## Math 104: Homework 8 solutions

- 1. (a) Figure 1(a) shows graphs of f(x) compared to f(x/2), f(x/3), and f(x/4). The graphs have the same shape, but are stretched in the *x* direction. In general, for any function g(x), the graph of  $y = g(\lambda x)$  will be stretched by a factor of  $\lambda^{-1}$  in the *x* direction.
  - (b) Figure 1(b) shows graphs of f(x) compared to 2f(x), f(x + 1/2), and  $f(x) \frac{1}{2}$ . The all correspond to different shifts and scalings of f. The function 2f(x) is scaled by a factor of 2 in the y direction. The function f(x + 1/2) is shifted by -1/2 in the x direction, and the function f(x) - 1/2 is shifted by a -1/2 in the y direction.
  - (c) The function |f(x) 1/2| is shown in Fig. 2(a). This can be graphically interpreted as reflecting the parts of f(x) 1/2 below the *y* axis to above it.
  - (d) Figure 2(b) shows graphs of  $f(x^2)$  and  $f(x)^2$ , both of which can be interpreted as nonlinear scalings. The graph of  $f(x^2)$  is the same as f(x), but with a scaling applied to the *x* axis. The graph of  $f(x)^2$  scales each value of f(x) in the *y* direction. The two functions agree over the domain [0, 1].
- 2. (a) From the definition,

$$f_1(x) = \frac{x^2}{1+x^2}.$$

As  $x \to \infty$ , it becomes much larger than 1, and thus the  $x^2$  terms dominate and  $f_1(x) \to 1$ . Close to zero, when  $x^2$  is small  $f_1(x) \approx x^2$ , looking locally like a quadratic. The function  $f_1(x)$  is plotted in Fig. 3, where these features are visible.

(b) It can be seen that

$$f_n(x) = \frac{nx^2}{1+nx^2} = \frac{(\sqrt{nx})^2}{1+(\sqrt{nx})^2} = f_1(\sqrt{nx})$$

Thus the graphs of  $f_n$  have the same shape as  $f_1$ , but are scaled by a factor of  $1/\sqrt{n}$  in the *x* direction.

- (c) The limit function f and strip of width 1/4 are shown in Fig. 3. It can be seen that as n increases, more of the curve  $f_n$  lies within the strip. However, since  $f_n(0) = 0$ , the curves must eventually exit the strip, and there will always be some part outside. Hence  $f_n$  does not converge uniformly.
- 3. (a) The functions  $f_0$ ,  $f_1$ , and  $f_2$  are plotted in Fig. 4. Since the values of  $f_0$  oscillate from -1 to 1 infinitely often in the region close to 0, then  $f_0$  is not continuous here. However  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are continuous.  $f_0$  and  $f_1$  are not differentiable at 0, but the oscilliations in  $f_2$  become small enough near 0 that it is differentiable there.



Figure 1: Graphs for the first half of question 1, showing various scalings and translations of f(x).



Figure 2: Graphs for the second half of question 1, showing the effect of an absolute value, and performing a nonlinear scaling.



Figure 3: Graph for question 2, showing a sequence of functions with a pointwise but not uniform limit.



Figure 4: Graph for question 3, showing a sequence of functions with different continuity and differentiability properties at x = 0.



Figure 5: Graphs for question 4, showing a recursively defined sequence of functions.

- (b) Since  $|\sin(x)| \le 1$  for all x, the functions  $f_n$  can be bounded within the regions  $|y| \le |x|^n$ , shown by the dashed lines in Fig. 4. By looking at the graph, it can be seen that over the interval [-1/2, 1/2], these regions become smaller and smaller. For any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $(1/2)^n < \epsilon$  for n > N, so that  $f_n$  will lie wholly within the strip  $|x 0| < \epsilon$ . Hence  $f_n$  will converge uniformly to f(x) = 0.
- 4. (a) Graphs of  $g_0$ ,  $g_1$ ,  $g_2$ , and  $g_3$  are shown in Fig. 5.
  - (b) Firstly, note that  $g_0$  is an even function, and since  $g_n$  is even if  $g_{n+1}$  is even, then by induction  $g_n$  is even for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

