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# A Chain Rule Involving Vector Functions of Bounded Variation 

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#### Abstract

By $f \in \operatorname{lbv}(I, X)$, we mean that $f$ is a function of a real interval $I$ to a Banach space $X$, with bounded variation on every compact subinterval of $I$; to such $f$, an $X$-valued measure $d f$, called its differential measure, classically corresponds. Let $\Omega$ be an open convex subset of $X$ and $\gamma: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Two situations are investigated where the function $\gamma \quad f: t \rightarrow \gamma(f(t))$ belongs to $\operatorname{lbv}(I, \mathbb{P})$ and some properties of the real measure $d(\gamma \subset f)$ are established. In the first case, $; ;$ is supposed convex and continuous in $\Omega$. The subdifferential $\delta_{\gamma} \gamma$ is invoked in the sense of Convex Analysis; under the ordering of real measures, $d(\gamma \cdot f)$ is shown to satisfy some inequalities. This generalizes previous results of one of the authors, aimed at deriving energy-like inequalities in nonsmooth mechanical evolution problems. In the second case, $\ddot{\%}$ is supposed Lipschitz on every bounded subset of $\Omega$ and Clarke's generalized gradient of $\gamma$ is used. In both situations, if $\gamma$ happens to be Gâteaux-differentiable, and $f \in \operatorname{lbv}(I, X)$ continuous, a chain rule of the familiar form is found to hold. Finally, for $\gamma$ Fréchet-differentiable, an expression of $d(\gamma / f)$ is obtained. © 1987 Academic Press. Inc


## 1. Introduction

Let $I$ denote a real interval and $X$ a real Banach space. By $f \in \operatorname{lbv}(I, X)$ we shall mean that $f$ is a function of $I$ to $X$ with locally bounded variation, i.e., it has a bounded variation on every compact subinterval of $I$. Classically, with every such function $f$ is associated an $X$-valued measure on $I$, denoted in the sequel by aff and commonly called the differential measure (or Stieltjes measure) of $f$. Precisely, $d f$ is a $\sigma$-additive $X$-valued set function, defined on the class of the relatively compact Borel subsets of $I$, with finite variation. Conversely, every $X$-valued set function meeting these requirements equals the differential measure of some "cumulative distribution function." (See e.g. [20], [21].)

For the sake of consistency, all the measures considered in this article will similarly be denoted with a $d$, however archaic this may look.

In usual situations, there exists (non uniquely) a nonnegative real
measure $d \mu$ on $I$ and an element $f_{\mu}^{\prime}$ of $L_{\text {ioc }}^{1}(I, d \mu ; X)$ such that $d f=f_{\mu}^{\prime} d \mu$. This certainly holds if the Banach space $X$ is reflexive (more generally, $X$ may be specified as possessing the "Radon-Nikodym property"; cf. [1, Chap. III, Sect. 1]; in particular, one may take $d \mu=|d f|$, the "absolute value" or "variation measure" of the vector measure $d f$.
The primary object of this article is to extend, in two different ways, the following results previously established by one of the authors [2], with a view to derive energy-like inequalities in some mechanical evolution problems [3]: these concerned the special case where $X$ equals a real Hilbert space $H$, with norm denoted by $\|\cdot\|$. For every $f \in \operatorname{lbv}(I, H)$, the real function $t \rightarrow\|f(t)\|^{2}$ belongs to $\operatorname{lbv}(I, \mathbb{R})$; it has been found that its differential measure is expressed by

$$
\begin{equation*}
d\left(\|f\|^{2}\right)=\left(f^{+}+f^{-}\right) \cdot d f . \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The dot in the right-hand side refers to the scalar product in $H$; this righthand side is naturally understood as a real measure, since the functions $t \rightarrow f^{+}(t)$ and $t \rightarrow f^{-}(t)$, the right-limit and left-limit of $f$ at every point, as elements of $\operatorname{lbv}(I, H)$, are universally locally integrable; more concretely, a representation $d f=f_{\mu}^{\prime} d \mu$ as above may be used in order to calculate this right-hand side. Furthermore, the following inequalities hold in the sense of the ordering of real measures

$$
\begin{equation*}
2 f^{-} \cdot d f \leqslant d\left(\|f\|^{2}\right) \leqslant 2 f^{+} \cdot d f . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the special case $H=\mathbb{R}$, equality (1.1) was stated by Daniell [4] as early as 1918.

For the generalizations in view, the squared norm in $H$ is replaced by some function $\gamma$ from an open subset of $X$ to $\mathbb{R}$, which shall be supposed either convex and continuous or Lipschitz.

