

Tutorial 5 Solutions RA

①

Q1 (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x}{x+3} = \frac{2}{5}$. To show this write

$$\left| \frac{x}{x+3} - \frac{2}{5} \right| = \left| \frac{5x - 2(x+3)}{5(x+3)} \right| = \left| \frac{3(x-2)}{5(x+3)} \right|$$

Now since $x \rightarrow 2$, we may assume $x > 0$.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. $\left| \frac{3}{5(x+3)} \right| < \frac{3}{5 \cdot 3} = \frac{1}{5}$

Choose $\delta > 0$ by letting $\delta = 5\varepsilon$.

Then $|x-2| < \delta \Rightarrow \left| \frac{x}{x+3} - \frac{2}{5} \right| < 5 \cdot \frac{1}{5} \varepsilon = \varepsilon$

So $\frac{x}{x+3} \rightarrow \frac{2}{5}$

(2) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{x^2+4} - x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{x^2+4} - x) \left(\frac{\sqrt{x^2+4} + x}{\sqrt{x^2+4} + x} \right)$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4}{\sqrt{x^2+4} + x} = 0$$

To show this from definition we have to find $M > 0$ such that $x > M \Rightarrow \left| \frac{4}{\sqrt{x^2+4} + x} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon$.

Since $\sqrt{x^2+4} + x > 2x$,

$$\frac{4}{\sqrt{x^2+4} + x} < \frac{4}{2x} = \frac{2}{x}$$

If $\frac{2}{x} < \varepsilon$, $x > \frac{2}{\varepsilon}$. Let $M \geq \frac{2}{\varepsilon}$.

Then $x > M \Rightarrow \left| \sqrt{x^2+4} - x \right| < \frac{2}{x} < \varepsilon$.

So $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{x^2+4} - x) = 0$

(iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(2x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 2 \sin x \cos x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 2 \sin x \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x = 2 \cdot 1 = 2$

(iv) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-2}{x^2-4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-2}{(x-2)(x+2)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{x+2} = \frac{1}{4}$

(2)

$$(2)(i) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a} cf(x) = cL. \text{ Assume } c \neq 0 \text{ (} c=0 \text{ is trivial)}$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose $\delta > 0$ such that $|x-a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x)-L| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|c|}$

$$\text{Then } |x-a| < \delta \Rightarrow |cf(x) - cL| < |c| \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{|c|} = \varepsilon$$

So $cf(x) \rightarrow cL$

(ii) $f(x) \rightarrow L, g(x) \rightarrow M$. Choose $\delta_1 > 0$ such that $|x-a| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |f(x)-L| < \varepsilon/2$

Choose δ_2 such that $|x-a| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |g(x)-M| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$

Take $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$. Then

$$|x-a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x)+g(x)-L-M| \leq |f(x)-L| + |g(x)-M| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$

(iii) $f(x) \rightarrow L, g(x) \rightarrow M$ so $g(x)f(x) \rightarrow LM$. Take $L \neq 0, M \neq 0$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x)g(x) - LM| &= |f(x)g(x) - f(x)M + f(x)M - LM| \\ &= |f(x)(g(x) - M) + M(f(x) - L)| \end{aligned}$$

$$\leq |f(x)| |g(x) - M| + |M| |f(x) - L|$$

Choose δ_1 such that $|x-a| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |f(x)-L| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2|M|}$

Now x is near a , so $|f(x)|$ is near $|L|$

Pick δ_2 such that $|x-a| < \delta_2 \Rightarrow |g(x)-M| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(1+|L|)}$

Now if $\delta_2 < \delta_1$, $|f(x)-L| < \varepsilon$

$$\text{So } -\varepsilon < f(x) - L < \varepsilon$$

And $|f(x)| < \varepsilon + L \leq \varepsilon + |L|$. If $\varepsilon < 1$ we have $|f(x)| < 1 + |L|$

Take $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$. $|x-a| < \delta$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |f(x)g(x) - LM| &\leq |f(x)| |g(x) - M| + |M| |f(x) - L| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon(1+|L|)}{2(1+|L|)} + \frac{M\varepsilon}{2|M|} \\ &= \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

