# **CHAPTER 4**

# **Differentiable Functions**

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### Differentiable Functions

### **1.1 The Derivative**

#### **1.1.1** Definition and basic properties

**Definition 1.1.1.** Let I be an interval, let  $f : I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function, and let  $c \in I$ . If the limit

$$l = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c},$$

exists, then we say f is differentiable at c, we call "l" the derivative of f at c, and we write f'(c) = l.

If f is differentiable at all  $c \in I$ , then we simply say that f is differentiable, and then we obtain a function  $f' : I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . The derivative is sometimes written as  $\frac{df}{dx}$  or  $\frac{d}{dx}(f(x))$ . The expression  $\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$  is called the difference quotient.

The graphical interpretation of the derivative is depicted in Figure 1.2. The left-hand plot gives the line through (c, f(c)) and (x, f(x)) with slope  $\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$ , that is, the so-called secant line. When we take the limit as x goes to c, we get the right-hand plot, where we see that the derivative of the function at the point c is the slope of the line tangent to the graph of f at the point (c, f(c)).



Figure 1.1: Graphical interpretation of the derivative

**Example 1.1.1.** Let  $f(x) = x^2$  defined on the whole real line, and let  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  be arbitrary. We find that if  $x \neq c$ ,

$$\frac{x^2 - c^2}{x - c} = \frac{(x + c)(x - c)}{x - c} = x + c.$$

Therefore,

$$f'(c) = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{x^2 - c^2}{x - c} = \lim_{x \to c} (x + c) = 2c.$$

**Example 1.1.2.** The function  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is differentiable for x > 0. To see this fact, fix c > 0, and suppose  $x \neq c$  and x > 0. Compute

$$\frac{\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{c}}{x - c} = \frac{\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{c}}{(\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{c})(\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{c})} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{c}}$$

Therefore,

$$f'(c) = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{c}}{x - c} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{c}} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{c}}$$

**Remark 1.1.1.** By setting x - c = h, the previous limit can be written in the form

$$f'(c) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(c+h) - f(c)}{h}.$$

**Proposition 1.1.1.** Let  $f : I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable at  $c \in I$ , then it is continuous at c.

**Proof 1.** We know the limits

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = f'(c), \quad and \quad \lim_{x \to c} (x - c) = 0.$$

exist. Furthermore,

$$f(x) - f(c) = \left(\frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}\right)(x - c),$$

*Therefore, the limit of* f(x) - f(c) *exists and* 

$$\lim_{x \to c} (f(x) - f(c)) = \left(\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}\right) \left(\lim_{x \to c} (x - c)\right) = f'(c).0 = 0.$$

Hence  $\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = f(c)$ , and f is continuous at c.

**Proposition 1.1.2.** If f is differentiable over I, then f is continuous over I.

**Proposition 1.1.3.** *Let I be an interval, let*  $f : I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  *and*  $g : I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  *be differentiable at*  $c \in I$ *, and let*  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ *, then:* 

#### 1. The linearity:

- Define  $h: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $h(x) = \alpha f(x)$ . Then h is differentiable at c and  $h'(c) = \alpha f'(c)$ .
- Define  $h : I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by h(x) = f(x) + g(x). Then h is differentiable at c and h'(c) = f'(c) + g'(c).

#### 2. Product rule:

If  $h: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined by h(x) = g(x)f(x), then h is differentiable at c and

$$h'(c) = f(c)g'(c) + f'(c)g(c).$$

#### 3. Quotient rule:

If  $g(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in I$ , and if  $h: I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined by  $h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ , then h is differentiable at c and

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

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#### 1.1.2 Chain rule

**Proposition 1.1.4.** *Let I*, *J be intervals, let*  $g : I \longrightarrow J$  *be differentiable at*  $c \in I$ , *and*  $f : J \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  *be differentiable at* g(c)*. If*  $h : I \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  *is defined by* 

$$h(x) = (f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)),$$

then h is differentiable at c and

$$h'(c) = f'(g(c))g'(c).$$

#### 1.1.3 Inverse function

**Proposition 1.1.5.** Let  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  be an interval, and let f be an injective and continuous function on I. If f is differentiable at point c with  $f'(c) \neq 0$ , then the inverse function:  $f^{-1} : f(I) \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at f(c) and

$$(f^{-1})'(f(c)) = \frac{1}{f'(c)}.$$

## 1.2 Left and Right Derivatives

**Definition 1.2.1.** Suppose  $f : [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Then f is right-differentiable at  $a \le c < b$  with right derivative  $f'(c^+)$  if

$$\lim_{\substack{x \to c \\ x \to c}} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = f'(c^+),$$

exists, and f is left-differentiable at  $a < c \le b$  with left derivative  $f'(c^{-})$  if

$$\lim_{\substack{x \to c \\ x \to c}} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} = f'(c^{-}) \text{ exists.}$$

A function is differentiable at a < c < b if and only if the left and right derivatives exist at c and are equal.