Concerning the notations $f^{+}$and $f^{-}$for the respective right and left limits in the case of a possible endpoint of $I$, let us agree on the following: if $I$ includes its possible left end, say $t_{1}$, then by convention $f^{-}\left(t_{1}\right)=f\left(t_{1}\right)$; symmetrically, if $I$ includes its possible right end, say $t_{\mathrm{r}}$, then $f^{+}\left(t_{\mathrm{r}}\right)=f\left(t_{\mathrm{r}}\right)$. These conventions secure that, generally, for every $[a, b] \subset I, d f([a, b])=$ $f^{+}(b)-f^{-}(a)$.

## 2. Statement of Results

In Convex Analysis $\partial \gamma(x)$ denotes the subdifferential of $\gamma$ at the point $x$, i.e., the subset of the dual space $X^{\prime}$ of $X$ consisting of the elements $x^{\prime}$ such that the affine function $u \rightarrow\left\langle u-x, x^{\prime}\right\rangle+\gamma(x)$ minorizes $\gamma$. In the case where $\gamma$ is convex and Gateaux-differentiable at the point $x$, this trivially reduces to the single element $\nabla \gamma(x)$, the gradient of $\gamma$ at this point.

Theorem 1. Let $f \in \operatorname{lbv}(I, X)$ with differential measure $d f=f_{\mu}^{\prime} d \mu$; here $d \mu$ is a nonnegative real measure on $I$ and $f_{\mu}^{\prime} \in L_{\mathrm{loc}}^{1}(I, d \mu ; X)$. Let $\Omega$ be an open convex subset of $X$ and $\gamma: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and convex. Assume that, for every compact subinterval $[a, b]$ of $I$, the closure of $f([a, b])$ is contained in $\Omega$.

Then $\gamma f: t \rightarrow \gamma(f(t))$ belongs to $\operatorname{lbv}(I, \mathbb{R})$ and its differential measure possesses, relative to $d \mu$, a density $(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime} \in L_{\text {loc }}^{1}(I, d \mu ; \mathbb{R})$.

The real functions

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\varphi_{*}: & t \rightarrow \sup \left\{\left\langle g, f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle: g \in \partial \gamma\left(f^{--}(t)\right)\right\} \\
\varphi^{*}: & t \rightarrow \inf \left\{\left\langle g, f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle: g \in \partial \gamma\left(f^{+}(t)\right)\right\}
\end{array}
$$

belong to $L_{\text {loc }}^{1}(I, d \mu ; \mathbb{R})$ and the inequalities

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi_{*} \leqslant(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime} \leqslant \varphi^{*} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

hold d $\mu$-a.e. in I.
In the set $I_{4}=\{t \in I: d f(\{t\})=0\}$, equality $\varphi_{*}=\varphi^{*}$ holds $d \mu$-a.e. (in other words, $d \mu$-a.e. in this set the subdifferential $\boldsymbol{\partial} \gamma\left(f^{+}(t)\right)$, equivalently $\dot{\partial} \gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)$, is contained in an affine hyperplane of $X^{\prime}$, orthogonal to $\left.f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right)$.

Comments on the Gâteaux-Differentiability of Convex Functions. If $\gamma$ is Gâteaux-differentiable at every point of $\Omega$, then convexity ensures the continuity of this function (in fact $\gamma$ equals, in that case, the supremum of a collection of continuous affine functions; hence it is l.s.c. and therefore continuous throughout the open convex set $\Omega$, because $X$ is a barelled space [5]).

The following implications are also useful; if $\gamma: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex and continuous, then at every point $x \in \Omega$, the subdifferential $\partial \gamma(x)$ is nonempty; $\gamma$ is Gâteaux-differentiable at $x$ if and only if $\partial \gamma(x)$ reduces to a singleton; a sufficient condition for that is the strict convexity of the conjugate function $\gamma^{*}$ of $X^{\prime}$ to $\left.]-\infty,+\infty\right]$.

When Theorem 1 is specialized to the case of a convex Gâteaux-differentiable function $\gamma$, with gradient at a point $x$ denoted by $\nabla \gamma(x)$, it yields that a chain rule of the familiar form

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime}=\left\langle\nabla \gamma(f), f_{\mu}^{\prime}\right\rangle \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds $d \mu$-a.e. in $I_{c}$ (and, a fortiori, in the set of the continuity points of $f$ ); generally, $d \mu$-a.e. in $I$, one has

$$
\left\langle\nabla \gamma\left(f^{-}\right), f_{\mu}^{\prime}\right\rangle \leqslant(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime} \leqslant\left\langle\nabla \gamma\left(f^{+}\right), f_{\mu}^{\prime}\right\rangle
$$

inequalities which extend (1.2).

