# Exercises in Principles of Mathematical Analysis

### Exercise 1.1.1

Prove that  $\mathbb{Q}$  has zero measure.

A set  $Q \subset \mathbb{R}$  has measure zero if and only if:

$$Q \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j$$
, where  $A_j$  are intervals and  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |A_j| < \varepsilon, \forall \epsilon > 0$ .

Since  $\mathbb{Q}$  is countable, we can enumerate its elements as  $\{q_1, q_2, q_3, \ldots\}$ .

We start with:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^j} = \frac{1/2}{1 - 1/2} = 1.$$

Then, we can multiply this series by any  $\epsilon > 0$  to get:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\epsilon}{2^j} = \varepsilon.$$

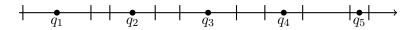
For each rational number  $q_j$ , we can construct an interval  $A_j$  centered at  $q_j$  with length  $\frac{\varepsilon}{2^j}$ :

$$A_j = \left(q_j - \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{j+1}}, q_j + \frac{\varepsilon}{2^{j+1}}\right).$$

Thus, we have:

$$\mathbb{Q} \subset \bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j$$
, and  $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |A_j| = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon}{2^j} = \varepsilon$ .

Since  $\varepsilon$  can be made arbitrarily small, we conclude that  $\mathbb{Q}$  has measure zero.

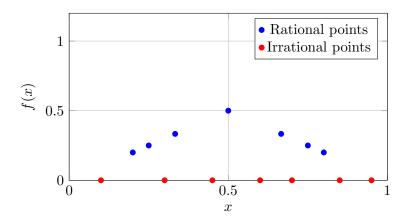


# Exercise 1.1.2

For the following function defined on [0, 1]:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{q} & \text{if } x = \frac{p}{q}, & p, q \in \mathbb{Z}, q \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$$

- 1. Show that f is discontinuous only at the rational points.
- 2. Prove that f is Riemann integrable.



If x is irrational, then

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) \stackrel{?}{=} 0 = f(x_0),$$

 $\forall \varepsilon > 0$ , we want  $|f(x) - 0| = |f(x)| < \varepsilon$  if x is close enough to  $x_0$  i.e.  $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$  for some  $\delta > 0$ .

For example, take  $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{3}$ , then  $|f(x)| < \frac{1}{3}$  if  $f(x) = \frac{1}{q} < \frac{1}{3} \Rightarrow q > 3$ . So, except for the rationals  $0, 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}$ , we have  $|f(x)| < \varepsilon = \frac{1}{3}$ . We can do this for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  by choosing  $q > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ , so

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = 0.$$

So it is continuous at every irrational point. On  $\mathbb{Q}$ , the value of f(x) is non-zero, so it is discontinuous at every rational point.

Finally, since the set of discontinuities has measure zero ( $|\mathbb{Q}| = 0$ ), f is Riemann integrable.

# Exercise 1.1.4

Consider the sequence of functions given by:

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |x| \le n \\ 0 & \text{if } |x| > n \end{cases}$$

Obtain the limit  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x)$  and study whether the convergence is uniform or not.

$$\sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |f_n(x) - f(x)| = 1 \neq 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

So the convergence is not uniform.

### Exercise 1.1.5

Prove that the following series converges in [0,1]. Is the convergence uniform?

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x(1-x)^n = x \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1-x)^n = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{1-(1-x)} = \frac{x}{x} = 1 & \text{if } x \in (0,1) \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

If |1-x| < 1, then the series converges. This is true for all  $x \in [0,1]$ . The convergence is not uniform since f is not continuous:

$$f_N(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{N} x(1-x)^n \xrightarrow{N \to \infty} f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in (0,1) \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

### Exercise 1.1.3

Prove that if a function  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is monotonus, then it:

- 1. is bounded
- 2. is Riemann integrable.

Suppose f is monotonically increasing. Then,

$$f(x) \in [f(a), f(b)], \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

So f is bounded.

Now, we build  $U_f(P)$  and  $L_f(P)$  for a partition  $P = \{a, a + \frac{b-a}{n}, a + 2\frac{b-a}{n}, \dots, b\}.$ 

$$U_f(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \cdot (x_i - x_{i-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) \cdot \frac{b - a}{n},$$

$$L_f(P) = \sum_{i=1}^n \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \cdot (x_i - x_{i-1}) = \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_{i-1}) \cdot \frac{b-a}{n}.$$

Then.

$$U_f(P) - L_f(P) = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})) = \frac{b-a}{n} (f(b) - f(a)) \stackrel{n \to \infty}{\longrightarrow} 0.$$

So f is Riemann integrable.

