

## Math 104: Homework 11 solutions

1. (a) If  $x \leq 0$ , then

$$F(x) = \int_0^x 0 dt = 0.$$

If  $0 < x \leq 1$ , then

$$F(x) = \int_0^x t dt = \frac{x^2}{2}.$$

If  $x > 1$ , then

$$F(x) = \int_0^x t dt = \int_0^1 t dt + \int_1^x 4 dt = \frac{1}{2} + 4(x - 1).$$

(b) The function is plotted in Fig. 1. The function is continuous, which follows from the second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

(c) At  $x = 0$ ,

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{F(0) - F(a)}{0 - a} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{a^2}{a} = 0$$

and

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{F(0) - F(a)}{0 - a} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{0}{0 - a} = 0.$$

Since the positive and negative limits agree, the function is differentiable at 0.

At  $x = 1$ ,

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{F(1) - F(a)}{1 - a} = \lim_{a \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{4(a - 1)}{a - 1} = 4$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{a \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{F(1) - F(a)}{1 - a} &= \lim_{a \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{\frac{1}{2} - \frac{a^2}{2}}{1 - a} \\ &= \lim_{a \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{(1 - a)(1 + a)}{2(1 - a)} = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Since the two limits do not agree,  $F$  is not differentiable at this point. Thus  $F'$  is defined on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$  and

$$F'(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x \leq 0, \\ x & \text{for } 0 < x < 1, \\ 4 & \text{for } x > 1. \end{cases}$$

These results are consistent with the second Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, which states that if  $f$  is continuous at a point  $x_0$ , then  $F$  is differentiable at that point and  $F'(x_0) = f(x_0)$ .

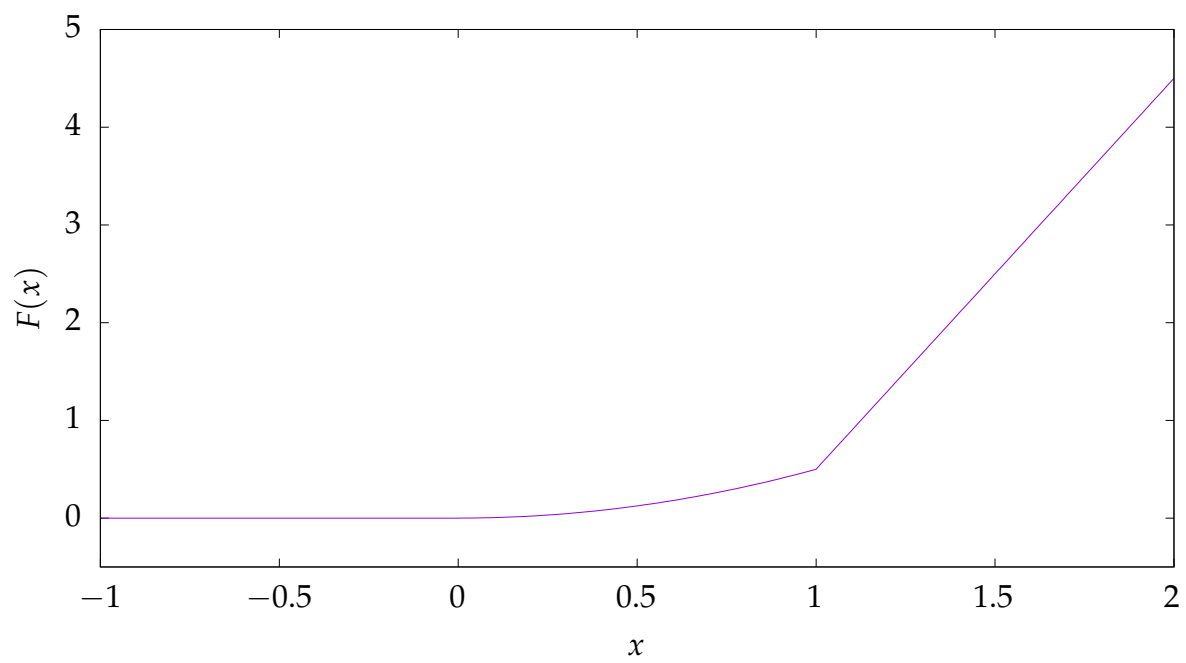


Figure 1: A graph of the function  $F(x) = \int_0^x f(t)dt$  used in question 1.