(iv) Assume $g(x) > k > 0$ and $M \neq 0$. Then, we

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{L}{M} \right| &= \left| \frac{Mf(x) - Lg(x)}{g(x)M} \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|g(x)M|} |Mf(x) - ML + ML - Lg(x)| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{kM} |M(f(x) - L) + L(M - g(x))| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{|k|M} (|M||f(x) - L| + |L||M - g(x)|) \end{aligned}$$

Pick $\delta_1 > 0$ st $|x - a| < \delta_1 \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < |k| \frac{\epsilon}{2}$
 " $\delta_2 > 0$ " " $< \delta_2 \Rightarrow |M - g(x)| < \frac{|k|M}{2|L|} \epsilon$

Let $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{L}{M} \right| &\leq \frac{1}{|k|M} (|M||f(x) - L| + |L||M - g(x)|) \\ &< \frac{1}{|k|} |k| \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{|k||M||L|}{2|k||M|} \epsilon = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

We here assumed $L \neq 0$. If $L = 0$

The term $|L||M - g(x)|$ disappears.

(3) We did $f(x) = x^2$ in class. So let us do $f(x) = x^3$ instead. We let $x_n \rightarrow x$. So we can find $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n \geq N \Rightarrow |x_n - x| < \frac{\epsilon}{K}$ for some K .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now } |x_n^3 - x^3| &= |x_n - x| |x_n^2 + x_n x + x^2| \\ &\leq |x_n - x| (|x_n^2| + |x_n x| + |x|^2) \end{aligned}$$

Assume $x \neq 0$ otherwise it is trivial ($0 = 0$)

$\{x_n\}$ is convergent, so it is bounded. Let $|x_n| \leq M$

Then take $K = M^2 + M|x| + |x|^2$.

$$\text{Thus } n \geq N \Rightarrow |x_n^3 - x^3| \leq |x_n - x| K < K \frac{\epsilon}{K} = \epsilon$$

So $x_n^3 \rightarrow x^3$ and x^3 is therefore continuous

(*) I forgot it was in the title.

(4)

For $\sin x$ we have $|\sin x| \leq 1$
and we use the trig identity

$$\sin x - \sin y = 2 \sin\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right)$$

$$\text{So } |\sin x - \sin y| = 2 \left| \sin\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right) \cos\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \right|$$

$$\leq 2 \left| \sin\left(\frac{x-y}{2}\right) \right|$$

$$\leq 2 \left| \frac{x-y}{2} \right| = |x-y|$$

So if $|x-y| < \varepsilon$ Then $|\sin x - \sin y| < \varepsilon$ and
thus $\sin x$ is uniformly continuous on $\mathbb{R}$

Note $\cos x$ is also uniformly continuous on $\mathbb{R}$.

(4) It is enough to show that x^n is continuous
for any positive integer n .

We use

$$x^n - y^n = (x-y)(x^{n-1} + x^{n-2}y + x^{n-3}y^2 + \dots + y^{n-1})$$

If $x_k \rightarrow x$

$$|x_k^n - x^n| \leq k |x - y|$$

$$\text{for } k = |x^{n-1}| + \dots + |y^{n-1}|$$

where $|x_n| \leq M$ all n . The proof then
is the same as for Q 3.

(5)

(4) Linear Combination of continuous functions are continuous. So it suffices to show that x^n is continuous on $\mathbb{R}$ for $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$.

Now

$$|x^n - y^n| = |x - y| |x^{n-1} + x^{n-2}y + \dots + y^{n-1}|$$

Now for any finite x, y , $\exists M > 0$, $M < \infty$ such that

$$|x^{n-1} + \dots + y^{n-1}| \leq M.$$

Let $\varepsilon > 0$. Choose x, y such that $|x - y| < \frac{\varepsilon}{M}$.

then $|x - y| < \delta$, $\delta = \varepsilon / M$

$$\Rightarrow |x^n - y^n| < \frac{\varepsilon}{M} M = \varepsilon$$

So x^n is continuous.

(5) $f(r) = r^2$, $r \in I \cap \mathbb{Q}$. f is continuous

Let $x \in I$. If $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, $f(x) = x^2$.

Suppose that x is irrational. Then we can find a sequence of rationals $r_n \in I$ such that $r_n \rightarrow x$.

By continuity $f(r_n) \rightarrow f(x)$

$$\text{So } r_n^2 \rightarrow f(x) \text{ or } f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n^2$$

$$= x^2$$

by elementary properties of limits.

