

# Homework 10 Solutions

November 5, 2023

## Section 4.2

### Problem 4.2.5

(c) We wish to show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2}(x^2 + x - 1) = 5$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ , and set  $\delta = \min\{1, \frac{\epsilon}{6}\}$ . Assume  $0 < |x - 2| < \delta$ . We begin by noting that since  $\delta < 1$ , we have  $1 < x < 3$ . We then compute:

$$\begin{aligned} |(x^2 + x - 1) - 5| &= |x^2 + x - 6| \\ &= |x + 3||x - 2| \\ &< 6|x - 2| \\ &< 6 \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{6} \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

As  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary we are done.

(d) We wish to show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{3}$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ , and let  $\delta = \min\{1, \frac{6\epsilon}{7}\}$ . Assume  $0 < |x - 3| < \delta$ . We begin by noting that since  $\delta < 1$ ,  $2 < x < 4$ . We then compute:

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{3} \right| &= \left| \frac{x - 3}{3x} \right| \\ &= \frac{|x - 3|}{3x} \\ &< \frac{|x - 3|}{6} \\ &< \frac{6\epsilon}{6} \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

As  $\epsilon$  was arbitrary we are done.

### Problem 4.2.8

(a) Let  $f(x) = \frac{|x-2|}{x-2}$ . Consider the sequence  $x_n = 2 - \frac{1}{n}$ , so that  $x_n \rightarrow 2$ . We see that  $f(x_n) = \frac{|x_n-2|}{x_n-2} = -1$  for all  $n$ , so  $f(x_n) \rightarrow -1$ . But if we instead consider  $y_n = 2 + \frac{1}{n}$ , we have that  $y_n \rightarrow 2$  but  $f(y_n) = 1$  for all  $n$  so  $f(y_n) \rightarrow 1$ . Therefore the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{|x-2|}{x-2}$  does not exist.

(b) We now consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{7}{4}} \frac{|x-2|}{x-2}$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $\delta = \frac{1}{4}$ . Then, in particular, if  $0 < |x - \frac{7}{4}| < \delta$ , we have that  $x < 2$ , so that  $f(x) = -1$ . In particular, if  $0 < |x - \frac{7}{4}| < \delta$  then  $|f(x) - (-1)| = 0 < \epsilon$ . Ergo,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{7}{4}} \frac{|x-2|}{x-2} = -1$ .

(c) Let  $f(x) = (-1)^{\lfloor \frac{1}{x} \rfloor}$ . Consider the sequence  $(\frac{1}{n})$  converging to 0. We see that  $f(\frac{1}{n}) = (-1)^n$ . This does not converge. So  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$  does not exist.

(d) Let  $f(x) = x^{\frac{1}{3}} \cdot (-1)^{\lfloor \frac{1}{x} \rfloor}$ . Then given  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta = \epsilon^3$ . Then if  $0 < |x| < \delta$ , we have that  $|f(x) - 0| = |f(x)| = |x|^{\frac{1}{3}} < \epsilon$ . Hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$ .

### Problem 4.2.10

(a) Let  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function, and let  $c$  be a limit point of  $A \cap \{x : x < a\}$ . Then we say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = M$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , it is the case that  $a - \delta < x < a$  and  $x \in A$  implies that  $|f(x) - M| < \epsilon$ . Similarly if  $a$  is a limit point of  $A \cap \{x : x > a\}$ , we say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$  if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , it is the case that  $a < x < a + \delta$  and  $x \in A$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

(b) Assume that  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function, and  $a$  is a limit point of both  $A \cap \{x : x < a\}$  and  $A \cap \{x : x > a\}$ . (If it isn't, this question doesn't actually quite make sense.)

First assume  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ . Then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  and  $x \in A$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . In particular this means that  $a - \delta < x < a$  and  $x \in A$  implies  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ , so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ . Similarly it also means that  $a < x < a + \delta$  and  $x \in A$  implies  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ , so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$ .

In the other direction, assume that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then there is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $a - \delta_1 < x < a$  and  $x \in A$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . Likewise there is a  $\delta_2$  such that  $a < x < a + \delta_2$  and  $x \in A$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ , then  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  and  $x \in A$  implies that  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . So  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ .

Remark: The second implication depends, very heavily, on there being a finite number of directions (two) from which we can approach  $a$ . It's not true for limits on the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , for example.

## Section 4.3

### Problem 4.3.1

(a) Let  $g(x) = x^{\frac{1}{3}}$ . Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta = \epsilon^3$ . Then if  $|x| = |x - 0| < \delta$ , we have that  $|x^{\frac{1}{3}} - 0| = |x|^{\frac{1}{3}} < \epsilon$ . Ergo  $g$  is continuous at 0.

