

Many calculations in calculus are easier to do using *differentials*. Furthermore, differentials and the related *differential forms* are often used in applications, especially (but not only) to physics. The official textbook covers differentials, but incompletely and only in one minor application. It then uses differentials again much later (mostly in material for Calculus 2 and 3), but they are useful much earlier. So I will make heavy use of them.

Notation and terminology

If y is a variable quantity, then dy is the **differential** of y . You can think of dy as indicating an infinitely small (infinitesimal) change in the value of y , or the amount by which y changes when an infinitesimal change is made. A precise definition is at the end of these notes, but you will *not* be tested directly on that; what you need to know is how to *use* differentials.

Note that dy is *not* d times y , and d is also *not* exactly a function of y . Rather, y (being a *variable* quantity) should itself be a function of some other quantity x , and dy is also a function of a sort; so d is an *operator*: something that turns one function into another function. (However, an expression like $A dy$ does involve multiplication: it is A times the differential of y .)

We often divide one differential by another; for example, dy/dx is the result of dividing the differential of y by the differential of x . The textbook introduces this notation early to stand for the *derivative* of y with respect to x , and indeed it is that; but what the book doesn't tell you is that dy/dx literally is dy divided by dx . (Unfortunately, d^2y/dx^2 , the second derivative, is *not* literally d^2y divided by dx^2 , at least not in any generally useful way that I know.)

Fundamental theorem

The most important fact about differentials is this: If f is a differentiable function, then

$$df(u) = f'(u) du.$$

That is, the differential of $f(u)$ equals $f'(u)$ times the differential of u , where f' is the derivative of f (as a function). This fact not only shows the relationship between differentials and derivatives, but also (because u could be any quantity) it encapsulates the **Chain Rule** in differential form. The Chain Rule is an important principle in calculus, which is often difficult to learn how to use; but with differentials it is easy.

In particular, if $y = f(x)$, then

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{df(x)}{dx} = \frac{f'(x) dx}{dx} = f'(x),$$

so dy divided by dx really is the derivative.

For example, suppose that you have discovered (say from the definition as a limit) that the derivative of $f(x) = x^2$ is $f'(x) = 2x$. Then this fact can be expressed in differential form:

$$d(x^2) = df(x) = f'(x) dx = 2x dx. \quad (*)$$

Conversely, if (by performing a calculation with differentials) you discover the equation (*) above, then you know the derivative of f as well:

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

Whichever of these facts you discover first, once you know them, you know something even more general:

$$d(u^2) = 2u du.$$

(The power to derive this from equation (*) is the Chain Rule.) The value of this is that u can be any expression whatsoever; for example, if $u = x^2$ again, then

$$d(x^4) = d((x^2)^2) = 2(x^2) d(x^2) = 2x^2(2x dx) = 4x^3 dx.$$

So now you have learnt a new derivative, without having to calculate it from scratch.

Rules of differentiation

Every theorem about derivatives of functions may also be expressed as a theorem about differentials. Here are the most common rules:

- The Constant Rule: $dk = 0$ if k is constant.
- The Sum Rule: $d(u + v) = du + dv$.
- The Translate Rule: $d(u + k) = du$ if k is constant.
- The Difference Rule: $d(u - v) = du - dv$.
- The Product Rule: $d(uv) = v du + u dv$.
- The Multiple Rule: $d(ku) = k du$ if k is constant.
- The Quotient Rule: $d\left(\frac{u}{v}\right) = \frac{v du - u dv}{v^2}$.
- The Power Rule: $d(u^k) = ku^{k-1} du$ if k is constant.
- The Root Rule: $d(\sqrt[k]{u}) = \frac{\sqrt[k]{u} du}{ku}$ if k is constant.

Of these, only the Constant Rule, the Sum Rule, the Product Rule, and the Power Rule are absolutely necessary, since every other expression built out of the operations in the rules above can be built out of the operations in these four rules. However, it is often handy to use all of these rules, even the Root Rule (which is not in the textbook). It is up to you how many of these rules to learn.

In addition, every time that you learn the derivative of a new function, you learn a new rule for differentials, by applying the Chain Rule to that function. We have already seen an example of this: applying the Chain Rule to the function $f(x) = x^2$ gives the special case of the Power Rule for $k = 2$. Here are a few other functions whose derivatives you will learn, expressed as rules for differentials:

- $d(\exp u) = \exp u du$, or $d(e^u) = e^u du$.
- $d(\ln u) = \frac{du}{u}$.
- $d(\sin u) = \cos u du$.
- $d(\cos u) = -\sin u du$.
- $d(\arctan u) = \frac{du}{u^2 + 1}$.