# Exercise 1.1.8

Build a sequence of continuous functions on [0,1] that converges to a continuous function, but in a non-uniform way. Let us define the sequence of functions:

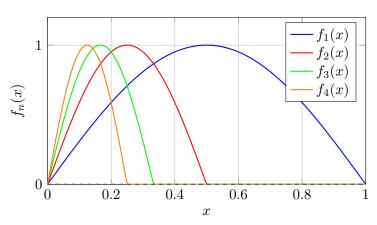
$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(n\pi x) & \text{if } x \in \left[0, \frac{1}{n}\right] \\ 0 & \text{if } x \in \left(\frac{1}{n}, 1\right] \end{cases}$$

Each  $f_n$  is continuous on [0,1]. Now, we find the limit:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) = 0 = f(x), \quad \forall x \in [0, 1].$$

However, the convergence is not uniform. As:

$$\sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f_n(x) - f(x)| = \sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f_n(x)| = 1, \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}.$$



# Exercise 1.1.9

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)(n^2 + 1)} \cdot e^{\frac{-x^4}{n}} dx$$

As  $n \to \infty$ ,

$$\frac{n^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)(n^2 + 1)} \cdot e^{\frac{-x^4}{n}} \to \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}.$$

So, the limit becomes:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx = \lim_{N \to \infty} \int_{0}^{N} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx + \lim_{M \to -\infty} \int_{M}^{0} \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx =$$

$$= \left[\arctan(x)\right]_{0}^{N} + \left[\arctan(x)\right]_{M}^{0} = \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2} = \pi.$$

# Exercise 1.2.1

Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a mapping. Given  $A \subset Y$ , let us define:

$$f^{-1}(A) = \{ x \in X : f(x) \in A \}.$$

#### Prove that:

- 1.  $f^{-1}(Y \setminus A) = X \setminus f^{-1}(A)$ . If  $x \in f^{-1}(Y \setminus A)$ , then  $f(x) \in Y \setminus A$ . So,  $f(x) \notin A$ , which means  $x \notin f^{-1}(A)$ . Thus,  $x \in X \setminus f^{-1}(A)$ .
- 2.  $f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{j} A_{j}\right) = \bigcup_{j} f^{-1}(A_{j}).$ If  $x \in f^{-1}\left(\bigcup_{j} A_{j}\right)$ , then  $f(x) \in \bigcup_{j} A_{j}$ . So, there exists some j such that  $f(x) \in A_{j}$ . Thus,  $x \in f^{-1}(A_{j})$  for that j, which means  $x \in \bigcup_{j} f^{-1}(A_{j})$ .

### Exercise 1.2.2

Let  $f: X \to Y$  be a mapping between two topological spaces  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X), (Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$ . Prove that f is continuous if and only if f is continuous at every  $x \in X$ .

For a topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T}_X)$ , a function  $f: X \to Y$  is continuous if for every open set  $V \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ , the preimage  $f^{-1}(V) \in \mathcal{T}_X$ .

Now, if f is continuous at every  $x \in X$ , then for every open set  $V \in \mathcal{T}_Y$ , we have  $f^{-1}(V) \in \mathcal{T}_X$ . Conversely, if f is continuous, then for every  $x \in X$ , and for every open set  $V \in \mathcal{T}_Y$  containing f(x), we have  $f^{-1}(V) \in \mathcal{T}_X$ . Thus, f is continuous at every  $x \in X$ .

### Exercise 1.2.3

Show that if  $X = \{1, 2, 3\}$ , then  $\mathcal{F} := \{\emptyset, \{2, 3\}, X\}$  is not a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

To show that  $\mathcal{F}$  is not a  $\sigma$ -algebra, we need to verify the three properties of a  $\sigma$ -algebra:

- 1. Contains the empty set:  $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$ .
- 2. Closed under complementation: The complement of  $\{2,3\}$  in X is  $\{1\}$ , which is not in  $\mathcal{F}$ . Since  $\mathcal{F}$  is not closed under complementation, it is not a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

### Exercise 1.2.4

Let S be a family of subsets of  $X, S \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)$ . Prove that

$$\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{S}} := \bigcap \{\mathcal{A} : \mathcal{A} \text{ is a $\sigma$-algebra}, \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{A} \subseteq \mathcal{P}(X)\}$$

is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra containing S.