(b) Let  $c \neq 0$ . Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta < \min\{c^{\frac{2}{3}}\epsilon, |c|\}$ , so that in particular if  $|x - c| < \delta$   $x$  and  $c$  have the same sign. Then if  $|x - c| < \delta$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} |x^{\frac{1}{3}} - c^{\frac{1}{3}}| &= |x^{\frac{1}{3}} - c^{\frac{1}{3}}| \cdot \frac{|x^{\frac{2}{3}} + c^{\frac{1}{3}}x^{\frac{1}{3}} + c^{\frac{2}{3}}|}{|x^{\frac{2}{3}} + c^{\frac{1}{3}}x^{\frac{1}{3}} + c^{\frac{2}{3}}|} \\ &= \frac{|x - c|}{|x^{\frac{2}{3}} + c^{\frac{1}{3}}x^{\frac{1}{3}} + c^{\frac{2}{3}}|} \\ &= \frac{|x - c|}{x^{\frac{2}{3}} + c^{\frac{1}{3}}x^{\frac{1}{3}} + c^{\frac{2}{3}}} \\ &< \frac{|x - c|}{c^{\frac{2}{3}}} \\ &< \frac{c^{\frac{2}{3}}\epsilon}{c^{\frac{2}{3}}} \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

### Problem 4.3.4

(a) Let  $f(x) \equiv 1$ , and let

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 2 & x \neq 1 \\ 0 & x = 1 \end{cases}$$

such that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 1$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(x) = 2$ , but  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(f(x)) = 0$ .

(b) If we assume that  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = f(p)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow f(p)} g(x) = g(f(p))$ , and from the fact that the composition of continuous functions is continuous we see that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(f(x)) = g(f(p))$ , so the relationship between the limits is true.

(c) We can get the result of (a) even if the function  $f$  is continuous; consider the example above. But not suppose that  $g$  is continuous (in particular, continuous at  $q$ ) and we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = q$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow q} g(x) = r = g(q)$ . Then if  $x_n$  is a sequence of points with  $x_n \neq p$  and  $x_n \rightarrow p$ , we have that  $f(x_n) \rightarrow q$ , so since  $g$  is continuous at  $q$ , we see that  $g(f(x_n)) \rightarrow g(q)$ . As  $(x_n)$  was arbitrary we observe that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(f(x)) = g(q) = r$ .

### Problem 4.3.6

For the statements below, we assume that  $f$  and  $g$  have the same domain and 0 is a limit point of the domain.

(a) Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \leq 0 \\ 1 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

and

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \leq 0 \\ 0 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

so that neither  $f$  nor  $g$  is continuous at 0 but  $fg(x) \equiv 0$  and  $f + g(x) \equiv 1$  both are.

(b) Impossible. Suppose we have the situation that  $f(x)$  and  $f(x) + g(x)$  are continuous at 0. Then let  $(x_n)$  be any sequence of points converging to 0 in the mutual domain of the three functions. We have that  $g(x_n) = (f(x_n) + g(x_n)) - f(x_n) \rightarrow (f(0) + g(0)) - f(0) = g(0)$  using continuity of  $f$  and  $f + g$  at 0 and the Algebraic Limit Theorem. But since  $(x_n)$  was arbitrary,  $g$  is in fact continuous at 0.

(c) Let  $f(x) \equiv 0$  be the zero function, and  $g(x)$  be any function not continuous at 0.

(d) Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2 & x \leq 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

so that  $g(x) = f(x) + \frac{1}{f(x)} \equiv \frac{3}{2}$  for all  $x$ .

(e) Impossible. If  $h(x) = [f(x)]^3$  is continuous at 0, recall from Problem 4.3.1 that  $g(x) = x^{\frac{1}{3}}$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , and therefore in particular at  $[f(0)]^3$ . The composition of continuous functions is continuous, so  $f(x) = g(h(x))$  is continuous at 0.

## Section 4.4

### Problem 4.4.8

(a) Impossible; the image of a compact set under a continuous function is compact.

(b) Possible; let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 < x < \frac{1}{4} \\ 4x - 1 & \frac{1}{4} < x < \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 & \frac{1}{2} < x \end{cases}$$

(c) Let

$$g(x) = \frac{|\sin(\frac{1}{x})| + x}{1 + 2x}$$

on  $[0, 1)$ . We observe that because all four terms in the expression are positive, this is always a positive number; moreover, since  $|\sin(\frac{1}{x})| + x \leq 1 + x < 1 + 2x$ , we see that  $g(x) < 1$ . Since the image of an interval is an interval, to show that  $g((0, 1])$  is  $(0, 1)$  it suffices to check that we can find an  $x$  such that  $g(x) < \epsilon$  for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and a  $y$  such that  $g(y) > 1 - \epsilon$  or equivalently  $1 - g(y) < \epsilon$  likewise for all  $\epsilon > 0$ .

So, let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then pick  $x = \frac{1}{2\pi n} < \epsilon$ . We have  $g(x) = \frac{0+x}{1+2x} < x < \epsilon$ . Similarly if we pick  $y$  such that  $y = \frac{1}{2\pi n + \frac{\pi}{2}} < \epsilon$ , we have that  $1 - g(y) = 1 - \frac{1+y}{1+2y} = \frac{y}{1+2y} < y < \epsilon$ . So  $g((0, 1]) = (0, 1)$ .

### Problem 4.4.12

(a) False. Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the constant function  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Certainly  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\{0\}$  is finite but  $f^{-1}(\{0\}) = \mathbb{R}$  is not.

(b) False, by the same example as (a);  $\{0\}$  is compact but  $\mathbb{R}$  is not.

(c) False, again by the same example.