

1. (a) If the function $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has the property that $U(f, P) = L(f, P)$ for every partition P of $[a, b]$, what can be said about f ?

Solution. f is constant: its supremum and infimum on $[a, b]$ are equal.

(b) If the function $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ has the property that $U(f, P) = L(f, P)$ for some partition P of $[a, b]$, what can be said about f ?

Solution. On every interval $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ of P , the supremum and infimum of f are equal, so f is constant on $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$. Since every two adjoint intervals of the partition have nonempty intersection, this implies that f is constant on $[a, b]$. (If, in the definition of \int , we used \sup and \inf on $[x_{i-1}, x_i)$ instead of $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$, f would be only piecewise constant.)

2. Prove that every monotone function on a closed bounded interval is integrable.

Solution. W.l.o.g. assume that f is increasing; then f is bounded below by $f(a)$ and above by $f(b)$. Also assume that $f(a) \neq f(b)$, otherwise f is constant. Given $\varepsilon > 0$, put $\delta = \varepsilon / (f(b) - f(a))$. Now if $P = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is a partition of $[a, b]$ with mesh $P < \delta$, then

$$\Delta(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n (f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})) \Delta x_i \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})) \right) \delta = (f(b) - f(a)) \delta = \varepsilon.$$

3. If $\int_a^b f = p$ and $\int_a^b g = q$, find $\int_a^b (f(x)g(y) dx) dy$.

Solution. $\int_a^b (\int_a^b f(x)g(y) dx) dy = \int_a^b g(y) (\int_a^b f(x) dx) dy = \int_a^b g(y)p dy = p \int_a^b g(y) dy = pq$.

4. Let f be the Riemann function ($f(x) = \frac{1}{n}$ if $x = \frac{m}{n} \in \mathbb{Q}$ in lowest terms and $f(x) = 0$ if x is irrational). Prove that f is integrable on $[0, 1]$ and $\int_0^1 f = 0$.

Solution. Let $\varepsilon > 0$. There are only finitely many points a_1, \dots, a_k in $[0, 1]$ at which f is $\geq \varepsilon/2$. Choose a partition P for which the total length of the intervals containing at least one of a_i is less than $\varepsilon/2$; then the contribution of these intervals into Δf is $\leq 1 \cdot \varepsilon/2$, and of all other intervals is $< (\varepsilon/2) \cdot 1$. So, $\Delta(f, P) < \varepsilon$. Hence, f is integrable. Since $L(f, Q) = 0$ for all partitions, we have that $\int_0^1 f = L(f) = 0$.

5. Find integrable functions whose composition is not integrable.

Solution. Let f be the Riemann function on $[0, 1]$, and let g be the indicator function of $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$, $g(x) = 1$ if $x \neq 0$ and $g(x) = 0$ if $x = 0$. Both f and g are integrable, but $g \circ f$ is Dirichlet's function, $(g \circ f)(x) = 1$ if $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ and $(g \circ f)(x) = 0$ if $x \notin \mathbb{Q}$, which is non-integrable.

6. Let f be bounded on $[a, b]$.

(a) For any partition P of $[a, b]$, prove that $\Delta(|f|, P) \leq \Delta(f, P)$.

Solution. For any interval (or any set) I and any $x, y \in I$, $|f(x)| - |f(y)| \leq |f(x) - f(y)|$; taking sup of this we get that $\text{Var}_I |f| = \sup_{x, y \in I} (|f(x)| - |f(y)|) \leq \sup_{x, y \in I} |f(x) - f(y)| = \text{Var}_I f$. So, $\Delta(|f|, P) = \sum_i \text{Var}_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]} |f| \Delta x_i \leq \sum_i \text{Var}_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]} f \Delta x_i = \Delta(f, P)$.

(b) If f is integrable, prove that so is $|f|$.

Solution. Given $\varepsilon > 0$, find a partition P for which $\Delta(f, P) < \varepsilon$, then also $\Delta(|f|, P) < \varepsilon$.

