

Calculus Assignment 2

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Given $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x$

let $u(x) = \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x$

$$\ln(u(x)) = x \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)$$

$$\ln(u(x)) = \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)}{\frac{1}{x}}$$

Two possibilities to find the limit

L'Hopital rule:-

This states that for function f and g which are differentiable on an open interval I except possibly at a point c contained in I , if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 0$ or $\pm\infty$, $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all x in I with $x \neq c$

and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists, then

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

Here $c = \infty$, $f(x) = \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)$, $g(x) = \frac{1}{x}$, which gives

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

(09)

using definition of the derivative :-

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)}{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right) - \ln(1+0)}{\frac{1}{x} - 0}$$

let $\frac{1}{x} = y$
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} y$
 $\Rightarrow \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} y = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(y) - f(0)}{y - 0} \Rightarrow f'(0) = 1$$

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with $f(y) = \ln(1+y)$ and $f(y) = \frac{1}{1+y}$

we have:-

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\ln u(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(1 + \frac{1}{x})}{\frac{1}{x}} = 1$$

$$\exp(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln u(x)) = \exp(1)$$

$$\Rightarrow e = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} u(x) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{x})^x = e //$$

we conclude:-

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{x})^x = e //$$

2) Given function $f: [0,1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & x \text{ is rational} \\ 1-x & x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$$

a) on $[0,1]$

for any rational $f(x) = x$ and for irrational $f(x) = 1-x$

For rational numbers it is increasing on $[0,1]$ in case of irrational numbers $1-x$ will never be irrational number

so their image will be unique and if $0 < x_1 < x_2 < 1$ then if x_1, x_2 are rational then $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$ and if $x_1, f(x_1)$ and $x_2, f(x_2)$ are irrational

$$f(x_1) > f(x_2)$$

\therefore The images are unique even if x is rational or irrational so f is one-one function on $[0,1]$

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b) For every rational number in $[0,1]$ it attained as
 $f(x)=x$, for irrational and in $\text{com } [0,1]$

$$f(x)=1-x \quad (\text{for irrational number})$$

$$f: [0,1] \rightarrow [0,1]$$

c)

$$\frac{L.H, L}{f(x)} = \infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}^-} x = \frac{1}{2}$$

RHL

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

\therefore if it is continuous at $x=\frac{1}{2}$ and discontinuous at every where
as it has irrationals.

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3) Given $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(1+\sin \pi x)^n - 1}{(1+\sin \pi x)^n + 1}$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \\ \infty & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + \sin \pi x < 1 \quad L = -1 \quad 1 + \sin \pi x = 1 \quad L = 0 \quad 1 + \sin \pi x > 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(1 - \frac{1}{(1 + \sin \pi x)})^n}{(1 + \frac{1}{(1 + \sin \pi x)})^n}$$

$$\Rightarrow L = 1 \quad \text{C. 17}$$

$$\Rightarrow L.H.L = R.H.L = f(x)$$

at $x=0$

$$L.H.L \Rightarrow \frac{0-1}{0+1} = -1$$

$$R.H.L = 1$$

at $x=0$, $f(x)$ is discontinuous

lly at $x=1$

$$L.H.L = 1, R.H.L = -1 \quad \text{at } x=1, f(x) \text{ is discontinuous}$$

at $x=2$

$$L.H.L = -1, R.H.L = 1 \quad \text{at } x=2, f(x) \text{ is discontinuous}$$

we have seen in $x \in (0, \infty)$ as $\pi x \in [0, 2\pi]$ so, this will continue for $3, 4, \dots \infty$, this limit is discontinuous at $x=0, 1, 2, \dots$

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4) $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, both continuous on $[a, b]$ having same range $[0, 1]$.

To prove, $f(c) = g(c)$, for $c \in [a, b]$

\Rightarrow so, by intermediate value theorem, exist such that

$\Rightarrow f(c) = L$, [L is between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$]

similarly

$g(c) = K$, (K is between $g(a)$ and $g(b)$)

we must prove that is at least one value in interval $[a, b]$ such that $K=L$

since $f(a) < g(a)$ so at some point

$$\Rightarrow f(a) - g(a) < 0 \quad \textcircled{1}$$

and at distinct point in interval we have $\Rightarrow f(b) - g(b) > 0 \quad \textcircled{2}$

Now, let function, $h(c) = g(c) - f(c)$

as similarly to $\textcircled{1}$ & $\textcircled{2}$, that $h(c) > 0$ at one point