2. Let  $f(x)$  be a continuous real-valued function on  $[a, b]$ . Suppose that  $\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = 0$  for all continuous functions  $g$ , but that  $f(x)$  is not constant. Then there exists an  $x_0 \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(x_0) \neq 0$ . Assume that  $f(x_0) > 0$ . Since  $f$  is continuous, there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  implies that

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| < \frac{f(x_0)}{2}$$

and hence that

$$f(x) > \frac{f(x_0)}{2}.$$

Thus there exists an open interval  $(c, d) \subseteq [a, b]$  in which  $f$  is greater than  $f(x_0)$ . Consider

$$g(x) = \min \left\{ \frac{d-c}{2} - \left| x - \frac{c+d}{2} \right|, 0 \right\}.$$

Then if  $x < c$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &= \min \left\{ \frac{d-c}{2} + x - \frac{c+d}{2}, 0 \right\} \\ &= \min \{ x - c, 0 \} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,  $g(x) = 0$  if  $x > d$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b g(x)dx &= \int_c^{(c+d)/2} \left( \frac{d-c}{2} + x - \frac{c+d}{2} \right) dx + \int_{(c+d)/2}^d \left( \frac{d-c}{2} - x + \frac{c+d}{2} \right) dx \\ &= \int_c^{(c+d)/2} (x-c)dx + \int_{(c+d)/2}^d (d-x)dx \\ &= \frac{(d-c)^2}{4} > 0 \end{aligned}$$

However,  $f(x)g(x) \geq f(x_0)g(x)/2$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ , and hence

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx \geq \frac{f(x_0)}{2} \int_a^b g(x)dx = \frac{f(x_0)}{2} \frac{(d-c)^2}{4} > 0.$$

If  $f(x_0) < 0$ , then the same argument can be applied to  $-f$  to show that  $\int_a^b fg < 0$ . Hence there exists a  $g$  such that  $\int_a^b fg \neq 0$ , which is a contradiction. Thus  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

3. (a) Choose  $\alpha \in (a, b)$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b f &= \int_a^\alpha f + \int_\alpha^b f \\ &= \lim_{c \rightarrow a^+} \int_c^\alpha f + \lim_{d \rightarrow b^-} \int_\alpha^d f \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

and similarly

$$\int_a^b g = \lim_{c \rightarrow a^+} \int_c^\alpha g + \lim_{d \rightarrow b^-} \int_\alpha^d g. \quad (2)$$

If  $\int_a^b g < \infty$ , then both of the terms in the above expression must be finite. Consider the two terms integrated over the range from  $c$  to  $\alpha$ . Since  $0 \leq f(x) \leq g(x)$ , then for all  $c$

$$\int_c^\alpha f \leq \int_c^\alpha g \leq \int_a^\alpha g.$$

Thus the integral of  $f$  is bounded above, and hence

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow a^+} \int_c^\alpha f \leq \int_a^\alpha g < \infty.$$

The same logic can be applied to the term from  $\alpha$  to  $d$ . Hence  $\int_a^b f < \infty$ .

(b) If  $\int_a^b f = \infty$ , then at least one of the terms in Eq. 1 is equal to  $\infty$ ; suppose it is the first. Then for all  $M > 0$  there exists  $E$  such that  $a < c < E$  implies

$$\int_c^\alpha f > M.$$

Hence

$$\int_c^\alpha g \geq \int_c^\alpha f > M,$$

and thus  $\lim_{c \rightarrow a^+} \int_c^\alpha g = \infty$ . Hence from Eq. 2,  $\int_a^b g = \infty$ . The same logic could be applied if the second term in Eq. 1 is infinite, and thus the result is true for all cases.

