MATH 216 (Fall 2021)

Introduction to Analysis

Final Practice Problem

- 1. Let a < b, let $f: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be Riemann integrable, and let $g: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be such that $\{x \in [a,b] : f(x) \neq g(x)\}$ is finite. Show that g is Riemann integrable and $\int_a^b g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$. Proceed as follows:
 - first suppose, that f is a step function and show that g is also a step function and that $\int_a^b g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$;
 - the use the definition of the Riemann integral to prove the general case.

Solution: Suppose that f is a step function. Let $a = x_0 < x_1 < \cdots < x_n = b$ be such that f is constant on (x_{j-1}, x_j) for $j = 1, \ldots, n$. Choose $a = y_0 < y_1 < \cdots < y_m = b$ such that

$$\{y_0, y_1, \dots, y_m\} \supset \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\} \cup \{x \in [a, b] : f(x) \neq g(x)\}.$$

Then both f and g are constant—and equal—on (y_{j-1}, y_j) for j = 1, ..., m; in particular, g is also a step function. Let $\xi_j \in (y_{j-1}, y_j)$ for j = 1, ..., m. We obtain

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \sum_{j=1}^{m} f(\xi_j)(y_j - y_{j-1}) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} g(\xi_j)(y_j - y_{j-1}) = \int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx.$$

Now, let f be a general Riemann integrable function. Let ϕ be a step function with $\phi \leq f$. Define

$$\tilde{\phi} \colon [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}, \quad x \mapsto \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \phi(x), & g(x) = f(x), \\ g(x), & f(x) \neq g(x) \end{array} \right.$$

Then $\tilde{\phi} \leq g$ such that $\left\{ x \in [a,b] : \phi(x) \neq \tilde{\phi}(x) \right\}$ is finite. By the foregoing, $\tilde{\phi}$ is a step function such that $\int_a^b \tilde{\phi}(x) \, dx = \int_a^b \phi(x) \, dx$. It follows that

$$\int_{*a}^{b} f(x) dx = \sup \left\{ \int_{a}^{b} \phi(x) dx : \phi \colon [a, b] \to \mathbb{R} \text{ is a step function with } \phi \leq f \right\}$$

$$\leq \sup \left\{ \int_{a}^{b} \phi(x) dx : \phi \colon [a, b] \to \mathbb{R} \text{ is a step function with } \phi \leq g \right\}$$

$$= \int_{*a}^{b} g(x) dx$$

Interchanging the rôles of f and g in this argument, we obtain that $\int_{*a}^{b} g(x) dx \le \int_{*a}^{b} f(x) dx$ as well, so that, in fact, $\int_{*a}^{b} g(x) dx = \int_{*a}^{b} f(x) dx$. Similarly, we see that

 $\int_a^{*b} g(x) dx = \int_a^{*b} f(x) dx$. As f is Riemann integrable, we obtain

$$\int_{a}^{b} g(x) dx = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{*b} f(x) dx = \int_{a}^{*b} g(x) dx,$$

so that g is Riemann integrable and $\int_a^b g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$.

2. Show that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k(k!) = (n+1)! - 1$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Solution: We use induction on n.

n=1: In this case, both the left and the right hand side of the equation equal 1.

 $n \leadsto n+1$: Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n} k(k!) = (n+1)! - 1$$

(induction hypothesis). It then follows that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{n+1} k(k!) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} k(k!) + (n+1)(n+1)!$$

$$= (n+1)! - 1 + (n+1)(n+1)!,$$
by the induction hypothesis,
$$= (n+1)!(1+n+1) - 1$$

$$= (n+1)!(n+2) - 1$$

$$= (n+2)! - 1$$

which completes the proof.

3. Let $\theta > 0$, and define the sequence $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ inductively through

$$x_1 := \sqrt{\theta}$$
 and $x_{n+1} = \sqrt{\theta + x_n}$ for $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Show that $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ increases and is bounded above by $1 + \sqrt{\theta}$ (and therefore converges), and compute its limit.

Solution: We use induction to prove that

$$x_n \le x_{n+1} \le 1 + \sqrt{\theta}$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

n = 1: Clearly,

$$x_1 = \sqrt{\theta} \le \underbrace{\sqrt{\theta + \sqrt{\theta}}}_{=x_2} = \sqrt{\sqrt{\theta} \left(1 + \sqrt{\theta}\right)} \le \sqrt{\left(1 + \sqrt{\theta}\right) \left(1 + \sqrt{\theta}\right)} = 1 + \sqrt{\theta}$$

holds.