And more!

Notice that every one of these rules turns the differential on the left into a sum of terms (possibly only one term, or none in the case of the Constant Rule), each of which is an ordinary expression multiplied by a differential (or something algebraically equivalent to this). If, when you are calculating the differential of an expression, your result at any stage is *not* like this, then you have made a mistake!

Using differentials

The main technique for using differentials is simply to take the differential of both sides of an equation. However, you may only do this to an equation that holds *generally*, but *not* to an equation that holds only for *particular* values of the variables. (Ultimately, this is because d is an operator, not a function, so it must be applied to entire functions, not only to particular values of those functions.)

The simplest case is an equation such as $y = e^{x^2}$, when we want the derivative of y with respect to x . So:

$$\begin{aligned}y &= e^{x^2} = \exp x^2; \\dy &= d(\exp x^2) = \exp x^2 d(x^2) = \exp x^2 \cdot 2x dx = 2x \exp x^2 dx; \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= 2x \exp x^2 = 2xe^{x^2}.\end{aligned}$$

Now we have the derivative. If we want the second derivative, then we do this again:

$$\begin{aligned} dy/dx &= 2xe^{x^2} = 2x \exp x^2; \\ d(dy/dx) &= d(2x \exp x^2) = \exp x^2 d(2x) + 2x d(\exp x^2) \\ &= \exp x^2 \cdot 2 dx + 2x \cdot 2x \exp x^2 dx = (2 \exp x^2 + 4x^2 \exp x^2) dx; \\ (d/dx)^2 y &= \frac{d(dy/dx)}{dx} = 2 \exp x^2 + 4x^2 \exp x^2 = 2e^{x^2} + 4x^2 e^{x^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Now we have the second derivative (also written d^2y/dx^2).

The previous example began with an equation solved for y . But we don't need this; suppose instead that we have $y^5 + x^2 = x^5 + y$ (which *cannot* be solved for either variable using the usual algebraic operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, powers, and roots). Undaunted, we forge ahead anyway:

$$\begin{aligned} y^5 + x^2 &= x^5 + y; \\ d(y^5 + x^2) &= d(x^5 + y); \\ d(y^5) + d(x^2) &= d(x^5) + dy; \\ 5y^{5-1} dy + 2x^{2-1} dx &= 5x^{5-1} dx + dy; \\ 5y^4 dy - dy &= 5x^4 dx - 2x dx; \\ (5y^4 - 1) dy &= (5x^4 - 2x) dx; \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{5x^4 - 2x}{5y^4 - 1}. \end{aligned}$$

This process is called **implicit differentiation**.

The second derivative is a little simpler at first (or it would be if we didn't have to use the Quotient Rule!), but there is a twist at the end:

$$\begin{aligned} dy/dx &= \frac{5x^4 - 2x}{5y^4 - 1}; \\ d(dy/dx) &= d\left(\frac{5x^4 - 2x}{5y^4 - 1}\right) = \frac{(5y^4 - 1) d(5x^4 - 2x) - (5x^4 - 2x) d(5y^4 - 1)}{(5y^4 - 1)^2} \\ &= \frac{(5y^4 - 1)(20x^3 - 2) dx - (5x^4 - 2x)(20y^3) dy}{(5y^4 - 1)^2} \\ &= \frac{20x^3 - 2}{5y^4 - 1} dx - \frac{20y^3(5x^4 - 2x)}{(5y^4 - 1)^2} dy; \\ (d/dx)^2 y &= \frac{d(dy/dx)}{dx} = \frac{20x^3 - 2}{5y^4 - 1} - \frac{20y^3(5x^4 - 2x)}{(5y^4 - 1)^2} \frac{dy}{dx} \\ &= \frac{20x^3 - 2}{5y^4 - 1} - \frac{20y^3(5x^4 - 2x)}{(5y^4 - 1)^2} \frac{5x^4 - 2x}{5y^4 - 1} \end{aligned}$$

(which could be simplified further). Notice that I substitute the known expression for dy/dx in the last step.

