

MATH1102 Analysis

Solutions to examination paper for the academic year 2017/2018

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Solution to question 1

(a)

Definition 1 We say that the function $f : (0, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at the point $x_0 \in (0, +\infty)$ if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0$ such that

$$|x - x_0| < \delta \quad \& \quad x \in (0, +\infty) \quad \implies \quad |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \varepsilon.$$

[4 marks; bookwork]

(b)

Definition 2 We say that the function $f : (0, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous if it is continuous at every point $x_0 \in (0, +\infty)$.

[2 marks; bookwork]

(c)

Definition 3 We say that the function $f : (0, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is uniformly continuous if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \ \exists \delta > 0$ such that

$$|x - y| < \delta \quad \& \quad x, y \in (0, +\infty) \quad \implies \quad |f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon.$$

[4 marks; bookwork]

(d) Let ε be an arbitrary positive number. Take arbitrary x, y such that

$$|x - y| < \varepsilon \quad \& \quad x, y \in (0, +\infty). \tag{1}$$

I claim that (1) implies

$$\left| \frac{1}{1+x} - \frac{1}{1+y} \right| < \varepsilon. \tag{2}$$

Indeed, if $x = y$ then (2) is, obviously, true. If $x \neq y$ then the Mean Value Theorem tells us that

$$\left| \frac{1}{1+x} - \frac{1}{1+y} \right| = \frac{|x-y|}{(1+\xi)^2} \tag{3}$$

for some ξ strictly between x and y . But $\xi > 0$, so $\frac{1}{(1+\xi)^2} < 1$ and, consequently, (3) and (1) imply (2). Thus, the definition of uniform continuity works with $\delta = \varepsilon$. [6 marks; unseen exercise]

(e) Suppose that our function $f : (0, +\infty) \rightarrow (0, +\infty)$, $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$, is uniformly continuous. Applying the definition of uniform continuity with $\varepsilon = 1$ we get a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|x - y| < \delta \quad \& \quad x, y \in (0, +\infty) \quad \implies \quad \left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{y} \right| < 1. \quad (4)$$

Put $x = \frac{1}{n+1}$ and $y = \frac{1}{n}$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$. We have

$$|x - y| = y - x = \frac{1}{n(n+1)} < \frac{1}{n},$$

so if we choose $n > \frac{1}{\delta}$ we are guaranteed to have $|x - y| < \delta$. But

$$\left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{y} \right| = |(n+1) - n| = 1,$$

contradicting (4). [9 marks; unseen exercise]

Solution to question 2

(a)

Definition 4

(i) A partition P of the interval $[a, b]$ is a finite sequence of real numbers $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ such that

$$a = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_{n-1} < x_n = b.$$

The set of all partitions of a given interval $[a, b]$ will be denoted by $\mathcal{P}[a, b]$.

(ii) The mesh (norm, width) of the partition $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is the number

$$\|P\| := \max_{i=1, \dots, n} (x_i - x_{i-1}).$$

[3 marks; bookwork]

(b)(i) The lower Darboux sum of f with respect to the partition $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is defined as

$$L(f, P) := \sum_{i=1}^n m_i (x_i - x_{i-1}),$$

where $m_i := \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)$. The upper Darboux sum of f with respect to the partition P is defined as

$$U(f, P) := \sum_{i=1}^n M_i (x_i - x_{i-1}),$$

where $M_i := \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)$. [3 marks; bookwork]

(b)(ii)

Definition 5 Let $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$. The lower Riemann integral of f over $[a, b]$ is defined as

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx := \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]} L(f, P).$$

The upper Riemann integral of f over $[a, b]$ is defined as

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx := \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]} U(f, P).$$

[3 marks; bookwork]

(b)(iii) For any pair of partitions P and Q we have $L(f, P) \leq U(f, Q)$. Taking the supremum over $P \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ we get

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq U(f, Q). \quad (5)$$

Note that formula (5) holds for any partition Q . Taking the infimum over $Q \in \mathcal{P}[a, b]$ we get $\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \overline{\int}_a^b f(x) dx$. **[3 marks; bookwork]**

(b)(iv)

Definition 6 The function $f \in \mathcal{B}[a, b]$ is said to be Riemann integrable on $[a, b]$ if

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \overline{\int}_a^b f(x) dx.$$

In this case the common value of the lower and upper Riemann integrals is denoted by

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx$$

and is called the Riemann integral of f over $[a, b]$. The set of all Riemann integrable functions $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ will be denoted by $\mathcal{R}[a, b]$.

