

Real Functions of Real variable

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Concept of function

To specify a function f you must

- 1 Give a rule which tells you how to compute the value $f(x)$ of the function for a given real number x , and,
- 2 Say for which real numbers x the rule may be applied.

. The set of numbers for which a function is defined is called its **domain**. The set of all possible numbers $f(x)$ as x runs over the domain is called the **range or image** of the function.

Definition

A real function f is function from a subset D of $\mathbb{R}$ to $\mathbb{R}$

Example

Definition domain of the function $f : x \mapsto \frac{2}{\sqrt{2-x}}$, is $D =]-\infty, 2[$.

Remark

*The set $C = \{x \in \mathbb{D} : (x, f(x))\}$ is called the **graph** of the function f .*

In mathematics, an **elementary function** is a function of a single variable composed of particular simple functions

Example

Basic examples

- Polynomial functions :

$$x \mapsto a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n \quad a_i \in \mathbb{R}, i = 0, \dots, n$$

- Trigonometric functions : $x \mapsto \sin x, \cos x, \tan x, \cot x$.

- Exponential function $x \mapsto \exp x$, or e^x

- Logarithm function $x \mapsto \ln x$

- Inverse trigonometric functions :

$$x \mapsto \arcsin x, \arccos x, \arctan x, \operatorname{arccot} x.$$

- Hyperbolic functions :

$$x \mapsto \sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}, \quad x \mapsto \cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}, \text{ or}$$

$$x \mapsto Shx = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}, \quad x \mapsto Ch = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2},$$

- Inverse hyperbolic functions : $x \mapsto \operatorname{argsh} x, \operatorname{argch} x$

Definition

Let f and g two functions defined on $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$

- ① **The sum** : $f + g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$,
- ② **The product** : $f.g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $(f.g)(x) = f(x).g(x)$,
- ③ **The multiplies** : $\lambda.g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $(\lambda.f)(x) = \lambda.f(x)$,

Definition

Let $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ two functions. Then :

- $f \geq g$ if $\forall x \in D \quad f(x) \geq g(x)$;
- $f \geq 0$ if $\forall x \in D \quad f(x) \geq 0$;
- $f > 0$ if $\forall x \in D \quad f(x) > 0$;
- f constant on D if $\exists a \in \mathbb{R} / \forall x \in D : f(x) = a$;
- f is zero on D if $\forall x \in D : f(x) = 0$;

Definition

Let $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is function. We say that :

- f is bounded from above over D if $\exists M \in \mathbb{R} / \forall x \in D : f(x) \leq M$;
- f is bounded from below over D if $\exists m \in \mathbb{R} / \forall x \in D : f(x) \geq m$;
- f is bounded over D if $\exists M \in \mathbb{R} / \forall x \in D : |f(x)| \leq M$.

Definition

Let $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is function. We say that :

- f is **increasing** on D if $\forall x, y \in D, x \leq y \Rightarrow f(x) \leq f(y)$;
- f is **strictly increasing** on D if $\forall x, y \in D, x < y \Rightarrow f(x) < f(y)$;
- f is **decreasing** on D si $\forall x, y \in D, x \leq y \Rightarrow f(x) \geq f(y)$;
- f is **strictly decreasing** on D if $\forall x, y \in D, x < y \Rightarrow f(x) > f(y)$;
- f is **monotone** (resp. **strictly monotone**) on D if f is increasing or decreasing (resp. strictly increasing or strictly decreasing) on D .

For example the function $f : x \mapsto \sqrt{x}$ is increasing

$$\forall x_1, x_2 \in [0, +\infty[: x_1 \leq x_2 \Rightarrow \sqrt{x_1} \leq \sqrt{x_2}.$$

Remark

Let f function defined on I in the form $I = [-a, a]$ or $I =]-a, a[$

- f is even function if $\forall x \in I : f(-x) = f(x)$,
- f is odd function if $\forall x \in I : f(-x) = -f(x)$,

Example

f function defined on symmetric interval, such that $f = f_1 + f_2$

- Prove that the function $f_1(x) = \frac{f(x) + f(-x)}{2}$ is even.
- Prove that the function $f_2(x) = \frac{f(x) - f(-x)}{2}$ is odd.
- What can we conclude.

- 1 For two even functions, what can be said about the sum, the product and the compound (composed).
- 2 the same question if the two functions are odd.
- 3 Also if one is even and the second is odd.