$\Rightarrow h(c) < 0$ at another point

By intermediate value theorem, at some point on $h(c)$ must be equal to zero so,

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

$$\therefore f(c) = g(c)$$

Hence $f(c) = g(c)$ for some $c \in [a, b]$

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5) Given function f such that $f(0)=0$ and f and $|f|$ both are differentiable for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$

We can take basic function $y=0$ as it is a constant function for every value of x , $y=0$ so, and as $f=|f|$ and the constant functions are differentiable as if $x \in [a, b]$

$$f'(x) = \frac{f(a)-f(b)}{a-b} = 0, \text{ as } f(a)=f(b)$$

\therefore for every value of x , $f'(x)=0$.

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6) The example of a function which is not differentiable exactly at two points, is $f(x) = |x-1| + |x-2|$

\Rightarrow let's see differentiability at $x=1, 2$

Now at $x=1$ $LHD = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{f(x) - f(1)}{x-1}$
 $LHD = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{[f(1-h) - f(1)]}{-h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{[(1-h-1) + (1-h-2) - 1] - [1 - 1]}{-h}$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{\partial h}{-h} \right] = -2,$$

$$RHD = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \left[\frac{f(x) - f(1)}{x-1} \right] \Rightarrow RHD = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{[f(1+h) - f(1)]}{h}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(h-h+1-0)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{0}{h} \right] = 0$$

Since $LHD \neq RHD$

so, given function is not differentiable at $x=1$

similarly, we can show that the given function is not differentiable at $x=2$

7) let a and b be the roots of the equation $e^x \cos x = 1$, then $e^a \cos a = 1$ and $e^b \cos b = 1$

let f be a function defined as $f(x) = e^{-x} - \cos x$
 we observe that

i) $f(x)$ is continuous in $[a, b]$ and $\cos x$ both are continuous functions

ii) $f'(x) = -e^{-x} + \sin x$, hence function is differentiable in (a, b)

iii) $f(a) = e^{-a} - \cos a = e^{-a}(1 - e^a \cos a) = 0$ and

$$f(b) = e^{-b} - \cos b = e^{-b}(1 - e^b \cos b) = 0 \Rightarrow f(a) = f(b) = 0$$

Thus $f(x)$ satisfies all the conditions of Rolle's theorem in $[a, b]$
 hence there exists at least one value of x in (a, b) such $f'(c) = 0$

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$$f(x) = -e^x + \sin x \quad f'(x) = -e^x + \sin x \\ \Rightarrow -e^x + \sin x = 0 \Rightarrow \sin x = e^x \\ \Rightarrow e^x \sin x - 1 = 0 //$$

Thus, x is a root of the equation $e^x - \sin x = 0$,

Hence between any two roots of equation $e^x - \sin x = 0$, there exists at least one root of $e^x \sin x - 1 = 0 //$

8) Given $\sqrt{5-2x^2} \leq f(x) \leq \sqrt{5-x^2}$ for $-1 \leq x \leq 1$,

Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ exists if $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$

Lefthand limit = Right hand limit, limit is LHL(0+) RHL //

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \sqrt{5-2x^2} \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \sqrt{5-x^2} \quad x \rightarrow 0^-$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{5} \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \sqrt{5} \quad \text{By sandwich theorem,}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = \sqrt{5}$$

For Right hand limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sqrt{5-2x^2} \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sqrt{5-x^2} \quad \text{By sandwich theorem}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \sqrt{5}$$

$$\sqrt{5-2(0)^2} \leq f(0) \leq \sqrt{5-0} \\ \Rightarrow f(0) = \sqrt{5}$$

$$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = \sqrt{5} \quad \text{As}$$

$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ exists and it's equal to $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \sqrt{5} //$

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9)

a) Given

$$\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(3y) \cot(5y)}{y \cot(4y)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\sin(3y)}{y} \right) \cdot \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cot(5y)}{\cot(4y)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\sin(3y)}{y} \right) \cdot \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(5y) \sin(4y)}{\sin(5y) \cos(4y)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\sin(3y)}{y} \right) \cdot \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\sin(4y)}{\sin(5y)} \right)$$

As, if $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ is equal to 0 or ∞ , and $h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ then
 $f(x)/g(x)$ is indefinite form so, By L'Hospital rule $h(x) = \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ then