Brezis [6, lemme 3.3 p .73 ] has obtained an equality of the same sort as (2.2) by assuming $f \in W_{\text {loc }}^{1,2}(I, H)$ ( $H$ is a Hilbert space), but requiring only of $\gamma$ to be convex and l.s.c. from $H$ to $]-\infty,+\infty]$ : if there exists $g \in L_{\text {loc }}^{2}(I, H)$ such that $g(t) \in \partial \gamma(f(t))$ holds Lebesgue-a.e. then, with $d \mu$ equal to the Lebesgue measure of $I$, he proves that $\gamma \circ f$ is locally absolutely continuous and that, for almost every $t$,

$$
\forall h \in \partial \gamma(f(t)):(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)=\left\langle h, f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle
$$

For the second type of results of this paper $\Omega$ is still supposed open and convex, but the convexity assumption for $\gamma: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is dropped; instead, this real function is assumed Lipschitz on every bounded subset of $\Omega$. Again, we shall need the closure of every $f([a, b])$ to be contained in $\Omega$. By $\partial \gamma(x)$ will be denoted Clarke's generalized gradient [7] at the point $x$, a convex weakly* compact subset of $X^{\prime}$.

Theorem 2. With $X, \Omega, I, f, d f, d \mu, f_{\mu}^{\prime}$ as before, suppose that $\gamma: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Lipschitz on every bounded subset of $\Omega$. Then $\gamma \circ f$ belongs to $\operatorname{lbv}(I, \mathbb{R})$ and $d(\gamma \circ f)$ admits, relatively to $d \mu$, a density $(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime} \in L_{\mathrm{loc}}^{1}(I, d \mu ; \mathbb{R})$.

For d $\mu$-almost every $t$ in I there exists $x$ in $\left[f^{-}(t), f^{+}(t)\right]$ (the closed line segment in $X$ with endpoints the left limit and the right limit of $f$ at $t$ ) and $x^{\prime}$ in $\partial \gamma(x)$ (Clarke's generalized gradient of $\gamma$ at $x$ ) such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)=\left\langle x^{\prime}, f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle . \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Comments on the Gateaux Differentiability of Lipschitz Functions. Suppose $\gamma$ is Lipschitz on every bounded subset of the open subset $\Omega$ of $X$. Then Clarke's generalized gradient $\partial \gamma(x)$ is a singleton for every $x$ in $\Omega$ if and only if $\gamma$ is Gâteaux-differentiable in $\Omega$ with gradient mapping $x \rightarrow \nabla \gamma(x)$ continuous from $\Omega$ to $X_{s}^{\prime}$ [18]. This simplifies the application of Theorem 2. If in addition $f$ is continuous, a chain rule of the form (2.2) $d \mu$-a.e. holds and the convexity of $\Omega$ is not required.

The third theorem of this paper is aimed at constructing an expression of $d(\gamma \circ f)$, in order to generalize equality (1.1). A hint is found in the monograph of Vol'pert [8, Sect. 13.2, p. 248]; this author considers a function $f$, with values in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, defined in an open subset $U$ of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Such a function is said to be of locally bounded variation if its partial derivatives in the sense of distributions in $U$ are measures; this generalizes $\operatorname{lbv}(I)$ in a specific way involving the Lebesgue measure of $U$ essentially. In contrast, for $n=1$ (and for an interval $I$ nonnecessarily open in $\mathbb{R}$ ) the concept of a locally bounded variation relies only on the ordering of $\mathbb{R}$, without any reference to Lebesgue measure. Restricting ourselves to $n=1$ will enable us to consider as before a function $f$ with values in an arbitrary Banach space.

Theorem 3. Let $X, \Omega, I, f, d f, d \mu, f_{\mu}^{\prime}$ be as in the preceding theorems; suppose that $\gamma: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuously Fréchet-differentiable, with gradient at point $x$ denoted by $\nabla \gamma(x)$. Then $\gamma \circ f \in \operatorname{lbv}(I, \mathbb{R})$ and the differential measure $d(\gamma \circ f)$ admits as density relative to $d \mu$ the function $t \rightarrow\left\langle\theta(t), f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle$, where $\theta: I \rightarrow X^{\prime}$ is defined as

$$
\theta(t)=\int_{0}^{1} \nabla \gamma\left[(1-r) f^{-}(t)+r f^{+}(t)\right] d r .
$$

## 3. A Derivation Property

The following extends to vector measures a result of Jeffery [9].
Proposition 1. Let I denote a real interval, $X$ a real Banach space, $d \mu$ a nonnegative Radon measure on $I, d v$ an $X$-valued measure on I admitting a density $d v / d \mu \in L_{\text {loc }}^{1}(I, d \mu ; X)$. Then, for $d \mu$-almost every $t$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d v}{d \mu}(t)=\lim _{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon>0}} \frac{d v([t, t+\varepsilon])}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}=\underset{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon>0}}{\lim _{\substack{ }} \frac{d v([t-\varepsilon, t])}{d \mu([t-\varepsilon, t])} . . . . ~ . ~} \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

By $d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])$, we mean the d $\mu$-measure of $I \cap[t, t+\varepsilon]$ and similar abridged notations apply to $d v$ and to the interval $I \cap[t-\varepsilon, t]$.