Solution :

1.) Let f and g two even functions

$$(f+g)(-x) = f(-x) + g(-x) = f(x) + g(x) = (f+g)(x) \quad (f+g \text{ is even})$$

$$(f \cdot g)(-x) = f(-x) \cdot g(-x) = f(x) \cdot g(x) = (f \cdot g)(x) \quad (f \cdot g \text{ is even})$$

$$(f \circ g)(-x) = f(g(-x)) = f(g(x)) = (f \circ g)(x) \quad (f \circ g \text{ is even})$$

2.) Let f and g two odd functions

$$(f+g)(-x) = f(-x) + g(-x) = -f(x) - g(x) = -(f+g)(x) \quad (f+g \text{ is odd})$$

$$(f.g)(-x) = f(-x).g(-x) = -f(x).(-g(x)) = (f.g)(x) \quad (f.g \text{ is even})$$

$$(f \circ g)(-x) = f(g(-x)) = f(-g(x)) = (f \circ g)(x) \quad (-f \circ g \text{ is odd})$$

3.) We assume that f is even and g is odd

$$(f+g)(-x) = f(-x) + g(-x) = f(x) - g(x) = (f-g)(x) \quad (f+g \text{ ?})$$

$$(f.g)(-x) = f(-x).g(-x) = f(x).(-g(x)) = -(f.g)(x) \quad (f.g \text{ is odd})$$

$$(f \circ g)(-x) = f(g(-x)) = f(-g(x)) = (f \circ g)(x) \quad (f \circ g \text{ is even})$$

Definition

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function, and T is a real number, $T > 0$. The function f is called periodic if $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x + T) = f(x)$

The smallest such T (if it exists) is called the fundamental period of the function.

Example

- $\sin$ and $\cos$ are periodic functions of period 2π .
- $\tan$ and $\coth$ are periodic functions of period π .

Exercise : The function $f(x) = x - [x]$

$$f(x + 1) = x + 1 - [x + 1] = x + 1 - [x] - 1 = x - [x]$$

f is periodic function of period $T = 1$.

Exercise

Let f real function defined by :

$$f(x) = \ln(|\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x)|).$$

Find the domain of f ? the function f is even ? odd ? periodic ?

f defined if $|\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x)| \neq 0$

$$\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}x = k\pi \Leftrightarrow x = 2k, k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

◇ so f is defined for all real, unless the even integers. Hence $D = \mathbb{R} - \{2\mathbb{Z}\}$.

◇ We have $\forall x \in D, -x \in D$, so

$$f(-x) = \ln(|\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}(-x))|) = \ln(|\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x)|) = f(x)$$

then f is even.

◇ We have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x+2) &= \ln(|\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}(x+2))|) = \ln(|\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x + \pi)|) \\ &= \ln(|-\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x)|) = \ln(|\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}x)|) = f(x). \end{aligned}$$

f is periodic of period $T = 2$.

Limit

The notion of a limit is a fundamental concept of calculus. More particularly, limits allow us to look at what happens in a *very, very* small region around a point.

Example

Values of the real function f defined by $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$ may be computed near to $x_0 = 1$

x	0.9	0.99	0.999	$0.9999 \rightarrow$	$\leftarrow 1.0001$	1.001	1.01	1.1
$f(x)$	1.9	1.99	1.999	$1.99999 \rightarrow$	$\leftarrow 2.0001$	2.001	2.01	2.1

We deduce that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 2$.

Remark

*A small region around a point x_0 is called **neighbourhood**.*

Definition

For $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, an open interval as the form $]x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta[$ for some $\delta > 0$ is called neighbourhood

Definition

Let $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a real function. Let $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ is point of I
Let $l \in \mathbb{R}$. We say that f for a limit l at x_0 if

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \quad \exists \delta > 0, \quad \forall x \in I : |x - x_0| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - l| < \epsilon.$$

Or we can write

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \quad \exists \delta > 0, \quad \forall x \in I : x_0 - \delta < x < x_0 + \delta \Rightarrow l - \epsilon < f(x) < l + \epsilon.$$

it's also said that $f(x)$ tends to l as x tends to x_0 . We write :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = l.$$

