# Midterm 1 Review Solutions MATH 1A Fall 2015

# **Easier Problems**

Exercise 1.1. Write down the truth tables for the following logical statements.

- 1. P or Q
- 2. P implies Q
- 3. P and not Q
- 4. (not *Q*) implies (not *P*)
- 5. not (*P* implies *Q*)

(Observe that some of these statements have the same truth table, and conclude that those statements are logically the same.)

Solution. P or Q:

		Р	
		Т	F
0	Т	Т	Т
Q	F	Т	F

*P* implies *Q*:

		P	
		Т	F
0	Т	Т	Т
Q	F	F	Т

## *P* and not *Q*:

		Р		
		Т	F	
0	Т	F	F	
Q	F	Т	F	

(not $Q$ )	implies	(not	<i>P</i> ):
		D	

		P	
		Т	F
0	Т	Т	Т
Q	F	F	Т

not (*P* implies *Q*):

		Р		
		Т	F	
0	Т	F	F	
Q	F	Т	F	

Observe that we get the same truth tables for "*P* implies *Q*" and for "(not *Q*) implies (not *P*)", so these two statements are logically the same. This is the *contrapositive*.

We also get the same truth tables for "*P* and not *Q*" and for "not (*P* implies *Q*)", so these two are also the same, i.e. the opposite of "*P* implies *Q*" is "*P* and not *Q*".  $\Box$ 

**Exercise 1.2.** Prove that for every  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $|a| \ge a$ .

*Proof.* Recall that the absolute value |a| is defined to be *a* or -a, whichever is positive. If *a* is positive, then  $|a| \ge a$  because in fact |a| = a. (Same if a = 0). If *a* is negative,  $|a| \ge a$  because |a| is positive and *a* is negative.

**Exercise 1.3.** The sum law for limits:

Suppose f, g are real-valued functions, and suppose that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = M.$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) + g(x) = L + M.$$

*Proof.* We want to get

$$|(f(x)+g(x))-(L+M)|<\varepsilon,$$

and by the triangle inequality

$$|(f(x) + g(x)) - (L + M)| < |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M|$$

so it's enough to make

$$|f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M| < \varepsilon.$$

We'll do this by making  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$  and  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ . So, here's the proof: Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$ , there is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$ . Similarly, since  $\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = M$ , there is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$  then  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ .

Set  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ , and suppose  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ . Then  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$  so  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$ , and  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$  so  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ . Now

$$|(f(x) + g(x)) - (L + M)| = |(f(x) - L) + (g(x) - M)|$$
  
 $\leq |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon.$ 

We've shown  $|(f(x) + g(x)) - (L + M)| < \varepsilon$ , so we conclude  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) + g(x) = L + M$ . **Exercise 1.4.** Suppose  $|x - 3| \le 2$ . Conclude that  $|x + 1| \le 6$ .

Solution.

$$|x-3| \le 2$$
  
$$-2 \le x-3 \le 2$$
  
$$2 \le x+1 \le 6$$
  
$$|x+1| \le 6$$

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**Exercise 1.5.** The constant multiple law for limits:

Suppose *f* is a real-valued function and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose also that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \to a} cf(x) = cL.$$

*Solution*. Note that if c = 0 it's trivial, so we can suppose  $c \neq 0$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/|c|$ , so

$$|cf(x) - cL| = |c||f(x) - L| < \varepsilon,$$

as desired.

**Exercise 1.6.** Suppose  $|x - 1| \le 4$ . Find a bound for |x - 7|.

Solution.

$$|x-1| \le 4$$
  
 $-4 \le x-1 \le 4$   
 $-10 \le x-7 \le -2$   
 $|x-7| \le 10$ 

**Exercise 1.7.** Define what it means to say  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = \infty$ . Then show  $\lim_{x\to 1^+} \frac{1}{x-1} = \infty$ . What is  $\lim_{x\to 1} \frac{1}{x-1}$ ?

