## Introduction to Real Analysis

## George Voutsadakis ${ }^{1}$

${ }^{1}$ Mathematics and Computer Science
Lake Superior State University

## LSSU Math 421

## (1) Derivatives

- Differentiability
- Algebra of Derivatives
- Composition and the Chain Rule
- Local Max and Min
- Mean Value Theorem


## Subsection 1

## Differentiability

## Differentiability

## Definition (Differentiability)

Let $S$ be a subset of $\mathbb{R}, f$ a real-valued function defined on $S, c$ a point of $S$, i.e., $c \in S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ and $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Let $g: S-\{c\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function defined by the formula

$$
g(x)=\frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}
$$

called a difference-quotient function associated with $f$. We say that:

- $f$ is differentiable at $c$ if $S$ is a neighborhood of $c$ and $g$ has a limit at $c$;
- $f$ is right differentiable at $c$ if $S$ is a right neighborhood of $c$ and $g$ has a right limit at $c$;
- $f$ is left differentiable at $c$ if $S$ is a left neighborhood of $c$ and $g$ has a left limit at $c$.


## Derivative

- When they exist, these limits are called the derivative, right derivative and left derivative of $f$ at $c$, written

$$
\begin{gathered}
f^{\prime}(c)=\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c} ; \\
f_{r}^{\prime}(c)=\lim _{x \rightarrow c^{+}} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c} ; \quad f_{\ell}^{\prime}(c)=\lim _{x \rightarrow c^{-}} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c} .
\end{gathered}
$$

## Theorem

Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $S$ is a neighborhood of $c \in \mathbb{R}$. The following conditions on $f$ are equivalent:
(a) $f$ is differentiable at $c$;
(b) $f$ is both left and right differentiable at $c$, and $f_{\ell}^{\prime}(c)=f_{r}^{\prime}(c)$.

For such a function $f$, necessarily $f^{\prime}(c)=f_{\ell}^{\prime}(c)=f_{r}^{\prime}(c)$.

- The equivalence is immediate from limit considerations.


## $\delta, \epsilon$-Criterion

- Just as for general limits, there are sequential and $\epsilon, \delta$ criteria for differentiability:


## Theorem

Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $S$ is a neighborhood of $c \in \mathbb{R}$, and let $L \in \mathbb{R}$. The following conditions on $f$ are equivalent:
(a) $f$ is differentiable at $c$, with derivative $L$;
(b) For every $\epsilon>0$, there exists a $\delta>0$, such that, if $x \in S$ and $0<|x-c|<\delta$, then $|f(x)-f(c)-L(x-c)| \leq \epsilon|x-c|$.

- The last inequality in (b) may be written $|g(x)-L| \leq \epsilon$, where $g$ is the difference-quotient function. Thus, the theorem is immediate.
- Remark: There are "one-sided"' versions of the theorem: E.g., in the criterion for right differentiability, $S$ is a right neighborhood of $c$ and the condition on $x$ in (b) is $c<x<c+\delta$.


## Using the Extendability Criterion

## Theorem

Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $S$ is a neighborhood of $c$. The following conditions on $f$ are equivalent:
(a) $f$ is differentiable at $c$;
(b) There exists a function $A: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, such that $A$ is continuous at $c$ and $f(x)-f(c)=A(x)(x-c)$, for all $x \in S$.
A function $A$ satisfying the conditions in (b) is unique, and $f^{\prime}(c)=A(c)$.

- The equation in condition (b) is trivially satisfied for $x=c$. So the condition means that there exists a function $A: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, such that $A$ is continuous at $c$ and $A(x)=g(x)$, for all $x \in S-\{c\}$. This is in turn equivalent to the existence of a limit for $g$ at $c$, i.e., equivalent to condition (a), and the limit is necessarily equal to $A(c): f^{\prime}(c)=A(c)$.
- Remark: In a "one-sided" version, e.g., for right differentiability, $S$ is a right neighborhood of $c$ and $A$ is required to be right continuous at $c$.


## Differentiability and Continuity

## Corollary

If $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $c$, then $f$ is continuous at $c$.