Proof. The writing in (3.1) makes sense only if $t$ does not belong to the respective subsets of $I$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& I_{\mathrm{r}}=\{t \in I: \exists \alpha>0, d \mu(I \cap[t, t+\alpha])=0\} \\
& I_{1}=\{t \in I: \exists \beta>0, d \mu(I \cap[t-\beta, t])=0\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Let us check that these two subsets are $d \mu$-negligible. In fact, both $I_{\mathrm{r}}$ and $I_{1}$ contain $I_{0}$, the greatest open subset of $I$ throughout which the measure $d \mu$ vanishes; $I_{0}$ equals the union of an at most countable collections $\left(J_{n}\right)$ of disjoint subintervals of $I$ and $d \mu\left(I_{0}\right)=0$. Any element $t_{e}$ of $I_{\mathrm{r}} \backslash I_{0}$ (except trivially the possible right end of $I$ ) is the left end of a nonzero interval closed on the left with zero $d \mu$-measure; hence $d \mu\left(\left\{t_{e}\right\}\right)=0$ and $t_{e}$ equals the left end of some of the intervals $\left(J_{n}\right)$. This shows that $I_{\mathrm{r}} \backslash I_{0}$ is at most countable; therefore $d \mu\left(I_{\mathrm{r}}\right)=0$ and similar reasoning yields $d \mu\left(I_{1}\right)=0$.

Let $h$ denote a representative of the element $d v / d \mu$ of $L_{\text {loc }}^{1}(I, d \mu ; X)$; since this vector function is locally Bochner-integrable, it is strongly measurable. Hence there exists a separable subspace $Z$ of $X$ such that $h(t) \in Z$ for $d \mu$-almost every $t$; let $\left(z_{n}\right)$ denote a dense sequence in $Z$.

Let us apply Jeffery's theorem to the nonnegative real measure $d v_{n}$ which
admits as density relative to $d \mu$ the function $t \rightarrow\left\|h(t)-z_{n}\right\|$ : there exists $N_{n}$, a $d \mu$-negligible subset of $I$ such that, for $t \notin N_{n}$,

$$
\left\|h(t)-z_{n}\right\|=\lim _{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon>0}} \frac{d v_{n}([t, t+\varepsilon])}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}
$$

Let $N$ denote the union of $\{t: h(t) \notin Z\}$ with the totality of the sets $N_{n}$. Let $t \notin N$ and $\eta>0$; there exists an integer $n$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|h(t)-z_{n}\right\| \leqslant \eta . \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $t \notin N_{n}$, there exists $\varepsilon_{0}>0$ such that, for every $\varepsilon$ in $\left.] 0, \varepsilon_{0}\right]$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{d v_{n}([t, t+\varepsilon])}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}-\left\|h(t)-z_{n}\right\|\right| \leqslant \eta . \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

In view of inequalities

$$
\begin{aligned}
\int_{[t, t+\varepsilon]}\|h(s)-h(t)\| d \mu(s) & \leqslant \int_{[t, 1+\varepsilon]}\left(\left\|h(s)-z_{n}\right\|+\left\|h(t)-z_{n}\right\|\right) d \mu(s) \\
& \leqslant d v_{n}([t, t+\varepsilon])+\eta d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])
\end{aligned}
$$

one obtains

$$
\frac{1}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])} \int_{[t, t+\varepsilon]}\|h(s)-h(t)\| d \mu(s) \leqslant \frac{d v_{n}([t, t+\varepsilon])}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}+\eta .
$$

Through the use of (3.2) and (3.3), this yields that, for every $\varepsilon$ in $\left.] 0, \varepsilon_{0}\right]$ the left-hand side is less than or equal to $3 \eta$. This left-hand side constitutes in turn an upper bound of

$$
\left\|\frac{d \nu([t, t+\varepsilon])}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}-h(t)\right\|=\frac{1}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}\left\|\int_{[t, t+\varepsilon]}(h(s)-h(t)) d \mu(s)\right\| .
$$

So the first equality in (3.1) is established and similar reasoning, with intervals of the form $[t-\varepsilon, t]$, applies to the second one.