By looking at curves in Fig. 6, it appears that each successive  $g_n$  becomes closer to zero. Define the hypothesis  $P_n$  to be that  $0 \le g_n(x) \le 2^{1-n}$  for  $x \in [0,2]$ . Since  $g_0 = |x|$ , it is clear that  $P_0$  is true. Now assume  $P_n$  is true and consider  $P_{n+1}$ . Then

$$-2^{-n} \le g_n(x) - 2^{-n} \le 2^{1-n} - 2^{-n}$$

so

$$-2^{-n} \le g_n(x) - 2^{-n} \le 2^{-n}$$

and hence  $|g_n(x) - 2^{-n}| \le 2^{-n}$ . Therefore  $0 \le g_{n+1}(x) \le 2^{-n}$  and  $P_{n+1}$  is true. By induction,  $P_n$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ . Now consider when x > 2. By looking at Fig. 6, it appears as though the curves are straight lines with slope 1 in this region. Define the hypothesis  $S_n$  to be that  $g_n(x) = x - 2 + 2^{1-n}$ . The case for  $S_0$  is true. Now assume  $S_n$  is true and consider  $S_{n+1}$ . Then

$$g_{n+1}(x) = |g_n(x) - 2^{-n}|$$
  
= |x - 2 + 2^{1-n} - 2^{-n}  
= |x - 2 + 2^{-n}|  
= x - 2 + 2^{-n}

where on the final line, the absolute value sign is dropped since it is known the expression will be positive for x > 2. Hence  $S_{n+1}$  is true. By mathematical induction,  $S_n$  is true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$ .

Based on these results, it appears that  $g_n$  converges uniformly to g defined as

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} |x| - 2 & \text{for } |x| > 2, \\ 0 & \text{for } |x| \le 2. \end{cases}$$

To show this, consider  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then since  $2^{1-n}$  converges to 0, there exists an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that n > N implies  $|2^{1-n}| < \epsilon$ . For  $0 \le x \le 2$ , and  $n \ge \mathbb{N}$ 

$$|g_n(x) - g(x)| = |g_n(x)| \le 2^{1-n} < \epsilon.$$

For *x* > 2,

$$|g_n(x) - g(x)| = |x - 2 + 2^{1-n} - (x - 2)| = 2^{1-n} < \epsilon.$$

Since the functions are even, it follows that  $|g_n(x) - g(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence  $g_n \to g$  uniformly.

- 5. This question involves looking at two special cases of the fourth midterm question.
  - (a) Figure 6(a) shows a plot of the several of the  $f_n$  for the case of f(x) = 1 x. To prove that these functions do not converge uniformly to f, it must be shown that there exists some  $\epsilon > 0$  such that for all N, there exists an integer n > N and  $x \in (0, 1)$  such that  $|f(x) f_n(x)| \ge \epsilon$ .

Consider  $\epsilon = 1/2$ . For any *N*, choose an integer n > N, and then consider x = 1/2n. Hence

$$f(x) - f_n(x) = (1 - x) - 0 = 1 - \frac{1}{2n} > \frac{1}{2},$$

and thus  $f_n$  does not converge to f uniformly.



Figure 6: Graphs for question 5 on uniform continuity shown for the case of (a) f(x) = 1 - x, and (b)  $f(x) = x - x^2$ .





(b) Figure 6(b) shows a plot of several  $f_n$  for the case of  $f(x) = x - x^2$ . Note that

$$f_n(x) - f(x) = \begin{cases} x - x^2 & \text{if } x < 1/n, \\ 0 & \text{if } x \ge 1/n. \end{cases}$$

For  $x \in (0, 1)$ , the function can be bounded according to  $0 < x - x^2 < x$ . Hence, by considering the above equation, for any  $x \in (0, 1)$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < 1/n$ . Consider any  $\epsilon > 0$ . There exists an N such that n > N implies  $1/n < \epsilon$ , and thus  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in (0, 1)$ . Hence  $f_n$  converges uniformly to f.