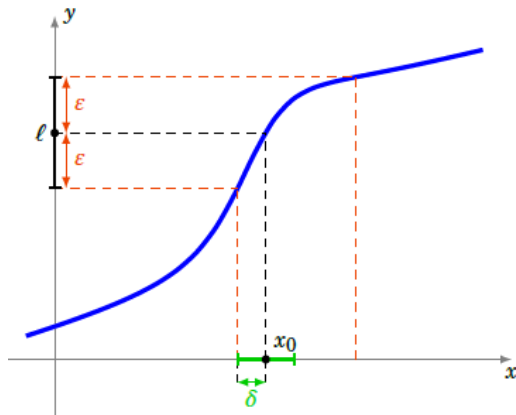


Figure 1 – Limit function

Example

Let f function defined on $\mathbb{R} - \{0\}$. We use the definition to limit prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x \sin \frac{1}{x}) = 0$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \quad \exists \delta > 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} - \{0\} : |x - 0| < \delta \Rightarrow |x \sin \frac{1}{x} - 0| < \epsilon.$$

$$|x \sin \frac{1}{x} - 0| < \epsilon \Rightarrow |x| |\sin \frac{1}{x}| < |x| \epsilon$$

It's enough to choose $\delta = \epsilon$.

Example

A same question from $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} (2x - 1) = 7$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \quad \exists \delta > 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} : |x - 4| < \delta \Rightarrow |2x - 1 - 7| < \epsilon.$$

$$|2x - 8| = 2|x - 4| < \epsilon \Rightarrow |x - 4| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

choose $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{2}$.

- We say that the function f defined in a neighborhood of x_0 (except perhaps of x_0) has an $+\infty$ or $-\infty$ limit at x_0 if

$$\forall A > 0, \exists \delta > 0, : |x - x_0| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) > A \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = +\infty$$

$$\forall A > 0, \exists \delta > 0, : |x - x_0| < \delta \Rightarrow f(x) < -A \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = -\infty$$

- If f is defined in a neighborhood of ∞ and f has a limit L

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists B > 0 : x > B \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = L$$

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists B > 0 : x < -B \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$$

- That the function f has limit ∞ when $x \rightarrow \infty$

$$\forall A > 0, \exists B > 0, : x > B \Rightarrow f(x) > A \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = +\infty$$

$$\forall A > 0, \exists B > 0, : x < -B \Rightarrow f(x) < -A \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty$$

$$\forall A > 0, \exists B > 0, : x > B \Rightarrow f(x) < -A \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = -\infty$$

$$\forall A > 0, \exists B > 0, : x < -B \Rightarrow f(x) > A \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = +\infty$$

Operations on the limit

f	g	$f + g$	$f \cdot g$	$\frac{f}{g}$
l	l'	$l + l'$	$l \cdot l'$	$\frac{l}{l'} (l' \neq 0)$
l	∞	∞	$\infty (l \neq 0)$	0
∞	l'	∞	$\infty (l' \neq 0)$	∞
0	0	0	0	$?$
0	∞	∞	$?$	0
∞	0	∞	$?$	0
$+\infty$	$+\infty$	$+\infty$	$+\infty$	$?$
$-\infty$	$-\infty$	$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$?$
$+\infty$	$-\infty$	$?$	$-\infty$	$?$
$-\infty$	$+\infty$	$?$	$-\infty$	$?$

In the cases indicated by the question marks, there is indeterminacy.

- If there is some neighbourhood of a

$$f(x) \leq g(x),$$

and the limits of f and g exist at a , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x).$$

- If the limits of f and g exist at a , and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) < \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x),$$

then in some neighbourhood of a

$$f(x) < g(x).$$

Theorem

(*Squeeze theorem*) If in some neighborhood of a $f(x) < g(x) < h(x)$, and the limits of f and h exist at a , and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x),$$

then the limit of g also exists at a , and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x)$$

Theorem

(*0 times bounded is 0.*) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$, and $g(x)$ is bounded, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) = 0.$$

1.) Find the limit, when $x \rightarrow 1$, of the function

$$f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 1} + \sqrt{x} - 1}{\sqrt{x - 1}}$$

On the domain $]1, +\infty[$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \left(\sqrt{x + 1} + \frac{\sqrt{x} - 1}{\sqrt{x - 1}} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \left(\sqrt{x + 1} + \frac{\sqrt{x - 1}}{\sqrt{x + 1}} \right) = \sqrt{2}$$

2.) Find the limit, when $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$, of the function

$$f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 1} - x + 2}{x + 3}$$

Exercise

- For $x > 0$, we can write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \left(\frac{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} - 1 + \frac{2}{x}}{1 + \frac{3}{x}} \right) = 0$$

- For $x < 0$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \left(\frac{-\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} - 1 + \frac{2}{x}}{1 + \frac{3}{x}} \right) = -2$$

3.) The function f defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{\sqrt{x^2}}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 1 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

does it have a limit as x tends towards zero.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (f(x)) = 1, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (f(x)) = -1 \quad \text{Does not limit.}$$