Remark 1. In view of the convention made, that $d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])$ should be understood as the $d \mu$-measure of $I \cap[t, t+\varepsilon]$, the above does not exclude that $t$ equals $t_{\mathrm{r}}$, the possible right end of $I$. In such a case $d \mu\left(\left\{t_{\mathrm{r}}\right\}\right)>0$ (otherwise, $t_{\mathrm{r}}$ would be comprised in the excluded $d \mu$-negligible set) and, for every $\varepsilon>0$,

$$
\frac{d v\left(\left[t_{r}, t_{r}+\varepsilon\right]\right)}{} \frac{d v\left(\left\{t_{r}\right\}\right)}{d \mu\left(\left[t_{r}, t_{r}+\varepsilon\right]\right)} \quad d \mu\left(\left\{t_{\mathrm{r}}\right\}\right)
$$

so that the first equality in (3.1) holds trivially. A similar remark applies to the second equality and the possible left end of $I$.

Remark 2. For an alternative proof, valid when $X$ has the Radon-Nikodym property (thus applicable to Jeffery's original case $X=\mathbb{R}$ ), see [17]: there is used a technique of "jump unfolding" which reduces lbv functions to Lipschitz functions.

## 4. The Convex Case

Throughout this section, $f$ and $\gamma$ are assumed to satisfy the assumptions of Theorem 1.

Observe that from $f \in \operatorname{lbv}(I, X)$ it is easily deduced that the image $f([a, b])$ of every compact subinterval of $I$ has compact closure in $X$; Theorem 1 supposes this closure contained in $\Omega$. Assumption $f(I) \subset \Omega$ would not be sufficient in order that $\gamma \circ f \in \operatorname{lbv}(I, \mathbb{R})$. Counterexample: take $X=\mathbb{R}, \Omega=]-\pi / 2, \pi / 2\left[, \gamma(x)=\operatorname{tg}^{2} x, I=[0, \pi / 2]\right.$ and

$$
f(t)=\left\{\begin{array}{lll}
t & \text { if } & t \in[0, \pi / 2[ \\
0 & \text { if } & t=\pi / 2 .
\end{array}\right.
$$

Lemma 1. Denote by $X_{s}^{\prime}$ the dual space of $X$, equipped with the weak* topology. Under the assumptions made, the multifunction $x \rightarrow \partial \gamma(x)$ is upper semicontinuous from $\Omega$ to $X_{s}^{\prime}$, with nonempty convex compact values. For every compact subset $K$ of $\Omega$, the real function $\gamma$ is Lipschitz on $K$.

Proof. By the continuity of $\gamma$, every point in $\Omega$ possesses a neighborhood, say $V$, throughout which $\gamma$ is bounded from above. Therefore (cf. [10] or, for more details [11, Sect. 11.e]; see also a proof in [12, Theorem 10]) $\partial \gamma$ is an upper semicontinuous multifunction of $V$ to $X_{3}^{\prime}$, with nonempty convex compact values and the image of $V$ under $\partial \gamma$ is an equicontinuous subset of $X^{\prime}$.

Since $K$ may be covered by a finite collection of such neighborhoods, the image of $K$ under $\partial \gamma$ is an equicontinuous subset of $X^{\prime}$, thus contained in a ball centered at the origin; denote its radius by $C$. Let $x$ and $y$ be elements of $K$; for every $x^{\prime} \in \partial \gamma(x)$ one has

$$
\gamma(y) \leqslant \gamma(x)+\left\langle x^{\prime}, y-x\right\rangle \leqslant \gamma(x)+C\|y-x\|
$$

and the similar inequality after exchanging $x$ and $y$. So the Lipschitz property is proved (for finite dimensional $X$, this is Theorem 24.7 in [13]).

Lemma 2. The function $\gamma \circ f$ belongs to $\operatorname{lbv}(I, \mathbb{R})$; its differential measure is continuous relatively to $|d f|$, the absolute value of the vector measure $d f$.

Proof. Let $[a, b]$ denote a compact subinterval of $I$. If $C \geqslant 0$ is a Lipschitz constant of $\gamma$ on the compact set $\mathrm{cl} f([a, b])$, one readily obtains

$$
\operatorname{var}(\gamma \circ f ; a, b) \leqslant C \operatorname{var}(f ; a, b)
$$