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**Example 1.2.1.** The absolute value function f(x) = |x| is left and right differentiable at 0 with left and right derivatives

 $f'(0^+) = 1$  and  $f'(0^-) = -1$ .

*These are not equal, and f is not differentiable at* 0.

## **1.3** Successive Derivatives and Leibnitz's Rule

#### **1.3.1** Successive derivatives

Let f(x) be a differentiable function on an interval *I*. Then the derivative f'(x) is a function of *x* and if f'(x) is differentiable at *x*, then the derivative of f'(x) at *x* is called second derivative of f(x) at *x* and it is denoted by f''(x) or  $f^{(2)}(x)$ . Proceeding in this way the n - th order derivative of f(x) is the derivative of the function  $f^{(n-1)}(x)$  and it the denoted by  $f^{(n)}(x)$ .

**Example 1.3.1.** *1*). Let  $f(x) = \sin(x)$ . Calculate  $f^{(n)}(x)$ . We have:

$$f^{(0)}(x) = \sin(x),$$
  

$$f'(x) = f^{(1)}(x) = \cos(x) = \sin(x + \frac{\pi}{2}),$$
  

$$f^{(2)}(x) = -\sin(x) = \sin(x + \pi),$$
  

$$f^{(3)}(x) = -\cos(x) = \sin(x + \frac{3\pi}{2}),$$
  

$$f^{(4)}(x) = \sin(x) = \sin(x + 2\pi),$$
  

$$\vdots$$
  

$$f^{(n)}(x) = \sin(x + \frac{n\pi}{2}).$$

2).  $f(x) = \ln x$ . Calculate  $f^{(n)}(x)$ . We have:

| $f^{(0)}(x) = \ln x,$   | $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x},$   |
|---|--|
| $f^{(2)}(x) = \frac{-1}{x^2},$                                      | $f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{2}{x^3},$                                    |
| $f^{(4)}(x) = \frac{-2 \times 3}{x^4},$                             | $f^{(5)}(x) = \frac{2 \times 3 \times 4}{x^5} = \frac{4!}{x^5},$ |
| $f^{(n)}(x) = (-1)^{n+1} \frac{(n-1)!}{x^n}, \ n \in \mathbb{N}^*.$ |  |

**Definition 1.3.1.** Let I be an interval of  $\mathbb{R}$  and f be a function defined on I. It is said that f is of class  $C^1$  on I if f is differentiable on I and f' continues on I. We say that f is of class  $C^n(I)$  if f is n-times differentiable on I and if  $f^{(n)}$  continues on I.

### 1.3.2 Leibnitz formula

**Theorem 1.3.1.** If f and g be two functions each differentiable n times on I, then  $f \times g$  is n-times differentiable on I, and:

$$(f \times g)^{(n)} = \sum_{k=0}^{n} C_n^k f^{(n-k)} g^{(k)}, \ C_n^k = \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!}.$$

**Example 1.3.2.** *For n* = 2*, we have:* 

$$(f \times g)^{(2)} = C_2^0 f''g + C_2^1 f'g' + C_2^2 fg''$$
$$= f''g + 2f'g' + fg''.$$

For n = 6, we have:

$$\begin{split} (f\times g)^{(6)} &= C_6^0 f^{(6)}g + C_6^1 f^{(5)}g' + C_6^2 f^{(4)}g'' + C_6^3 f^{(3)}g^{(3)} + C_6^4 f''g^{(4)} + C_6^5 f'g^{(5)} + C_6^6 fg^{(6)} \\ &= f^{(6)}g + 6f^{(5)}g' + 15f^{(4)}g'' + 20f^{(3)}g^{(3)} + 15f''g^{(4)} + 6f'g^{(5)} + fg^{(6)}. \end{split}$$

If  $h(x) = (x^3 + 5x + 1)e^x = f(x)g(x)$ , then:

| $f'(x) = 3x^2 + 5,$                  | $g'(x)=e^x,$               |
|--------------------------------------|----------------------------|
| $f^{\prime\prime}(x)=6x,$            | $g^{\prime\prime}(x)=e^x,$ |
| $f^{(3)}(x) = 6,$                    | $g^{(3)}(x)=e^x,$          |
| $f^{(4)}(x) = 0,$                    | $g^{(4)}(x)=e^x,$          |
| $f^{(n)}(x) = 0, \ \forall n \ge 4,$ | $g^{(n)}(x)=e^x.$          |

So:

$$h^{(n)}(x) = C_n^0 f g^{(n)} + C_n^1 f' g^{(n-1)} + C_n^2 f'' g^{(n-2)} + C_n^3 f^{(3)} g^{(n-3)} + C_n^4 f^{(4)} g^{(n-4)} + \cdots$$
  
=  $(x^3 + 5x + 1)e^x + n(3x^2 + 5)e^x + \frac{n(n-1)}{2}(6x)e^x + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)}{6}6e^x.$ 

# **1.4 The Mean Value Theorem**

#### 1.4.1 Extreme values

**Definition 1.4.1.** A critical point of a function f(x), is a value c in the domain of f where f is not differentiable or its derivative is 0 (i.e. f'(c) = 0).

