Calculus and Linear Algebra for Biomedical Engineering

Week 7: Differentiable Functions

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We have a sequence $y_0, y_1, y_2, ...$ of temperature measurements at times t = 0, 1, 2, ... (in hours) as before. For the determination of the temperature after 12.7 hours, we suggested to take y_{13} , simply because 13 is the closest point in time for which we have a measurement.

A more sophisticated guess for the temperature is obtained by linear interpolation: We take

$$y_{12.7} \approx y_{12} + 0.7 \cdot (y_{13} - y_{12})$$

The idea is to use information from both neighboring points in time, weighting the contribution of the different points according to their distance.

Again we let $f : [0, M] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ denote the temperature function. Measured data:

Measurements f(t) at times $0 = t_0, t_1, t_2, t_3 ..., t_N = M \in [0, M]$.

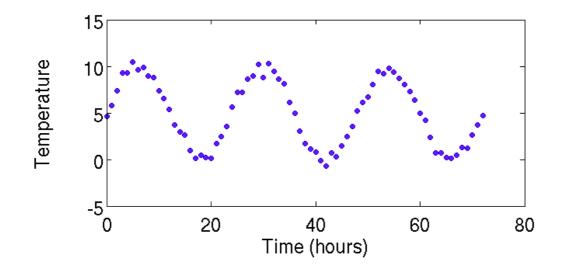
Linear interpolation: Given $s \in [0, M]$, hence s between t_n and t_{n+1} , we define

$$g(s) = f(t_n) + \frac{f(t_{n+1}) - f(t_n)}{t_{n+1} - t_n}(s - t_n)$$

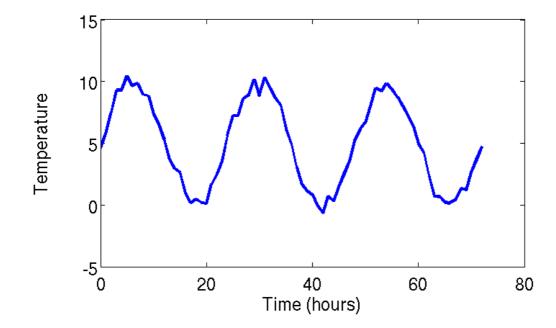
Hence the graph of g is obtained by connecting the data points $(t_n, f(t_n))_{n=0,\dots,N}$ by straight lines.

Question: What do we need to know about f and t_0, \ldots, t_N , to estimate the precision of the approximation $f(s) \approx g(s)$, for arbitrary s?

Scatter plot



Linear interpolation (often used to visualize discrete data)



Definition. Let $(a,b) \subset \mathbb{R}$ be an interval, with $x_0 \in (a,b)$ fixed. Let $f:(a,b) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function.

- 1. If $x \in (a, b)$, the secant to f through x_0, x is the straight line connecting the points $(x_0, f(x_0))$, and (x, f(x)) in the plane.
- 2. The slope of the secant through x, given as

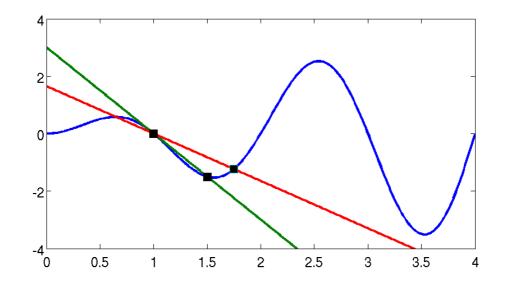
$$\Delta_{f,x_0}(x) = \Delta_f(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$

is called the difference quotient associated to x, x_0 .

Examples

Two secants to the function $f(x) = x \sin(\pi x)$ (blue curve) through $x_0 = 1$

Green: x = 1.5, Red: x = 1.75



Definition. Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$, $x_0 \in D$.

(a) *f* is called differentiable at x_0 if, for some $\delta > 0$, $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta) \subset D$, and in addition,

$$\alpha = \lim_{x \to x_0} \Delta_{f, x_0}(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0}$$
(1)

exists in \mathbb{R} .