(6) Continuous functions have the intermediate value property. So if

$f(a) < 0$, $f(b) > 0$ then there exists $\xi \in (a, b)$ such that $f(\xi) = 0$.

$$\text{Let } P_{2n+1}(x) = a_{2n+1}x^{2n+1} + a_{2n}x^{2n} + \dots + a_0$$

$$= a_{2n+1}x^{2n+1} + q_{2n}(x)$$

$$a_{2n+1} \neq 0$$

(5)

Now $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} \frac{q_{2n}(x)}{a_{2n+1} x^{2n+1}} = 0.$

Without loss of generality, assume $a_{2n+1} > 0$
So we can find x large enough that

$$x^{2n+1} > \left| \frac{q_{2n}(x)}{a_{2n+1}} \right|$$

For such x , $p_{2n+1}(x) > 0$.

Conversely we can find $x < 0$
such that $|x|^{2n+1} > \left| \frac{q_{2n}(x)}{a_{2n+1}} \right|$

which means $p_{2n+1}(x) < 0$. So by the intermediate property, there is an $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $p_{2n+1}(\xi) = 0$.

Note that if p_n is even, this is not necessarily true.

7) For every $x \in I$ there is a $y \in I$ such that $|f(y)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|f(x)|$.
Since $y \in I$ $\exists y_1 \in I$ with

$$|f(y_1)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|f(y)| \leq \frac{1}{2^2}|f(x)|$$

We can also find $y_2 \in I$ with $|f(y_2)| \leq \frac{1}{2}|f(y_1)| \leq \frac{1}{2^3}|f(x)|$

Thus there is a sequence $\{y_n\}$ such that $|f(y_n)| \leq \frac{1}{2^n}|f(x)|$.

Now $\{y_n\} \in [a, b]$, so it is bounded.

Clearly $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |f(y_n)| = 0.$

Since $\{y_n\}$ is bounded, it has a convergent.

(7)

subsequence $\{y_{n_k}\}$. Let $y_{n_k} \rightarrow \xi \in I$.
Then

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} |f(y_{n_k})| &= |f(\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} y_{n_k})| \\ &= |f(\xi)| = 0\end{aligned}$$

Since f is continuous. Thus
 $f(\xi) = 0$

(8) This is a simple version of Brouwer's fixed point theorem.

Now $f: [a, b] \rightarrow [a, b]$. So the image of $[a, b]$ under f is a subset of $[a, b]$.

So $f(a) \geq a$, $f(b) \leq b$

Let $g(x) = f(x) - x$, $x \in [a, b]$. This is continuous. But $g(a) \geq 0$ and $g(b) \leq 0$.

So $\exists \xi \in [a, b]$ with $g(\xi) = 0$
or $f(\xi) = \xi$

(9) Let $J = f(I) = \{f(x) : x \in I\}$. We show that J is also an interval. We have to prove that if $y_1, y_2 \in J$ and $y_1 \leq \lambda \leq y_2$, then $\lambda \in J$.

Now

$$S = \{x : f(x) \leq \lambda\}, T = \{x : f(x) \geq \lambda\}$$

are non empty. Every point in I is in either S or T . (There are no other options).

Consider T . We can find $s \in S$, which is at zero distance from T . (See Canvas).

We can find a sequence $\{t_n\} \subset T$, with

$t_n \rightarrow s$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. By continuity

$f(t_n) \rightarrow f(s)$. $f(t_n) \geq \lambda$ all n , so $f(s) \geq \lambda$. But $s \in S$, so $f(s) \leq \lambda$.

$$\therefore f(s) = \lambda$$

The other way round is similar

(8)

(10) Suppose ξ is such that $f(\xi) > 0$.

Since $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, we can find $b > \xi$, such that for $x > b$, $|f(x)| < |f(\xi)|$.

Since $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow -\infty$, we can find $a < \xi$, such that for any $x < a$,

$|f(x)| < |f(\xi)|$. So f attains a maximum on $[a, b]$. Suppose that $f(\eta) \geq f(x)$

$x \in [a, b]$. Then $f(\eta) \geq f(\xi) > f(x)$, $x \notin [a, b]$. Hence f attains a maximum on $\mathbb{R}$.

If we can find ξ such that $f(\xi) < 0$, the existence of a minimum is proved a similar way.

The case $f(x) = 0$ all x is clearly trivial.