**Definition 1.4.2.** A function f is said to have a local maximum (local minimum) at c if f is defined on an open interval I containing c and  $f(x) \le f(c)$  ( $f(x) \ge f(c)$ ) for all  $x \in I$ . In either case, f is said to have a local extremum at c.



Figure 1.2: Local extrema of f

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#### **1.4.2** Local extremum theorem

**Theorem 1.4.1.** If f has a local extremum at c and if f is differentiable at c, then f'(c) = 0.

*Proof.* Suppose that *f* has a local maximum at *c*. Let *I* be an open interval containing *c* such that  $f(x) \le f(c)$  for all  $x \in I$ . Then:

$$\frac{f(c) - f(c)}{x - c} = \begin{cases} \ge 0, \ if \ x \in I \ and \ x < c, \\ \le 0, \ if \ x \in I \ and \ x > c. \end{cases}$$

It follows that the left-hand derivative of f at c is  $\geq 0$  and the right-hand derivative is  $\leq 0$ , hence f'(c) = 0. The proof for the local minimum case is similar.

#### 1.4.3 Rolle's theorem

**Theorem 1.4.2.** Let f be continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on ]a, b[. If f(a) = f(b), then there exists a point  $c \in ]a, b[$  such that f'(c) = 0.

*Proof.* By the extreme value theorem there exist  $x_m, x_M \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(x_m) \leq f(x) \leq f(x_M)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . If  $f(x_m) = f(x_M)$ , then f is a constant function and the assertion of the theorem holds trivially. If  $f(x_m) \neq f(x_M)$ , then either  $x_m \in [a, b]$  or  $x_M \in [a, b]$ , and the conclusion follows from the local extremum theorem.

#### **1.4.4** Mean value theorem

**Theorem 1.4.3.** If f is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on ]a, b[, then there exists  $c \in ]a, b[$  such that:

$$\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = f'(c).$$

*Proof.* The function  $g : [a, b] \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by:

$$g(x) = f(x) - f(a) - \left[\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}\right](x - a),$$

is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on ]a, b[ with

$$g'(x) = f'(x) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$

Moreover, g(a) = g(b) = 0. Rolle's theorem implies that there exists a < c < b such that g'(c) = 0, which proves the result.

#### **1.4.5** *Mean value inequality*

Let *f* be a continuous function on [*a*, *b*], and differentiable on ]*a*, *b*[. If there exists a constant *M* such that:  $\forall x \in ]a, b[: |f'(x)| \le M$ , then

$$\forall x, y \in [a, b] : |f(x) - f(y)| \le M |x - y|.$$

According to the Mean value theorem on  $[x, y], \exists c \in ]x, y[: f'(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y}$ . Then

$$|f'(c)| \le M \Longrightarrow \left| \frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y} \right| \le M \Longrightarrow M |x - y|.$$

# **1.5 Increasing and Derivative Functions**

Let f be a continuous function on [a, b], and differentiable on ]a, b[ then:

- 1.  $\forall x \in ]a, b[: f'(x) > 0 \iff f$  is strictly increasing on [a, b].
- 2.  $\forall x \in ]a, b[: f'(x) < 0 \iff f \text{ is strictly decreasing on } [a, b].$
- 3.  $\forall x \in ]a, b[: f'(x) = 0 \iff f \text{ is a constant.}$

## 1.6 L'Hôpital's Rule

L'Hôpital's rule states that for functions f and g which are differentiable on an open interval I except possibly at a point c contained in I, if  $\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = \lim_{x\to c} g(x) = 0$  or  $\pm \infty$ , and  $g'(c) \neq 0$  and  $\lim_{x\to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  exists, then:

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}.$$

**Example 1.6.1.** Using L'Hopital's rule:

1. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{3x - \sin x}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{3 - \cos x}{1} = 2.$$

2. 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sqrt{1+x}-1}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\frac{1}{2\sqrt{1+x}}}{1} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

# 1.7 Convex Functions

**Definition 1.7.1.** A function f is said to be convex on an interval I if

$$f(tx + (1 - t)y) \le tf(x) + (1 - t)f(y), \ \forall \ t \in [0.1], \ x, \ y \in I.$$

f is concave if -f is convex.

**Theorem 1.7.1.** If  $f : ]a, b[ \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has an increasing derivative, then f is convex. In particular, f is convex if  $f'' \ge 0$ .