Another solution. $|f|$ is a composition of f and the (uniformly) continuous function $y \mapsto |y|$.

(c) If f and g are integrable on $[a, b]$, prove that so are $\max(f, g)$ and $\min(f, g)$.

Solution. $\max(f, g) = \frac{1}{2}((f + g) + |f - g|)$ is integrable since $f + g$ and so $|f + g|$ are integrable. Similarly, integrable is $\min(f, g) = \frac{1}{2}((f + g) - |f - g|)$.

(d) Prove that f is integrable iff $f^+ = \max(f, 0)$ and $f^- = \min(f, 0)$ are integrable.

Solution. By (c), if f is integrable then f^+ and f^- are integrable. If f^+ and f^- are integrable, then $f = f^+ + f^-$ is integrable.

7. Suppose that f is locally integrable on $[0, +\infty)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = a$. Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x f(t) dt = a$.
Solution. Let $\varepsilon > 0$; find N such that $|f(t) - a| < \varepsilon/2$ when $t \geq N$. Then for any $x > N$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x f(t) dt - a \right| &= \frac{1}{x} \left| \int_0^x f(t) dt - ax \right| = \frac{1}{x} \left| \int_0^N f(t) dt + \int_N^x f(t) dt - aN - a(x - N) \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{x} \left| \int_0^N f(t) dt - aN \right| + \frac{1}{x} \left| \int_N^x (f(t) - a) dt \right| \leq \frac{C}{x} + \frac{1}{x} \int_N^x |f(t) - a| dt \leq \frac{C}{x} + \frac{x - N}{x} \varepsilon/2, \end{aligned}$$

where $C = \left| \int_0^N f(t) dt - aN \right|$. Since $(x - N)/x < 1$ and $C/x \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow +\infty$, there is M such that $\left| \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x f(t) dt - a \right| < \varepsilon$ for all $x > M$.

8. If f is integrable on $[a, b]$, prove that $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b f(b + a - x) dx$.

Solution. Let $g(x) = f(b + a - x)$, $x \in [a, b]$. For any partition $P = \{a = x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n = b\}$ of $[a, b]$, let $P' = \{a = b + a - x_n, b + a - x_{n-1}, \dots, b + a - x_0 = b\}$; then $P \leftrightarrow P'$ is a self-bijection of the set of all partitions of $[a, b]$. (It is easy to see that) for every partition P , $L(g, P') = L(f, P)$ and $U(g, P') = U(f, P)$, so $L(g) = L(f)$ and $U(g) = U(f)$, so g is integrable and $\int_a^b g = \int_a^b f$.

9. Find $\int_0^1 L(x) dx$ where L is the Cantor ladder function.

Solution. L is continuous, so, integrable. By construction, $L(x)$ satisfies $L(1 - x) = 1 - L(x)$, $x \in [0, 1]$. (This is true for $x \in [1/3, 2/3]$; then for $x \in [1/9, 2/9]$ and $x \in [7/9, 8/9]$, etc., by induction; for all other $x \in [0, 1]$ it is true by continuity.) So $1 = \int_0^1 (L(x) + L(1 - x)) dx = \int_0^1 L(x) dx + \int_0^1 L(1 - x) dx = 2 \int_0^1 L(x) dx$, so $\int_0^1 L(x) dx = 1/2$.

10. If $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is periodic with period a and integrable on $[0, a]$, show that for any $b \in \mathbb{R}$, f is integrable on $[b, b + a]$ and $\int_b^{b+a} f = \int_0^a f$.

Solution. First of all, for any $b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ with $b < c$, if f is integrable on an interval $[b, c]$ then, since $f(x + a) = f(x)$, f is integrable on $[b + a, c + a]$ with $\int_{b+a}^{c+a} f = \int_b^c f$. It follows (by induction) that f is integrable on $[b + ka, c + ka]$ with $\int_{b+ka}^{c+ka} f = \int_b^c f$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. In particular, f is integrable on $[-ka, ka] = \bigcup_{n=-k}^{n-1} [na, (n+1)a]$ for all $k \in \mathbb{Z}$, and so, is locally integrable on \mathbb{R} .