- We have a function $A$ continuous at $c$, such that

$$
f(x)=f(c)+A(x)(x-c), \text { for all } x \in S
$$

so $f$ is continuous at $c$.

- Example: The function $f: \mathbb{R}-\{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $f(x)=\frac{1}{x}$ is differentiable at every $c \in \mathbb{R}-\{0\}$, with $f^{\prime}(c)=-\frac{1}{c^{2}}$.
We can apply the last theorem to the identity

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

citing the continuity of the function $A(x)=-\frac{1}{c x}$ at $c$.

## Subsection 2

## Algebra of Derivatives

## Algebraic Laws of Derivatives

## Theorem (Laws of Differentiation)

Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, g: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $S$ is a neighborhood of $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

- If $f$ and $g$ are differentiable at $c$, then so are $f+g, a f, a \in \mathbb{R}$, and $f g$, and

$$
\begin{aligned}
(f+g)^{\prime}(c) & =f^{\prime}(c)+g^{\prime}(c) \\
(a f)^{\prime}(c) & =a f^{\prime}(c) \\
(f g)^{\prime}(c) & =f^{\prime}(c) g(c)+f(c) g^{\prime}(c)
\end{aligned}
$$

- If, moreover, $f(c) \neq 0$, then $\frac{1}{f}$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
\left(\frac{1}{f}\right)^{\prime}(c)=-\frac{f^{\prime}(c)}{f(c)^{2}}
$$

## Proof of the Sum Rule

- We know that there exist functions $A: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, B: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, continuous at $c$, such that

$$
f(x)-f(c)=A(x)(x-c) \quad \text { and } \quad g(x)-g(c)=B(x)(x-c)
$$

for all $x \in S$. The function $A+B: S \rightarrow R$ is also continuous at $c$ and, moreover, for all $x \in S$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
(f+g)(x)-(f+g)(c) & =[f(x)-f(c)]+[g(x)-g(c)] \\
& =A(x)(x-c)+B(x)(x-c) \\
& =(A+B)(x) \cdot(x-c) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $f+g$ is differentiable at $c$, with derivative

$$
(A+B)(c)=A(c)+B(c)=f^{\prime}(c)+g^{\prime}(c)
$$

- The proof for $a f, a \in \mathbb{R}$, is similar.


## Proof of the Product Rule

- For all $x \in S$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) g(x)-f(c) g(c) & =[f(x)-f(c)] g(x)+f(c)[g(x)-g(c)] \\
& =A(x)(x-c) g(x)+f(c) B(x)(x-c) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus,

$$
(f g)(x)-(f g)(c)=[A g+f(c) B](x) \cdot(x-c)
$$

where $A g+f(c) B$ is continuous at $c$. Therefore, $f g$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
(f g)^{\prime}(c) & =[A g+f(c) B](c) \\
& =A(c) g(c)+f(c) B(c) \\
& =f^{\prime}(c) g(c)+f(c) g^{\prime}(c)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Proof of the Reciprocal Rule

- Suppose, in addition, that $f(c) \neq 0$. Since $f$ is continuous at $c, \frac{1}{f}$ is defined on a neighborhood $T$ of $c$. For $x \in T$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{f(x)}-\frac{1}{f(c)} & =-\frac{1}{f(c) f(x)}[f(x)-f(c)] \\
& =-\frac{1}{f(c) f(x)}[A(x)(x-c)] \\
& =-\frac{A(x)}{f(c) f(x)}(x-c) .
\end{aligned}
$$

The function $B(x)=-\frac{A(x)}{f(c) f(x)}$ is continuous at $c$, whence $\frac{1}{f}$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
\left(\frac{1}{f}\right)^{\prime}(c)=B(c)=-\frac{f^{\prime}(c)}{f(c)^{2}}
$$

## Subsection 3

## Composition and the Chain Rule

## The Chain Rule

## Theorem (Chain Rule)

Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $S$ is a neighborhood of $c \in \mathbb{R}, g: T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $T$ is a neighborhood of $f(c)$ and suppose that $f(S) \subseteq T$, so that the composite function $g \circ f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined:

$$
\underset{c \in}{S} \xrightarrow[f]{f} T) \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R}
$$