Let the function f defined by $f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{1+x} - (1+ax)}{x^2}$

- Find the finite limit b when x tend to zero.
- Deduce that there exist a function ϵ such that

$$\sqrt{1+x} = 1 + \frac{x}{2} - \frac{x^2}{8} + x^2\epsilon(x) \quad \text{with} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\epsilon(x)) = 0.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \circ f(x) &= \frac{[\sqrt{1+x} - (1+ax)][\sqrt{1+x} + (1+ax)]}{x^2[\sqrt{1+x} + (1+ax)]} = \frac{(1+x) - (1+ax)^2}{x^2[\sqrt{1+x} + (1+ax)]} \\ &= \frac{-a^2x^2 + (1-2a)x}{x^2[\sqrt{1+x} + (1+ax)]} = \frac{-a^2}{\sqrt{1+x} + (1+ax)} + \frac{1-2a}{x(\sqrt{1+x} + (1+ax))} \end{aligned}$$

In this latter form, it immediately appears that f does not finite limit b , when x tends to zero if we have $1-2a=0$ then $a=\frac{1}{2}$ end in this cases

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = b = -\frac{a^2}{2} = -\frac{1}{8}.$$

◦ Find the ϵ function

We deduce about the precedent compute that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{1+x} - (1 + \frac{x}{2})}{x^2} = -\frac{1}{8}$$

The function ϵ defined by

$$\epsilon(x) = \frac{\sqrt{1+x} - (1 + \frac{x}{2})}{x^2} + \frac{1}{8},$$

such that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0}(\epsilon(x)) = 0$ then

$$\sqrt{1+x} = 1 + \frac{x}{2} - \frac{x^2}{8} + x^2\epsilon(x).$$

Definition

The function f is **continuous** at a if and only if there exists the limit of the function at a and the limit is $f(a)$. Or

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$$

In logical symbolism,

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \forall x \in D_f : |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon.$$

For example.

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{4}$ by definition we can choose $\delta = 20\epsilon$ so that f continuous at 4.

◦ f is continuous on D_f , if its continuous at every point in D_f .

◦ If f is *not continuous* at a we say that f is *discontinuous* at a or that a is a point of discontinuity of f .

Remark

- *Polynomials* function is continuous on $\mathbb{R}$
 - *Constant* function is continuous on the interval.
 - Functions *cos, sin* are continuous on $\mathbb{R}$
 - *ln* is continuous on $]0, +\infty[$
 - *Exponential* function is continuous on $\mathbb{R}$
-
- The *integer part* function is not continuous at every point $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ because does not limit at these points.
 - But is $a \in \mathbb{R}/\mathbb{Z}$ is continuous at a .

Corollary

- A function f is continuous from right at a if and only if there exists its **right-hand side limit** at a and it is $f(a)$.
- A function f is continuous from left at a if and only if there exists its **left-hand side limit** at a and it is $f(a)$.

For example : **signum** function is not continuous at 0

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \operatorname{sgn}(x) = 1, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \operatorname{sgn}(x) = -1.$$

Example

The function f defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + \frac{\sqrt{x^2}}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 1 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Study the continuity of f at zero.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (f(x)) = 1 = f(0),$$

f is continuous in the right.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (f(x)) = -1 \neq f(0).$$

f is not continuous in the left.

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (f(x)) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (f(x)).$$

f is not continuous at 0.

Continuous

Definition

A function f is **uniformly continuous** on a set D if for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$, such that $|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| < \epsilon$ for all $x_1, x_2 \in D_f$, and $|x_1 - x_2| < \delta$.

More briefly

$$\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0, \forall x_1, x_2 \in D_f : |x_1 - x_2| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x_1) - f(x_2)| < \epsilon$$

Example

$f : x \mapsto x^2$ uniformly continuous on $[0, 1]$.

In fact

$$|x_1^2 - x_2^2| = |x_1 + x_2||x_1 - x_2| \Rightarrow |x_1 - x_2| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \text{choosing : } \delta = \frac{\epsilon}{2}. \text{ fU.C}$$

Extension by continuity

Let f is function defined as follow $D - x_0 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

We say that f is **continuity by extension**, if there exist g defined by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \neq x_0, \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = l & \text{if } x = x_0. \end{cases}$$

Then g is continuous at x_0 .

Example

Find the constant k such that the function defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 3x + 2 & \text{if } x < 2 \\ x^2 + k & \text{if } x \geq 2. \end{cases}$$

is continuous

Theorem

Weierstrass theorem : If a function is continuous in a *bounded and closed interval*, then the function has *maximum and minimum* value.