By 'L' Hospital rule

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{3}{1} \cos(3y) \right) \cdot \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{4}{5} \frac{\cos(4y)}{\sin(5y)} \right) = \frac{3 \times 1}{5} = 2.4$$

$$\therefore \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(3y) \cot(5y)}{y \cot(4y)} = 2.4$$

b) Given $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 6x^2(\cot(x))(\csc(2x))$.

$$\text{Now } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 6x^2(\cot(x))(\csc(2x)) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 6x^2 \frac{\cot(x)}{\sin(x)} \frac{1}{\sin(2x)}$$

We know that $\sin(2x) = 2 \sin x \cos x$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 36x^2 \frac{\cot(x)}{\sin(x)} \frac{1}{2 \sin(x) \cos(x)} \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x^2}{\sin^2 x}$$

at $x=0 \Rightarrow 0/0$, so we use 'L' Hospital Rule like above

$$\left[\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(3y)}{(3y)} = 1 \right]$$

Thus % indeterminate form

$$\left[\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(5y)}{(5y)} = 1 \right]$$

$$\left[\lim_{y \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(4y)}{(4y)} = 1 \right]$$

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$$\left[\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x = 1 \right]$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x^2}{\sin x} \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x^2 \cdot x}{x \sin(\cos x)} \quad [\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x = 1]$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x^3}{\sin x} \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3}{\cos x} = 3$$

$$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 6x^2 (\cot x) (\csc x) = 3 //$$

c) Given $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos(\tan t)\right)$,

$$\Rightarrow \sin\left(\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\pi}{2} \cos(\tan t)\right) \Rightarrow \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \cos(\tan t)\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos(\tan(\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} t))\right) \Rightarrow \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos(\tan(0))\right) \Rightarrow \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos(0)\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 1$$

$$\therefore \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} \cos(\tan t)\right) = 1 //$$

10) Given function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} ax+2b, & x \leq 0 \\ x^2+3a-b, & 0 < x \leq 2 \\ 2x-5, & x > 2 \end{cases}$$

This continuous at every x

As f is continuous at $x=0$

$$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (ax+2b) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (fx) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (ax+2b) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (x^2+3a-b)$$

$$\Rightarrow a(0)+2b = 0+3a-b \Rightarrow a-b=0 \rightarrow ①$$

As f is continuous at $x=2$

$$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x)$$

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$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} x^2 + 3a - b = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} 3x - 5$$

$$\Rightarrow (2)^2 + 3a - b = 3(2) - 5 \Rightarrow 4 + 3a - b = 6 - 5$$

$$\Rightarrow 3a - b = -3 \rightarrow \textcircled{2}$$

① & ② (Subtracting)

$$a - b = 0$$

then $-3/2 - b = 0$

$$3a - b = -3$$

$$b = -3/2$$

$$(-) (+) \quad (+)$$

$$-2a = 3 \Rightarrow a = -3/2$$

$$\therefore a = -3/2, b = -3/2 //$$

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Q) let $h(x) = f(x) - g(x)$ and $h(x)$ is an continuous function
as $g(x)$ & $f(x)$ is continuous

then By intermediate value theorem there may will an
set of points for which let be A

$$h(x) = 0$$

$g(x) = f(x)$ and this set can't not be infinite

And if $A \in (a, b)$ $h(a) < 0, h(b) > 0$, then there will be some value
to which $h(x) = 0$, so, The A is a closed set

then $S = \{x \in R ; f(x) = g(x)\}$ is a closed set in R.

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Q) Given to prove

$$\frac{x}{1+x} < \ln(1+x) < x \text{ for all } x > 0,$$

first part :-

$$\text{let } f(x) = \ln(x+1) - \frac{x}{x+1}, x > 0$$

Differentiating $f(x)$ w.r.t x , we get

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

As $x > 0$, so $f'(x) > 0$ for all $x > 0$ so, $f(x)$ is increasing function for all $x > 0$ so,

$$f(x) > f(0)$$

$$\ln(x+1) - \frac{x}{x+1} > \ln(1) - 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln(x+1) > \frac{x}{x+1} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

second part :-

let $f(x) = \log(x+1)$, choose $a=0$ and $x > 0$ so, that there is according to the mean value theorem an x_0 between a and x with

$$f'(x_0) = \frac{f(x)-f(a)}{x-a} \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{1+x_0} = \frac{\log(x+1)}{x}$$

Since

$$x_0 > 0, \Rightarrow \frac{1}{x_0+1} < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 > \frac{1}{x_0+1} = \frac{\log(x+1)}{x} \Rightarrow x > \log(x+1) \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

: from (1) & (2)

$$\frac{x}{1+x} < \ln(1+x) < x \text{ for all } x > 0, \text{ Hence proved.}$$

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Q3) Given that number 10 is divided into two parts such that their cubes is the least possible.

