

**Apostol p.125 no.21**

**Claim.** Let  $f, g$  be functions that are integrable on every interval and satisfying the following:  $f$  is odd,  $g$  is even,  $f(5) = 7, f(0) = 0, g(x) = f(x + 5), f(x) = \int_0^x g(t)dt$  for all  $x$ . Then (a)  $\forall x, f(x - 5) = -g(x)$ ; (b)  $\int_0^5 f(x)dx = 7$ ; (c)  $\int_0^x f(t)dt = g(0) - g(x)$ .

*Proof.* (a)

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &= f(x + 5) \\ \implies g(x) &= \int_0^{x+5} g(t)dt \\ g(x) &= g(-x) = \int_0^{-x+5} g(t)dt \\ \implies g(x) &= f(-x + 5) = -f(x - 5) \\ \implies f(x - 5) &= -g(x) \end{aligned}$$

(b) Note that since  $f, g$  are integrable on every interval, then we have that  $g(x) = f(x+5) \implies g(y-5) = f(y)$  by simply taking  $y = x+5$ . Since the choice of variables is arbitrary, in general, we have that  $g(x-5) = f(x)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^5 f(t)dt &= \int_0^5 g(x-5)dx \\ &= \int_{-5}^0 g(t)dt \\ &= \int_0^5 g(-t)dt \\ &= \int_0^5 g(t)dt \\ &= f(5) = 7 \end{aligned}$$

(c) Similarly to above,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^x f(t)dt &= \int_0^x g(t-5)dt \\ &= \int_{-5}^{x-5} g(t)dt \\ &= \int_{-x+5}^5 g(-t)dt \\ &= \int_{-x+5}^5 g(t)dt \\ &= \int_{-x+5}^0 g(t)dt + \int_0^5 g(t)dt \\ &= \int_0^{x-5} g(t)dt + f(5) \\ &= f(x-5) + f(5) \\ &= -g(x) + g(0)\end{aligned}$$

□

**Apostol p.138-139 no.5**

**Lemma.**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{x} = 1$$

*Proof.* For any  $\epsilon > 0$ , taking  $\delta = 1224323121$ , we have that  $0 < |x - 0| < 1224323121 \implies x \neq 0 \implies \left| \frac{x}{x} - 1 \right| = 0 < \epsilon$ . Thus, the limit is then just 1. □

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(t+h)^2 - t^2}{h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{t^2 + 2th + h^2 - t^2}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2th + h^2}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2th}{h} + \frac{h^2}{h} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{h} (2t + h) \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{h} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2t + h && \text{(multiplicativity of limits)} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2t + h && \text{(lemma)} \\
 &= 2t && \text{(see below)}
 \end{aligned}$$

To evaluate this last limit, consider that for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , taking  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{2} \implies \forall x, 0 < |x - 0| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \implies |2t + \frac{\epsilon}{2} - 2t| = \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \epsilon$ .

## Apostol p.138-139 no.8

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - a^2}{x^2 + 2ax + a^2} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x-a)(x+a)}{(x+a)^2} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{x-a}{x+a} && \text{(since } x+a \neq 0 \text{ when } x=a) \\
 &= \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x-a}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x+a} && \text{(multiplicativity of limits)} \\
 &= \frac{0}{2a} = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

We can see that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x - a = 0$  as we have that for  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\delta = \epsilon \implies \forall x, 0 < |x - a| < \epsilon$ . Similarly, we see that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x + a = 2a$  as we have that for  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\delta = \epsilon \implies \forall x, 0 < |x - a| < \epsilon \implies |x + a - 2a| = |x - a| < \epsilon$ .

**Apostol p.138-139 no.21**

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - x^2}}{x^2} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - x^2}}{x^2} \left( \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - x^2}}{1 + \sqrt{1 - x^2}} \right) \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - (1 - x^2)}{x^2(1 + \sqrt{1 - x^2})} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{1 - x^2}} && \text{(multiplicativity of limits)} \\
 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{1 + \sqrt{1 - x^2}} && \text{(lemma)} \\
 &= \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1}{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{1 - x^2}} && \text{(additivity, multiplicativity of limits)} \\
 &= \frac{1}{1 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{1 - x^2}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

To compute the last limit, note that we have  $(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{1 - x^2})^2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 1 - x^2 = 1$ , as for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , take  $\delta = \sqrt{\epsilon} \implies 0 < |x| < \delta \implies |1 - x^2 - 1| = |x^2| = |x| < \epsilon$ . Thus,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{1 - x^2} = \sqrt{1} = 1$ .