*Solution.* We say  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = \infty$  if for all  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $a < x < a + \delta$  then f(x) > M.

Let  $M \in \mathbb{R}$ . Without loss of generality we can assume M > 0. Set  $\delta = \frac{1}{M}$ . Suppose  $1 < x < 1 + \delta$ , i.e.  $1 < x < 1 + \frac{1}{M}$ . Then  $0 < x - 1 < \frac{1}{M}$ , so  $\frac{1}{x-1} > M$ . Thus  $\lim_{x \to 1^+} \frac{1}{x-1} = \infty$ .

A similar argument shows that  $\lim_{x\to 1^-} \frac{1}{x-1} = -\infty$ , so  $\lim_{x\to 1} \frac{1}{x-1}$  does not exist (even as an infinite limit).

Exercise 1.8. The difference law for limits:

Suppose f, g are real-valued functions, and suppose that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = M$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) - g(x) = L - M.$$

Proof. Just the same as the sum law, with minus signs interted carefully.

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ , there is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$ . Similarly, since  $\lim_{x\to a} g(x) = M$ , there is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$  then  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ .

Set  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ , and suppose  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ . Then  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$  so  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$ , and  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$  so  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ . Now

$$|(f(x) - g(x)) - (L - M)| = |(f(x) - L) - (g(x) - M)|$$
  
 $\leq |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon.$ 

We've shown  $|(f(x) - g(x)) - (L - M)| < \varepsilon$ , so we conclude  $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) - g(x) = L - M$ .

**Exercise 1.9.** Define what it means to say  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = L$ . Then show  $\lim_{x\to 2^-} \frac{x-2}{|x-2|} = -1$ . What is  $\lim_{x\to 2^+} \frac{x-2}{|x-2|}$ ?

*Solution.* We say  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $a - \delta < x < a$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose any  $\delta > 0$ , it doesn't matter what. Suppose  $2 - \delta < x < 2$ . Since x < 2 we have  $\frac{x-2}{|x-2|} = -1$ , so

$$\left|\frac{x-2}{|x-2|} - (-1)\right| = 0 < \varepsilon$$

 $\square$ 

**Exercise 1.10.** Define what it means to say  $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$ . Then show  $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{1}{x^2} = 0$ .

*Solution.* We say  $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an  $N \in \mathbb{R}$  such that if x > N then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and set  $N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}$ . Suppose x > N, i.e.  $x > \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}$ . Then  $0 < \frac{1}{x} < \sqrt{\varepsilon}$ , so  $0 < \frac{1}{x^2} < \varepsilon$ , and

$$\left|\frac{1}{x^2}\right| < \varepsilon.$$

**Exercise 1.11.** State the definition of continuity. Then prove that f(x) = 10x is continuous.

*Solution.* A real-valued function is continuous if  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$  for all *a* in the domain.

Thus to prove f(x) = 10x is continuous, we want to show  $\lim_{x\to a} 10x = 10a$  for all a. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and set  $\delta = \varepsilon/10$ . Suppose  $0 < |x - a| < \delta = \varepsilon/10$ . Then

$$|10x - 10a| = 10|x - a| < 10 \cdot \varepsilon/10 = \varepsilon$$

Exercise 1.12. Decide whether the following statements are true or false.

1. If *f* is continuous at *a*, then *f* is differentiable at *a*.

2. If *f* is differentiable at *a*, then *f* is continuous at *a*.

3. If  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x)$  both exist, then  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x)$  exists.

Solution.

- 1. False, e.g. |x| is continuous but not differentiable at x = 0.
- 2. True (see the Harder problems for a proof).
- 3. False, the one-sided limits must exist and also agree in order for the two-sided limit to exist.

Exercise 1.13. Prove that

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x}{\cos x} = 0.$$

*Proof.* Note that  $\lim_{x\to 0} \cos x = 1$  and  $\lim_{x\to 0} x \to 0$ , so by the quotient law  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x}{\cos x} = 0$ .