(b) If *f* is differentiable, the limit α in (1) is called derivative of *f* at x_0 , and denoted by

$$f'(x_0) := \frac{df}{dx}(x_0) := \alpha \; .$$

(c) If f is differentiable at all $x_0 \in D$, the function $D \ni x \mapsto f'(x)$ is called derivative function or just derivative of f.

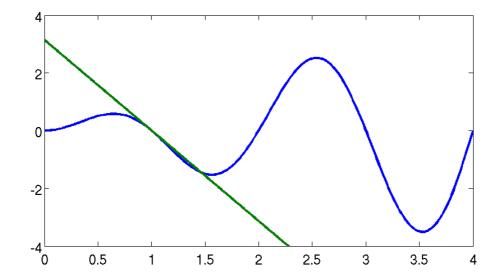
► Graphically, the derivative is the slope of the tangent to the graph through (x₀, f(x₀)). Alternatively, it can be interpreted as the slope of the graph at x₀.

The graph of a differentiable function is characterized by the property that it has no sharp corners or bends.

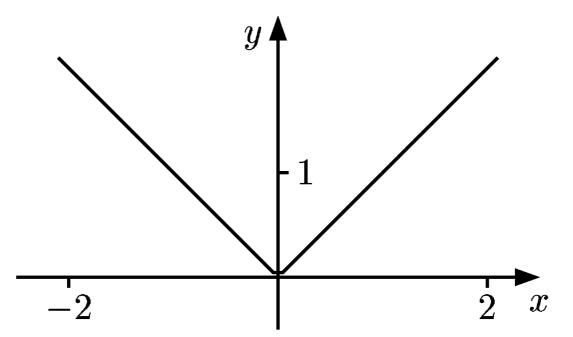
- The common physical interpretation is velocity: If f(t) denotes the distance of an object travelling along a straight line t, the velocity with which the object moves at time t is f'(t), in this context often denoted f(t).
- In the modelling of biological or chemical processes, the derivative of a population size or chemical quantity describes its growth rate.

Example

The tangent to the function $f(x)=x\sin(\pi x)$ (blue curve) through $x_0=1$



The function f(x) = |x| is differentiable at $x_0 \neq 0$, but not at $x_0 = 0$.



Theorem 1.

Let $f: D \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable. Then f is continuous.

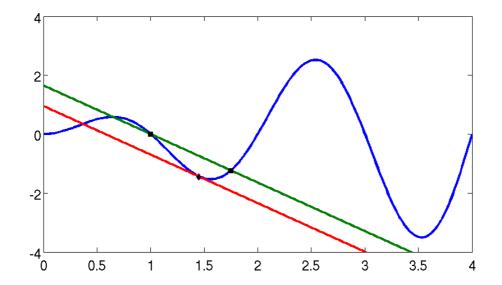
Theorem 2. (Mean value theorem)

Let $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous on [x, y] and differentiable on (x, y). Then there exists $z \in (x, y)$ such that

$$\frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} = f'(z) \; .$$

Illustration of the mean value theorem

The function $f(x) = x \sin(x)$, x = 1, y = 1.75. There exists z between x, y such that the tangent to f at z (red line) is parallel to the secant through (x, f(x)), (y, f(y)) (green).



Theorem 3. Let $f, g : D \to \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable functions.

- ► Linearity: For all $s, t \in \mathbb{R}$, sf + tg is differentiable on D, with (sf + tg)' = sf' + tg'.
- ▶ Product rule: The function $f \cdot g : D \to \mathbb{R}$, $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x)g(x)$, is differentiable with $(f \cdot g)' = f' \cdot g + f \cdot g'$.
- ▶ Quotient rule: Suppose that $g(x) \neq 0$ for all $x \in D$. Then the map $h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is differentiable on *D*, with

$$h'(x) = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$$

▶ Chain rule: Suppose that $h : E \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable on *E*, with $h(E) \subset D$. Then $g \circ h : E \to \mathbb{E}$ is differentiable on *E*, with $(g \circ h)(x) = g'(h(x))h'(x)$.