Theorem

Intermediate value theorem : If the function $f(x)$ is continuous in the bounded and closed $[a, b]$ interval, then every value y between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ is attained c in $[a, b]$, such that $y = f(c)$

In logical symbolism this theorem has the following expression :

$$f \in \mathcal{C}([a, b]), \text{ and } f(a).f(b) < 0 \Rightarrow \exists c \in]a, b[, \text{ such that } f(c) = 0.$$

Example

Let $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$ continuous function. Prove that f has at least fixed point.

Example :Intermediate Value Theorem

Put for example $g(x) = f(x) - x$

g is continuous because the difference of two continuous functions ($x \mapsto x$, and f). Also

$$g(0) = f(0) - 0 = f(0) > 0, \quad g(1) = f(1) - 1 < 0$$

then $g(0).g(1) < 0$, according to the I.V.T there exist $c \in]0, 1[$ such that

$$g(c) = 0 \Rightarrow f(c) - c = 0 \Rightarrow f(c) = c.$$

Therefore f has a fixed point.

Exercise

f continuous function on $[a, b]$ such that $f(a) < 0$. Show that there exist $c \in]a, b[$ so that

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

we can choose

$$g(x) = (b - x)f(x) - (a - x)$$

g is continuous because product $(x \mapsto (b - x)f(x))$ and difference $(x \mapsto a - x)$ continuous functions, also

$$g(a) = (b - a)f(a) < 0$$

$$g(b) = (b - b)f(b) - (a - b) = b - a > 0.$$

according to the M.V.T there exist $c \in]a, b[$ such that

$$g(c) = 0 \Leftrightarrow (b - c)f(c) - (a - c) = 0 \Leftrightarrow f(c) = \frac{a - c}{b - c}$$

Definition

Let f be a function which is defined on some interval I and a be some number in the interval. The derivative of the function f at a is the value of the limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = f'(a)$$

- f is said to be **differentiable at a** if this limit exists.
- f is called **differentiable on the interval I** , if it is differentiable at every point a in I

Other notation : one can substitute $x - a = h$ then

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h} = f'(a)$$

- For example, we want to compute the derivative function of the function f defined by $f(x) = x^2$ at any point $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x_0 + h)^2 - x_0^2}{h} = 2x_0$$

Then the derivative function is $f'(x) = 2x$

- For $f(x) = \cos x$ the derivative function is

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(x_0 + h) - \cos(x_0)}{h} \\ \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2 \sin\left(\frac{x_0 + h + x_0}{2}\right) \cdot \sin\left(\frac{x_0 + h - x_0}{2}\right)}{h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-\sin\left(\frac{2x_0 + h}{2}\right) \cdot \sin\left(\frac{h}{2}\right)}{\frac{h}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

Then the derivative function is $\cos'(x) = -\sin(x)$

The function f has a tangent line at point a if and only if f is differentiable at a . The equation of the tangent line is

$$y = f'(a)(x - a) + f(a)$$

- If f is differentiable at a , then the function is continuous at a .

The converse of the theorem is not true

For example, $f(x) = |x|$ is continuous at 0, but not differentiable at 0.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{x - 0}{x} = 1 = f'_>(0) \neq f'_<(0) = -1.$$

Then f is not differentiable at 0.

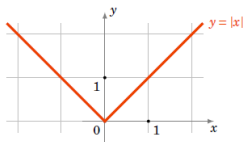


Figure 2 – Absolute value function

Remark

- If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = f'(a)$ exists, this limit is the right derivative of f and equal $f'_>(a)$.
- If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = f'(a)$ exists, this limit is the left derivative of f and equal $f'_<(a)$.
- We say that f is derivative at a if

$$f'_>(a) = f'_<(a).$$

Exercise

Let f function differentiable at a

① Prove that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{xf(a) - af(x)}{x - a} = f(a) - af'(a).$$

② Application. Compute

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{x \cos(a) - a \cos(x)}{x - a}$$

Solution :

$$1) \quad xf(a) - af(x) = xf(a) - af(x) + af(a) - af(a) = f(a)(x - a) - a(f(x) - f(a))$$

$$\frac{xf(a) - af(x)}{x - a} = \frac{f(a)(x - a) - a(f(x) - f(a))}{x - a} = f(a) - a \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

then by passing of limit, we obtain

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{xf(a) - af(x)}{x - a} = f(a) - a \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = f(a) - af'(a)$$

2) Put $f(x) \cos x$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{x \cos(a) - a \cos(x)}{x - a} = \cos(a) + a \sin(a)$$

Differentiability : Derivative rules.