6. Despite having a superficial similarity to question 4, the functions in this question have a much more complicated limit. Figure 6 shows plots of several of the  $h_n$ , suggesting that the limit is a continuous, fractal curve. The curve appears to be related to the Cantor set, discussed in Example 5 of Ross chapter 13.

To begin, consider proving that the sequence of curves is uniformly Cauchy. Note that all of the  $h_n$  are positive, so  $|h_n(x)| = h_n(x)$ . By applying the triangle inequality

$$h_{n+1}(x) = |h_n(x) - 3^{-(n+1)}| \le |h_n(x)| + |3^{-(n+1)}| = h_n(x) + 3^{-(n+1)}$$

and thus

$$h_{n+1}(x) - h_n(x) \le 3^{-(n+1)}.$$
 (1)

By the reverse triangle inequality (Ross exercise 3.5(b)),

$$h_{n+1}(x) = |h_n(x) - 3^{-(n+1)}|$$
  

$$\geq ||h_n(x)| - |3^{-(n+1)}||$$
  

$$= |h_n(x) - 3^{-(n+1)}|$$
  

$$\geq h_n(x) - 3^{-(n+1)}$$

and thus

$$h_{n+1}(x) - h_n(x) \ge -3^{-(n+1)}.$$
 (2)

Combining Eqs. 1 and 2 gives

$$|h_{n+1}(x) - h_n(x)| \le 3^{-(n+1)}$$

Now consider any integer m > n. By applying the triangle inequality multiple times, and using the above equation,

$$|h_m(x) - h_n(x)| \le \sum_{k=n+1}^m 3^{-k} = 3^{-(n+1)} \sum_{k=0}^{m-n-1} 3^{-k} < 3^{-(n+1)} \sum_{k=0}^\infty 3^{-k} = \frac{3^{-n}}{2}.$$

Thus, since  $\lim_{n\to\infty} 3^{-n} = 0$ , it follows that for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an N such that  $m > n \ge N$  implies that  $|h_m(x) - h_n(x)| < \epsilon$ . Hence the sequence of functions is uniformly Cauchy and thus uniformly convergent. Since each of the  $h_n$  is continuous, it follows that the limit h is continuous.

To prove the differentiability properties, several intermediate results are first considered. From the graph, it appears that h(x) vanishes if x is in the Cantor set. To prove this, consider an  $x \in [0, 1]$ , and consider writing a trinary expansion of the form

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k 3^{-k}$$

where each  $a_k$  is either 0, 1, or 2. The existence of such expansions is discussed in Ross chapter 16, although here, due to the properties of the function being considered, base 3 is used instead of the usual base 10. Since

$$\frac{1}{2} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 3^{-k}$$

it follows that

$$h_0(x) = \left| \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k - 1) 3^{-k} \right|.$$

Now suppose that *x* is in the Cantor set. It can be written in a trinary expansion where the  $a_k$  are all either 0 or 2. Note that this expansion is not always unique, since an expansion that ends in an infinite sequence of the form 0222222... is equivalent to 1000000..., and an expansion of the form 1222222... is equivalent to 2000000...<sup>1</sup>. If  $a_1 = 2$ , then

$$h_0(x) = \frac{1}{3} + \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (a_k - 1)3^{-k}$$

and if  $a_1 = 0$  then

$$h_0(x) = \frac{1}{3} - \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (a_k - 1)3^{-k},$$

so in general

$$h_0(x) = \frac{1}{3} + (a_1 - 1) \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (a_k - 1) 3^{-k}.$$

Hence

$$h_1(x) = \left| h_0(x) - \frac{1}{3} \right|$$
  
=  $\left| \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} (a_k - 1) 3^{-k} \right|$   
=  $\frac{1}{3^2} + (a_1 - 1) \sum_{k=3}^{\infty} (a_k - 1) 3^{-k}$ 

Mathematical induction can be applied to show that

$$h_n(x) = \frac{1}{3^{n+1}} + (a_{n+1} - 1) \sum_{k=n+2}^{\infty} (a_k - 1) 3^{-k}.$$
 (3)

Since

$$|h_n(x)| \le \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} 3^{-k} = \frac{1}{3^{n+1}} \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{3^n}}$$

it follows that  $h(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} h_n(x) = 0$ .