Let two numbers be $x, 10-x$ then let

$$y = (x)^3 + (10-x)^3$$

As given sum is least possible so $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = 3x^2 + 3(10-x)^2 (-)$$

$$0 = 3x^2 - 3(100 - 20x + x^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 5$$

then $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ at $x=5 \Rightarrow \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = 60$ (+ve)

As we know At $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$, and $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ is +ve then it gives minimum value at that x

so, The two numbers are $5, 10-5 = (5, 5)$

Their cube sum = $5^3 + 5^3 = 250$,

$$Q4) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(a+b\cos x) + (\sin x)}{x^5} = \frac{1}{60}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{we know } \sin x = \frac{x}{1!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} \dots$$

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \frac{x^6}{6!} + \dots$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{ax + bx\cos x + (\sin x)}{x^5} = \frac{1}{60}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{ax + bx\cancel{\cos x} + \cancel{bx^3} + \cancel{bx^5} + \dots + \frac{cx}{1!} - \frac{cx^3}{3!} + \frac{cx^5}{5!}}{x^5} \dots$$

\Rightarrow To have the limit the numerator minimum power should be x^5

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$$a+b+c=0, \frac{b}{12} + \frac{c}{13} = 0 \rightarrow \frac{b}{144} + \frac{c}{169} = \frac{1}{60}$$

AQ

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(a+b+c)x + \left(-\frac{b}{12} - \frac{c}{13}\right)x^3 + \left(\frac{b}{144} + \frac{c}{169}\right)x^5 - \dots}{x^5} = \frac{1}{60}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow a+b+c &= 0 & \frac{b}{12} + \frac{c}{13} &= 0 & \frac{b}{144} + \frac{c}{169} &= \frac{1}{60} \\ -① & & -② & & -③ & \\ 3b+c &= 0 & & & 9b+c &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

from ② & ③

$$\begin{aligned} b &= 1 & 3+c &= 0 & a &= -(b+c) \\ & & c &= -3 & a &= -(1-3) \\ \therefore b &= 1, c &= -3, a &= 2 & a &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

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(15) we know Taylor series,

let f be a function with derivatives of all orders through some interval containing a at an interior point. Then Taylor series generated by f at $x=a$ is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 \dots$$

Let's Find Taylor series of $\sqrt{1+x}$ at $x=0$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{1+x} = 1 + \frac{x}{2} - \frac{x^2}{8} \dots$$

Given $x > 0$

So, if we consider 3 terms of Taylor series, $\sqrt{1+x} < 1 + \frac{x}{2}$

as $-\frac{x^2}{8}$ is negative and $-\frac{x^3}{8}$ is less negative than $-\frac{x^2}{8}$

$$\frac{x^2}{8} < \frac{x^3}{8} \Rightarrow -\frac{x^2}{8} > -\frac{x^3}{8}$$

$$\text{So, } 1 + \frac{x}{2} - \frac{x^3}{8} < \sqrt{1+x}$$

$$\therefore 1 + \frac{x}{2} - \frac{x^3}{8} < \sqrt{1+x} < 1 + \frac{x}{2} //$$

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(16) Given function f is defined on $[0, 1]$ by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & x \text{ is rational} \\ 0 & x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$$

Let $P \Rightarrow$ Partitions be $P = \{x_0 = 0, x_1, \dots, x_n = 1\}$

$$M_i = \sup \{f(x) : x_{i-1} \leq x \leq x_i\} = x_i$$

$$m_i = \inf \{f(x) : x_{i-1} \leq x \leq x_i\} = 0$$

The upper Riemann sum

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \Delta x_i$$

Let Assume if $x_0 = 0, x_1 = 0 + \frac{1}{n}, x_2 = 2/n, \dots, x_n = n/n = 1$

$$\text{then } U(P, f) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i}{n} \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{i}{n^2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\therefore U(P, f) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i = 0,$$

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \inf \{U(P, f)\} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \int_0^1 f(x) dx = \sup \{L(P, f)\} = 0$$

As $\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq \int_0^1 f(x) dx$ so, According ding to Reimann integral theorem

