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# *Real Analysis*

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## Assignment №7

Instructor: Dr. Eric Westlund

David Oniani

Luther College

[oniada01@luther.edu](mailto:oniada01@luther.edu)

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4.2.5 (a) Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (3x + 4) = 10$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given and let  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{3}$ . Then  $0 < |x - 2| < \delta$  and we have that  $|x - 2| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$  and it follows that  $|3x - 6| < \epsilon$ . Now, notice that  $3x - 6 = 3x + 4 - 10$  and thus,  $|(3x + 4) - 10| < \epsilon$ . Hence,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (3x + 4) = 10$ .

□

(b) Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^3 = 0$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given and let  $\delta = \sqrt[3]{\epsilon}$ . Then  $0 < |x - 0| < \delta$  and we have that  $|x| < \sqrt[3]{\epsilon}$ . Now, notice that  $|x|^3 = |x^3|$ . and thus,  $|x^3 - 0| < \epsilon$ . Hence,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^3 = 0$ .

□

(c) Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + x - 1) = 5$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given and let  $|x - 2| < \delta$ . Then  $|x - 2| < \delta$ ,  $|x + 3| < 5 + \delta$ . We have  $0 < |x^2 + x - 6| < \delta$ . Notice that  $x^2 + x - 6 = (x - 2)(x + 3)$ . Then  $|(x - 2)(x + 3)| < \delta(\delta + 5)$ .

Notice that the equation  $\delta(\delta+5) = \epsilon$  has a discriminant  $\mathbb{D} = 25+4\epsilon > 0$  and the equation always has at least one solution since  $\epsilon > 0$ . Thus,  $\exists \delta$  s.t.  $\delta(\delta+5) < \epsilon$  and it follows that  $|(x-2)(x+3)| < \epsilon$ . Finally, we have that  $|(x-2)(x+3)| = |(x^2+x-1)-5| < \epsilon$ . Hence,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2}(x^2+x-1) = 5$ .

□

(d) Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given and let  $|x-3| < \delta$ . Then notice that  $\left|\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{3}\right| = \left|\frac{x-3}{3x}\right| < \frac{\delta}{3(\delta+3)}$ .

Now, the equation  $\frac{\delta}{3(\delta+3)} = \epsilon$  always has at least one solution as the discriminant

$\mathbb{D} = 9\epsilon^2 + 36\epsilon > 0$  and thus,  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta$  s.t.  $\frac{\delta}{3(\delta+3)} < \epsilon$ . Finally, we get that

$\left|\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{3}\right| < \epsilon$ . Hence,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{3}$ .

□

4.2.8 (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{|x-2|}{x-2}$  does not exist.

To show this, let  $x_n = \frac{1}{n} + 2$  and let  $y_n = -\frac{1}{n} + 2$  with  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Then we have  $\frac{|x_n-2|}{x_n-2} = \frac{\frac{1}{n}}{\frac{1}{n}} = 1$  and  $\frac{|y_n-2|}{y_n-2} = \frac{\frac{1}{n}}{-\frac{1}{n}} = -1$ . Now, **by Corollary 4.2.5**, the limit does not exist.

□

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{7}{4}} \frac{|x-2|}{x-2} = -1$ .

Notice that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{7}{4}} |x-2| = 0.25$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{7}{4}} (x-2) = -0.25$ . Then, **per Algebraic**

**Limit Theorem**, we get that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{7}{4}} \frac{|x-2|}{x-2} = -1$ .

□

(c)  $\lim x \rightarrow 0(-1)^{[\frac{1}{x}]}$  does not exist.

To show this, let  $x_n = \frac{1}{2n}$  and let  $y_n = \frac{1}{2n+1}$  with  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Then we have  $(-1)^{[\frac{1}{x_n}]} = (-1)^{[2n]} = (-1)^{2n} = 1$  and  $(-1)^{[\frac{1}{y_n}]} = (-1)^{[2n+1]} = (-1)^{2n+1} = -1$ . Now, **by Corollary 4.2.5**, the limit does not exist.

□

(d)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt[3]{x}(-1)^{[\frac{1}{x}]} = 0$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then let  $\delta = \epsilon^3$ . We have  $|x-0| < \delta$  and it follows that  $|\sqrt[3]{x}| < \epsilon$ .

We get  $|\sqrt[3]{x}(-1)^{[\frac{1}{x}]}| - 0 = |\sqrt[3]{x}(-1)^{[\frac{1}{x}]}| = |\sqrt[3]{x}| < \epsilon$ . Hence,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt[3]{x}(-1)^{[\frac{1}{x}]} = 0$ .

□

4.2.9 (a) Let  $M > 0$  be given and let  $\delta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}}$ . Then, if  $|x| < \delta$ , we have  $\frac{1}{x^2} > \frac{1}{\delta^2}$  and it follows that  $\frac{1}{x^2} > M$ . Hence, we showed that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} = \infty$ .

□

(b) The definition would read as follows:

“We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  if  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists M > 0$  s.t. if  $x > M$  we have  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .”

Let us now prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given and let  $M = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ . Then if  $x > M$ , we have  $x > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ . We have  $\frac{1}{x} = |\frac{1}{x} - 0| < \epsilon$ . Hence,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$ .

□

(c) The definition would read as follows:

“ $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$  if  $\forall M > 0, \exists N > 0$  s.t.  $\forall x > N, f(x) > M$ .”

For instance,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x = \infty$  is one example. In this case, given  $M > 0$ , we can pick  $N = M$ .