Now let $b \in \mathbb{R}$, $(k - 1)a \leq b \leq ka$ with $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. Then

$$\int_b^{b+a} f = \int_b^{ka} f + \int_{ka}^{b+a} f = \int_{b-(k-1)a}^a f + \int_0^{b-(k-1)a} f = \int_0^a f.$$

11. Suppose that f is integrable on $[a, b]$. Prove that there is $c \in [a, b]$ such that $\int_a^c f = \int_c^b f$. Show that it is not always possible to choose c to be in (a, b) .

Solution. Consider the function $H(x) = \int_a^x f - \int_x^b f$, $x \in [a, b]$. H is continuous (it is a difference of two integral functions), $H(a) = -\int_a^b f$, and $H(b) = \int_a^b f$. Thus, by the intermediate value theorem, there exists $c \in [a, b]$ such that $H(c) = 0$.

Take $[a, b] = [-1, 1]$ and $f(x) = \text{sign } x$. Then for any $c \in [-1, 1]$, $\int_{-1}^c f = -c - 1$ for $c \leq 0$ and $c - 1$ for $c \geq 0$, and $\int_c^1 f = c + 1$ for $c \leq 0$ and $-c + 1$ for $c \geq 0$. Hence, $\int_{-1}^c f = \int_c^1 f$ only if $-c - 1 = c + 1$ (that is, if $c = -1$) or $c - 1 = -c + 1$ (that is, if $c = 1$).

12. Use the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus and Darboux's theorem to give another proof of the Intermediate Value Theorem.

Solution. If f is a continuous function on $[a, b]$ then f has a primitive: $f = F'$, where F is the integral function of f . By Darboux's theorem, f takes all values between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$.

13. Let f be a continuous function on $[a, b]$ with the property that $\int_a^b fg = 0$ for all continuous functions g on $[a, b]$ satisfying $g(a) = g(b) = 0$. Prove that $f = 0$.

Solution. Assume, on the way of contradiction, that $f(x_0) \neq 0$ for some $x_0 \in (a, b)$. (If $f(a) \neq 0$ or $f(b) \neq 0$, then there exists such an x_0 anyway.) W.l.o.g., let $f(x_0) > 0$; find $\delta > 0$ such that $x_0 - \delta > a$, $x_0 + \delta < b$, and $f(x) > f(x_0)/2$ for all $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$. Construct a continuous function g such that $g(x) > 0$ for all $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ and $g(x) = 0$ otherwise. (Say, $g(x) = \min\{|x - x_0| : |y - x_0| \geq \delta\}$. Let $\tau > 0$ be such that $g(x) > g(x_0)/2$ for all $x \in [x_0 - \tau, x_0 + \tau]$. Then $\int_a^b fg = \int_{x_0-\delta}^{x_0+\delta} fg \geq \int_{x_0-\tau}^{x_0+\tau} fg > (f(x_0)g(x_0)/4)2\tau > 0$, contradiction.

14. Let the function f be integrable and ≥ 0 on an interval $[a, b]$ and suppose there is $c \in [a, b]$ such that f is continuous at c and $f(c) > 0$. Prove that $\int_a^b f > 0$.

Solution. Assume that $a < c < b$; if $c = a$ or b , by continuity there is $c' \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c') > 0$. Since $f(c) > 0$ and f is continuous at c , there is $\delta > 0$ such that $a \leq c - \delta$, $b \geq c + \delta$, and $f(x) > f(c)/2$ on $[c - \delta, c + \delta]$. Then $\int_{c-\delta}^{c+\delta} f \geq (f(c)/2)2\delta > 0$. Since $f \geq 0$, $\int_a^{c-\delta} f \geq 0$ and $\int_{c+\delta}^b f \geq 0$, so $\int_a^b f = \int_a^{c-\delta} f + \int_{c-\delta}^{c+\delta} f + \int_{c+\delta}^b f > 0$.