Another handy application of differentials is the case where both quantities x and y may be expressed as functions of some other quantity t . If we start with the same equation as above, then this will give us an equation relating the derivatives with respect to t :

$$\begin{aligned} y^5 + x^2 &= x^5 + y; \\ d(y^5 + x^2) &= d(x^5 + y); \\ d(y^5) + d(x^2) &= d(x^5) + dy; \\ 5y^{5-1} dy + 2x^{2-1} dx &= 5x^{5-1} dx + dy; \\ 5y^4 \frac{dy}{dt} + 2x \frac{dx}{dt} &= 5x^4 \frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{dy}{dt}. \end{aligned}$$

If we have information about one or both of these derivatives, then this equation will often give us useful information to solve a problem. This situation is called **related rates**, since derivatives can be viewed as rates of change (especially derivatives with respect to time t , although the t in the equation above doesn't have to be time).

Appendix: Definitions and proofs

Since d is an operator, it must be applied to a function. If f is a function, we define the **differential** df of f to be a function of *two* variables; but we write $\langle df(x)|v \rangle$ instead of $df(x, v)$ for the value of this function at x and v . Its definition is:

$$\langle df(x)|v \rangle = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + tv) - f(x)}{t}.$$

We say that f is **differentiable** at x if $\langle df(x)|v \rangle$ is defined for every possible value of v . In this case, we have this alternative expression for df :

$$\langle df(x)|v \rangle = f'(x)v;$$

in particular, $f'(x) = \langle df(x)|1 \rangle$.

Now, I have been applying d to variables like x and y and to expressions built out of them. So in order to make sense of this, I must have been tacitly assuming that these expressions are functions of some quantity. If all of the quantities in an application of calculus may be expressed as functions of one quantity x , then we identify such a quantity x and call it the **independent variable**. (In multivariable calculus, studied in Calculus 3, you may need several independent variables at once.) So, if y is any of these quantities, then we have $y = f(x)$ for some function f (possibly a constant function or an unknown function, but still in principle some function).

If $y = f(x)$, then when we write dy , we simply mean $df(x)$, where df is the function of two variables defined above. This leaves dy as a function of one variable, the variable written as v above. In other words, if $y = f(x)$, then

$$\langle dy|v \rangle = f'(x)v.$$

More generally, we use **differential forms**: expressions like $3 dx + 2y dz$ that are constructed out of differentials by addition and by multiplication by functions of the independent variable. Technically, $3 dx + 2y dz$ is also a function of v , defined by

$$\langle 3 dx + 2y dz|v \rangle = 3\langle dx|v \rangle + 2y\langle dz|v \rangle.$$

(In multivariable calculus, differential forms can be even more general than this.) In all of our applications of differentials, when we write equations between differential forms, we are really writing equations between functions of v , which we never bother to apply to any particular argument.

In particular, if I is the identity function $I(x) = x$, then $I'(x) = 1$ for all x , so we have $\langle dI(x)|v \rangle = v$. So,

$$\langle df(x)|v \rangle = f'(x)v = f'(x)\langle dI(x)|v \rangle = \langle f'(x) dI(x)|v \rangle;$$

substituting y for $f(x)$ and x for $I(x)$, we have

$$\langle dy|v \rangle = \langle f'(x) dx|v \rangle,$$

or simply

$$dy = f'(x) dx$$

as an equation between differential forms. Therefore,

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = f'(x),$$

as expected. (That is, dy/dx is a constant function of v , whose value is always $f'(x)$.)

More generally, if $u = g(x)$, so that $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = f(u)$, then

$$\begin{aligned}\langle d(f \circ g)(x)|v \rangle &= (f \circ g)'(x)v = f'(g(x))g'(x)v \\ &= f'(g(x))\langle dg(x)|v \rangle = \langle f'(g(x)) dg(x)|v \rangle,\end{aligned}$$

where I have used the Chain Rule to find $(f \circ g)'$. Substituting $f(u)$ for $(f \circ g)(x)$ and u for $g(x)$, we have

$$df(u) = f'(u) du$$

as an equation between differential forms. This is the Chain Rule expressed using differentials. Another way to look at this is that the choice of independent variable is arbitrary; we could use u just as well as x (at least when we work with quantities that may be expressed as functions of u).

Every other rule for differentials follows from the corresponding rule for derivatives by substituting appropriate expressions and multiplying by dx . For example, from

$$(f + g)'(x) = f'(x) + g'(x),$$

we write u for $f(x)$ and v for $g(x)$, so that $u + v = (f + g)(x)$. Then this rule for derivatives becomes

$$\frac{d(u + v)}{dx} = \frac{du}{dx} + \frac{dv}{dx},$$

which gives the corresponding rule for differentials:

$$d(u + v) = du + dv.$$

All of the other rules may be proved similarly. Conversely, given a rule for differentials, the corresponding rule for derivatives follows upon dividing by dx . So one may prove a rule in either form.