Alternatively, if we don't want to assume that cos is continuous (as we had to do to evaluate the first limit), we can bound  $\frac{1}{\cos x}$ , for example  $1 \le \frac{1}{\cos x} \le \sqrt{2}$  on the interval  $(-\pi/4, \pi/4)$ , and then use the squeeze theorem.

**Exercise 1.14.** Prove using the definition of a limit (i.e.  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ ) that

$$\lim_{x \to 3} x^2 - 2x + 1 = 4$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and choose  $\delta = \min(1, \varepsilon/5)$ . Suppose  $0 < |x - 3| < \delta$ . Then

$$|x - 3| < 1$$
  
 $-1 < x - 3 < 1$   
 $3 < x + 1 < 5$   
 $|x + 1| < 5;$ 

and  $|x-3| < \varepsilon/5$ . Now

$$|x^{2} - 2x + 1 - 4|$$
  
=  $|x^{2} - 2x - 3|$   
=  $|(x + 1)(x - 3)|$   
=  $|x + 1||x - 3|$   
<  $5 \cdot \varepsilon/5 = \varepsilon$ .

**Exercise 1.15.** Prove using the definition of a limit (i.e.  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ ) that

$$\lim_{x \to 1} 2x^2 - 3 = -1$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and choose  $\delta = \min(1, \varepsilon/6)$ . Suppose  $0 < |x - 1| < \delta$ . Then

$$|x-1| < 1$$
  
 $-1 < x - 1 < 1$   
 $1 < x + 1 < 3$   
 $|x+1| < 3;$ 

and  $|x-1| < \varepsilon/6$ . Now

$$|2x^{2} - 3 - (-1)|$$
  
=  $|2x^{2} - 2|$   
=  $2|x^{2} - 1|$   
=  $2|(x + 1)(x - 1)|$   
=  $2|x + 1||x - 1|$   
<  $2 \cdot 3 \cdot \varepsilon/6 = \varepsilon$ .

### **Exercise 1.16.** The squeeze theorem:

Let *f*, *g*, *h* be real-valued functions and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose that when *x* is near *a*, except possibly at *a*, we have  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ . Suppose also that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L = \lim_{x \to a} h(x).$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = L.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

Choose  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$  then  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ .

Since  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ , we can choose  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x-a| < \delta_2$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . Similarly, since  $\lim_{x\to a} h(x) = L$ , we can choose  $\delta_3 > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x-a| < \delta_3$  then  $|h(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ .

Set  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3)$ , and suppose  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ . Then  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$ , so  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ . Also  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$ , so  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ , i.e.  $L - \varepsilon < f(x) < L + \varepsilon$ . Also  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_3$ , so  $|h(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ , i.e.  $L - \varepsilon < h(x) < L + \varepsilon$ . Combining these, we see

$$L - \varepsilon < f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x) < L + \varepsilon,$$

so  $|g(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ .

# Harder Problems

Exercise 2.1. Prove the following sort-of-generalization of the squeeze theorem.

Let *f*, *g*, *h* be real-valued functions, and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose when *x* is near *a*, except possibly at *a*, these functions satisfy  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ . Suppose also that

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L, \qquad \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = M, \qquad \lim_{x \to a} h(x) = N.$$

Then

 $L \leq M \leq N.$ 

*Solution.* Observe that it's enough to prove if  $f(x) \le g(x)$  then  $L \le M$ , because the same proof applied to  $g(x) \le h(x)$  will show  $M \le N$ .

Recall also from the first Easier Problem that "if *P* then *Q*", in our case "if  $f(x) \le g(x)$  near *a* then  $L \le M$ ", is logically equivalent to "if (not *Q*) then (not *P*)", in our case "if L > M then  $f(x) \le g(x)$  near *a*". Since it's all the same, we'll prove the latter instead. In fact, we'll prove the stronger statement that "if L > M then f(x) > g(x) near *a*".