15. Let f be integrable on $[a, b]$, let $c \in (a, b)$, and let $F(x) = \int_a^x f dt$, $x \in [a, b]$. Prove or disprove:

(i) If f is differentiable at c , then F is differentiable at c .

Solution. This is true. If f is differentiable at c , then f is continuous at c , so by the F.T.C.1, F is differentiable at c (and $F'(c) = f(c)$).

(ii) If f is differentiable at c , then F' is continuous at c .

Solution. F does not have to be differentiable at all points of $[a, b]$. (But since f is integrable, it is continuous at “almost all” points of $[a, b]$, F is differentiable at these points with $F' = f$, so F' restricted to the set of such points is continuous.) Actually, F' , defined on the whole set where F is differentiable, is continuous at c . (Which remains true if f is continuous, not necessarily differentiable, at c .) Indeed, for any $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a neighborhood of c where $|f(t) - f(c)| < \varepsilon$; for any distinct x, y in this neighborhood,

$$\left| \frac{F(y) - F(x)}{y - x} - f(c) \right| = \left| \frac{\int_x^y f(t) dt}{y - x} - f(c) \right| < \varepsilon,$$

so, if F is differentiable at x from this neighborhood then

$$|F'(x) - f(c)| = \left| \lim_{y \rightarrow x} \frac{F(y) - F(x)}{y - x} - f(c) \right| \leq \varepsilon.$$

(iii) If f' is continuous at c , then F' is continuous at c .

Solution. Again, it is not clear whether it is assumed that f' is defined in a neighborhood of c . If it is, then f is continuous in this neighborhood, so F is differentiable and $F' = f$ in this neighborhood, so F' is continuous in this neighborhood. Otherwise, the answer is the same as in (ii): F' is continuous at c , but doesn't have to be defined in any neighborhood of c .

16. Find $(f^{-1})'(0)$ if $f(x) = \int_0^x (1 + \sin(\sin t)) dt$.

Solution. Since the function $1 + \sin(\sin x)$ is continuous, we have $f'(x) = 1 + \sin(\sin x) > 0$ for all x , so f is strictly increasing, and has (a continuous, and so, differentiable) inverse. $f(0) = 0$, so $(f^{-1})'(0) = 1/f'(0) = 1$.

17. (a) Find the derivatives of $F(x) = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$ and $G(x) = \int_b^{bx} \frac{1}{t} dt$.

Solution. F and G are defined for all $x > 0$. Since the function $1/x$ is continuous, by the F.T.C., $F'(x) = 1/x$ and $G'(x) = (1/bx)(bx)' = (1/bx)b = 1/x$. Hence, $F = G + c$ for some $c \in \mathbb{R}$. For $x = 1$ we have $F(1) = G(1) = 0$, so $F = G$.

(b) Use (a) to prove that for $a > 1$ and $b > 0$, $\int_1^a 1/t dt = \int_b^{ab} 1/t dt$.

Solution. For any $a > 0$ and $b \neq 0$, $F(a) = G(a)$.

(c) For $a, b > 1$ prove that $\int_1^a \frac{dt}{t} + \int_1^b \frac{dt}{t} = \int_1^{ab} \frac{dt}{t}$.

Solution. $\int_1^a \frac{dt}{t} + \int_1^b \frac{dt}{t} = \int_1^a \frac{dt}{t} + \int_a^{ab} \frac{dt}{t} = \int_1^{ab} \frac{dt}{t}$.

18. Let $f(x) = \sin(1/x)$, $x \neq 0$, and $f(0) = 0$. Is the function $F(x) = \int_0^x f$ differentiable at 0?

Solution. First of all, f is bounded and discontinuous only at 0, so it is locally integrable, and $F(x)$ is defined for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, with $F(0) = 0$.