If $f$ is differentiable at $c$, and $g$ is differentiable at $f(c)$, then $g \circ f$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
(g \circ f)^{\prime}(c)=g^{\prime}(f(c)) \cdot f^{\prime}(c)
$$

- Write $h=g \circ f$. There exists a function $A: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, continuous at $c$, such that $f(x)-f(c)=A(x)(x-c)$, for all $x \in S$. Similarly, there is a function $B: T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, continuous at $f(c)$, such that $g(y)-g(f(c))=B(y)(y-f(c))$, for all $y \in T$.


## The Chain Rule (Cont'd)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x)-f(c)=A(x)(x-c), \text { for all } x \in S \\
& g(y)-g(f(c))=B(y)(y-f(c)), \text { for all } y \in T
\end{aligned}
$$

If $x \in S$, then $f(x) \in T$. Putting $y=f(x)$, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
g(f(x))-g(f(c)) & =B(f(x))(f(x)-f(c)) \\
& =B(f(x)) A(x)(x-c) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $h(x)-h(c)=[(B \circ f) A](x) \cdot(x-c)$, for all $x \in S$. Since $(B \circ f) A$ is continuous at $c, h$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
\begin{aligned}
h^{\prime}(c) & =[(B \circ f) A](c) \\
& =(B \circ f)(c) \cdot A(c) \\
& =B(f(c)) \cdot A(c) \\
& =g^{\prime}(f(c)) \cdot f^{\prime}(c) .
\end{aligned}
$$

## A Remark on One-Sided Versions

- There are partial "one-sided" versions of the theorem:
E.g., assume $S$ is a right neighborhood of $c$ and $T$ is a neighborhood of $f(c)$. If $f$ is right differentiable at $c$, and $g$ is differentiable at $f(c)$, then $g \circ f$ is right differentiable at $c$ and

$$
(g \circ f)_{r}^{\prime}(c)=g^{\prime}(f(c)) \cdot f_{r}^{\prime}(c)
$$

As in the proof of the theorem, $A$ and $f$ are right continuous at $c$, so $(B \circ f) A$ is also right continuous at $c$.

## Subsection 4

## Local Max and Min

## Local Max and Min

## Definition (Local Max and Min)

Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $S$ is a neighborhood of $c \in \mathbb{R}$. We say that:

- $f$ has a local maximum at $c$ if there exists a neighborhood $V$ of $c$, with $V \subseteq S$, such that $f(x) \leq f(c)$, for all $x \in V$;
- $f$ has a local minimum at $c$ if there exists a neighborhood $V$ of $c$, with $V \subseteq S$, such that $f(x) \geq f(c)$, for all $x \in V$ (in other words, $-f$ has a local maximum at $c$ ).
- Remark: A function $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to have a maximum (or global maximum) at $c \in S$, if $f(x) \leq f(c)$, for all $x \in S$ (here $S$ need not be a neighborhood of $c$ ). If $f(x) \geq f(c)$, for all $x \in S$, then $f$ is said to have a minimum (or global minimum) at $c$.
- Example: Every continuous function defined on a closed interval has a maximum and a minimum.


## Signs of Right and Left Derivatives at Local Maxima

## Local Max and Derivatives

Suppose $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has a local maximum at $c$. Then
(i) $f$ right differentiable at $c \Rightarrow f_{r}^{\prime}(c) \leq 0$;
(ii) $f$ left differentiable at $c \Rightarrow f_{\ell}^{\prime}(c) \geq 0$.

- It is implicit that $S$ is a neighborhood of $c$ in $\mathbb{R}$. Shrinking $S$, if necessary, we can suppose that $f(x) \leq f(c)$, for all $x \in S$.
(i) Let $\left(x_{n}\right)$ be a sequence in $S$, with $x_{n}>c$ and $x_{n} \rightarrow c$. By assumption, $\frac{f\left(x_{n}\right)-f(c)}{x_{n}-c} \rightarrow f_{r}^{\prime}(c)$. But $f\left(x_{n}\right)-f(c) \leq 0$ and $x_{n}-c>0$, so the fraction is $\leq 0$, and, therefore, so is its limit.
(ii) Assuming $x_{n}<c$, the numerator in the above difference quotient is $\leq 0$ and the denominator is $<0$.


