

## Math 325 Problem Set 5 Solutions

Starred (\*) problems were due Friday, September 28.

(\*) 25. (Belding and Mitchell, p.63, #1) Using the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  formulation of limits,

(\*) (b) show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} 1 - 2x = 3$ .

We want to control  $|(1 - 2x) - 3| = |-2x - 2| = |(-2)(x + 1)| = |-2| \cdot |x + 1| = 2|x + 1|$ . We want this less than a (given)  $\epsilon > 0$ . We can control  $|x - (-1)| = |x + 1|$ . Comparing this with what we want to control, we find that  $|(1 - 2x) - 3| = 2|x + 1| < \epsilon$  so long as  $|x - (-1)| = |x + 1| < \epsilon/2$ .

So if we set  $\delta = \epsilon/2 > 0$ , then  $|x - (-1)| < \delta$  implies that  $|(1 - 2x) - 3| < \epsilon$ . SO for every  $\epsilon > 0$  we can find a  $\delta = \epsilon/2$  so that  $|x - (-1)| < \delta$  implies that  $|(1 - 2x) - 3| < \epsilon$ , as desired.

(\*) (e) show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{1}{8 - 4x} = \frac{-1}{4}$ .

We want to control

$$\left| \frac{1}{8 - 4x} - \frac{-1}{4} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{8 - 4x} + \frac{1}{4} \right| = \left| \frac{4 + (8 - 4x)}{(8 - 4x)(4)} \right| = \left| \frac{4(3 - x)}{4 \cdot 4 \cdot (2 - x)} \right| = \left| \frac{3 - x}{4(2 - x)} \right| = \frac{|3 - x|}{4|2 - x|} = \frac{|x - 3|}{4|x - 2|}.$$

Because we can make  $|x - 3|$  as small as we want, we can make this quantity small so long as  $|x - 2|$  does not get too small. This we can do, for example, by insisting that  $|x - 3| < 1/2$  [note that  $|x - 3| < 1$  won't quite do, because this will let  $x$  get close to 2 (!)], since then  $|x - 2| = |(x - 3) + 1| \geq |1| - |x - 3| > 1 - 1/2 = 1/2$ . So if  $|x - 3| < 1/2$ , then  $1/2 < |x - 2|$ , and so  $\frac{1}{|x - 2|} < \frac{1}{1/2}$ . Then we have

$$\left| \frac{1}{8 - 4x} - \frac{-1}{4} \right| = \frac{|x - 3|}{4|x - 2|} < \frac{|x - 3|}{4(1/2)} = \frac{|x - 3|}{2},$$

which we can make less than  $\epsilon$  so long as  $|x - 3| < 2\epsilon$ . So, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , if we choose a  $\delta < \min\{1/2, 2\epsilon\}$ , then  $|x - 3| < \delta$  implies that  $|x - 3| < 1/2$  and so

$$\left| \frac{1}{8 - 4x} - \frac{-1}{4} \right| = \frac{|x - 3|}{4|x - 2|} < \frac{|x - 3|}{2} < \frac{2\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon, \text{ so } \left| \frac{1}{8 - 4x} - \frac{-1}{4} \right| < \epsilon, \text{ as desired.}$$

(\*) 28. (The 'Squeeze Play' Theorem) Suppose that  $f, g, h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , are functions with  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $0 < |x - a| < M$  for some  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $M > 0$ . Suppose further that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x). \text{ Show that } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L.$$

[See Belding and Mitchell, p.64, #8 for an outline that you might follow.]

We want to show how to control  $|g(x) - L|$ , in particular, for an  $\epsilon > 0$  we want to arrange that  $|g(x) - L| < \epsilon$ , which means that  $-\epsilon < g(x) - L < \epsilon$ . But since  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  for  $x$  with  $|x - a| < M$ , we have (\*)  $f(x) - L \leq g(x) - L \leq h(x) - L$ .

So if we can manage to show that  $(^{**}) -\epsilon < f(x) - L$  and  $(^{***}) h(x) - L < \epsilon$ , then we have  $-\epsilon < f(x) - L \leq g(x) - L \leq h(x) - L < \epsilon$ , so  $-\epsilon < g(x) - L < \epsilon$  and so  $|g(x) - L| < \epsilon$ , as desired.