Yes, F is differentiable. Indeed, let $G(x) = x^2 \cos(1/x)$, $x \neq 0$, $G(0) = 0$. Then G is differentiable on \mathbb{R} with $G'(x) = 2x \cos(1/x) + \sin(1/x)$ for $x \neq 0$ and $G'(0) = 0$. The function $h(x) = 2x \cos(1/x)$ for $x \neq 0$, $h(0) = 0$ is continuous on \mathbb{R} , so it has a primitive H with $H(0) = 0$. We then have $(G - H)'(x) = \sin(1/x) = f(x)$ for all $x \neq 0$ and also $(G - H)'(0) = G'(0) - h(0) = 0 = f(0)$. Hence, $G - H$ is a primitive of f . By the F.T.C., $F = G - H + \text{const}$, so, F is differentiable on \mathbb{R} with $F' = f$.

19. Prove that for every integer $n \geq 2$, $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx = \frac{n-1}{n} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-2} x \, dx$.

Solution. Since $\sin^2 = 1 - \cos^2$,

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-2} x \sin^2 x \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-2} x \, dx - \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-2} x \cos^2 x \, dx.$$

Integrating by parts we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-2} x \cos^2 x \, dx &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-2} x \cos x \, d \sin x = \frac{1}{n-1} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos x \, d \sin^{n-1} x \\ &= \frac{1}{n-1} \cos x \sin^{n-1} x \Big|_0^{\pi/2} - \frac{1}{n-1} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-1} x \, d \cos x = 0 + \frac{1}{n-1} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-2} x \, dx - \frac{1}{n-1} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx$, so $(1 + \frac{1}{n-1}) \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-2} x \, dx$, so $\int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx = \frac{n-1}{n} \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-2} x \, dx$.

20. Compute the improper integral $\int_0^1 \log x \, dx$.

Solution. $\int \log x \, dx = x \log x - \int x \, d \log x = x \log x - \int dx = x \log x - x + C$, so $\int_0^1 \log x \, dx = (\log 1 - 1) - \lim_{a \rightarrow 0^+} (a \log a - a) = -1$.

21. Prove the following version of the integration by parts for improper integrals: If f and g are locally integrable on $[a, \beta)$ (where $\beta \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$) and have primitives $F = \int f$ and $G = \int g$ on $[a, \beta)$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \beta^-} F(x)G(x)$ exists, Fg has a primitive, and $\int_a^\beta F(x)g(x) \, dx$ converges, then $\int_a^\beta f(x)G(x) \, dx = \lim_{x \rightarrow \beta^-} F(x)G(x) - F(a)G(a) - \int_a^\beta F(x)g(x) \, dx$.

Solution. $\int_a^\beta f(x)G(x) \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \beta^-} \int_a^b f(x)G(x) \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \beta^-} (F(x)G(x)) \Big|_a^b - \int_a^b F(x)g(x) \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \beta^-} (F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a)) - \lim_{b \rightarrow \beta^-} \int_a^b F(x)g(x) \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \beta^-} F(b)G(b) - F(a)G(a) - \int_a^\beta F(x)g(x) \, dx$.

22. Determine if the improper integral $\int_0^\infty \sin(x^2) \, dx$ converges.

Solution. $\int_0^1 \sin(x^2)$ is proper, so we focus on $\int_1^{+\infty} \sin(x^2)$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin x^2 \, dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int x^{-1} \sin x^2 \, d(x^2) = -\frac{1}{2} \int x^{-1} \, d \cos(x^2) = -\frac{1}{2} x^{-1} \cos(x^2) + \frac{1}{2} \int \cos(x^2) \, d(x^{-1}) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} x^{-1} \cos(x^2) - \frac{1}{2} \int x^{-2} \cos(x^2) \, dx. \end{aligned}$$

So,

$$\int_1^{+\infty} \sin(x^2) \, dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} \int_1^b \sin(x^2) \, dx = -\frac{1}{2} \lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} x^{-1} \cos(x^2) \Big|_1^b - \frac{1}{2} \int_1^{+\infty} x^{-2} \cos(x^2) \, dx.$$

Since $\lim_{b \rightarrow +\infty} b^{-1} \cos(b^2) = 0$ and $\int_1^{+\infty} x^{-2} \cos(x^2) \, dx$ converges absolutely, $\int_0^{+\infty} \sin(x^2)$ converges.