4. Consider the sequence of functions

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2^n} & \text{if } |x| \leq n \\ 0 & \text{if } |x| > n. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^c f_n(x) dx + \lim_{d \rightarrow -\infty} \int_d^0 f_n(x) dx.$$

If  $c > n$  and  $d < -n$ , then

$$\int_0^c f_n(x) dx = n \cdot \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2}, \quad \int_{-d}^0 f_n(x) dx = n \cdot \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

and thus

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1.$$

To show that  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  uniformly, consider any  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then there exists and  $N$  such that  $\frac{1}{2N} < \epsilon$ . For  $n > N$ , and  $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$|f_n(x) - 0| \leq \left| \frac{1}{2n} - 0 \right| = \frac{1}{2n} < \epsilon.$$

and thus  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  uniformly.

5. (a) The tangent can be defined for  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  in terms of sine and cosine as

$$\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}.$$

Since  $\cos x > 0$  for  $x \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ , and sine and cosine are differentiable, the quotient theorem can be applied to show that

$$\begin{aligned} \tan' x &= \frac{\cos x \sin' x - \sin x \cos' x}{\cos^2 x} \\ &= \frac{\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x}{\cos^2 x} \\ &= \frac{1}{\cos^2 x}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\tan' x > 0$  for all  $x \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ , so  $\tan x$  is strictly increasing. As  $x \rightarrow \pi/2$ ,  $\cos x \rightarrow 0$  and  $\sin x \rightarrow \pi/2$ . Consider any  $M > 0$ . Then there exists a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $\frac{\pi}{2} - \delta_1 < x < \frac{\pi}{2}$  implies that

$$0 < \cos x < \frac{1}{2M}.$$

Similarly, there exists a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that for  $\frac{\pi}{2} - \delta_2 < x < \frac{\pi}{2}$ ,

$$0 < \sin x < \frac{1}{2}.$$

Hence if  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ , then  $\frac{\pi}{2} - \delta < x < \frac{\pi}{2}$  implies that  $\tan x > \frac{2M}{2} = M$ . Hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pi/2} \tan x = \infty$ . Since sine is an odd function and cosine is an even function, then the tangent must be an odd function, so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\pi/2} \tan x = -\infty$ . Hence  $\tan x$  is not bounded above or below.

- (b) By the previous results,  $\tan$  is a one-to-one differentiable function from  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . Hence by the inverse function theorem, there exists a function  $\tan^{-1} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  which is differentiable and satisfies

$$\tan^{-1}(\tan y) = y.$$

By applying the chain rule,

$$(\tan^{-1})'(\tan y) \tan' y = 1$$

and thus if  $x = \tan y$ ,

$$(\tan^{-1})'(x) = \cos^2 y.$$

By making use of the trigonometric identity  $\cos^2 y + \sin^2 y = 1$ ,

$$(\tan^{-1})'(x) = \frac{\cos^2 y}{\cos^2 y + \sin^2 y} = \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2 y} = \frac{1}{1 + x^2}.$$

(c) Let

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}.$$

The radius of convergence is  $R = 1$ , and thus the series converges for  $|x| < 1$ . Since power series can be differentiated,

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n = \frac{1}{1+x^2}.$$

Thus, over the range  $(-1, 1)$ ,  $f'(x) = (\tan^{-1})'(x)$ , and by Corollary 29.5  $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x) + C$  for some  $C \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $f(0) = \tan^{-1}(0) = 0$ , it follows that  $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x)$  for  $x \in (-1, 1)$ .

