that $\sin \left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \approx$ 0.866, and $f^{\prime}(x)=\cos x$, then $f^{\prime}\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)=\cos \left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)=\frac{1}{2}$. Thus the tangent line to $f(x)=\sin x$ at $x=\frac{\pi}{3}$ is:

$$
l(x)=f^{\prime}\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right)\left(x-\frac{\pi}{3}\right)+f\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) \Rightarrow l(x)=\frac{1}{2}\left(x-\frac{\pi}{3}\right)+0.866
$$


(a)
(b)

In Figure (a), we can see the plot of $f(x)=\sin x$ graphed along with its tangent line at $x=\frac{\pi}{3} \approx 1.05$. The small rectangle shows the region that is zoomed in Figure (b). In this figure, we see how we are approximating $\sin (1.1)$ with the tangent line $l(x)$, evaluated at $x=1.1$. Indeed, the two lines together show how close these values are. That is, using this tangent line to approximate $\sin (1.1)$, we have:
$\ell(1.1)=\frac{1}{2}(1.1-\pi / 3)+0.866=\frac{1}{2}(0.053)+0.866=0.8925$
We leave it for later to see how good of an approximation this is.
The linear approximation, or tangent line approximation is called the linearization of $f(x)$ at $x=a$

Now we generalize this concept:
Consider a function $f(x)$. At some point $x=a$, the tangent line is $\ell(x)=$ $f^{\prime}(a)(x-a)+f(a)$. Clearly, we can match $f(a)=\ell(a)$.
Let $\Delta x$ be a small number, representing a small change in $x$-value (an increment of $x$ ). We can assert that

$$
f(a+\Delta x) \approx l(a+\Delta x)
$$

since the tangent line to a function approximates the values of that function near $x=a$.
As the $x$-value changes from $a$ to $a+\Delta x$, the $y$-value of $f(x)$ changes from $f(a)$ to $f(a+\Delta x)$. We call this change of $y$-value as the increment of $\Delta y$. That is:

$$
\Delta y=f(a+\Delta x)-f(a)
$$

Replacing $f(a+\Delta x)$ with its tangent line approximation, we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Delta y \approx \ell(a+\Delta x)-f(a) \\
=f^{\prime}(a)((a+\Delta x)-a)+f(a)-f(a)=f^{\prime}(a) \Delta x
\end{gathered}
$$

So,

$$
\Delta y \approx f^{\prime}(a) \Delta x
$$

Definition: Let $y=f(x)$ be differentiable. The differential of $y(x)$, denoted by the symbol $d y$, is

$$
d y=d f(x)=f^{\prime}(x) \Delta x
$$

Moreover, if we consider the function $y=x$, then its differential is $d y=$ $d x=1 \cdot \Delta x$, i.e. $d x=\Delta x$ the differential and the increment of $x$ are the same values.
Hence,

$$
d y=d f(x)=f^{\prime}(x) d x
$$

If follows from the formula:

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{d y}{d x}
$$

Note: This is not the alternate notation for the derivative due to Leibniz, but again, it is one symbol and not a fraction.

Therefore, it is useful to understand that

$$
\Delta y \approx d y
$$

Thereby, we use differentials to approximate the value of a function. This technique can sometimes be used to easily compute something that looks rather hard. Indeed,

$$
f(x+\Delta x)-f(x) \approx f^{\prime}(x) \Delta x \Rightarrow f(x+\Delta x) \approx f^{\prime}(x) \Delta x+f(x)
$$

Example. Use the linear approximation of $f(x)=\sqrt{x}$ at $x=9$ to estimate $\sqrt{9.1}$
Since we are looking for the linear approximation at $x=9$, using Equation we know the linear approximation is given by

$$
L(x)=f(9)+f^{\prime}(9)(x-9)
$$

We need to find $f(9)$ and $f^{\prime}(9)$

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(x)=\sqrt{x} \Rightarrow f(9)=\sqrt{9}=3 \\
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{x}} \Rightarrow f^{\prime}(9)=\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{9}}=\frac{1}{6}
\end{gathered}
$$