**Apostol p.138-139 no.31**

Consider

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \\ 0 & x \in \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$$

**Claim.** This is continuous at 0, but nowhere else.

*Proof.* At 0, we observe that for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , the density of  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  furnishes  $\delta \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $0 < \delta < \epsilon$ . Then,  $\forall x, 0 < |x| < \delta \implies |f(x)| < \delta$ , as either  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \implies |f(x)| = |x| < \delta$  or  $x \in \mathbb{Q} \implies |f(x)| = 0 < \delta$ . Thus, we have that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0 = f(0)$ .

However, for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}, c \neq 0$ , we have that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$  does not exist. Suppose that it did, and it had value  $K$ . Take  $\epsilon = |\frac{c}{2}| > 0$ . For any  $\delta$ , pick  $x_1 \in \mathbb{Q}, x_2 \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}, 0 < |x_1 - c| < \delta, 0 < |x_2 - c| < \delta$ , and consider that the existence of the limit has  $|f(x_0) - K| = |K| < |\frac{c}{2}|, |f(x_1) - K| = |x_1 - K| = |x_1 - K + c - c| \leq |x_1 - c| + |K - c| < |\frac{c}{2}|$ . However,  $|K - c| > |\frac{c}{2}|$  as  $|K| < |\frac{c}{2}|$ , and so we have that both  $|K - c| < |\frac{c}{2}|$  and  $|K - c| > |\frac{c}{2}|$ .  $\Rightarrow \Leftarrow$ , so the limit does not exist and  $f$  cannot be continuous for  $x \neq 0$ .  $\square$

## Problem 1

**Claim.**  $f$  is integrable  $\implies |f|$  is integrable.

*Proof.* Let  $f$  be integrable over  $[a, b]$ .

We have from the triangle inequality that  $|a - b| \leq |a| + |b| \implies |a - b| - |b| \leq |a|$ . Replacing  $a$  with  $x - y$  and  $b$  with  $-y$ , we have that  $|x| - |y| \leq |x - y|$ .

Then, over any partition  $P = \{x_0, \dots, x_n\}$  of  $[a, b]$ , we have that on a open subinterval of the partition  $(x_i, x_{i+1})$ , the theorem on approximation gives  $x_1, x_2 \in (x_i, x_{i+1}), \epsilon > 0 \mid \sup(|f|) - \inf(|f|) - 2\epsilon < |f(x_1)| - |f(x_2)| \leq |f(x_1) - f(x_2)| < |\sup(f) - \inf(f)| = \sup(f) - \inf(f)$ .

Then, for that partition and putting  $\inf_I, \sup_I$  for the infimum and supremum over  $I$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \inf_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (f) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) &\in \underline{I}(f) \\ \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \sup_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (f) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) &\in \bar{I}(f) \\ \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \inf_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (|f|) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) &\in \underline{I}(|f|) \\ \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \sup_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (|f|) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) &\in \bar{I}(|f|) \end{aligned}$$

By properties of sums proved on previous homework, we then have that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \sup_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (|f|) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) - \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \inf_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (|f|) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) \\ = \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \sup_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (|f|) - \inf_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (|f|) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) \\ \leq \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \sup_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (f) - \inf_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (f) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) \\ = \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \sup_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (f) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) - \sum_{i=0}^n \left( \inf_{(x_i, x_{i+1})} (f) \right) (x_{i+1} - x_i) \end{aligned}$$

Finally, since  $f$  is integrable, we have that we can pick a partition such that the  $RHS < \epsilon$  for any  $\epsilon > 0$ . Thus, we can find  $x \in \bar{I}(|f|), y \in \underline{I}(|f|)$  such that  $0 \leq x - y < \epsilon$ , and so  $x - y = 0$  by a previous homework result.  $\square$

## Problem 2

**a**

**Claim.**  $x^n, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{\geq 0}$  is monotonic on both  $(-\infty, 0]$  and  $[0, \infty)$ .

*Proof.* We induct on  $n$ . The base case is  $n = 0 \implies x^n = 1$ , and so for any  $x, y$  in  $(-\infty, 0]$  or  $x, y$  in  $[0, \infty)$ , we have that  $x > y \implies x^0 = y^0 = 1$ .

For the inductive case, suppose that the claim holds for  $n = k$ . Then,  $x^{k+1} = x^k \cdot x$ .

For any  $x, y$  in  $(-\infty, 0]$ , we have that if  $x^k$  is monotonically increasing, then  $x > y \implies x^k \geq y^k \implies x^k \cdot x < y^k \cdot y$ , as in general we have shown  $a \geq b, 0 \geq c > d \implies ac < bd$  as a property of the ordering. Similarly, if  $x^k$  is monotonically decreasing, then  $x > y \implies x^k \leq y^k \implies x^k \cdot x > y^k \cdot y$ .