23. Using the fact that $\int_0^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} \, dx = \sqrt{\pi}/2$, find $(-1/2)! = \Gamma(1/2)$ and $(1/2)! = \Gamma(3/2)$.

Solution. Using the substitution $s = \sqrt{t}$ we calculate $\Gamma(1/2) = \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-t} t^{1/2-1} \, dt = \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-s^2} s^{-1} \, d(s^2) = 2 \int_0^{+\infty} e^{-s^2} \, ds = \sqrt{\pi}$. And then $\Gamma(3/2) = \frac{1}{2} \Gamma(1/2) = \sqrt{\pi}/2$.

24. Find the Taylor polynomial $P_{a,n,f}$ for

(a) $f(x) = e^{\sin x}$, $a = 0$, $n = 3$.

Solution. $f(0) = 1$; $f'(x) = e^{\sin x} \cos x$, so $f'(0) = 1$; $f''(x) = e^{\sin x} \cos^2 x - e^{\sin x} \sin x$, so $f''(0) = 1$; $f'''(x) = e^{\sin x} \cos^3 x - e^{\sin x} \cdot 2 \cos x \sin x - e^{\sin x} \sin x - e^{\sin x} \cos x$, so $f'''(0) = 0$. Hence, $P_{3,0}(x) = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}$.

Another solution. The 3rd Taylor polynomials for $\sin x$ at 0 is $x - \frac{x^3}{6}$ and for e^y at 0 is $1 + y + \frac{y^2}{2} + \frac{y^3}{6}$, so $P_{3,0}$ is the degree 3 truncation of

$$1 + \left(x - \frac{x^3}{6}\right) + \frac{1}{2}\left(x - \frac{x^3}{6}\right)^2 + \frac{1}{6}\left(x - \frac{x^3}{6}\right)^3,$$

which is $1 + x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2$.

(b) $f(x) = e^x$, $a = 1$.

Solution. For any n , $(e^x)^{(n)}|_{x=1} = e$, so $P_{n,1}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{e}{n!} (x-1)^n$.

Another solution. For any n ,

$$e^x = e e^{x-1} = e \left(\sum_{k=0}^n \frac{(x-1)^k}{k!} + o((x-1)^n) \right) = \sum_{k=0}^n e \frac{(x-1)^k}{k!} + o((x-1)^n),$$

so $P_{n,1}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n e \frac{(x-1)^k}{k!}$.

(c) $f(x) = x^5 + x^3 + x$, $a = 0$, $n = 4$.

Solution. Since $f(x) = x + x^3 + 0(x^3)$, $P_{3,0}(x) = x + x^3$.

Another solution. $f(0) = 0$, $f'(0) = 1$, $f''(0) = 0$, $f'''(0) = 6$, $f^{(4)}(0) = 0$, so $P_{3,0}(x) = x + \frac{6}{6}x^3 = x + x^3$.

25. (a) For every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, find the Taylor polynomial $P_{0,4n+2,f}$ for $f(x) = \sin(x^2)$.

Solution. $P_{0,4n+2,f}(x) = P_{0,2n+1,\sin}(x^2) = x^2 - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \frac{x^{10}}{5!} - \dots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{4n+2}}{(2n+1)!}$. (Since $P_{0,2n+1,\sin}(x^2)$ has degree $4n+2$ and satisfies $\sin(x^2) = P_{0,2n+1,\sin}(x^2) + o(x^{4n+2})$.)

(b) Find $f^{(k)}(0)$ for all k .