Now consider a trinary expansion that contains at least one 1, and let the first occurrence be at the *j*th position. If j = 1, then  $x \in [1/3, 2/3]$ , and hence  $h_0(x) = |x - 1/2| \in [0, 1/6]$ . Thus

$$h_1(x) = \left| h_0(x) - \frac{1}{3} \right| = \frac{1}{3} - h_0(x) \in \left[ \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{3} \right]$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>This is the same principle by which 1 and 0.9999... are decimal expansions of the same real number.

Since  $\sum_{k=2}^{\infty} 3^{-k} = 1/6$ , the displacements caused by each  $h_n$  are not enough to switch the sign of this number. In general for  $n \ge 2$ 

$$h_n(x) = \frac{1}{3} - h_0(x) - \sum_{k=2}^n 3^{-k}$$

and hence

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{6} - h_0(x) = \frac{1}{6} - \left| x - \frac{1}{2} \right|.$$

This agrees with the shape of the functions in Fig. 7. Now suppose that the first 1 in the trinary expansion occurs at some position j > 1. By following the above argument to obtain Eq. 3,

$$h_{j-2}(x) = \frac{1}{3^{j-1}} + (a_{j-1} - 1) \sum_{k=j}^{\infty} (a_k - 1) 3^{-k}$$

and hence

$$h_{j-1}(x) = \left| \sum_{k=j}^{\infty} (a_k - 1) 3^{-k} \right| = \left| \sum_{k=j+1}^{\infty} (a_k - 1) 3^{-k} \right|$$
(4)

which can be rewritten as  $h_{j-1}(x) = |y|$  where

$$y = x - \frac{1}{2} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} (a_k - 1)3^{-k}.$$
 (5)

It can be seen that

$$|y| \in \left[0, \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3^{j+1}}\right]$$

and thus

$$h_j(x) = \frac{1}{3^j} - |y|$$

Following similar steps as the case for j = 1, it can be seen that

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3^{j}} - |y|.$$
(6)

With an explicit representation of the function for all values in [0, 1], it is now possible to compute the differentiability properties of *h*. To begin, suppose that *x* is in the Cantor set, and write

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k 3^{-k}$$

where the  $a_k$  are either 0 or 2. Then define the sequence  $(s_n)$  according to  $s_n = x + 2(1 - a_n)3^{-n}$  – this sequence converges to x. It can be verified that  $s_n$  flips the

*n*th digit in the trinary expansion from a 0 to 2 or vice versa. This is in the Cantor set so  $h(s_n) = 0$ , and hence

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{h(x)-h(s_n)}{x-s_n}=0.$$

Now consider the sequence  $t_n$  defined as

$$t_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k 3^{-k} + \sum_{k=n+1}^\infty 3^{-k}.$$

This corresponds to taking the first *n* positions to the trinary expansion, followed by an infinite sequence of 1's. By reference to Eq. 4 it can be seen that

$$h_n(t_n) = \left|\sum_{k=j+2}^{\infty} (a_k - 1)3^{-k}\right| = 0.$$

Hence  $h_{n+1}(t_n) = 3^{-(n+1)}$ , and  $h(t_n) = \frac{1}{2}3^{-(n+1)}$ . Note that

$$|x - t_n| = \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} (a_k - 1)3^{-k} \le \frac{3^{-n}}{2}$$

and hence

$$\left|\frac{h(x)-h(t_n)}{x-t_n}\right| \ge \frac{1}{3}.$$

If all terms of this form are at least 1/3 in magnitude, they cannot converge to zero. Hence the limit

$$\lim_{y \to x} \frac{h(x) - h(y)}{x - y}$$

is undefined and *h* is not differentiable at *x*. Now suppose that *x* is not in the Cantor set, with trinary expansion

$$x = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k 3^{-k}.$$

Let *j* be the smallest value such that  $a_j = 1$ , and define

$$u = \sum_{k=1}^{j} a_k 3^{-k}, \qquad v = \sum_{k=1}^{j} a_k 3^{-k} + \sum_{k=j+1}^{\infty} 2 \cdot 3^{-k}.$$