 $n \leadsto n+1$: Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be such that

$$x_n < x_{n+1} < 1 + \sqrt{\theta}$$

is true. It follows that

$$x_{n+1} = \sqrt{\theta + x_n} \le \underbrace{\sqrt{\theta + x_{n+1}}}_{=x_{n+2}}$$

$$\le \sqrt{\theta + 1 + \sqrt{\theta}} \le \sqrt{\theta + 2\sqrt{\theta} + 1} = \sqrt{\left(1 + \sqrt{\theta}\right)^2} = 1 + \sqrt{\theta}.$$

Let x denote the limit of $(x_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$. It then follows that

$$x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt{\theta + x_n} = \sqrt{\theta + x},$$

so that $x^2 = x + \theta$. Solving the quadratic equation for x yields $x = \frac{1}{2} \pm \sqrt{\theta + \frac{1}{4}}$. As, $\frac{1}{2} - \sqrt{\theta + \frac{1}{4}} < 0 \le x$, it follows that $x = \frac{1}{2} + \sqrt{\theta + \frac{1}{4}}$.

4. Is the function

$$f: [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}, \quad x \mapsto \begin{cases} x, & x \in \mathbb{Q}, \\ 0, & x \notin \mathbb{Q}, \end{cases}$$

Riemann integrable? If so, evaluate its integral.

Solution: Let $0 = x_0 < x_1 < \dots < x_n = 1$ and let $\phi, \psi : [0, 1] \to \mathbb{R}$ be such that ϕ and ψ are constant on (x_{j-1}, x_j) for $j = 1, \dots, n$ and $\phi \leq f \leq \psi$.

For each j = 1, ..., n, there is $r_j \in (x_{j-1}, x_j) \setminus \mathbb{Q}$. As $f(r_j) = 0 \ge \phi(r_j)$ and since ϕ is constant on (x_{j-1}, x_j) , this means that $\phi(x) \le 0$ and therefore

$$\int_0^1 \phi(x) \, dx = \sum_{j=1}^n \phi(r_j)(x_j - x_{j-1}) \le 0.$$

Since $f \ge 0$, this implies that $\int_{0}^{1} f(x) dx = 0$.

On the other hand, we have $\psi(q) \geq f(q) = q$ for all $x \in [0,1] \cap \mathbb{Q}$ and therefore

$$\psi(x) > \sup\{q : q \in (x_{i-1}, x_i) \cap \mathbb{Q}\} = x_i$$

for all j = 1, ..., n and $x \in (x_{j-1}, x_j)$. It follows that

$$\int_0^1 \psi(x) \, dx \ge \sum_{j=1}^n x_j (x_{j-1} - x_j) > \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{x_{j-1} + x_j}{2} (x_{j-1} - x_j) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^n (x_{j-1}^2 - x_j^2) = \frac{1}{2}$$

and thus $\int_0^{*1} f(x) dx \ge \frac{1}{2}$.

Consequently, f is not Riemann integrable.

- 5. Determine whether or not the following series converge, converge absolutely, or diverge:
 - (a) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k!}{(2k)!}$;
 - (b) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos((n-1)\pi) + \sqrt{n}}{n}$;
 - (c) $\sum_{\nu=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{\nu-1}}{\nu(\log \nu)^p}$ where p > 0.

(Hint for (c): The answer may depend on the value of p.)

Solution:

(a) For $k \in \mathbb{N}$, set $a_k := \frac{k!}{(2k)!}$. It follows that

$$\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} = \frac{(k+1)!}{(2k+2)!} \frac{(2k)!}{k!} = \frac{k+1}{(2k+1)(2k+2)} \to 0,$$

so that $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ converges absolutely by the Limit Ratio Test.

(b) For $n \in \mathbb{N}$, set $a_n := \frac{\cos((n-1)\pi) + \sqrt{n}}{n}$, and note that

$$a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

By the Alternating Series Test, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n}$ converges. So, the convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ would imply the convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$, which diverges. Therefore, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ must diverge.

(c) For $\nu \in \mathbb{N}$, $\nu \geq 2$, set $a_{\nu} := \frac{1}{\nu(\log \nu)^p}$. It is clear that $(a_{\nu})_{\nu=2}^{\infty}$ is a decreasing sequence converging to zero. The Alternating Series Test therefore yields the convergence of $\sum_{\nu=2}^{\infty} (-1)^{\nu-1} a_{\nu}$.