Let  $\varepsilon = L - M > 0$ . Note that  $L - \varepsilon/2 = M + \varepsilon/2$ .

Since  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ , there is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x-a| < \delta_1$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$ . Similarly, since  $\lim_{x\to a} g(x) = M$ , there is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x-a| < \delta_2$  then  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ .

Set  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ , and suppose  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ . Then  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$ , so

$$|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$$
  
 
$$L - \varepsilon/2 < f(x) < L + \varepsilon/2.$$

Also  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$ , so

$$|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$$
  
 $M - \varepsilon/2 < g(x) < M + \varepsilon/2.$ 

Combining these, we see

$$g(x) < M + \varepsilon/2 = L - \varepsilon/2 < f(x),$$

so g(x) < f(x) for all x with  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ . Thus we've shown that if L > M, then f(x) > g(x) near a.

**Exercise 2.2.** Show that there is always a pair of diametrically opposite points on Earth's equator where the temperature at both points is the same.

*Proof.* Let T(x) be the function that gives the temperature at a point x on the equator, and denote by -x the diametrically opposite point. Consider the function f(x) = T(x) - T(-x), i.e. the difference in temperature between a point and its opposite. Note that temperature is a continuous function, and so f(x) is continuous as well. Note also that a point x has our desired property, i.e. the same temperature as its opposite point, precisely when f(x) = 0.

If there is no point where the temperature differs, i.e. if f(x) = 0 for all x, then of course we're done; any point has the desired property.

On the other hand, suppose there is a point where f(x) is non-zero, say  $f(x_0) = t$ . Then  $f(-x_0) = T(-x_0) - T(x_0) = -f(x_0) = -t$ . One of t, -t is strictly positive and the other strictly negative, so by the intermediate value theorem we conclude there is a point between  $x_0$  and  $-x_0$  where f(x) = 0, and this point has our desired property.

**Exercise 2.3.** Prove the following variation of the squeeze theorem:

Let *f*, *g*, *h* be real-valued functions. Suppose there exists N > 0 such that for all x > N, we have  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ . Suppose also that

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x) = L = \lim_{x \to \infty} h(x).$$

Then

$$\lim_{x\to\infty}g(x)=L.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

Choose  $N_1 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that if x > N then  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ .

Since  $\lim_{x\to\infty} f(x) = L$ , we can choose  $N_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  such that if  $x > N_2$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . Similarly, since  $\lim_{x\to\infty} h(x) = L$ , we can choose  $N_3 > 0$  such that if  $x > N_3$  then  $|h(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . Set  $N = \max(N_1, N_2, N_3)$ , and suppose x > N. Then  $x > N_1$ , so  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ .

Also  $x > N_2$ , so  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ , i.e.  $L - \varepsilon < f(x) < L + \varepsilon$ . Also  $x > N_3$ , so  $|h(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ , i.e.  $L - \varepsilon < h(x) < L + \varepsilon$ .

Combining these, we see

$$L - \varepsilon < f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x) < L + \varepsilon$$
,

so  $|g(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ .

**Exercise 2.4.** The squeeze theorem for limits of the form  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L$ :

Let *f*, *g*, *h* be real-valued functions and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose that when *x* is near to and greater than *a*, we have  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ . Suppose also that

$$\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = L = \lim_{x \to a^+} h(x).$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \to a^+} g(x) = L.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

Choose  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that if  $a < x < a + \delta_1$  then  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ .

Since  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L$ , we can choose  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that if  $a < x < a + \delta_2$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ . Similarly, since  $\lim_{x\to a^+} h(x) = L$ , we can choose  $\delta_3 > 0$  such that if  $a < x < a + \delta_3$  then  $|h(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

Set  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2, \delta_3)$ , and suppose  $a < x < a + \delta$ . Then  $a < x < a + \delta_1$ , so  $f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x)$ . Also  $a < x < a + \delta_2$ , so  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ , i.e.  $L - \varepsilon < f(x) < L + \varepsilon$ . Also  $a < x < a + \delta_3$ , so  $|h(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ , i.e.  $L - \varepsilon < h(x) < L + \varepsilon$ . Combining these, we see

$$L - \varepsilon < f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x) < L + \varepsilon$$
,

so  $|g(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ .

Exercise 2.5. Show that the sum of two continuous functions is continuous.

*Proof.* Suppose *f*, *g* are continuous functions, i.e.

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = f(a) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to a} g(x) = g(a)$$

for all *a*. By the sum law for limits,

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) + g(x) = f(a) + g(a)$$

for all *a*, i.e. f(x) + g(x) is continuous.

Exercise 2.6. Prove the following variation of the sum law for limits:

Let *f*, *g* be real valued functions, and *a*, *L*, *M*  $\in$   $\mathbb{R}$ . Suppose that

$$\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to a^+} g(x) = M.$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) + g(x) = L + M.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = L$ , there is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that if  $a < x < a + \delta_1$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$ . Similarly, since  $\lim_{x \to a^+} g(x) = M$ , there is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that if  $a < x < a + \delta_2$  then  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ .

Set  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ , and suppose  $a < x < a + \delta$ . Then  $a < x < a + \delta_1$  so  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$ , and  $a < x < a + \delta_2$  so  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ . Now

$$|(f(x) + g(x)) - (L + M)| = |(f(x) - L) + (g(x) - M)|$$
  
$$\leq |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon.$$

We've shown  $|(f(x) + g(x)) - (L + M)| < \varepsilon$ , so we conclude  $\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) + g(x) = L + M$ .  $\Box$ 

**Exercise 2.7.** The difference law for limits of the form  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = L$ :

Suppose f, g are real-valued functions, and suppose that

$$\lim_{x \to a^{-}} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to a^{-}} g(x) = M.$$

Then

$$\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) - g(x) = L - M.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{x \to a^-} f(x) = L$ , there is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that if  $a - \delta_1 < x < a$  then  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$ . Similarly, since  $\lim_{x \to a^-} g(x) = M$ , there is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that if  $a - \delta_2 < x < a$  then  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ .

Set  $\delta = \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$ , and suppose  $a - \delta < x < a$ . Then  $a - \delta_1 < x < a$  so  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon/2$ , and  $a - \delta_2 < x < a$  so  $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ . Now

$$|(f(x) - g(x)) - (L - M)| = |(f(x) - L) - (g(x) - M)|$$
  
 $\leq |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon.$ 

We've shown  $|(f(x) - g(x)) - (L - M)| < \varepsilon$ , so we conclude  $\lim_{x \to a^-} f(x) - g(x) = L - M$ .  $\Box$ 

**Exercise 2.8.** Prove using the definition of a limit (i.e.  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ ) that

$$\lim_{x \to 2} x^3 - x^2 + 2x + 1 = 9.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Set  $\delta = \min(1, \varepsilon/16)$ . Suppose  $|x - 2| < \delta$ . Then |x - 2| < 1, so

$$-1 < x - 2 < 1$$
  
 $1 < x < 3$ 

and since  $x^2 + x + 4$  is increasing on the interval [1,3], we have

$$1^{2} + 1 + 4 = 6 < x^{2} + x + 4 < 16 = 3^{2} + 3 + 4$$
$$|x^{2} + x + 4| < 16.$$

Also  $|x-2| < \varepsilon/16$ . Now

$$|x^{3} - x^{2} + 2x + 1 - 9|$$
  
=|x^{3} - x^{2} + 2x - 8|  
=|(x - 2)(x^{2} + x + 4)|  
=|x - 2||x^{2} + x + 4|  
< \frac{\varepsilon}{16} \cdot 16  
=\varepsilon.

Thus  $|x^3 - x^2 + 2x + 1 - 9| < \varepsilon$ , as desired.