which proves that $\gamma \circ f$ has a locally bounded variation.
Let the compact interval [ $a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}$ ] be a neighborhood of [ $a, b$ ] in I. This implies $b^{\prime}>b$, except in the case where $b$ happens to be the right end of $I$; symmetrically, $a^{\prime}<a$ except if $a$ is the left end of $I$. Recall that, in Section 1, the conventions $f^{+}(b)=f(b)$ and $f^{-}(a)=f(a)$ has been made in these respective events. Let $C^{\prime}$ denote a Lipschitz constant of $\gamma$ on the compact set cl $f\left(\left[a^{\prime}, b^{\prime}\right]\right)$. For every $[s, t] \subset[a, b]$ one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
|d(\gamma \circ f)([s, t])| & =\left|\gamma\left(f^{+}(t)\right)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(s)\right)\right| \\
& \leqslant C^{\prime}\left\|f^{+}(t)-f^{-}(s)\right\|=C^{\prime}\|d f([s, t])\| \\
& \leqslant C^{\prime}|d f|([s, t])
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves the $|d f|$-continuity of $d(\gamma \circ f)$.

Lemma 3. Let $d \mu$ be a nonnegative real Radon measure on I such that df is $d \mu$-continuous. Suppose (this is automatic if $X$ has the Radon-Nikodym property) that df admits, relatively to $d \mu$ a density $f_{\mu}^{\prime} \in L_{\text {loc }}^{1}(I, d \mu ; X)$. Then the real functions defined as

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\varphi_{*}: & t \rightarrow \sup \left\{\left\langle g, f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle: g \in \partial \gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)\right\} \\
\varphi^{*}: & t \rightarrow \inf \left\{\left\langle g, f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle: g \in \partial \gamma\left(f^{+}(t)\right)\right\}
\end{array}
$$

are $d \mu$-measurable (or even Borelian, if the chosen representative of the element $f_{\mu}^{\prime}$ of $L_{\text {loc }}^{1}$ is constructed as the limit of a sequence of Borelian stepfunctions) and locally d $\mu$-integrable.

Proof. Take $f_{\mu}^{\prime}$ as the limit of a sequence of Borelian step-functions. We are to show that $\varphi_{*}$ is Borelian on every $[a, b] \subset I$. Let $K=\operatorname{cl} f([a, b])$, a compact subset of $\Omega$ to which corresponds a constant $C$ as in the proof of Lemma 1. For $u$ in $X$ and $x$ in $K$, denote by $\Phi(u, x)$ the value at point $u$ of the support function of $\partial \gamma(x)$; then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi_{*}(t)=\Phi\left(f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t), f^{-}(t)\right) \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $f_{\mu}^{\prime}$ and $f^{-}$equal the limits of sequences of Borelian step-functions, the function $t \rightarrow\left(f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t), f^{-}(t)\right)$ is Borelian from ]a,b] to $X \times K$. We just have to show that $\Phi$ is Borelian.

In view of Lemma 1, one has
(i) $\forall u \in X, \forall x \in K, \Phi(u, x) \leqslant C \| u_{l}$,
(ii) $\forall x \in K, u \rightarrow \Phi(u, x)$ is a continuous real function in $X$,
(iii) $\forall u \in X, x \rightarrow \Phi(u, x)$ is an u.s.c. real function in $K$.

For every positive integer $k$, define

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{k}(u, x)=\sup _{v \in K}(\Phi(u, v)-k\|v-x\|) \tag{4.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is finite throughout $X \times K$, in view of (i). Due to (ii), $u \rightarrow \Phi_{k}(u, x)$ is l.s.c., hence Borelian; $x \rightarrow \Phi_{k}(u, x)$ is $k$-Lipschitz, hence continuous. Since $K$ is separable and metrizable, it follows (cf. [16, Lemma III.14]) that $\Phi_{k}$ is Borelian on $X \times K$.

That $\Phi$ is Borelian results from

$$
\Phi(u, x)=\inf _{k} \Phi_{k}(u, x) .
$$

In fact $\Phi \leqslant \Phi_{k}$; one has to check that for fixed $u, x$ and $\varepsilon>0$, there exists $k$ such that $\Phi_{k}(u, x)<\Phi(u, x)+\varepsilon$. Now, due to (iii) there exists $\beta>0$ such that for $\left\|v-x_{\|}\right\|<\beta$ in (4.2), $\Phi(u, x)+\varepsilon$ majorizes $\Phi(u, v)$ thus majorizes also $\Phi(u, v)-k\|v-x\|$; on the contrary, for $\|v-x\| \geqslant \beta$ one has

$$
\Phi(u, v)-k\|v-x\| \leqslant \max _{K} \Phi(u, \cdot)-k \beta
$$

which may be made less than $\Phi(u, x)+\varepsilon$ by taking $k$ large enough.
The above technique may be traced back to Castaing [14]; a similar argument was also used by Hausdorff [15, Sect. 42, pp. 282-283].