The answer to the question of whether or not $\sum_{\nu=2}^{\infty} (-1)^{\nu-1} a_{\nu}$ converges absolutely, i.e., if $\sum_{\nu=2}^{\infty} a_{\nu} < \infty$ or $\sum_{\nu=2}^{\infty} a_{\nu} = \infty$, depends on the value of p.

We use Cauchy's Compression Theorem to tackle this question. For $\nu \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$2^{\nu}a_{2^{\nu}} = \frac{2^{\nu}}{2^{\nu}(\log 2^{\nu})^p} = \frac{1}{(\log 2^{\nu})^p} = \frac{1}{(\log 2)^p \nu^p}.$$

As

$$\sum_{\nu=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(\log 2)^p \nu^p} < \infty \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad p > 1,$$

it follows that $\sum_{\nu=2}^{\infty} (-1)^{\nu-1} a_{\nu}$ converges absolutely if and only if p > 1.

6. Let $r \in \mathbb{R}$, and let $f:(0,\infty) \to \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function such that f(1)=1 and

$$x f'(x) = r f(x)$$

all x > 0. Show that

$$f(x) = x^r$$

for x > 0. (Hint: Consider the function

$$g:(0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R},\quad x\mapsto \frac{f(x)}{x^r}$$

and differentiate it. What do you notice?)

Solution: Let g be as in the hint. Then g is clearly differentiable. Differentiating, we obtain

$$g'(x) = \frac{f'(x)x^r - f(x)rx^{r-1}}{x^{2r}}$$

$$= \frac{f'(x)x^r - xf'(x)x^{r-1}}{x^{2r}}$$

$$= \frac{f'(x)x^r - f'(x)x^r}{x^{2r}}$$

$$= 0$$

for x > 0. It follows that g is constant, and as h(1) = 1, we obtain that g(x) = 1 and, consequently,

$$f(x) = x^r$$

for all x > 0.

7. Let a < b, and let $f, g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and differentiable on (a, b) such that f(a) = f(b) = 0. Show that there is $\xi \in (a, b)$ such that

$$f'(\xi) + f(\xi)g'(\xi) = 0.$$

(*Hint*: Apply Rolle's Theorem to the function $[a, b] \ni x \mapsto f(x) \exp(g(x))$.)

Solution: Let the function in the hint be denoted by h. Then, clearly, h is continuous and differentiable on (a,b) and satisfies h(a)=h(b)=0. By Rolle's Theorem, there is $\xi \in (a,b)$ such that

$$0 = h'(\xi) = f'(\xi) \exp(g(\xi)) + f(\xi)g'(\xi) \exp(g(\xi)) = (f'(\xi) + f(\xi)g'(\xi)) \exp(g(\xi)).$$

As $\exp(g(\xi)) \neq 0$, this means that $f'(\xi) + f(\xi)g'(\xi) = 0$.

8. Let a < b, and let $f, g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuously differentiable such that $f(a) \le g(a)$ and $f' \le g'$. Show that $f \le g$.

Solution: For $x \in [a, b]$, define

$$\tilde{f}(x) := \int_a^x f'(t) dt$$
 and $\tilde{g}(x) := \int_a^x g'(t) dt$.

Then \tilde{f} and \tilde{g} are antiderivatives of f' and g', respectively, and since $f' \leq g'$, we have $\tilde{f} \leq \tilde{g}$. As $\tilde{f}(a) = \tilde{g}(a) = 0$, it follows that

$$f = \tilde{f} + f(a) \le \tilde{g} + g(a) = g.$$

9. Define $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ by letting

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} 0, & x \notin \mathbb{Q}, \\ \frac{1}{q}, & x = \frac{p}{q} \neq 0 \text{ with } p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \in \mathbb{N} \text{ coprime,} \\ 1, & x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Show that f is discontinuous at every $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, but continuous at every $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$.

Solution: Let $x \in \mathbb{Q}$, so that $f(x) \neq 0$. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is $r_n \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$ such that $x < r_n < x + \frac{1}{n}$. It follows that $\lim_{n \to \infty} r_n = x$, but $\lim_{n \to \infty} f(r_n) = 0 \neq f(x)$. Let $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, and let $\epsilon > 0$. We need to find $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ with $|x - y| < \delta$. There are only finitely many $q \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\frac{1}{q} \geq \epsilon$.