[2 marks; bookwork]

(c)(i) We have

$$L(f, P_n) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (i-1) = \frac{1}{n^2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n i - n \right) = \frac{1}{n^2} \left(\frac{n(n+1)}{2} - n \right) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2n},$$

$$U(f, P_n) = \frac{1}{n^2} \sum_{i=1}^n i = \frac{1}{n^2} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2n}.$$

[5 marks; unseen exercise]

(c)(ii) In what follows the P_n are the particular partitions from (c)(i). Using the definitions from (b)(ii) and the results from (c)(i) we get

$$\int_0^1 x dx := \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}[0,1]} L(f, P) \geq \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} L(f, P_n) = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2n} \right) = \frac{1}{2},$$

$$\overline{\int}_0^1 x dx := \inf_{P \in \mathcal{P}[0,1]} U(f, P) \leq \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} U(f, P_n) = \inf_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2n} \right) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

[4 marks; unseen exercise]

(c)(iii) Combining the results from (b)(iii) and (c)(ii) we get

$$\frac{1}{2} \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \overline{\int}_a^b f(x) dx \leq \frac{1}{2}$$

which implies

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \overline{\int}_a^b f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2}.$$

According to the definition from (b)(iv) this means that $\int_0^1 x dx = \frac{1}{2}$. **[2 marks; unseen exercise]**

Solution to question 3

(a)

Definition 7 Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. A primitive of f is a function $F : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which is continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on (a, b) and satisfies $F' = f$ on (a, b) .

[3 marks; bookwork]

(b) No: one can always add a constant to F . [1 mark; bookwork]

(c)

Theorem 1 Let $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ and let F be a primitive of f . Then

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) = F(x)|_a^b. \quad (6)$$

[4 marks; bookwork]

Note: $F(x)|_a^b$ is simply a short way of writing $F(b) - F(a)$.

Proof of Theorem 1 Let $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a partition of $[a, b]$. Applying the Mean Value Theorem to the function F on the subinterval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ we get

$$F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1}) = f(t_i)(x_i - x_{i-1})$$

for some $t_i \in (x_{i-1}, x_i)$. But

$$m_i \leq f(t_i) \leq M_i$$

where I use the standard notation $m_i := \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)$, $M_i := \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x)$. Hence,

$$m_i(x_i - x_{i-1}) \leq F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1}) \leq M_i(x_i - x_{i-1}).$$

Summing up over i from 1 to n we get

$$L(f, P) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n (F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1})) \leq U(f, P).$$

But

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (F(x_i) - F(x_{i-1})) = F(x_n) - F(x_0) = F(b) - F(a),$$

so the above inequality can be rewritten as

$$L(f, P) \leq F(b) - F(a) \leq U(f, P). \quad (7)$$

The inequality (7) is true for any partition P . Taking a limiting sequence of partitions $\{P_k\}$ and letting $k \rightarrow \infty$ we get from (7)

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} L(f, P_k) \leq F(b) - F(a) \leq \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} U(f, P_k). \quad (8)$$

It remains to note that as $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ the result stated in the examination paper tells us that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} L(f, P_k) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} U(f, P_k) = \int_a^b f(x) dx. \quad (9)$$

Substituting (9) into (8), we get

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx \leq F(b) - F(a) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

which implies (6). $\square$ [8 marks; bookwork]

Remark 1 *The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus can be proven without the use of a limiting sequence of partitions. It suffices to use the definition of the Riemann integral. Such a solution would carry full marks.*

(d)(i) We have

$$\begin{aligned} -x^2 &\leq F(x) \leq x^2, & \forall x \in (0, 1], \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^2 &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (-x^2) = 0 = F(0), \end{aligned}$$

so the Sandwich Principle tells us that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} F(x) = F(0),$$

which means that the function F is continuous at the point $x_0 = 0$. **[5 marks; unseen exercise]**

(d)(ii) The function F is continuous on $(0, 1]$ as a composition of continuous functions. It is also continuous at the point $x_0 = 0$ by (d)(i). Hence, the function F is continuous on $[0, 1]$.