Therefore, the linear approximation is given by

$$
L(x)=3+\frac{1}{6}(x-9)
$$

Using the linear approximation, we can estimate $\sqrt{9.1}$ by writing

$$
\sqrt{9.1}=f(9.1) \approx L(9.1)=3+\frac{1}{6}(9.1-9) \approx 3.0167
$$

Any type of measurement is prone to a certain amount of error. Here we examine this type of error and study how differentials can be used to estimate the error.
Consider a function $y=f(x)$, which is continuous in the interval $[a, b]$, with an input that is a measured quantity. Suppose that at some point $x_{0} \in$ $[a, b]$ the independent variable is incremented by $\Delta x$. The increment of the
function $\Delta y$ corresponding to the change of the independent variable $\Delta x$ is given by

$$
\Delta y=\Delta f\left(x_{0}\right)=f\left(x_{0}+\Delta x\right)-f\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

For any differentiable function, the increment $\Delta y$ can be represented as a sum of two terms:

$$
\Delta y=A \Delta x+o(\Delta x)=f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right) \Delta x+o(\Delta x)
$$

where the first term (called the principal part of the increment) is linearly dependent on the increment $\Delta x$. The expression $A \Delta x$ is called the differential of function and is denoted by $d y$. The coefficient $A$ in the principal part of the increment of a function $\Delta y$ at a point $x_{0}$ is equal to the value of the derivative $f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)$ at this point. The second term has a higher order of smallness with respect to $\Delta x$. The latter is an error of the differential use to approximate the function increment.

Consider the idea of partition of the increment of the function $\Delta y$ into two parts in the following simple example. Given a square with side $x_{0}=$ 1 m


Its area is obviously equal to

$$
S_{0}=x_{0}^{2}=1 \mathrm{~m}^{2} .
$$

If the side of the square is increased by $\Delta x=1 \mathrm{~cm}$, the exact value of the area of the square will be equal to

$$
S=x^{2}=\left(x_{0}+\Delta x\right)^{2}=1,01^{2}=1,0201 \mathrm{~m}^{2}
$$

that is the increment of the area $\Delta S$ is

$$
\Delta S=S-S_{0}=1,0201-1=0,0201 \mathrm{~m}^{2}=201 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}
$$

We now represent this increment $\Delta S$ as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta S=S-S_{0} & =\left(x_{0}+\Delta x\right)^{2}-x_{0}^{2}=x_{0}^{2}+2 x_{0} \Delta x+(\Delta x)^{2}-x_{0}^{2} \\
& =2 x_{0} \Delta x+(\Delta x)^{2}=A \Delta x+o(\Delta x)=d y+o(\Delta x)
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, the increment $\Delta S$ consists of the principal part (the differential of the function), which is proportional to $\Delta x$ and is equal to

$$
d y=A \Delta x=2 x_{0} \Delta x=2 \cdot 1 \cdot 0,01=0,02 \mathrm{~m}^{2}=200 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}
$$

and the term of a higher order of smallness (the error), which in turn is equal to

$$
o(\Delta x)=(\Delta x)^{2}=0,01^{2}=0,0001 \mathrm{~m}^{2}=1 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}
$$

In sum, both these terms comprise the full increment of the square area equal to $200+1=201 \mathrm{~cm}^{2}$.

## Geometric Meaning of the Differential of a Function

Figure schematically shows splitting of the increment $\Delta y$ into the principal part $d y$ (the differential of function) and the term of a higher order of smallness $o(\Delta x)$


The tangent $M N$ drawn to the curve of the function $y=f(x)$ at the point $M$ as it is known, has the slope angle $\alpha$, the tangent of which is equal to the derivative:

$$
\tan \alpha=f^{\prime}\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

When the independent variable changes by $\Delta x$, the tangent line increments by $d y=A \Delta x$. This linear increment formed by the tangent is just the differential of the function. The remaining part of the full increment $\Delta y=$ $M P$ (the segment $M_{1} N$ ) corresponds to the "nonlinear" additive of a higher order of smallness with respect to $\Delta x$.