## Derivatives at Local Maxima

## Theorem

Let $f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $S$ is a neighborhood of $c \in \mathbb{R}$. If $f$ has a local maximum or a local minimum at $c$, and if $f$ is differentiable at $c$, then $f^{\prime}(c)=0$.

- If f has a local maximum at c then, by the lemma, $0 \leq f_{\ell}^{\prime}(c)=f^{\prime}(c)=f_{r}^{\prime}(c) \leq 0$, so $f^{\prime}(c)=0$.
If $f$ has a local minimum at $c$, apply the preceding argument to $-f$.


## Subsection 5

## Mean Value Theorem

## Rolle's Theorem

- We now focus on the interaction between a function and its derivative.


## Theorem (Rolle's Theorem)

If $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, $a<b, f$ is differentiable at every point of $(a, b)$, and $f(a)=f(b)$, then there exists a point $c \in(a, b)$, such that $f^{\prime}(c)=0$.

- The range of $f$ is a closed interval, say $f([a, b])=[m, M]$.
- If $m=M$ then $f$ is constant and $f^{\prime}(c)=0$, for all $c \in(a, b)$.
- Suppose $m<M$, say $m=f(c), M=f(d)$. Since $f(a)=f(b)$ and $f(c) \neq f(d)$, not both of $c$ and $d$ can be endpoints of $[a, b]$. Thus, at least one of them must be an internal point. If, for example, $d \in(a, b)$, then $f$ has a local maximum at $d$, so $f^{\prime}(d)=0$.


## The Mean Value Theorem

## Theorem. (Mean Value Theorem)

If $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, $a<b$, and $f$ is differentiable at every point of $(a, b)$, then there exists a point $c \in(a, b)$, such that

$$
f(b)-f(a)=f^{\prime}(c)(b-a) .
$$

- The theorem says there is an internal point at which the tangent line is parallel to the chord joining the endpoints:


Write $m=\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a}$ for the slope of the chord. Its equation is $y=f(a)+m(x-a)$. Define $F:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by "subtracting" the line from the graph of $f$, i.e., $F(x)=f(x)-[f(a)+m(x-a)]$. Then $F$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on $(a, b), F(a)=F(b)=0$. By Rolle's theorem, there is $c \in(a, b)$, such that $0=F^{\prime}(c)=f^{\prime}(c)-m$.

## Monotonicity and the Sign of the Derivative

## Corollary

For a continuous function $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ that is differentiable on $(a, b)$, the following conditions are equivalent:
(a) $f$ is increasing;
(b) $f^{\prime}(x) \geq 0$, for all $x \in(a, b)$.

- (a) $\Rightarrow$ (b): We consider $x_{n} \in(a, b)$, with $x_{n} \neq c$ and $x_{n} \rightarrow c$. Then $\frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c} \rightarrow f^{\prime}(c)$. But, $\frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c} \geq 0$, for all $x \neq c$, whence $f^{\prime}(c) \geq 0$.
- (b) $\Rightarrow(\mathrm{a})$ : Note that $f(a) \leq f(b)$ : in fact, by the MVT, there exists $c \in(a, b)$, such that $f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{b-a} \geq 0$, whence, since $b-a>0$, $f(b)-f(a) \geq 0$. More generally, if $a<x<y<b$, then $f(x) \leq f(y)$ (by applying the same argument to $f\left\lceil_{[x, y]}\right.$ ). Thus, $f$ is increasing.


## Constant Functions and The Derivative

## Corollary

If $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, differentiable on $(a, b)$, and $f^{\prime}(x)=0$, for all $x \in(a, b)$, then $f$ is a constant function.

- By the preceding corollary, $f$ is increasing. The hypotheses are also satisfied by $-f$, so $f$ is also decreasing. Hence $f$ is constant.