The function F is differentiable on $(0, 1)$ as a composition of differentiable functions. Elementary calculations show that we have $F'(x) = f(x)$ on $(0, 1)$.

Thus, the function F satisfies the definition of a primitive from (a). **[3 marks; unseen exercise]**

(d)(iii) The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus gives us

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = F(1) - F(0) = \cos 1.$$

[1 marks; unseen exercise]

Solution to question 4

(a)

Theorem 2 *Let $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) . Then there exists a point $\xi \in (a, b)$ such that*

$$(g(b) - g(a))f'(\xi) = (f(b) - f(a))g'(\xi). \quad (10)$$

[3 marks; bookwork]

(b)

Theorem 3 *Let $f, g : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable and let $c \in (a, b)$ be such that $f(c) = g(c) = 0$ and $g'(x) \neq 0$ for $x \neq c$. Then*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \quad (11)$$

provided the latter limit exists.

[4 marks; bookwork]

Explanation why $g(x) \neq 0$ for $x \neq c$ (this is not part of the proof of the theorem). Indeed, suppose $g(x) = 0$ for some $x \in (a, b)$, $x \neq c$.

Case 1: $x > c$. Apply Rolle's Theorem to the function g on the interval $[c, x]$: Rolle's Theorem tells us that there exists a $\xi \in (c, x)$ such that $g'(\xi) = 0$, which contradicts the assumptions of Theorem 3.

Case 2: $x < c$. Apply Rolle's Theorem to the function g on the interval $[x, c]$: Rolle's Theorem tells us that there exists a $\xi \in (x, c)$ such that $g'(\xi) = 0$, which contradicts the assumptions of Theorem 3.

Proof of Theorem 3 Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists and equals L . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L \quad (12)$$

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L. \quad (13)$$

In order to prove (11) we need to show that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L \quad (14)$$

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L. \quad (15)$$

Let us prove (14).

Take an arbitrary sequence $\{x_n\} \subset (c, b)$ such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = c. \quad (16)$$

Applying Theorem 2 on the interval $[c, x_n]$ we get a sequence $\{\xi_n\}$ such that

$$c < \xi_n < x_n \quad (17)$$

and

$$(g(x_n) - g(c))f'(\xi_n) = (f(x_n) - f(c))g'(\xi_n)$$

which can be equivalently rewritten as

$$\frac{f(x_n)}{g(x_n)} = \frac{f'(\xi_n)}{g'(\xi_n)}. \quad (18)$$

Formulae (16), (17) and the Sandwich Principle imply

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \xi_n = c. \quad (19)$$

Formulae (12), (19) and the sequential definition of a limit (one-sided version) imply

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(\xi_n)}{g'(\xi_n)} = L. \quad (20)$$

Formulae (18) and (20) imply

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x_n)}{g(x_n)} = L. \quad (21)$$

Formula (21) and the sequential definition of a limit (one-sided version) imply¹ (14).

Formula (15) is proved similarly. $\square$ **[9 marks; bookwork]**

(c)(i) Applying L'Hôpital's Rule once we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sinh x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cosh x = \cosh 0 = 1.$$

¹Here it is important that the sequence $\{x_n\} \subset (c, b)$ is an *arbitrary* sequence satisfying (16).