These numbers correspond to replacing all digits in the trinary expansions after the *j*th digit with zeros and twos respectively. Since *x* is not in the Cantor set,  $x \in (u, v)$ . By reference to Eqs. 5 and 6, the function is

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3^{j}} - \left| x - \frac{1}{2} - \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} (a_{k} - 1) 3^{-k} \right|$$

in this interval. Thus h(x) is differentiable apart from when

$$x = \frac{1}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{j-1} (a_k - 1)3^{-k},$$

which occurs if any only if  $a_k = 1$  for all k > j.

This completes the proof. h is not differentiable at any point in the Cantor set, nor at any point with a trinary expansion that ends in an infinite sequence of 1's. Otherwise h is differentiable. Interestingly, while the Cantor set is uncountable, the points that have trinary expansions ending in an infinite sequence of 1's are countable.

7. (a) The derivative of  $h(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is given by

$$h'(x) = \lim_{y \to x} \frac{h(y) - h(x)}{y - x}$$
  
= 
$$\lim_{y \to x} \frac{\sqrt{y} - \sqrt{x}}{(\sqrt{y} - \sqrt{x})(\sqrt{y} + \sqrt{x})}$$
  
= 
$$\lim_{y \to x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{y} + \sqrt{x}}$$
  
= 
$$\frac{1}{2}x^{-1/2}.$$

Since the limit exists and is finite for x > 0, h'(x) is differentiable for x > 0. (b) The derivative of  $f(x) = x^{1/3}$  is given by

$$f'(x) = \lim_{y \to x} \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x}$$
  
=  $\lim_{y \to x} \frac{y^{1/3} - x^{1/3}}{(y^{1/3} - x^{1/3})(y^{2/3} + x^{1/3}y^{1/3} + x^{2/3})}$   
=  $\lim_{y \to x} \frac{1}{y^{2/3} + x^{1/3}y^{1/3} + x^{2/3}}$   
=  $\frac{1}{3}x^{-2/3}$ .

Since the limit exists and is finite for  $x \neq 0$ , f'(x) is differentiable for  $x \neq 0$ .

- (c) *f* is not differentiable at 0, because even though the limit above exists for x = 0, it is  $+\infty$ . A function is differentiable if and only if the limit exists and is finite.
- 8. (a) Consider any  $\epsilon > 0$ , and let  $\delta = \sqrt{\epsilon}$ . Then for  $|x 0| < \delta$ ,

$$|f(x) - f(0)| = |f(x)| \le |x|^2 < \epsilon$$

and thus *f* is continuous at x = 0.

- (b) Consider  $x \neq 0$ . If  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ , then consider the sequence  $s_n = x + \sqrt{2}/n$ , so that  $s_n \to x$ . Since all  $s_n$  are irrational,  $f(s_n) = 0$ , so  $f(s_n) \to 0$ . However  $f(x) = x^2 \neq 0$ , so f is not continuous at x. If  $x \notin \mathbb{Q}$ , then define a sequence  $s_n$  so that  $s_n \in (x - n^{-1}, x + n^{-1})$  and  $s_n \in \mathbb{Q}$ . By the "Denseness of  $\mathbb{Q}$ ", such a choice is always possible. Observe that  $s_n \to x$ . However  $f(s_n) = s_n^2$ , so  $f(s_n) \to x^2$ , but  $f(x) = 0 \neq x^2$ . Hence f is not continuous at x.
- (c) Since

$$\left|\frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0}\right| \le \left|\frac{x^2}{x}\right| \le |x|$$

then it follows that

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = 0$$

and thus *f* is differentiable at x = 0.