If f and g are differentiable at a , then

- for any $c \in \mathbb{R}$ f is differentiable at a , and

$$(c.f)'(a) = cf'(a)$$

- $f + g$ is differentiable at a , and

$$(f + g)'(a) = f'(a) + g'(a).$$

- $f.g$ is differentiable at a , and

$$(f.g)'(a) = f'(a).g(a) + f(a).g'(a)$$

- If $g(a) \neq 0$, then $\frac{f}{g}$ differentiable at a and

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)' = \frac{f'(a).g(a) - f(a).g'(a)}{g^2(x)}$$

Definition

Chain rule. If g is differentiable at a , and f is differentiable at $g(a)$, then $f \circ g$ is differentiable at a , and $(f \circ g)'(a) = g'(a)f'(g(a))$.

For example $g \circ f(x) = \ln(1 + x^2)$

$$(g \circ f)'(x) = (\ln(1 + x^2))' = (1 + x^2)' \ln'(1 + x^2) = 2x \cdot \left(\frac{1}{1 + x^2} \right) = \frac{2x}{1 + x^2}.$$

Definition

Derivative of the inverse function. If f is continuous and has an inverse in a neighborhood of the point a , and it is differentiable at a , then f^{-1} is differentiable at $f(a)$, and $(f^{-1})'(f(a)) = \frac{1}{f'(a)}$, such that $f'(a) \neq 0$.

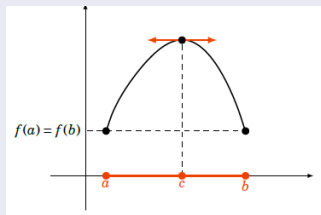
Derivative of usual functions

Function	Derivative	Function $u(x)$	Derivative
x^n	$nx^{n-1} \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$	u^n	$nu'u^{n-1} \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}$
$\frac{1}{x}$	$-\frac{1}{x^2}$	$\frac{1}{u}$	$-\frac{u'}{u^2}$
$\sqrt{x}$	$\frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$	$\sqrt{u}$	$\frac{u'}{2\sqrt{u}}$
x^α	$\alpha x^{\alpha-1} \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$	u^α	$\alpha u' u^{\alpha-1} \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$
e^x	e^x	e^u	$u' e^u$
$\ln x$	$\frac{1}{x}$	$\ln u$	$-\frac{u'}{u}$
$\cos x$	$-\sin x$	$\cos u$	$-u' \sin u$
$\sin x$	$\cos x$	$\sin u$	$u' \cos u$
$\tan x$	$\frac{1}{\cos^2 x} = 1 + \tan^2 x$	$\tan u$	$\frac{u'}{\cos^2 u} = u'(1 + \tan^2 u)$

Roll's theorem

Theorem

Rolle's theorem. If f is *continuous* on a closed interval $[a, b]$, and differentiable on the open interval $]a, b[$, and $f(a) = f(b)$, then there exists $c \in]a, b[$ such that $f'(c) = 0$.



For example the function $\sin$ is continuous on $[0, \pi]$, differentiable on $]0, \pi[$, and $\sin(0) = \sin(\pi)$ then according to the Rolle's theorem there exist $c \in]0, \pi[$, such that

$$\sin' c = 0 \Leftrightarrow \cos c = 0 \Leftrightarrow c = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

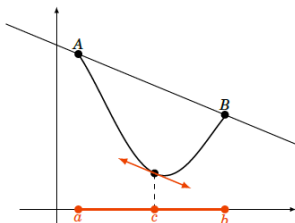
Mean value theorem

Theorem

Mean value theorem. If f is *continuous* on the closed interval $[a, b]$, and *differentiable* on the open interval $]a, b[$, then there exists a $c \in]a, b[$ such that

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

Therefore, for any function that is continuous on $[a, b]$, and differentiable on $]a, b[$, there exists $c \in]a, b[$ such that the secant joining the endpoints of the interval $[a, b]$ is parallel to the tangent at c .



proof.

Let g function defined by

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

is continuous on $[a, b]$ because it's sum and product continuous functions

$x \mapsto f(x)$ by data, $x \mapsto \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$, constant function and $x \mapsto x - a$.

Also

$$g(a) = f(a), \quad g(b) = f(a),$$

so $g(a) = g(b)$. According to the Rolle's theorem there exist $c \in]a, b[$ such that $g'(c) = 0$.