Solution. $f^{(k)}(0) = k!a_k$, where a_k is the coefficient before x^k in the Taylor polynomial for f at 0.

$$\text{So, } f^{(k)}(0) = \begin{cases} \frac{k!}{(k/2)!} & \text{for } k = 2, 10, 18, \dots \\ -\frac{k!}{(k/2)!} & \text{for } k = 6, 14, 22, \dots \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

(c) In general, if $f(x) = g(x^m)$, find $f^{(k)}(0)$ in terms of the derivatives of g at 0.

Solution. Let $f(x) = g(x^m)$. If $P(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n$ is the Taylor polynomial of degree n for g at 0, then $g(x) = P(x) + o(x^n)$. This implies that $f(x) = P(x^m) + o((x^m)^n) = P(x^m) + o(x^{nm})$. Hence, $P(x^m) = a_0 + a_1x^m + a_2x^{2m} + \dots + a_nx^{nm}$ is the Taylor polynomial of degree nm for f at 0. We therefore have $f^{(k)}(0) = \begin{cases} k!a_{k/m} & \text{if } k \text{ is divisible by } m \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \frac{k!}{(k/m)!} g^{(k/m)}(0) & \text{if } k \text{ is divisible by } m \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

26. Find $P_{0,5,f}$ for

(a) $f(x) = e^x \sin x$.

Solution. $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^4}{24} + \frac{x^5}{120} + o(x^5)$ and $\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{120} + o(x^5)$, so $e^x \sin x = x + x^2 + \frac{x^3}{2} + \frac{x^4}{6} + \frac{x^5}{24} - \frac{x^3}{6} - \frac{x^4}{6} - \frac{x^5}{12} + \frac{x^5}{120} + o(x^5)$, and $P_{0,5,f}(x) = x + x^2 + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^5}{30}$.

(b) $f(x) = \tan x$.

Solution. We have $\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24} + o(x^5)$, so

$$\frac{1}{\cos x} = \frac{1}{1 - (\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^4}{24} + o(x^5))} = 1 + \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^4}{24} + o(x^5)\right) + \left(\frac{x^2}{2} - o(x^3)\right)^2 = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{5x^4}{24} + o(x^5)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \tan x &= \sin x \frac{1}{\cos x} = \left(x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{120} + o(x^5)\right) \left(1 + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{5x^4}{24} + o(x^5)\right) \\ &= x - \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{120} + \frac{x^3}{2} - \frac{x^5}{12} + \frac{5x^5}{24} + o(x^5) \\ &= x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2x^5}{15} + o(x^5). \end{aligned}$$

Hence, $P_{0,5,f}(x) = x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2x^5}{15}$.

27. Find (a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x - \frac{1}{2}x^2}{x - \sin x}$.

Solution. We have $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{6}x^3 + o(x^3)$ and $\sin x = x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + o(x^3)$. So,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x - \frac{1}{2}x^2}{x - \sin x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{6}x^3 + o(x^3)}{\frac{1}{6}x^3 - o(x^3)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{6} + o(x^3)/x^3}{\frac{1}{6} - o(x^3)/x^3} = 1.$$

(b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{\sin^2 x} - \frac{1}{x^2} \right)$.

Solution.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{\sin^2 x} - \frac{1}{x^2} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - \sin^2 x}{x^2 \sin^2 x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - (x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + o(x^3))^2}{x^2(x + o(x))^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{3}x^4 + o(x^4)}{x^4 + o(x^4)} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

(c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{\sin^2 x} - \frac{1}{\sin(x^2)} \right)$.

Solution.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{\sin^2 x} - \frac{1}{\sin(x^2)} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x^2) - \sin^2 x}{\sin^2 x \sin(x^2)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x^2 + o(x^4)) - (x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 + o(x^3))^2}{(x + o(x))^2(x^2 + o(x^2))} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{3}x^4 + o(x^4)}{x^4 + o(x^4)} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

28. Use Taylor polynomials to reprove Leibniz's identity $(fg)^{(n)}(a) = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} f^{(n-i)}(a)g^{(i)}(a)$.