But! we can make both of these happen, since  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$  implies that  $-\epsilon < f(x) - L$ , and  $|h(x) - L| < \epsilon$  implies that  $h(x) - L < \epsilon$ . And we know from our hypotheses that there are  $\delta_1 > 0$  and  $\delta_2 > 0$  so that  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ , and  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$  implies that  $|h(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . So if we choose a  $\delta > 0$  smaller than  $M$  (so that  $(^*)$  is true) and smaller than  $\delta_1$  (so that  $(^{**})$  is true) and smaller than  $\delta_2$  (so that  $(^{***})$  is true), then  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  implies that  $-\epsilon < f(x) - L \leq g(x) - L \leq h(x) - L < \epsilon$  and so  $|g(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

So: given an  $\epsilon > 0$  we can find  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$  as above, and then setting  $\delta = \min\{M, \delta_1, \delta_2\} > 0$ , we have  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  implies that  $|g(x) - L| < \epsilon$ , as desired.

- (\*) 29. (Belding and Mitchell, p.64, #9) If  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ , and for some  $K, M \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $M > 0$  we have  $f(x) \leq K$  for all  $x$  with  $0 < |x - a| < M$ , show that  $L \leq K$ .

[What's the alternative?]

The alternative is that  $L > K$ . but then  $L - K = \epsilon > 0$ , and so since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  we know that we can find a  $\delta > 0$  so that  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon = L - K$ . But then  $L - f(x) \leq |L - f(x)| = |f(x) - L| < L - K$ , and so  $L - f(x) < L - K$ , so  $f(x) > K$ .

But!  $f(x) \leq K$  for every  $x$  with  $0 < |x - a| < M$ . This is a problem, though, if we can find an  $x$  satisfying both  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  and  $0 < |x - a| < M$ . Which, of course, we can do: setting  $x = a + (1/2)\min\{\delta, M\}$ , we have  $|x - a| = (1/2)\min\{\delta, M\}$ , which is smaller than both  $\delta$  and  $M$ . So for this value of  $x$  we have both  $f(x) \leq K$  and  $f(x) > K$ . But this contradicts trichotomy.

So the only thing which we assumed, namely that  $L > K$ , is false. So  $L \leq K$ .

### A selection of further solutions.

24. Show that if  $0 \leq x < 1$  then for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  so that  $x^n < \epsilon$ .

[Hint: Suppose not! Then look at lower bounds for  $A = \{x^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  .]

First, deal with  $x = 0$ . For any  $\epsilon > 0$  we have  $x^1 = x = 0 < \epsilon$ , so  $n = 1$  will work.

Now suppose that  $0 < x < 1$  and we cannot find such an  $n$ , so that for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have  $\epsilon \leq x^n$ . This means that  $\epsilon > 0$  is a lower bound for the set  $A = \{x^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . Since the set  $A$  is non-empty ( $x \in A$ ), completeness tells us that  $A$  has a greatest lower bound  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $\epsilon$  is a lower bound for  $A$ , we have  $\epsilon \leq \beta$ , and so, in particular,  $\beta > 0$ .

We then have that  $\beta \leq x^n$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , but no number larger than  $\beta$  will work. But!  $0 < x < 1$  and  $\beta > 0$  imply  $x^{-1}$  exists, and  $x^{-1} > 1$  (since  $x^{-1} \leq 1$  would imply that  $1 = xx^{-1} < 1 \cdot x^{-1} = x^{-1} \leq 1$ , so  $1 < 1$ , a contradiction). Then we have  $x^{-1} \cdot \beta > 1 \cdot \beta = \beta$ , so  $x^{-1} \cdot \beta$  cannot be a lower bound for  $A$ , and so there is an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $x^n < x^{-1}\beta$ . But then since  $x > 0$  we then have  $x^{n+1} = x \cdot x^n < xx^{-1}\beta = \beta$ , so there is an  $m = n + 1 \in \mathbb{N}$  so that  $x^m < \beta$ , and so  $\beta$  is not a lower bound for the set  $A$ .

This is a contradiction, so the only assumption we made must be false. That assumption was that we could not find an  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $x^n < \epsilon$ . So there is an  $n$  with  $x^n < \epsilon$ , as desired.