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

$$g'(c) = f'(c) - \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = 0 \Rightarrow f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

Relation between derivative and monotonic function

Corollary

Let f be continuous on $[a; b]$, and differentiable on $]a, b[$.

- f is *monotonically increasing* on $[a, b]$ if and only if for all $x \in]a, b[$, $f'(x) \geq 0$.
- If for all $x \in]a, b[$, $f'(x) > 0$ then $f(x)$ is *strictly monotonically increasing* on $[a, b]$.
- $f(x)$ is *monotonically decreasing* on $[a, b]$ if and only if for all $x \in]a, b[$, $f'(x) \leq 0$.
- If for all $x \in]a, b[$, $f'(x) < 0$ then $f(x)$ is *strictly monotonically decreasing* on $[a, b]$.

For example if $f'(x) \geq 0$, we assume that $x, y \in]a, b[$ so that $x < y$ according to the M.V.T

$$f(y) - f(x) = f'(c)(y - x) \geq 0 \Rightarrow f(x) \leq f(y).$$

Then f is increasing.

Example

Use the Main Value Theorem, prove that for all $x > -1$,

$$\frac{x}{1+x} < \ln(1+x) < x$$

Let $] -1, +\infty[=] -1, 0] \cup [0, +\infty[$ and the function

$$f : x \mapsto f(x) = \ln(1+x)$$

- Using the M.V.T on $] -1, 0]$ we applied the M.V.T on $]x, 0]$ so

$$f(0) - f(x) = f'(c)(0 - x) \Rightarrow \ln(1+x) = \frac{x}{1+c}$$

$$x < c < 0 \Rightarrow 1+x < c+1 < 1 \Rightarrow 1 < \frac{1}{1+c} < \frac{1}{1+x}$$

$$\text{then } \frac{x}{1+x} < \frac{x}{1+c} < x \Rightarrow \frac{x}{1+x} < \ln(1+x) < x.$$

Corollary

Let f function differentiable on open interval I , if there exist $M > 0$ such that $|f'(x)| \leq M$ then for all x, y in I

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq M|x - y|$$

Example

For example the sin function, we have $|\sin'(x)| = |\cos(x)| \leq 1$, then

$$|\sin x - \sin y| \leq 1 \cdot |x - y|$$

- On $[0, +\infty[$ for $x > 0$ we applied the M.V.T on $[0, x[$

$$f(x) - f(0) = f'(c)(x - 0) \Rightarrow \ln x = \frac{x}{1+c}$$

Otherwise

$$0 < c < x \Rightarrow 1 < c + 1 < 1 + x \Rightarrow \frac{1}{1+x} < \frac{1}{1+c} < 1$$

$$\text{then } \frac{x}{1+x} < \frac{x}{1+c} < x \Rightarrow \frac{x}{1+x} < \ln(1+x) < x.$$

L'Hospital's rule

Theorem

Let's assume that f and g are differentiable in a punctured neighborhood of a , f and g have limits at a , and either both limits are 0 or both limits are ∞ , that is the limit of the quotient of the two function is critical. In this case if there exists the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$, then also exists the limit

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$, and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

This theorem is also valid for one-sided limits or limits at infinity or minus infinity.

Application : L'Hospital's rule

Exercise 1 : Calculate the limits (Applying L'Hospital's theorem)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(1+x) - x}{x^2}, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{x^2} - \cos x}{x^2}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(1+x) - x}{x^2} = \frac{0}{0}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\ln(1+x) - x)'}{(x^2)'} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{1+x} - 1}{2x} = \frac{0}{0}.$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\frac{1}{1+x} - 1)'}{(2x)'} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{-1}{(1+x)^2}}{2} = \frac{-1}{2}.$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{x^2} - \cos x}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2xe^{x^2} + \sin x}{2x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(2 + 4x^2)e^{x^2} + \cos x}{2} = \frac{3}{2}$$

Exercise 2 : Let f numerical function defined as follow

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\ln(2 - e^x)}{x}, & x < 0 \\ -1 - x, & x \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

- Study the continuity of f on $\mathbb{R}$.
- Study the differentiability of f on $\mathbb{R}$.
- f' is continuous on $\mathbb{R}$? (i.e $f \in \mathcal{C}^1(\mathbb{R})$)

Solution

For $x < 0$ we have $e^x < 1$, hence $2 - e^x > 1 > 0$, so $\ln(2 - e^x)$ is defined. Thus f is defined on all $\mathbb{R}$.

- **Continuity**

On $] - \infty, 0[$ and on $]0, \infty + [$ each branch is continuous. It remains to check continuity at $x = 0$.