There will be no Riemann integral of $f(x)$ on $[0, 1]$,

17) If $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be Riemann integral and on $[a, b]$ and
 $\underline{[f(x) \geq 0, \text{ for all } x \in [a, b]}]$ and $g: [c, d] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a Riemann
integral and if range of f is contained in $[c, d]$ then
 $g \circ f(x) = g(f(x))$ is Riemann integral on $[a, b]$

because as u see $x \in [a, b]$ then $f(x) \in$ some set A
then $[c, d]$ also contains A then as given $g(y)$ is
Riemann-integral on $[c, d]$ then if $y = f(x)$, $g(y)$ is also
Riemann-integral on $[A]$ as A is subset of $[c, d]$. //

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18) If $f: [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be Riemann integral on $[a,b]$ and $f(x) \geq 0$, for all $x \in [a,b]$, there exist point c' in $[a,b]$ such that f' is continuous at c' and $f(c') > 0$. To prove $\int_a^b f(x) dx > 0$.

\Rightarrow f is continuous at c , there exist a $\delta > 0$ such that $f(y) \geq \frac{f(x)}{\delta}$, for all $y \in [a,b]$, such that $|y-x| \leq \delta$.

If δ is small enough

$$x+\delta \quad [x-\delta, x+\delta] \subset [a,b]$$

$$\int_{x-\delta}^{x+\delta} f(t) dt \geq \delta \frac{f(x)}{\delta} = \delta f(x) > 0$$

$\therefore f(y) \geq 0$ for all $y \in [a,b]$ and $\int_a^b f(t) dt \geq 0$ and

$\int_{x-\delta}^{x+\delta} f(t) dt \geq 0$, Additivity theorem
(shows that)

$$\int_a^b f(t) dt > 0$$

\therefore Hence proved.

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx > 0$$

(19) $f(x) = [x]$, $x \in [0, 3]$

for proving ' f ' is Riemann integral on $[0, 3]$

$[x] =$ the greatest integral not greater than x .

$\therefore x \in [0, 3]$, $f(x) = [x]$ is bounded and has finite number of points of discontinuity

$\because f$ is integral on $[0, 3]$

$$\text{Now } \Rightarrow \int_0^3 f(x) dx = \int_0^3 [x] dx = \int_0^1 [x] dx + \int_1^2 [x] dx + \int_2^3 [x] dx$$

(By Additive property)

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^1 (0) dx + \int_1^2 (1) dx + \int_2^3 2 dx$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 + [x]_1^2 + [2x]_2^3$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 + 1 + 2 \Rightarrow 3$$

(20) Let $c_1 < \dots < c_K$ be all discontinuous of ' f ' in $[a, b]$

Let assume, $a < c_1$ and $c_K < b$ ($c_1 = a$ or $c_K = b$)

Let $\epsilon > 0$, since ' f ' is bounded, there exist $m > 0$ such that

$$|f(x)| \leq m \text{ for all } x \in [a, b]$$

$$\text{Let } \delta = \frac{\epsilon}{mK}$$

$\therefore f$ is continuous on $[a, c_1 - \delta] [c_1 + \delta, c_2 - \delta] \dots$

$\therefore f$ is continuous on these intervals.

f is Riemann-integrable on these intervals.

$$\Rightarrow P_0 = \{a = x_0 < \dots < x_{i-1} = c_1 - \delta\} \text{ of } [a, c_1 - \delta]$$

$$P_1 = \{c_1 + \delta = y_0 < \dots < y_m = c_2 - \delta\} \text{ of } [c_1 + \delta, c_2 - \delta]$$

$$P_K = \{c_K + \delta = z_0 < \dots < z_n = b\} \text{ of } [c_K + \delta, b]$$

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such that

$$U(P_i, f) - L(P_i, f) < \frac{\epsilon}{2(K+1)} \text{ for } i=0, \dots$$

Now let position of $[a, b]$ by $P = P_0 \cup P_1 \cup \dots \cup P_K$, Then

$$\begin{aligned} U(P, f) &\leq U(P_0, f) + \delta m \delta + U(P_1, f) + 2m \delta \dots + L(P_K, f) \\ &\quad - 2mK\delta + \sum_{i=0}^K (U(P_i, f) - L(P_i, f)) \end{aligned}$$

and so,

$$\begin{aligned} U(P, f) - L(P, f) &\leq 4mKf + \sum_{i=0}^K (U(P_i, f) - L(P_i, f)) < 4mK \times \frac{\epsilon}{8mK} \times \frac{\epsilon}{2(K+1)} \\ &= \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

Hence, f is Riemann - integral on $[a, b]$