**Exercise 2.9.** Prove using the definition of a limit (i.e.  $\varepsilon$  and  $\delta$ ) that

$$\lim_{x \to 2} x^4 - 12 = 4.$$

*Proof.* Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and set  $\delta = \min(1, \varepsilon/203)$ . Suppose  $|x - 2| < \delta$ . Then |x - 4| < 1, so

$$-1 < x - 4 < 1$$
  
 $5 < x + 2 < 7$   
 $|x + 2| < 7$ 

and

$$-1 < x - 4 < 1$$
  

$$3 < x < 5$$
  

$$0 < x^{2} < 25$$
  

$$4 < x^{2} + 4 < 29$$
  

$$|x^{2} + 4| < 29.$$

Also  $|x - 4| < \varepsilon/203$ .

Now

$$|x^{4} - 12 - 4|$$

$$= |x^{4} - 16|$$

$$= |(x^{2} - 4)(x^{2} + 4)|$$

$$= |(x - 2)(x + 2)(x^{2} + 4)|$$

$$= |(x - 2)||(x + 2)||(x^{2} + 4)|$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{203} \cdot 7 \cdot 29$$

$$= \varepsilon.$$

Thus  $|x^4 - 12 - 4| < \varepsilon$ , as desired.

**Exercise 2.10.** Suppose  $|x - a| < \delta$ . Find a bound for |x - b| (which may depend on  $a, b, \delta$ ). *Solution.* 

$$|x-a| < \delta$$
  

$$-\delta < x-a < \delta$$
  

$$-\delta + a - b < x - b < \delta + a - b$$
  

$$|x-b| < \max(|-\delta + a - b|, |\delta + a - b|)$$

**Exercise 2.11.** Prove that if a function f is differentiable at a (i.e. if the limit defining the derivative at a exists) then f is continuous at a.

*Proof.* Suppose f is differentiable at a. Then the limit

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

exists. Now observe, using the product law for limits,

$$\lim_{x \to a} f(x) - f(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} f(a+h) - f(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} h \cdot \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} h \cdot \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = 0 \cdot f'(a) = 0.$$

Since  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) - f(a) = 0$ , we conclude that  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$ , i.e. *f* is continuous at *a*.

**Exercise 2.12.** Find the derivative of  $x^x$ . [Hint: be careful trying to apply the chain rule here: write down precisely what *f* and *g* are, and you'll probably find that it doesn't work! The key is to rewrite  $x^x$  in a form that's easier to handle. Use the fact that  $x = e^{\log x}$ .]

*Solution.* Since  $x = e^{\log x}$ , we can rewrite  $x^x = (e^{\log x})^x = e^{x \log x}$ , and this looks more like something we can evaluate. We have

$$\frac{d}{dx}x^{x}$$

$$=\frac{d}{dx}e^{x\log x}$$

$$=e^{x\log x}\frac{d}{dx}x\log x$$

$$=e^{x\log x}(\log x + x \cdot \frac{1}{x})$$

$$=x^{x}(\log x + 1).$$

# Bonus Material: Stewart Chapter 2 Review Exercises #6-9, 15-20

Here are a bunch of problems on evaluating limits from the Chapter 2 Review of the textbook. I won't prove anything, just give a quick explanation of what the limit is and why.

### Exercise 2.6.

$$\lim_{x \to 1^+} \frac{x^2 - 9}{x^2 + 2x - 3}$$

Solution. Factor and cancel:

$$\lim_{x \to 1^+} \frac{x^2 - 9}{x^2 + 2x - 3} = \lim_{x \to 1^+} \frac{(x + 3)(x - 3)}{(x - 1)(x + 3)} = \lim_{x \to 1^+} \frac{x - 3}{x - 1} = -\infty.$$

As *x* approaches 1 from above,  $\frac{1}{x-1}$  will go to  $+\infty$ , and x-3 will be about -2, so the limit is  $-\infty$ .

Exercise 2.7.