For any  $x, y$  in  $[0, \infty)$ , we have that if  $x^k$  is monotonically increasing, then  $x > y \implies x^k \geq y^k \implies x^k \cdot x > y^k \cdot y$ . Similarly, if  $x^k$  is monotonically decreasing, then  $x > y \implies x^k \leq y^k \implies x^k \cdot x < y^k \cdot y$ .

Thus,  $x^n$  is monotonic on both  $(-\infty, 0]$  and  $[0, \infty)$ .  $\square$

**b**

**Claim.** All monomials are integrable on any closed interval.

*Proof.* In the cases that  $[a, b] \subseteq (-\infty, 0]$ , or  $[a, b] \subseteq [0, \infty)$ , we have that the function is monotonic and bounded (in general,  $x^n$  bounded by  $\max(a^n, b^n)$  over the interval  $[a, b]$ ). This has been shown to be integrable in class.

In the last case that  $[a, b] \not\subseteq (-\infty, 0]$  or  $[0, \infty)$ , and since  $[a, b] \subseteq (-\infty, 0] \cup [0, \infty) = \mathbb{R}$ , then  $[a, b] = [a, 0] \cup [0, b]$ . This can be seen by the fact that there must be some element in  $[a, b]$  that is greater than zero, and one that is less than zero. Further, since  $a, b$  are bounds on the interval, they must be less and greater than zero each.

Then,  $\int_a^0 x^n dx + \int_0^b x^n dx = \int_a^b x^n dx$ , as the two parts on the LHS are integrable as they are bounded and monotonic.  $\square$

**c**

**Claim.**

$$g(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n c_i x^i$$

is integrable.

*Proof.* Note that we have already proved that  $f(x) = c$  is integrable, and that the sum and product of integrable functions is itself integrable in class.

We induct on  $n$ . The base case,  $n = 0$ , has  $g(x) = c_0$ , which is integrable. Then, if the claim for  $n = k$  holds, then  $g_{k+1}(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{k+1} c_i x^i = \sum_{i=0}^k c_i x^i + c_{k+1} x^{k+1}$ . We have that  $\sum_{i=0}^k c_i x^i$  is integrable by the inductive premise, and that  $c_{k+1}$  and  $x^{k+1}$  are both integrable as well. Thus,  $\sum_{i=0}^k c_i x^i + c_{k+1} x^{k+1} = g_{k+1}(x)$  is then integrable.

Induction then yields that  $g(x)$  is integrable for any  $n$ .  $\square$

### Problem 3

$$\begin{aligned} & f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, x \in (a, b) \\ a) & \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(x+h) - f(x)| = 0 \\ b) & \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(x+h) - f(x-h)| = 0 \end{aligned}$$

**Claim.**  $a) \implies b)$ .

*Proof.* We have that for any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta \mid 0 < |h| < \delta \implies |f(x+h) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ .

We want to show that also  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(x+h) - f(x)| = 0 \implies \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(x-h) - f(x)| = 0$ . Consider that for  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can take the same  $\delta$  as before. For  $0 < |h| < \delta$  note that for any given  $h$ , we have that  $f(x-h) = f(x+(-h))$ , but  $|-h| < \delta \implies |f(x+(-h)) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ . Further, for any  $\epsilon' = 2\epsilon > 0$ , we have that  $|f(x+h) - f(x-h)| = |f(x+h) - f(x-h) + f(x) - f(x)| \leq |f(x+h) - f(x)| + |f(x-h) - f(x)| < 2\epsilon = \epsilon'$ . Thus,  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(x+h) - f(x-h)| = 0$ .  $\square$

We do not in fact that  $b) \implies a)$ . Consider the following function  $f : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Then, take  $x = 0$ .  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(h) - f(-h)| = 0$ , as we have that for  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \delta = 1 \implies \forall h, 0 < |h| < 1 \implies |f(h) - f(-h) - 0| = |1 - 1 - 0| = 0 < \epsilon$ .

However, we have that  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(h) - f(0)| = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(h)| = 1$ , as  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \delta = 1 \implies \forall h, 0 < |h| < 1 \implies |f(h) - 1| = 0 < \epsilon$ . Thus,  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |f(0+h) - f(0)| \neq 0$ .

### Problem 4

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q} \\ \frac{1}{n} & x = \frac{m}{n} \mid m, n \in \mathbb{Z}_{>0}, (m, n) = 1 \end{cases}$$

**a**

**Claim.**  $f$  is continuous at  $x$  if and only if  $x$  is irrational.

*Proof.* (  $\implies$  ) Suppose that  $x$  is not irrational. Then, since  $f$  is continuous at  $x$ , we must have that  $\square$

**b**