162 HWK 7

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Question 1

(a)

Proof. Let M be any positive real number. Define N as

$$\ln(M) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} N$$

Because we know that the $\exp x$ is strictly increasing and defined on all real numbers, for x>N,

$$\exp x > \exp N$$
$$\exp x > \exp (\ln M)$$
$$\exp x > M$$

Hence for any positive M, and x > N, $\exp x > M$. Thus, because the exponential function is strictly increasing, as $x \to \infty$, $\exp x \to \infty$.

(b)

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$ and M > 0. Define

$$M \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \ln(\epsilon)$$

We know that $\exp > 0$ because exp is strictly increasing and it is its own derivative. Choose an x < M and

$$|\exp(x) - 0| = \exp(x)$$

Because x < M and exp is strictly increasing,

$$\exp(x) < \exp(M)$$

Also,

$$M = \ln(\epsilon)$$
$$\exp(M) = \epsilon$$

Thus,

$$|\exp(x) - 0| < \epsilon$$

Hence, as
$$x \to -\infty$$
, $\exp(x) \to 0$

(a)

Proof. Assume that $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and that f(r) = 0 for each rational number r. By contradiction, assume that there exists some a such $f(a) \neq 0$. Then, by the definition of continuity for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that if

$$|x-a| < \delta$$

then

$$|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$$

Hence if we take $\epsilon < f(a)$, then on $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$, f(x) > 0. By the density of rationals, we know that there has to be a rational on $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$ and hence there exists some r such that

which is a contradiction. Thus, f(x) = 0 for any real x

(b)

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ are continuous such that f(r) = g(r) for each rational r. Define $h: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$h(x) = f(x) - g(x)$$

Thus for any rational r, h is continuous because it is a combination of continuous functions and

$$h(r) = 0$$

Thus, by part a, h(x) = 0 for any real x. Hence,

$$f(r) = g(r)$$

(a)

Proof. Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function such that f(x+y) = f(x)f(y) for all real numbers x and y. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

$$f(n) = f(n(1)) = f(1)^n$$

It follows that

$$f(n) * f(-n) = f(n-n) = f(0)$$

Thus, $f(-n) = f(n)^{-1}$ by the unique multiplicative inverse axiom. Hence the property holds for all integers. Let $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ so that $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ when $r = \frac{m}{n}$. So,

$$f(r)^n = f(\frac{m}{n})^n = f(n * \frac{m}{n}) = f(m) = f(1)^m$$

Then,

$$f(\frac{m}{n}) = f(m)^{\frac{1}{n}} = f(1)^{m^{\frac{1}{n}}} = f(1)^{\frac{m}{n}}$$

(b)

Case 1

f(0) = 0

Then because f(x-x) by the zero product property, f(x)=0

Case 2

For any real number x and rational number r. Because

$$f(r) = f(1)^r \tag{1}$$

and both of these functions are continuous. By question 2,

$$f(x) = f(1)^x$$

Thus, let f(1) = a so $f(x) = a^x$

Proof. Proof. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, define $f:(0,\infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} x^a$$

Define $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ and $h: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ as

$$g(x) = \exp(x)$$

$$h(x) = a \ln(x)$$

Each of these functions are differentiable as we know the exponential and natural log functions are differentiable. Hence, their composition is differentiable.

$$g(h(x)) = \exp(a \ln(x)) = x^a = f(x)$$

Thus f(x) is differentiable. By the chain rule,

$$(g(h(x)))' = g'(h(x))h'(x) = \exp(a\ln(x))(\frac{a}{x}) = \frac{ax^a}{x} = ax^{a-1}$$

(a)

Proof. Let a and b be real numbers such that a < b. Let $f : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g : [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous functions such that g(x) > 0 for each $x \in [a,b]$. Assume there exists a real number C such that for each x in [a,b]

$$f(x) \le C + \int_{a}^{x} fg$$

Define $h:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ as

$$h(x) = \frac{C + \int_{a}^{x} fg}{\exp(\int_{a}^{x} g)}$$

Then h is differentiable since f,g, are continuous. Hence, the integral of f and g are differentiable. Also, the exponential function is differentiable so by combination of differentiable functions, h(x) is differentiable. So,

$$h'(x) = \frac{fg(\exp(\int_a^x g)) - (C + \int_a^x fg)(\exp(\int_a^x g)g)}{(\exp(\int_a^x g)^2}$$
$$= \frac{g(f - C - \int_a^x fg)}{\exp(\int_a^x g)}$$

Since

$$f(x) \le C + \int_{a}^{x} fgf(x) - C - \int_{a}^{x} fg \le 0$$

So,

$$h'(x) \leq 0$$

Thus, for any x in [a,b]

$$\frac{h(x) \le h(a)}{\exp(\int_a^x g)} \le \frac{C + (\int_a^x fg)}{\exp(\int_a^x g)} \le C$$

Hence,

$$f(x) \le C \exp(\int_{a}^{x} g)$$

(b)

Proof. Assume that $f(x) \ge 0$ for each x in [a,b], f(0) = 0, f is differentiable on (a,b), and f'(x) = g(x)f(x) for each x in (a,b).