$$S := \left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\} \text{ and } q \in \mathbb{N} \text{ coprime, } \frac{1}{q} \ge \epsilon, \left| x - \frac{p}{q} \right| < |x| \right\} \cup \{0\}$$

is finite. Set

Consequently,

$$\delta := \min\{|x - s| : s \in S\},\$$

so that $\delta > 0$. Let $y \in \mathbb{R}$ be such that $|x - y| < \delta$. If $y \notin \mathbb{Q}$, then f(y) = 0, so that trivially $|f(x) - f(y)| = 0 < \epsilon$. Suppose that $y \in \mathbb{Q}$. It follows from the definition of δ that $y \notin S$; in particular, $y \neq 0$. Let $p \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ and $q \in \mathbb{N}$ by coprime such that $y = \frac{p}{q}$. As $y \notin S$, this means that

$$\left|x - \frac{p}{q}\right| \ge |x|$$
 or $\frac{1}{q} < \epsilon$.

By the definition of δ , it is clear that $|x| \geq \delta$, and since $|x - y| < \delta$, the first case cannot occur. It follows that $f(y) = \frac{1}{q} < \epsilon$, which proves the continuity of f at x.

10. Let a < b, and let f be the function defined in the previous problem. Show that f is Riemann integrable on [a, b] with $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$.

Solution: Let $\epsilon > 0$, and set

$$S_{\epsilon} := \left\{ \frac{p}{q} : p \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ and } q \in \mathbb{N} \text{ coprime, } \frac{1}{q} \ge \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)}, \frac{p}{q} \in [a,b] \right\}$$

As in the solution to the previous problem, we see that S_{ϵ} is finite. From the definition of f, it follows that

$$S_{\epsilon} = \left\{ x \in [a, b] : f(x) \ge \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)} \right\}.$$

Define step functions $\phi, \psi \colon [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ by setting $\phi \colon\equiv 0$ and defining

$$\psi(x) := \begin{cases} f(x), & x \in S_{\epsilon}, \\ \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

It is obvious that $\phi \leq f \leq \psi$ and that

$$\int_a^b \psi(x) \, dx - \int_a^b \phi(x) \, dx = \int_a^b \psi(x) \, dx = \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)} (b-a) = \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \epsilon.$$

As $\epsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, this means that f is Riemann integrable.

Finally, note that

$$0 \le \int_a^b f(x) \, dx \le \int_a^b \psi(x) \, dx < \epsilon.$$

Again, as $\epsilon > 0$ was arbitrary, this means that $\int_a^b f(x) dx = 0$.

11. Let a < b, and let $f, g : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous such that $f(a) \leq g(a)$ and $f(b) \geq g(b)$. Show that there is $x_0 \in [a, b]$ such that $f(x_0) = g(x_0)$.

Solution: Define

$$h: [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}, \quad x \mapsto f(x) - g(x).$$

Then h is continuous with $h(a) \leq 0$ and $h(b) \geq 0$. The Intermediate Value Theorem yields $x_0 \in [a, b]$ such that $h(x_0) = 0$, i.e., $f(x_0) = g(x_0)$.

- 12. Let a < b, and let $f: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and differentiable on (a,b). Show that:
 - (a) if $f'(x) \ge 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$, then f is increasing, and if f'(x) > 0 for all $x \in (a, b)$, then f is strictly increasing;

(b) if f is increasing, then $f'(x) \ge 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

Give an example of a strictly increasing function f that is differentiable on (a, b) such that there is $\xi \in (a, b)$ with $f'(\xi) = 0$. (Hint for (a): Mean Value Theorem.) Solution:

(a) Let $x, y \in [a, b]$ be such that x < y. By the Mean Value Theorem, there is $\xi \in (x, y)$ such that

$$\frac{f(x) - f(y)}{x - y} = f'(\xi) \ge 0,$$

so that $f(x) - f(y) = f'(\xi)(x - y) \le 0$, i.e., $f(x) \le f(y)$. If f'(x) > 0 for all $x \in (a, b)$, then the same argument shows that f(x) < f(y) for all $x, y \in [a, b]$ with x < y.

(b) Let $x \in (a, b)$, and let h > 0 be such that $x + h \in [a, b]$. It follows that

$$\frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \ge 0.$$

Therefore, we have

$$f'(x) = \lim_{\substack{h \to 0 \\ h \neq 0 \\ x + h \in [a,b]}} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} = \lim_{\substack{h \to 0 \\ h > 0 \\ x + h \in [a,b]}} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \ge 0.$$

For the example, let a = -1, b = 1, and define

$$f: [-1,1] \to \mathbb{R}, \quad x \mapsto x^3.$$

Clearly, f is strictly increasing, but f'(0) = 0.