To prove that  $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{S}$ , we need to show the following:

- 1.  $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.
  - We know that  $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{S}}$  contains the empty set since every  $\sigma$ -algebra contains the empty set. It is closed under complementation and countable unions because these properties hold for each  $\sigma$ -algebra in the intersection.
- 2.  $S \subseteq A_S$ . By definition,  $A_S$  is the intersection of all  $\sigma$ -algebras containing S, so S is contained in  $A_S$ .

3. If  $\mathcal{B}$  is any  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{S}$ , then  $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{S}} \subseteq \mathcal{B}$ . Since  $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is the intersection of all  $\sigma$ -algebras containing  $\mathcal{S}$ , it must be contained in any such  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}$ .

Thus,  $\mathcal{A}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra containing  $\mathcal{S}$ .

#### Exercise 1.2.5

Let  $X = \{a, b, c, d\}$ . Construct the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $E_1 = \{a\}$  and by  $E_2 = \{a, b\}$ . The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $E_1 = \{a\}$  is:

$$\mathcal{A}_{E_1} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b, c, d\}, X\}.$$

The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $E_2 = \{a, b\}$  is:

$$\mathcal{A}_{E_2} = \{\emptyset, \{a\}, \{b\}, \{a, b\}, \{c, d\}, \{a, c, d\}, \{b, c, d\}, X\}.$$

#### Exercise 1.2.12

Let  $u, v : X \to \mathbb{R}$  be measurable functions and let  $\varphi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuous function. Prove that

1. u + v, uv and  $|u|^{\alpha}$  are measurable.

$$u + v = \phi(u, v)$$

$$uv = \phi(u, v)$$

$$|u|^{\alpha} = \phi(u)$$

Every  $\phi$  is continuous, and the composition of measurable functions is measurable. Therefore, u + v, uv, and  $|u|^{\alpha}$  are measurable.

### Exercise 1.2.13

Let  $(X, \mathcal{A})$  be a measurable space and let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function. Prove that the following assertions are equivalent:

- 1.  $\{x \in X : f(x) < \alpha\} \in \mathcal{A} \text{ for every } \alpha \in \mathbb{R}.$
- 2.  $f^{-1}(B) \in \mathcal{A}$  for every Borel set B. Borel sets on  $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{T})$  are  $\sigma$ -algebras generated by  $\mathcal{T}$

We start by proving that (2) implies (1). The open sets  $V \in \mathcal{T}$  are all in  $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ , so they are all borelians. In (1), we have

$$\{x \in X : f(x) < \alpha\} \stackrel{?}{\in} \mathcal{A}$$

which is equivalent to

$$f^{-1}((\alpha, \infty)), \quad (\alpha, \infty) \in B(\mathbb{R}).$$

Thus,

$$f^{-1}((\alpha, \infty)) \in \mathcal{A}$$
 by (2).

Now, we prove that (1) implies (2). In  $\mathcal{A}$ , since it is a sigma algebra, it must contain  $B(\mathcal{R})$ , that is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the open sets.

# Exercise 1.2.15

Prove that if f is a real function on a measurable space X such that  $\{x \in X : x \in X$  $f(x) \ge r$  is measurable for every rational r, then f is measurable.

We have

$$\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \exists \{r_n\} \subset \mathbb{Q} : r_n \nearrow \alpha.$$

and  $\{r_n\}$  is increasing (since  $r_n \nearrow \alpha$ ).

**Note:**  $r_n \nearrow \alpha$  means that  $r_n$  is an increasing sequence that converges to  $\alpha$ .

We want to prove that

$$f^{-1}((\alpha, \infty)) = \{x \in X : f(x) > \alpha\} \in \mathcal{A}, \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Consider the increasing sequence  $\{r_n\}$  such that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} r_n = \alpha$$

With this we express

$$(\alpha, \infty) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} [r_n, \infty)$$

and then

$$\{x \in X : f(x) \ge r\} = f^{-1}((r, \infty)) \in \mathcal{A}, \quad \forall r \in \mathbb{Q}.$$

Thus,

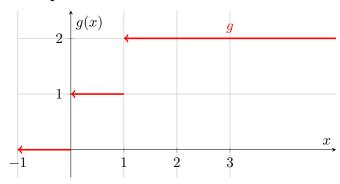
$$f^{-1}((\alpha,\infty)) = f^{-1}\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} [r_n,\infty)\right) = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} f^{-1}([r_n,\infty)) \in \mathcal{A}.$$

