1. Let f(x) be defined on the reals. State the definition: f(x) is continuous at the real number a. Prove that  $f(x) = (1 + |x|)^2$  is continuous at a.

 $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$  is continuous at  $a \in \mathbf{R}$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$  whenever  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  and  $|x - a| < \delta$ .

To see that f is continuous at a, choose  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $\delta = \min \left\{ 1, \frac{\epsilon}{2+3|a|} \right\}$ . For any  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $|x-a| < \delta$  we have by the triangle inequality

$$|x| = |a + x - a| \le |a| + |x - a| < |a| + \delta \le |a| + 1.$$

Furthermore this shows

$$|f(x) - f(a)| = |(1 + |x|)^2 - (1 + |a|)^2|$$

$$= |(1 + |x| + 1 + |a|)(1 + |x| - 1 - |a|)|$$

$$= (2 + |x| + |a|)||x| - |a||$$

$$\leq (2 + |a| + 1 + |a|)|x - a|$$

$$= (3 + 2|a|)|x - a|$$

$$< (3 + 2|a|)\delta$$

$$< (3 + 2|a|) \frac{\epsilon}{3 + 2|a|} = \epsilon.$$

2. Let the sequence  $\{x_n\}$  be defined recursively by  $x_1 = a$  where 0 < a < 1 and  $x_{n+1} = 2 + ax_n$ . Prove that  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded above. Prove that  $\{x_n\}$  is strictly increasing. Is  $\{x_n\}$  convergent? Why? If  $x_n \to L$  as  $n \to \infty$ , what is L?

To see that  $\{x_n\}$  is bounded above, we need to either guess the bound by iterating the recursion or see it from the graphs of y = 2 + ax and y = x. The first few terms are

$$a, 2 + a^{2}, 2 + 2a + a^{3}, 2 + 2a + 2a^{2} + a^{4}, 2 + 2a + 2a^{2} + 2a^{3} + a^{5}, \dots$$

which seems to converge to  $B = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2a^k = \frac{2}{1-a}$ . Oterwise, the recursion is a zig-zag path on the plane between the y = 2 + ax and y = x lines which intersect if x = 2 + ax at  $B = \frac{2}{1-a}$ .

We show that  $\frac{2}{1-a}$  is an upper bound using induction. Base case  $x_1 = a < 1 < 2 < \frac{2}{1-a}$ . For the induction case, assume that for some n we have  $x_n \leq \frac{2}{1-a}$ . Then since a > 0,

$$x_{n+1} = 2 + ax_n \le 2 + a\frac{2}{1-a} = \frac{2-2a+2a}{1-a} = \frac{2}{1-a}$$

proving the induction case.

We show that  $\{x_n\}$  is strictly increasing by induction. For the base case,  $x_2 = 2 + ax_1 = 2 + a^2 > 2 > 1 > a = x_1$ . For the induction case, assume  $x_{n+1} - x_n > 0$  for some n. Then

$$x_{n+2} - x_{n+1} = 2 + ax_{n+1} - 2 - ax_n = a(x_{n+1} - x_n) > 0,$$

since a > 0, proving the induction case.

Hence  $\{x_n\}$  is a strictly increasing, bounded sequence. By the Monotone Convergence Theorem the sequence converges to a real number: there is  $L \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $x_n \to L$  as  $n \to \infty$ . Taking limits of both sides of the recursion,

$$L = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} (2 + ax_n) = 2 + aL.$$

Hence  $L = \frac{2}{1-a}$ .

- 3. Determine whether the following statements are true or false. If true, give a proof. If false, give a counterexample.
  - (a) Statement: If  $f:[0,1] \to \mathbf{R}$  is continuous and one-to-one, then f is strictly monotone.