Because g(x) and f(x) are greater than 0 and f(x)g(x) > 0, f is increasing. Since 0 is in [a,b], $a \le 0$. Hence since f is increasing, f(0) = 0, and $f(x) \ge 0$, then for any $x \le 0$, f(x) = 0. Thus, f(a) = 0.

Since f is differentiable, by the Second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$f(x) = f(x) - f(0) = \int_0^x f'(x)dx = \int_0^x f(x)g(x)dx$$

Since we know that f(x) = 0 for $x \in [a, 0]$, then

$$\int_{a}^{0} f(x)g(x)dx = 0$$

Hence,

$$f(x) = \int_0^x f(x)g(x)dx + \int_a^0 f(x)g(x)dx = \int_a^x f(x)g(x)$$

In other words

$$f(x) \le C + \int_a^x f(x)g(x)$$

Where C=0. Thus, by part a,

$$0 \le f(x) \le C \exp\left(\int_a^x g\right) = 0$$

So,

$$f(x) = 0$$

for $x \in [a, b]$

(a)

Proof. Because we know that

$$\frac{e^x}{x}$$

goes to ∞ as x goes to ∞ . It follows that

$$e^{x^2} \ge e^x$$

since $e^{a^2}=e^1$ and $(e^{x^2})'>(e^x)'$. Thus for each M>0, there is a K>0 such that if $x>\max\{K,1\}$

$$M < \frac{e^x}{x} \le \frac{e^{x^2}}{x}$$

Hence, $\frac{e^{x^2}}{x} \to \infty$ as $x \to \infty$.

(b)

Proof. By part a, for each $\epsilon>0$ there exists a K>0 such that if $x>\max\{K,1\},$ then

$$\frac{e^{x^2}}{x} > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$$

Hence by taking the reciprocal, for all $x > max\{K, 1\}$,

$$\frac{x}{e^{x^2}} < \epsilon$$

Hence by the definition of a limit at infinity, $\frac{x}{e^{x^2}} \to 0$ as $x \to \infty$

(c)

Proof. By part b, for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a K > 0 such that if x > K then

$$|\frac{x}{e^{x^2}}| < \epsilon$$

Let $\delta = \frac{1}{K}$. Hence if $h < \delta$, then $\frac{1}{h} > K$, so

$$\left| \frac{\frac{1}{h}}{e^{\frac{1}{h^2}}} \right| < \epsilon$$

Hence, as $x \to 0$, $\frac{\frac{1}{h}}{e^{\frac{1}{h^2}}} \to 0$

(d)

Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$f(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} e^{-1/x^2} & \text{if } x \neq 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

In order for this function be differentiable, the limit

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

must exist. For the limit at 0, a = 0. Hence, the limit becomes

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(h)}{h}$$

Because h never is equal to 0,

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(h)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{e^{-1/h^2}}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1/h}{e^{1/h^2}}$$

By part c, this limit is equal to 0. Hence f'(0) exists and

$$f'(0) = 0$$

For $x \neq 0$, we know that the exponential function is differentiable. So by the chain rule,

$$(e^{-1/x^2})' = \frac{2e^{-1/x^2}}{x^3}$$

Thus,

$$f'(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2e^{-1/x^2}}{x^3} & \text{if } x \neq 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Proof. The first use of the L'Hopital's rule is correct as

$$\lim_{x \to 1} x^3 + x - 2 = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \to 1} x^3 + x - 2 = 0$$
$$\lim_{x \to 1} x^2 - 3x - 2 = 0$$

Hence L'Hopital's rule is applicable. The issue comes with the second application as now

$$\lim_{x \to 1} 3x^2 + 1 = 4$$

$$\lim_{x \to 1} 3x^2 + 1 = 4$$
$$\lim_{x \to 1} 2x + -3 = -1$$

Hence the top and bottom do not equal 0 and so L'Hopital's rule does not apply.