[2 marks; unseen exercise]

(c)(ii) Applying L'Hôpital's Rule once and using the result from (c)(i) we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cosh x}{x^2} = -\frac{1}{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sinh x}{x} = -\frac{1}{2}.$$

[2 marks; unseen exercise]

(c)(iii) Using the result from (c)(i) we get

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sinh^2 x - \tanh^2 x}{x^4} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sinh^2(\cosh^2 x - 1)}{x^4 \cosh^2 x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sinh^4 x}{x^4 \cosh^2 x} \\ &= \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\cosh x} \right)^2 \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sinh x}{x} \right)^4 = \left(\frac{1}{\cosh 0} \right)^2 (1)^4 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

[5 marks; unseen exercise]

Solution to question 5

(a)

Definition 8 A function $f : [1, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to be locally Riemann integrable over $[1, +\infty)$ if $\forall a, b \in [1, +\infty)$ we have $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$. The set of all locally Riemann integrable functions over the interval $[1, +\infty)$ will be denoted by $\mathcal{R}_{loc}[1, +\infty)$.

[2 marks; bookwork; note that in the lectures this definition was given for an arbitrary interval I and not specifically for the interval $[1, +\infty)$]

(b) We say that f is integrable on $[1, +\infty)$ in the improper sense if $\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_1^b f(x) dx$ exists.

We will denote this limit by $\int_1^{+\infty} f(x) dx$. [4 marks; bookwork; note that in the lectures this definition was given for an arbitrary interval I and not specifically for the interval $[1, +\infty)$]

(c) Note that the integrand is continuous on $[1, +\infty)$, hence locally integrable on $[1, +\infty)$. So we have to check only integrability at $+\infty$. We have

$$\int_1^b \frac{1}{x^{3/2}} dx = 2 - \frac{2}{b^{1/2}} \rightarrow 2 \quad \text{as} \quad b \rightarrow +\infty.$$

Hence,

$$\int_1^{+\infty} \frac{1}{x^{3/2}} dx = 2.$$

[2 marks; special case of an argument done in the lectures]

(d)

Theorem 4 Let $f, g \in \mathcal{R}_{loc}(I)$, $I = \langle c, d \rangle$, and suppose that

- $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all $x \in I$;
- $\int_c^d g(x) dx$ exists.

Then $\int_c^d f(x) dx$ exists.

[3 marks; bookwork]

(e)

Theorem 5 Suppose that $f \in \mathcal{R}_{loc}(I)$ and $|f|$ is integrable over I . Then f is integrable over I .

[3 marks; bookwork]

(f) Let us prove the existence of the improper integral

$$\int_1^{+\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x^{3/2}} dx. \quad (22)$$

Note that the integrand is continuous on $[1, +\infty)$, hence locally integrable on $[1, +\infty)$. So we have to check only integrability at $+\infty$.

By Theorem 5, in order to prove the existence of the integral (22) it is sufficient to prove the existence of the integral

$$\int_1^{+\infty} \frac{|\sin x|}{x^{3/2}} dx. \quad (23)$$

Compare now the functions $\frac{|\sin x|}{x^{3/2}}$ and $\frac{1}{x^{3/2}}$ on the interval $[1, +\infty)$. We have

$$0 \leq \frac{|\sin x|}{x^{3/2}} \leq \frac{1}{x^{3/2}},$$

so, by Theorem 4, in order to prove the existence of the integral (23) it is sufficient to prove the existence of the integral $\int_1^{+\infty} \frac{1}{x^{3/2}} dx$. But this has already been done in (c). **[6 marks; unseen exercise]**

(g) Note that the integrand is continuous on $[1, +\infty)$, hence locally integrable on $[1, +\infty)$. So we have to check only integrability at $+\infty$.

Integrating by parts we get

$$\int_1^b \frac{\cos x}{x^{1/2}} dx = \frac{\sin b}{b^{1/2}} - \sin 1 + \frac{1}{2} \int_1^b \frac{\sin x}{x^{3/2}} dx.$$

We have $\frac{\sin b}{b^{1/2}} - \sin 1 \rightarrow -\sin 1$ as $b \rightarrow +\infty$, so in order to prove the existence of the original integral we have to prove the existence of the integral $\int_1^{+\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x^{3/2}} dx$. But this has already been done in (f).

[5 marks; unseen exercise]