TRUE. Argue by contradiction. If f were not monotone, then there are three points  $x_1 < x_2 < x_3$  in [0,1] such that either  $f(x_1) < f(x_2) > f(x_3)$  or  $f(x_1) > f(x_2) < f(x_3)$ .  $(f(x_1), f(x_2), \text{ and } f(x_3) \text{ must be distinct since } f \text{ is one-to-one.})$  In the former case, choose g such that  $\max\{f(x_1), f(x_3)\} < g < f(x_2)$ . In the latter case choose g such that  $\min\{f(x_1), f(x_3)\} > g > f(x_2)$ . In both cases, by the Intermediate Value Theorem applied to both  $[x_1, x_2]$  and  $[x_2, x_3]$  there are  $c_1 \in (x_1, x_2)$  and  $c_2 \in (x_2, x_3)$  such that  $f(c_1) = g = f(c_2)$ , contradicting f is one-to-one.

(b) STATEMENT: Let  $I_1 \supset I_2 \supset I_3 \supset \cdots$  be a decreasing sequence of bounded intervals. Then the intersection is nonempty:  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} I_n \neq \emptyset$ .

FALSE. It does not specify closed intervals. Taking  $I_n=(0,\frac{1}{n})$  gives decreasing sequence of intervals  $I_1\supset I_2\supset I_3\supset \cdots$  but  $\bigcap_{n=1}^\infty I_n=\emptyset$ .

(c) STATEMENT: For  $f: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$  if  $f(x_n) \to f(0)$  as  $n \to \infty$  for some sequence such that  $x_n \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$  then f is continuous at 0.

FALSE. The statement would be true if it said "for all sequences." To construct a counterexample, let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \ge 0; \\ 0, & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

The sequence  $x_n = \frac{1}{n} \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$  and  $f(x_n) = 1 \to 1 = f(0)$  as  $n \to \infty$  but f is not continuous at 0.

4. Prove that if  $f : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$  is continuous at  $a \in \mathbf{R}$  and  $f(x) \ge 5$  for all  $x \ne a$  then  $f(a) \ge 5$ . Choose  $\epsilon > 0$ . By the continuity of f at  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$|f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$$
 whenever  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  and  $|x - a| < \delta$ .

Now choose any z close but not equal to a, such that  $0 < |z - a| < \delta$ . Hence for this z we have, using the assumption on f(z),

$$f(a) = f(z) + f(a) - f(z) > f(z) - |f(a) - f(z)| > 5 - \epsilon.$$

Since  $\epsilon > 0$  was arbitrary, we conclude  $f(a) \geq 5$ .

5. Define:  $\{S_n\}$  is a Cauchy Sequence. Show that there is an  $L \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $S_n \to L$  as  $n \to \infty$ , where

$$S_n = 1 - \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{4!} - \frac{1}{6!} + \dots + \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{(2n)!} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{(2k)!}.$$

 $\{S_n\}$  is a Cauchy Sequence if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an  $N \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $|S_\ell - S_m| < \epsilon$  whenever  $\ell > N$  and m > N.

We show that  $\{S_n\}$  is a Cauchy Sequence. Hence it is convergent: there is an  $L \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $S_n \to L$  as  $n \to \infty$ . To see that  $\{S_n\}$  is a Cauchy Sequence, choose  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $N = \frac{\log\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)}{\log 2}$ . Then for any  $m, \ell > N$  we may suppose  $\ell \ge m$ . If  $m = \ell$  then  $|S_m - S_\ell| = 0 < \epsilon$ . If  $\ell > m$  we have

$$|S_{\ell} - S_{m}| = \left| \sum_{k=0}^{\ell} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{(2k)!} - \sum_{k=0}^{m} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{(2k)!} \right|$$

$$= \left| \sum_{k=m+1}^{\ell} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{(2k)!} \right|$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=m+1}^{\ell} \left| \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{(2k)!} \right|$$

$$= \sum_{k=m+1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{(2k)!}$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=m+1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{2^{k}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{m+1}} \sum_{k=0}^{\ell-m-1} \frac{1}{2^{k}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{m+1}} \cdot \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\ell-m}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2^{m+1}} \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2^{m}}$$

$$< \frac{1}{2^{N}} = \epsilon$$

showing  $\{S_n\}$  is a Cauchy Sequence. Here we have used for  $k \geq m+1 \geq 1$ ,

$$(2k)! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots (2k-1) \cdot 2k \ge 1 \cdot \underbrace{2k-1 \text{ factors}}_{2k-1 \text{ factors}} \ge 2^k.$$