Finally observe that, due to (i), one has

$$
\left|\varphi_{*}(t)\right| \leqslant C\left\|f^{\prime}(t)\right\|,
$$

an inequality which proves that $\varphi_{*}$ is locally $d \mu$-integrable.
Similar reasoning applies to $\varphi^{*}$.
Remark. The preceding does not rely on any separability assumption. If $X$ is separable, the measurability of $\varphi_{*}$ and $\varphi^{*}$ may also be derived from Castaing's representation of the multifunction $\partial \gamma$ (see, e.g., [16]).

Proof of Theorem 1. It just remains to complete the preceding lemmata by the calculation that follows. In view of Proposition 1, there exists a $d \mu$-negligible subset $N$ of $I$ such that, for $t \notin N$, one has, with nonzero denominators,

$$
(\gamma \vee f)_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)=\lim _{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon>0}} \frac{d(\gamma \circ f)([t, t+\varepsilon])}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}=\lim _{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon>0}} \frac{d(\gamma \circ f)([t-\varepsilon, t])}{d \mu([t-\varepsilon, t])}
$$

and

$$
f^{\prime}(t)-\lim _{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon>0}} d f([t, t+\varepsilon])=\lim _{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon>0}} \frac{d f([t-\varepsilon, t])}{d \mu([t-\varepsilon, t])}
$$

Now, if $g \in \partial \gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)$,

$$
d(\gamma \circ f)([t, t+\varepsilon])=\gamma\left(f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)\right)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right) \geqslant\left\langle g, f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)-f^{-}(t)\right\rangle .
$$

After dividing by $d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])$ one makes $\varepsilon$ tend to zero, hence

$$
(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime}(t) \geqslant\left\langle g, f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle .
$$

By taking the supremum for $g$ ranging through $\partial \gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)$ one obtains the first inequality (2.1).

Strictly speaking, the above supposes that $t$ is not the right end of $I$; otherwise the convention made in the Introduction, that $f^{+}(t)=f(t)$, has to be invoked.

The second inequality in (2.1) is proved symmetrically.
As for the last statement in Theorem 1, observe that $d f(\{t\})$ vanishes if and only if $f^{-}(t)=f^{+}(t)$. In that case $\varphi_{*} \geqslant \varphi^{*}$; in view of (2.1) this yields $\varphi_{*}=\varphi^{*} d \mu$-a.e. in $I_{c}$.

## 5. Proof of Theorem 2

The fact that $\gamma \circ f$ belongs to $\operatorname{lbv}(I, \mathbb{R})$ and the existence of $(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime} \in$ $L_{\text {loc }}^{1}(I, d \mu ; \mathbb{R})$ are proved through similar inequalities as before.

First, suppose $d \mu(\{t\})>0$; then

$$
\begin{aligned}
(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime}(t) & =\frac{\gamma\left(f^{+}(t)\right)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)}{d \mu(\{t\})} \\
f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t) & =\frac{1}{d \mu(\{t\})}\left(f^{+}(t)-f^{-}(t)\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

If $f^{+}(t)=f^{-}(t)=x$, any element $x^{\prime}$ of $\partial \gamma(x)$ satisfies (2.3) since $f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)=0$ in that case. Otherwise, use the mean value theorem of Lebourg [18]: there exists $x$ in $] f^{-}(t), f^{+}(t)\left[\right.$ and $x^{\prime}$ in $\partial \gamma(x)$ such that $\gamma\left(f^{+}(t)\right)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)=$ $\left\langle x^{\prime}, f^{+}(t)-f^{-}(t)\right\rangle$.

Now, suppose $d \mu(\{t\})=0$, hence $f^{-}(t)=f^{+}(t)$. With the exception of a $d \mu$-negligible subset of $I$ (in particular, let us exclude the possible right end of $I$ ), Proposition 1 ensures that

$$
\begin{align*}
& (\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)=\lim _{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\
\varepsilon>0}} \frac{\gamma\left(f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)\right)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])} \\
& f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)=\lim _{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}\left(f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)-f^{--( }(t)\right) . \tag{5.1}
\end{align*}
$$

We use again Lebourg's mean value theorem: there exist $x_{\varepsilon}$ in $] f^{-}(t), f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)$ [ and $x_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}$ in $\partial \gamma\left(x_{\varepsilon}\right)$ such that

$$
\frac{\gamma\left(f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)\right)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}=\left\langle x_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}, \frac{1}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}\left(f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)-f^{-}(t)\right)\right\rangle .
$$

Let the compact interval $[a, b]$ be a neighborhood of $t$ in $I$. In view of the assumptions made, $\operatorname{cl} f([a, b])$ is a compact subset of $\Omega$; it contains $f^{-1}(t)$ and also $f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)$ if $\varepsilon$ is small enough. The multifunction $\partial \gamma$ is known $[7,19]$ to be upper semicontinuous from $\Omega$ to $X_{,}^{\prime}$ (the dual space of $X$ equipped with the weak* topology) with compact values. When $\varepsilon>0$ tends to zero, $f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)$ tends strongly to $f^{+}(t)=f^{-}(t)$; so does $x_{\varepsilon}$. Therefore the net $x_{\varepsilon}^{\prime}$ possesses a cluster point in $X_{s}^{\prime}$, say $x^{\prime}$, belonging to $\partial \gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)$. Since the convergence in (5.1) is strong, this establishes (2.3).