4.2.11 Let us first  $\forall c \in \mathbb{R}$  define  $S_\delta(c) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 < |x - c| < \delta\}$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Then, since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$ , by definition,  $\exists \delta_1 > 0$  s.t.  $\forall x \in S_{\delta_1}(c), |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . Similarly, we can also find  $\delta_2$  s.t.  $\forall x \in S_{\delta_2}(c), |h(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . Then let  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ . We get that  $\forall x \in S_\delta(c)$ , we have  $L - \epsilon < f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x) < L + \epsilon$ . And finally, it follows that  $|g(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . Hence,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L$ .

□

4.3.3 (a) As  $g$  is continuous at  $f(c)$ , it follows that  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta' > 0$  s.t. if  $|f(x) - f(c)| < \delta'$ , we have  $|g(f(c)) - g(f(x))| < \epsilon$ . Now, as  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ ,  $\forall \delta' > 0$ , we get  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t. if  $|x - c| < \delta$ , we get  $|f(x) - f(c)| < \delta'$ . Hence,  $g \circ f$  is continuous at  $c$ .

□

(b) Let  $(x_n) \rightarrow c$ . Then, as  $f$  is continuous at  $c$ , we have that  $(f(x_n)) \rightarrow f(c)$ . We get that  $(f(x_n))$  is a convergent sequence with  $(f(x_n)) \rightarrow f(c)$ . Since  $g$  is continuous at  $f(c)$ , we get  $(g(f(x_n))) \rightarrow g(f(c))$  and thus,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(f(x)) = g(f(c))$ .

□

4.3.7 (a) First consider an arbitrary  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Now, recall that  $\mathbb{I}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then, due to the density property, there exists a sequence  $(x_n) \subseteq \mathbb{I}$  s.t.  $(x_n) \rightarrow r$ . Then it follows that  $g(x_n) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $g(r) = 1$ . Since  $\lim g(x_n) = 0 \neq g(r)$ , **by Corollary 4.3.3 (Criterion for Discontinuity)**, we conclude that  $g(x)$  is not continuous at  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

Let us now consider an arbitrary  $i \in \mathbb{I}$ . Recall that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then, due to the density property, we can find a sequence  $(y_n) \subseteq \mathbb{Q}$  s.t.  $(y_n) \rightarrow i$ . This time  $g(y_n) = 1$  for all  $n \in N$  with  $g(i) = 0$ . Now, since  $\lim g(y_n) = 1 \neq g(i)$ , we can conclude that  $g$  is not continuous at  $i$ .

Now, since  $g(x)$  is not continuous at any  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$  as well as at any  $i \in \mathbb{I}$ , we conclude that Dirichlet's function is nowhere continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

□

- (b) Consider an arbitrary rational number  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ . Then, notice that  $t(r) \neq 0$ . Now, since  $\mathbb{I}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{Q}$ , there exists a sequence  $(x_n) \subseteq \mathbb{I}$  s.t.  $(x_n) \rightarrow r$ . It follows that  $n \in N, t(x_n) = 0$  with  $t(r) \neq 0$ . Thus  $\lim t(x_n) \neq t(r)$  and  $t(x)$  is not continuous at  $r$ . Hence, Thomae's function fails to be continuous at every rational point.

□

- (c) Let  $c \in \mathbb{I}$  be an arbitrary irrational number. Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , set  $T = \{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid t(x) \geq \epsilon\}$ . If  $x \in T$ , then  $x$  is a rational number of the form  $x = \frac{m}{n}$  with  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  where  $n \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ . The restriction on the size of  $n$  implies that the intersection of  $T$  with the interval  $[c-1, c+1]$  is finite. In a finite set, all points are isolated, so we can pick a neighborhood  $V_\delta(c)$  around  $c$  such that  $x \in V_\delta(c)$  implies  $x \notin T$ . But if  $x \notin T$ , then  $t(x) < \epsilon$ , i.e.,  $t(x) \in V_\delta(0) = V_\delta(t(c))$ . Finally, **by Theorem 4.3.2 (iii)**, we conclude that  $t(x)$  is continuous at  $c$ .

□

#### 4.3.8 (a) It is true that $g(1) \geq 0$ .

Suppose, for the sake of contradiction, that  $g$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $g(1) < 0$ . Then  $\exists \epsilon = |g(1)|$  s.t.  $|g(x) - g(1)| \geq \epsilon$  for every choice  $\delta = |x - 1|$ . And we face a contradiction since we assumed that  $g$  is continuous at  $x = 1 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence,  $g(1) \geq 0$  as well.

□

- (b) It is true that  $g(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  be given. Recall that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then, there exists a sequence of rational numbers  $(s_n)$  s.t.  $(s_n) \rightarrow x$ . Now, as  $g(x)$  is continuous at  $x$ , **per Theorem 4.3.2**, it follows that  $g(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(s_n) = 0$  and thus  $g(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

□

- (c) It is true that  $g(x)$  is strictly positive for uncountably many points.

Let  $c = g(x_0) > 0$ . Now, since  $g(x)$  continuous at  $x_0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  s.t.  $|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \frac{c}{2}$  for all  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ . Hence,  $\forall |x - x_0| < \delta$  we get  $-\frac{c}{2} < f(x) - c < \frac{c}{2}$  and thus,  $\frac{c}{2} < f(x) < \frac{3c}{2}$ . Hence, we get  $\forall |x - x_0| < \delta, f(x) > 0$  and it follows that  $g(x)$  is strictly positive for uncountably many points.

□