### Exercise 1.2.16

Let  $\mathcal{M}$  be the  $\sigma$ -algebra in  $\mathbb{R}$  given by  $\mathcal{M} = \{\emptyset, (-\infty, 0], (0, \infty), \mathbb{R}\}$ . Let g be the function  $q: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in (-\infty, 0], \\ 1 & \text{if } x \in (0, 1], \\ 2 & \text{if } x \in (1, \infty). \end{cases}$$

Is g measurable? How are the measurable functions  $f:(\mathbb{R},\mathcal{M})\to\mathbb{R}$ , with the usual topology of the open sets?



$$\forall V \in \mathcal{T}, \quad g^{-1}(V) \in \mathcal{M}.$$

With V = (-1, 3), we have  $g^{-1}((-1, 3)) = \mathbb{R} \in \mathcal{M}$ . With W = (0, 1), we have  $g^{-1}((0, 1)) = \emptyset \in \mathcal{M}$ .

With H = (-1, 2), we have  $g^{-1}((-1, 2)) = (-\infty, 1] \notin \mathcal{M}$ . So g is not measurable.

# Exercise 1.2.18

Let  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  be sequences in  $\mathbb{R} = [-\infty, \infty]$ . Prove that

- (a)  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} (-a_n) = -\liminf_{n\to\infty} a_n$ .
- (b)  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} (a_n + b_n) \le \limsup_{n\to\infty} a_n + \limsup_{n\to\infty} b_n$ .
- (c) If  $a_n \leq b_n$  for all n, then  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} a_n \leq \limsup_{n\to\infty} b_n$ .
- (d) Show with an example that strict inequality can hold in part b).

**Definition:** If  $\{a_n\}$  is a sequence in  $\mathbb{R}$ , then the sequence:

$$b_k := \sup\{a_k, a_{k+1}, \ldots\}$$

is decreasing (non-increasing), that is  $b_k \ge b_{k+1}$  for all k. It is bounded from below by  $-\infty$ , so it converges to its infimum. The limit is called the *limit superior* of the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  and is denoted by:

$$\limsup_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim_{k \to \infty} (\sup\{a_k, a_{k+1}, \ldots\})$$

This limit always exists in  $\bar{\mathbb{R}}$ . Similarly, consider the sequence:

$$c_k := \inf\{a_k, a_{k+1}, \ldots\}$$

which is increasing (non-decreasing), that is  $c_k \leq c_{k+1}$  for all k. It is bounded from above by  $\infty$ , so it converges to its supremum. The limit is called the *limit inferior* of the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  and is denoted by:

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim_{k \to \infty} (\inf\{a_k, a_{k+1}, \ldots\}).$$

#### Example

Let  $a_n = (-1)^n \arctan(n)$ , then

$$\lim\sup_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{k\to\infty} (\sup\{a_k, a_{k+1}, \ldots\}) = \lim_{k\to\infty} (\sup(\arctan(k))) = \frac{\pi}{2},$$

$$\liminf_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim_{k \to \infty} (\inf\{a_k, a_{k+1}, \ldots\}) = \lim_{k \to \infty} (\inf(-\arctan(k))) = -\frac{\pi}{2}.$$

So the sequence does not converge, since  $\limsup_{n\to\infty} a_n \neq \liminf_{n\to\infty} a_n$ , it does not have a limit.

 $\limsup_{n\to\infty} \{a_n\}$  is the largest value for which there is a subsequence converging to it, and  $\liminf_{n\to\infty} \{a_n\}$  is the smallest value for which there is a subsequence converging to it.

# Exercise 1.3.3

Let (X,A) be a measurable space and let  $\mu:A\to [0,\infty]$  be a countably additive function on the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{A}$ .

- (a) Show that if  $\mu$  satisfies that  $\mu(A) < \infty$  for some  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ , then  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$  (and therefore  $\mu$  is a measure).
- (b) Find an example for which  $\mu(\emptyset) \neq 0$  (and therefore the countably additivity property does not imply that  $\mu$  is a measure).

For  $\mu$  to be countably additive, so it must satisfy:

$$\mu\left(\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} A_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \mu(A_j),$$

for any countable collection of disjoint sets  $\{A_i\} \subseteq \mathcal{A}$ .

Suppose there exists some  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $\mu(A) < \infty$ . We can express A as the union of two disjoint sets:

$$A = A \cup \emptyset$$
.