- For $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, the function $f(x) = x^{\alpha}$, is differentiable on $(0, \infty)$ with derivative $f'(x) = \alpha x^{\alpha-1}$. This includes the constant function $f(x) = 1 = x^0$, with derivative f'(x) = 0.
- For s ∈ ℝ, the function f(x) = x^s, is differentiable on ℝ₀⁺ with derivative f'(x) = sx^{s-1}. This includes the constant function f(x) = 1 = x⁰, with derivative f'(x) = 0.
- ▶ By the quotient rule, the previous item entails for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $f(x) = x^{-n}$, that $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$.
- ▶ As a consequence, polynomials $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ are differentiable.
- ▶ Trigonometric functions: \sin , \cos , \tan are differentiable on their domains, with $\sin' = \cos$, $\cos' = -\sin$.

We are given the function $f(x) = (x^4 + x^2)^{1/2} = (g_1 \circ (g_2 + g_3))(x)$, where

•
$$g_1(t) = t^{1/2}$$
, with $g'_1(t) = \frac{t^{-1/2}}{2} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}}$;
• $g_2(t) = x^2$, with $g'_2(t) = 2x$;
• $g_3(t) = x^4$, with $g'_3(t) = 4x^3$.

Applying the chain rule gives

$$f'(x) = g'_1(g_2(x) + g_3(x)) \cdot (g'_2(x) + g'_3(x)) ,$$

and plugging in the derivatives, we obtain

$$f'(x) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2\sqrt{x^4 + x^2}}}_{g_1'(g_2(x) + g_3(x)))} \underbrace{(\underbrace{2x}_{g_2'(x)} + \underbrace{4x^3}_{g_3'(x)}) = \frac{x + 2x^3}{\sqrt{x^4 + x^2}}}_{g_3'(x)}$$

We are given the function $f(x) = \sqrt{\sin(x^2)} = (g_1 \circ g_2 \circ g_3)(x)$, where

•
$$g_1(t) = t^{1/2}$$
, with $g'_1(t) = \frac{t^{-1/2}}{2} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}}$;
• $g_2(t) = \sin(t)$, with $g'_2(t) = \cos(t)$;

▶
$$g_3(t) = t^2$$
, with $g'_3(t) = 2t$.

Applying the chain rule twice gives

$$f'(x) = g'_1(g_2(g_3(x))) \cdot (g_2 \circ g_3)'(x) = g'_1(g_2(g_3(x))) \cdot g'_2(g_3(x)) \cdot g'_3(x) ,$$

and plugging in the derivatives, we obtain

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{\underbrace{2\sqrt{\sin(x^2)}}} \underbrace{\cos(x^2)}_{g_1'(g_2(g_3(x)))} \underbrace{\cos(x^2)}_{g_2'(g_3(x))} \underbrace{2x}_{g_3'(x)} = \frac{x\cos(x^2)}{\sqrt{\sin(x^2)}}$$

Definition. Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function.

► If f' is differentiable on D, we call the derivative of f' second derivative of f, denoted by

$$f^{(2)} := f'' := \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} := \frac{df'}{dx}$$

The function f is then called twice differentiable.

▶ More generally, if *f* is *n*-time differentiable (with $n \in \mathbb{N}$), such that its *n*th derivative $f^{(n)}$ is differentiable again, the n + 1st derivative of *f* is defined as

$$f^{(n+1)} := \frac{d^{n+1}f}{dx^{n+1}} := \frac{df^{(n)}}{dx}$$

f is then called n + 1 times differentiable. We use f''', f'''' etc. for the third, fourth etc. derivative . If all derivatives exist, f is called infinitely differentiable.

Examples

► The function $f(x) = x^n$ has derivative $f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$. Repeated differentiation gives

$$f^{(k)}(x) = \begin{cases} n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \ldots \cdot (n-k+1)x^{n-k} & k \le n \\ 0 & k > n \end{cases}$$

In particular, f is infinitely differentiable. As a consequence, polynomials are infinitely differentiable.

► The function f(x) = sin(x) is infinitely differentiable: f'(x) = cos(x), f''(x) = -sin(x) = -f(x). Hence we can differentiate sin infinitely many times.

The function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & x \ge 0\\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

is differentiable, but not twice differentiable on \mathbb{R} : f' is not differentiable at 0.