(d) By the inverse function theorem  $\tan^{-1}$  is continuous on the range  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ . At  $x = 1$ ,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2n+1}$$

which converges by the alternating series theorem. Abel's theorem states that if a power series  $f$  converges at  $x = R$ , then  $f$  is continuous at  $x = R$ . Since  $f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x)$  for  $|x| < R$ , it follows that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2n+1} = f(1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \tan^{-1} x = \tan^{-1}(1) = \frac{\pi}{4}.$$

(e) By direct calculation  $(5+i)^4(239-i) = 114244 + 114244i$ . When complex numbers are multiplied, their arguments are additive, and hence

$$4 \arg(5+i) + \arg(239-i) = \arg(114244 + 114244i).$$

so

$$4 \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{5} - \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{239} = \tan^{-1} \frac{1}{1} = \frac{\pi}{4}.$$

6. (a)  $I_0$  is given by

$$I_0 = \int_0^{\pi/2} 1 dx = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

and  $I_1$  is given by

$$I_1 = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x dx = [-\cos x]_0^{\pi/2} = 0 - (-1) = 1.$$

(b) By using integration by parts,

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_{n+2} &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n+2} x \, dx \\
 &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x (\sin^{n+1} x) \, dx \\
 &= \left[ \cos x \sin^{n+1} x \right]_0^{\pi/2} + \int_0^{\pi/2} (n+1) \cos x (\sin^n x \cos x) \, dx \\
 &= 0 + (n+1) \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x (1 - \sin^2 x) \, dx \\
 &= (n+1)(I_n + I_{n+2})
 \end{aligned}$$

from which it follows that  $(n+2)I_{n+2} = (n+1)I_n$ .

(c) Since  $\sin^{2m+1} x \leq \sin^{2m} x$  for all  $x \in [0, \pi/2]$ , it follows that  $I_{2m+1} \leq I_{2m}$ . Similarly, by using the previously derived identity,

$$I_{2m} \leq I_{2m-1} = I_{2m+1} \frac{2m+1}{2m} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{2m}\right) I_{2m+1}.$$

(d) By repeated application of the identity  $(n+2)I_{n+2} = (n+1)I_n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\pi}{2} &= I_0 \\
 &= \frac{2}{1} I_2 \\
 &= \frac{2 \cdot 4}{1 \cdot 3} I_4 \\
 &= \frac{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5} \cdots \frac{2m}{2m-1} I_{2m}
 \end{aligned} \tag{3}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 &= I_1 \\
 &= \frac{3}{2} I_3 \\
 &= \frac{3 \cdot 5}{2 \cdot 4} I_5 \\
 &= \frac{3 \cdot 5 \cdot 7}{2 \cdot 4 \cdot 6} \cdots \frac{2m+1}{2m} I_{2m+1}.
 \end{aligned} \tag{4}$$

By using the inequalities in the previous section,

$$1 \leq \frac{I_{2m}}{I_{2m+1}} \leq 1 + \frac{1}{2m}.$$

Since  $\frac{1}{2^m} \rightarrow 1$ , the squeezing lemma can be applied to show that

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{I_{2m}}{I_{2m+1}} = 1.$$

By dividing Eq. 3 by Eq. 4, it can be shown that

$$\frac{\pi}{2} = \frac{2 \ 2 \ 4 \ 4 \ 6 \ 6}{1 \ 3 \ 3 \ 5 \ 5 \ 7} \cdots \frac{2m}{2m-1} \frac{2m}{2m+1} \frac{I_{2m}}{I_{2m+1}}$$

and hence

$$\frac{\pi}{2 \frac{I_{2m}}{I_{2m+1}}} = \frac{2 \ 2 \ 4 \ 4 \ 6 \ 6}{1 \ 3 \ 3 \ 5 \ 5 \ 7} \cdots \frac{2m}{2m-1} \frac{2m}{2m+1}.$$

Now take limits on both sides. By sequence limit theorems, the left hand side must converge to  $\pi/2$ , and hence the right hand side must converge to the same limit also. Hence

$$\frac{\pi}{2} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 \ 2 \ 4 \ 4 \ 6 \ 6}{1 \ 3 \ 3 \ 5 \ 5 \ 7} \cdots \frac{2m}{2m-1} \frac{2m}{2m+1}.$$