Consider the left-hand limit :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\ln(2 - e^x)}{x} = \frac{0}{0}.$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\ln(2 - e^x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{(\ln(2 - e^x))'}{(x)'} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{-e^x}{2 - e^x} = -1.$$

The right-hand limit is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (-1 - x) = -1,$$

and $f(0) = -1$. Hence f is continuous at 0, and therefore continuous on $\mathbb{R}$.

- Differentiability
- On the intervals $] - \infty, 0[$ and $]0, \infty[$.
 - For $x < 0$ the numerator and denominator are differentiable and $x \neq 0$, so by the quotient rule

$$f'(x) = \frac{x \cdot (\ln(2 - e^x))' - \ln(2 - e^x)}{x^2} = \frac{x \left(-\frac{e^x}{2 - e^x} \right) - \ln(2 - e^x)}{x^2}, \quad x < 0.$$

- For $x > 0$ we have $f(x) = -1 - x$, hence $f'(x) = -1$ for $x > 0$.
- At $x = 0$.

Compute the right derivative :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{(-1 - x) - (-1)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{-x}{x} = -1.$$

Solution

For the left derivative consider

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\frac{\ln(2 - e^x)}{x} + 1}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\ln(2 - e^x) + x}{x^2}.$$

The numerator and denominator both tend to 0, so apply L'Hôpital's theorem :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{(\ln(2 - e^x) + x)'}{(x^2)'} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\frac{-e^x}{2 - e^x} + 1}{2x}.$$

This new quotient is again of type 0/0, so apply L'Hôpital once more :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\frac{-e^x}{2 - e^x} + 1}{2x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}\left(-\frac{e^x}{2 - e^x}\right)}{2}.$$

Therefore

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\ln(2 - e^x) + x}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{-2e^x}{2(2 - e^x)^2} = -1.$$

Solution

So the left derivative at 0 equals -1 . Since both one-sided derivatives equal -1 , f is differentiable at 0 and $f'(0) = -1$.

Thus

$$f'(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x(-\frac{e^x}{2-e^x}) - \ln(2-e^x)}{x^2}, & x < 0, \\ -1, & x \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

* Continuity of f'

Each branch of f' is continuous on its interval. We only check continuity at 0.

We already have $f'(0) = -1$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f'(x) = -1$. For the left-hand limit consider

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f'(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{x(-\frac{e^x}{2-e^x}) - \ln(2-e^x)}{x^2}.$$

Definition

Let f be a differentiable function, and let f' be its derivative. The derivative of f' (if it has one) is written f'' and is called **the second derivative** of f . Similarly, the derivative of the second derivative, if it exists, is written f''' and is called **the third derivative** of f . Continuing this process, one can define, if it exists, **the n -th derivative** as the derivative of the $(n-1)$ -th derivative. These repeated derivatives are called **higher-order derivatives**. The n -th derivative is also called the **derivative of order n** (or n -th-order derivative : first, second, third-order derivative, ...) and denoted $f^{(n)}$.

Example

The higher derivatives of the function $f : x \mapsto f(x) = \ln(1 + x)$ are :

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}, \quad f''(x) = -\frac{1}{(1+x)^2}, \quad f^{(3)}(x) = -\frac{1.2}{(1+x)^3},$$

$$f^{(4)}(x) = -\frac{-2.3}{(1+x)^4} \dots, f^{(n)}(x) = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}(n-1)!}{(1+x)^n}$$

By induction demonstrate we prove that $f^{(n+1)}(x) = \frac{(-1)^{n+2}n!}{(1+x)^{n+1}}$ We have

$$f^{(n+1)}(x) = (f^n)' = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}(-1)(n-1)!n(1+x)^{n-1}}{((1+x)^n)^2}$$

$$= \boxed{\frac{(-1)^{n+2}n!}{(1+x)^{n+1}}}$$

Leibniz's rule

Generalizes the product rule (which is also known as **Leibniz's rule**). If f and g are n -times differentiable functions, then the product $f.g$ is also n -times differentiable and its n -th derivative given by

$$(f.g)^n = f^{(n)}.g + C_n^1 f^{(n-1)}g^{(1)} + \dots + C_n^k f^{(n-k)}g^{(k)} + \dots + f.g^{(n)}$$
$$= \sum_{k=0}^{k=n} C_n^k f^{(n-k)}g^{(k)}$$

Example

Using Leibnitz formula ; calculate the derivative 7 – *th* of the function $h(x) = x^3 . \ln x$

End of Chapter : Real Functions Of Real variable