Theorem. (Taylor)

Let $D \subset \mathbb{R}$ and $f : D \to \mathbb{R}$ be n + 1 times differentiable. Let $x_0, y \in D$ be such that all points between x_0, y are in D. Then there exists z between (x_0, y) such that

$$\begin{split} f(y) &= \sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(k)}(x_{0})}{k!} (y-x)^{k} + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!} (y-x_{0})^{n+1} \\ &= f(x_{0}) + f'(x)(y-x_{0}) + \frac{f''(x_{0})}{2} (y-x_{0})^{2} + \ldots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x_{0})}{n!} (y-x_{0})^{n} \\ &+ \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!} (y-x_{0})^{n+1} \,, \end{split}$$

where we used $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot \ldots \cdot n$.

Taylor polynomial

Definition. If f is n + 1 times differentiable, the polynomial

$$T_{n,x_0}(y) = f(x_0) + f'(x)(y - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2}(y - x_0)^2 + \ldots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!}(y - x_0)^n$$

is called Taylor polynomial of f of degree n. The difference

$$R_{n,x_0}(y) = f(x) - T_{n,x_0}(y) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}(y - x_0)^{n+1}$$

is called the remainder term.

By Taylor's theorem,

$$f(y) - T_{n,x_0}(y) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(z)}{(n+1)!}(y - x_0)^{n+1}$$

As $f^{(n+1)}$ is continuous, there exists M > 0 such that $f^{(n+1)}(z) \le M$ for all z between y, x_0 , and thus

$$|f(y) - T_{n,x_0}(y)| \le \frac{M}{(n+1)!} |y - x_0|^n < \frac{M}{(n+1)!} \epsilon^n$$

if $|y - z_0| < 0$. The right-hand side goes to zero as $\epsilon \to 0$.

Note: The speed with which $\epsilon^n \to 0$ for $\epsilon \to 0$ increases with *n*.

Hence, T_{n,x_0} is a polynomial approximation of f near x_0 . The quality of approximation increases as $n \to \infty$.

Measured data:

Measurements f(t) at times $0 = t_0, t_1, t_2, t_3 ..., t_N = M \in [0, M]$.

Linear interpolation: Given $s \in [0, M]$, hence s between t_n and t_{n+1} , we define

$$g(s) = f(t_n) + \frac{f(t_{n+1}) - f(t_n)}{t_{n+1} - t_n}(s - t_n)$$

Wanted: An estimate for |f(s) - g(s)|.

We assume *f* to be twice differentiable on [0, M]. In particular, $|f''(z)| \le K$, for all $z \in [0, M]$, with *K* a suitable constant.

Using the mean value theorem, we obtain

$$g(s) = f(t_n) + f'(z)(s - t_n) ,$$

for z between s and t_n .

Moreover, using Taylor approximation of degree one,

$$f(s) = f(t_n) + f'(t_n)(s - t_n) + \frac{f''(y)}{2}(s - t_n)^2 ,$$

with y between s and t_n . Hence,

$$f(s) - g(s) = (f'(t_n) - f'(z))(s - t_n) + \frac{f''(y)}{2}(s - t_n)^2.$$
 (2)

Applying the mean value theorem to f', we obtain

$$f'(t_n) - f'(z) = f''(r)(t_n - z)$$

with r between t_n and z.

In particular: Assume that $t_{n+1} - t_n = \delta$. Then $|s - t_n| < \delta$, and if z is between s and t_n , also $|t_n - z| < \delta$, and thus

$$|f(s) - g(s)| \leq |(f'(t_n) - f'(z))(s - t_n)| + |\frac{f''(y)}{2}(s - t_n)^2| \\ \leq (|f''(r)| + |f''(y)|)\delta^2 \\ \leq 2K\delta^2.$$

Positive conclusion: As the distance δ of neighboring measurement points decreases, the approximation error can be estimated by a quadratic function of δ .

(~~> Rule of thumb: Doubling the number of measurements results in dividing the approximation error by four.)

Drawback: If we don't know f, how do we estimate the constant K?

- Important definitions: Secant, difference quotient, derivative of a function
- Properties of differentiable functions: Continuity, Mean value theorem
- Known classes of differentiable functions: Polynomials, trigonometric functions, powers, roots
- Computational rules for derivatives: Linearity, product rule, chain rule
- ► Higher derivatives, Taylor's theorem