## Properties of the Differential

The differential has the following properties:

1. A constant can be taken out of the differential sign:

$$
d(C u)=C d u,
$$

where $C$ is a constant number.
2. The differential of the sum (difference) of two functions is equal to the sum (difference) of their differentials:

$$
d(u \pm v)=d u \pm d v
$$

where $u$ and $v$ be functions of the variable $x$.
3. The differential of a constant is zero:

$$
d(C)=0
$$

4. Differential of the product of two functions:

$$
d(u v)=d u \cdot v+u \cdot d v
$$

5. Differential of the quotient of two functions:

$$
d\left(\frac{u}{v}\right)=\frac{d u \cdot v-u \cdot d v}{v^{2}}
$$

## Form Invariance of the Differential

Consider a composition of two functions $y=f(u)$ and $u=g(x)$. Its derivative can be found by the chain rule:

$$
y_{x}^{\prime}=y_{u}^{\prime} \cdot u_{x}^{\prime}
$$

where the subindex denotes the variable of differentiation.

The differential of the "outer" function $y=f(u)$ can be written as

$$
d y=y_{u}^{\prime} d u
$$

The differential of the "inner" function $u=g(x)$ can be represented in a similar manner:

$$
d u=u_{x}^{\prime} d x
$$

If we substitute $d u$ in the last formula, we obtain

$$
d y=y_{u}^{\prime} d u=y_{u}^{\prime} u_{x}^{\prime} d x
$$

Since $y_{x}^{\prime}=y_{u}^{\prime} \cdot u_{x}^{\prime}$, then

$$
d y=y_{x}^{\prime} d x
$$

It can be seen that in the case of a composite function, we get an expression for the differential in the same form as for a "simple" function. This property is called the form invariance of the differential.

Example 1: Find the differential of the function $y=\sin x-x \cos x$.
Determine the derivative of the given function:

$$
\begin{aligned}
y^{\prime}=(\sin x & -x \cos x)^{\prime}=\cos x-\left(x^{\prime} \cos x+x(\cos x)^{\prime}\right) \\
& =\cos x-(\cos x+x(-\sin x))=\cos x-\cos x+x \sin x \\
& =x \sin x
\end{aligned}
$$

The differential has the following form:

$$
d y=y^{\prime} d x=x \sin x d x
$$

Example 2: Find the differential of the function $y=2 x^{2}+3 x+1$ at the point $x=1$ when $d x=0,1$.

$$
d y=f^{\prime}(x) d x=\left(2 x^{2}+3 x+1\right)^{\prime} d x=(4 x+3) d x
$$

Substituting the given values, we calculate the differential:

$$
d y=(4 \cdot 1+3) \cdot 0,1=0,7
$$

Example 3: Use differential to approximate the change in $y=x^{3}+x^{2}$ as $x$ changes from 1 to 0.95 .
The differential $d y$ is defined by the formula

$$
d y=y^{\prime} d x=y^{\prime}(1) d x
$$

Take the derivative

$$
y^{\prime}=\left(x^{3}+x^{2}\right)^{\prime}=3 x^{2}+2 x
$$

So,

$$
y^{\prime}(1)=3 \cdot 1^{2}+2 \cdot 1=5 .
$$

Calculate the differential $d x$ :

$$
d x=\Delta x=0,95-1=-0,05
$$

Hence,

$$
d y=y^{\prime}(1) d x=5 \cdot(-0,05)=-0,25
$$

The approximate value of the function at $x=0,95$ is

$$
y(0,95) \approx y(1)+d y=\left(1^{3}+1^{2}\right)-0,25=1,75
$$