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{(h-1)^3 + 1}{h}$$

Solution. Expand the cube:

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{(h-1)^3 + 1}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{h^3 - 3h^2 + 3h - 1 + 1}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{h^3 - 3h^2 + 3h}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} h^2 - 3h + 3 = 3.$$

Exercise 2.8.

$$\lim_{t\to 2}\frac{t^2-4}{t^3-8}$$

Solution. Factor and cancel:

$$\lim_{t \to 2} \frac{t^2 - 4}{t^3 - 8} = \lim_{t \to 2} \frac{(t - 2)(t + 2)}{(t - 2)(t^2 + 2t + 4)} = \lim_{t \to 2} \frac{(t + 2)}{(t^2 + 2t + 4)} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

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$$\lim_{r \to 9} \frac{\sqrt{r}}{(r-9)^4}$$

*Solution.* Plug in: as *r* approaches 9 (from either side),  $\frac{1}{(r-9)^4}$  goes to  $+\infty$ , and  $\sqrt{r}$  is about 3, so the limit is  $+\infty$ .

#### Exercise 2.15.

$$\lim_{x\to\pi^-}\ln(\sin x)$$

*Solution.* Composition: set  $y = \sin x$ , so  $\lim_{x \to \pi^{-}} \ln(\sin x) = \lim_{x \to \pi^{-}} \ln y$ . As *x* approaches  $\pi$  from below,  $y = \sin x$  approaches 0 from above. As *y* approaches 0 from above,  $\ln y$  approaches  $-\infty$ . Thus the limit is  $-\infty$ .

Exercise 2.16.

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} \frac{1 - 2x^2 - x^4}{5 + x - 3x^4}$$

*Solution.* Highest powers: since we're taking a limit at  $-\infty$ , we can ignore everything except the highest power in the numerator and denominator. That is,

$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} \frac{1 - 2x^2 - x^4}{5 + x - 3x^4} = \lim_{x \to -\infty} \frac{-x^4}{-3x^4} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

Exercise 2.17.

$$\lim_{x\to\infty}(\sqrt{x^2+4x+1}-x)$$

Solution. Not sure about this one. Let me know if y'all have ideas. WolframAlpha tells me the limit is 2.  $\hfill \Box$ 

### Exercise 2.18.

$$\lim_{x\to\infty}e^{x-x^2}$$

*Solution.* Composition: let  $y = x - x^2$ , so  $\lim_{x\to\infty} e^{x-x^2} = \lim_{x\to\infty} e^y$ . As x approaches  $\infty$ ,  $y = x - x^2$  approaches  $-\infty$ . As y approaches  $-\infty$ ,  $e^y$  approaches 0. Thus the limit is 0.

#### Exercise 2.19.

$$\lim_{x \to 0^+} \arctan(1/x)$$

*Solution*. Composition: let y = 1/x, so  $\lim_{x\to 0^+} \arctan(1/x) = \lim_{x\to 0^+} \arctan(y)$ . As x approaches 0 from above, y = 1/x approaches  $+\infty$ . As y approaches  $+\infty$ ,  $\arctan(y)$  approaches  $\pi/2$ . Thus the limit is  $\pi/2$ .

Exercise 2.20.

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \left( \frac{1}{x - 1} + \frac{1}{x^2 - 3x + 2} \right)$$

Solution. Common denominator and cancel:

$$\lim_{x \to 1} \left( \frac{1}{x-1} + \frac{1}{x^2 - 3x + 2} \right) = \lim_{x \to 1} \left( \frac{1}{x-1} + \frac{1}{(x-1)(x-2)} \right)$$
$$= \lim_{x \to 1} \left( \frac{x-2}{(x-1)(x-2)} + \frac{1}{(x-1)(x-2)} \right) = \lim_{x \to 1} \left( \frac{x-2+1}{(x-1)(x-2)} \right)$$
$$= \lim_{x \to 1} \left( \frac{x-1}{(x-1)(x-2)} \right) = \lim_{x \to 1} \left( \frac{1}{x-2} \right) = -1.$$