By countable additivity, we have:

$$\mu(A) = \mu(A) + \mu(\emptyset).$$

Rearranging this gives:

$$\mu(\emptyset) = \mu(A) - \mu(A) = 0.$$

Thus, if  $\mu$  is countably additive and there exists some  $A \in \mathcal{A}$  with  $\mu(A) < \infty$ , then  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ . An example where  $\mu(\emptyset) \neq 0$  is the function  $\mu : \mathcal{P}(X) \to [0, \infty]$  defined by:

$$\mu(A) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } A \neq \emptyset, \\ 0 & \text{if } A = \emptyset. \end{cases}$$

This function is not a measure because it does not satisfy  $\mu(\emptyset) = 0$ .

#### Exercise 2.2.1

Let  $f_n:[0,1]\to [0,1]$  be continuous functions such that  $\lim_{n\to\infty}f_n(x)=0$  for every  $x\in [0,1]$ . Prove that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) \, dx = 0.$$

Try to find  $F(x) \in L^1([0,1])$  such that  $f_n(x) \leq F(x)$ , for example F(x) = 1. Then, by the Dominated Convergence Theorem,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) \, dx = \int_0^1 \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) \, dx = \int_0^1 0 \, dx = 0.$$

#### 1 Exercise 2.2.4

Let  $(X, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$  be a measure space and let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  be an integrable function. Prove Markov's inequality:

$$\mu(\lbrace x \in X : |f(x)| \ge \varepsilon \rbrace) \le \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_X |f(x)| \, d\mu, \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0.$$

By the properties of the Lebesgue integral, we have:

$$\mu(A = \{x \in X : |f(x)| \ge \varepsilon\}) = \int_X \chi_A(x) \, d\mu = \int_A 1 \, d\mu \le \int_A \frac{|f(x)|}{\varepsilon} \, d\mu \le \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \int_X |f(x)| \, d\mu.$$

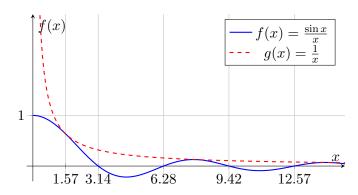
# 2 Exercise 2.2.5

### Consider the function

$$f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}, \quad x \in (0, \infty).$$

Prove that  $f \notin L^1((0,\infty))$ 

**Hint:** divide the interval  $(0,\infty)$  into subintervals of the form  $[n\pi,(n+1)\pi]$ , for  $n=1,2,\ldots$ 



We divide the interval  $(0, \infty)$  into subintervals of the form  $[n\pi, (n+1)\pi]$ , for  $n=1,2,\ldots$ 



We have:

$$\int_0^\infty \left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| dx = \sum_{n=0}^\infty \int_{n\pi}^{(n+1)\pi} \left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| dx \ge \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{1}{(n+1)\pi} \int_{n\pi}^{(n+1)\pi} \left| \sin x \right| dx =$$

$$= \int_0^\pi \sin x \, dx \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{n=0}^\infty \frac{1}{(n+1)} = [\cos x]_0^\pi \cdot \frac{1}{\pi} \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n} = \frac{2}{\pi} \cdot \infty = \infty.$$

Thus,  $f \notin L^1((0,\infty))$ .

# Exercise 2.2.6

#### Consider the function

$$f(x) = \frac{1 - \cos x}{x(1 + x^2)}, \quad x \in (0, \infty).$$

Prove that  $f \in L^1((0,\infty))$ .

We have:

$$\int_0^\infty \left| \frac{1 - \cos x}{x(1 + x^2)} \right| \, dx = \int_0^\infty \frac{1 - \cos x}{x(1 + x^2)} \, dx$$

Using the Taylor expansion of  $\cos x$  around 0:

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots \implies 1 - \cos x = \frac{x^2}{2} + \varepsilon$$
 on some  $(0, \delta)$ ,

Then in  $(0, \delta)$ :

$$\left| \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2 / 2} \right| < 1 + \varepsilon$$

And,

$$|f(x)| < \frac{(1+\varepsilon)x^2/2}{x(1+x^2)} = \frac{(1+\varepsilon)x}{2(1+x^2)} \in L^1((0,\delta)).$$

On  $(\delta, \infty)$ , we have:

$$|f(x)| \le \frac{2}{x(1+x^2)} \le \frac{2}{x^3} \in L^1((\delta,\infty)).$$

Thus,  $f \in L^1((0,\infty))$ .