## 6. Proof of Theorem 3

By the same arguments as before, $\gamma \circ f$ belongs to $\operatorname{lbv}(I, \mathbb{R})$ and there exists $(y \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime} \in L_{\text {loc }}^{!}(I, d \mu ; \mathbb{R})$.

Put $I_{c}=\{t \in I: d \mu(\{t\})=0\}$; let us first establish the asserted formula for $t \in I_{c}$. Then we are allowed to neglect the possibility of $t$ being an endpoint of $l$. In view of Proposition 1 one has, except for $t$ is some $d \mu$-negligible subset,

$$
\begin{align*}
(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime}(t) & =\lim _{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{d(\gamma \circ f)([t, t+\varepsilon])}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])} \\
& =\lim _{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{\gamma\left(f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)\right)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])} \tag{6.1}
\end{align*}
$$

and

$$
f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)=\lim _{\substack{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0 \\ \varepsilon>0}} \frac{1}{d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])}\left(f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)-f^{--}(t)\right) .
$$

The latter equivalently writes down as

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)-f^{-}(t)=d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])\left(f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)+\eta(\varepsilon)\right) \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the function $\varepsilon \rightarrow \eta(\varepsilon) \in X$ tends normwise to zero when $\varepsilon$ tends to zero; also $d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])$ tends to zero, since $t \in I_{c}$.

The Fréchet-differentiability of $\gamma$ at some point $x$ means that

$$
\gamma(x+h)=\gamma(x)+\langle\nabla \gamma(x), h\rangle+\|h\| \zeta(h)
$$

where the real function $\zeta$ tends to zero with $\|h\|$. By making $x=f^{-}(t)$ and $h=f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)-f^{-}(t)$, as expressed by (6.2), this yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma\left(f^{+}(t+\varepsilon)\right)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)= & \left\langle\nabla \gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right), d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])\left(f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)+\eta(\varepsilon)\right)\right\rangle \\
& +d \mu([t, t+\varepsilon])\left\|f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)+\eta(\varepsilon)\right\| \zeta(h) .
\end{aligned}
$$

When $\varepsilon$ tends to zero, $f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)+\eta(\varepsilon)$ remains bounded in $X$, while $\zeta(h)$ tends to zero; thus the limit appearing in the last member of (6.1) equals $\left\langle\nabla \gamma\left(f^{-}(t), f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)\right\rangle\right.$. Since in the present case $d \mu(\{t\})=0$, one has $d f(\{t\})=0$, i.e., $f^{+}(t)=f^{-}(t)$. Therefore the asserted formula is true, as the expression of $\theta$ reduces to

$$
\theta(t)=\nabla \gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)=\nabla \gamma\left(f^{+}(t)\right)
$$

Let us consider now the case where $d \mu(\{t\})>0$, i.e., $t$ is an atom of $d \mu$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
(\gamma \circ f)_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)=\frac{d(\gamma \circ f)(\{t\}) \quad \gamma\left(f^{+}(t)\right)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)}{d \mu(\{t\})} \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
f_{\mu}^{\prime}(t)=\frac{1}{d \mu(\{t\})}\left(f^{+}(t)-f^{-}(t)\right) \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

(recall the conventions made in the Introduction if $t$ is an endpoint of $I$ ). Since it has been assumed that $\mathrm{cl} f([a, b]) \subset \Omega$ for every $[a, b] \subset I$, the points $f^{+}(t)$ and $f^{-}(t)$ belong to $\Omega$; the continuous differentiability of $\gamma$ throughout this open convex set yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\gamma\left(f^{+}(t)-\gamma\left(f^{-}(t)\right)\right. & =\int_{0}^{1}\left\langle\nabla \gamma\left[(1-r) f^{-}(t)+r f^{+}(t)\right], f^{+}(t)-f^{-}(t)\right\rangle d r \\
& =\left\langle\theta(t), f^{+}(t)-f^{-}(t)\right\rangle
\end{aligned}
$$

In view of (6.3) and (6.4), this establishes the formula.

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