Solution. Let f and g be n -times differentiable at a , let $P_{a,n,f}(x) = a_0 + a_1(x-a) + a_2(x-a)^2 + \dots + a_n(x-a)^n$ and $P_{a,n,g}(x) = b_0 + b_1(x-a) + b_2(x-a)^2 + \dots + b_n(x-a)^n$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} P_{a,n,fg}(x) &= T_{a,n}(P_{a,n,f}(x)P_{a,n,g}(x)) \\ &= a_0b_0 + (a_0b_1 + a_1b_0)(x-a) + (a_0b_2 + a_1b_1 + a_2b_0)(x-a)^2 + \dots + (a_0b_n + a_1b_{n-1} + \dots + a_nb_0)(x-a)^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \left(\sum_{i=0}^k a_ib_{k-i} \right) (x-a)^k. \end{aligned}$$

In particular,

$$(fg)^{(n)}(a) = n! \sum_{i=0}^n a_ib_{n-i} = n! \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} \cdot \frac{g^{(n-i)}(a)}{(n-i)!} = \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{n!}{i!(n-i)!} f^{(i)}(a)g^{(n-i)}(a) = \sum_{i=0}^n \binom{n}{i} f^{(i)}(a)g^{(n-i)}(a).$$

29. Let $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{e^x-1}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 1, & x = 0. \end{cases}$ Taking it for granted that f is infinitely differentiable on \mathbb{R} , find the Taylor polynomial of degree n for f at 0, and compute $f^{(n)}(0)$ for all n .

Solution. I don't see how to easily prove that f is infinitely differentiable at 0 until we study power series.

We have $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} + o(x^{n+1})$. Hence,

$$f(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{2!} + \frac{x^2}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{(n+1)!} + o(x^n),$$

so $1 + \frac{x}{2!} + \frac{x^2}{3!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{(n+1)!}$ is the n -th Taylor polynomial of f at 0. This implies that $f'(0) = \frac{1}{2!}$, $f''(0) = 2! \frac{1}{3!} = \frac{1}{3}$, and $f^{(n)}(0) = n! \frac{1}{(n+1)!} = \frac{1}{n+1}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

30. Define $f(x) = \frac{\log(1+x^2)}{x^2}$ for $x \neq 0$ and $f(0) = 1$. Taking it for granted that f is infinitely differentiable on \mathbb{R} , find the derivative $f^{(100)}(0)$.

Solution. As we know, $\log(1+x^2) = x^2 - \frac{1}{2}x^4 + \frac{1}{3}x^6 - \dots + \frac{1}{51}x^{102} + o(x^{102})$, so $f(x) = \log(1+x^2)/x^2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^4 - \dots + \frac{1}{51}x^{100} + o(x^{100})$. Since f is infinitely differentiable, it follows that $1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^4 - \dots + \frac{1}{51}x^{100}$ is 100-th Taylor polynomial of f at 0. So, $f^{(100)}(0) = 100! \frac{1}{51}$.

31. Using the fact that $\frac{\pi}{4} = \arctan \frac{1}{2} + \arctan \frac{1}{3}$, show that $\pi = 3.14159\dots$

Solution. We have $\arctan x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} + R_{2n+1}(x)$, where $|R_{2n+1}(x)| < \frac{|x|^{2n+3}}{2n+3}$ (see Spivak). For $x = \frac{1}{5}$, if we want $R_{2n+1}(x)$ to be less than 10^{-7} , it suffices to take $n = 3$, and $n = 0$ works for $x = \frac{1}{239}$, so that we have $|4R_7(\frac{1}{5}) - R_1(\frac{1}{239})| < 5 \cdot 10^{-7}$. So, with error $< 5 \cdot 10^{-7}$, we have $\pi/4 \approx 4(\frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{3 \cdot 5^3} + \frac{1}{5 \cdot 5^5} + \frac{1}{7 \cdot 5^7}) - \frac{1}{239} \approx 0.78539792$, and so, with error $< 2 \cdot 10^{-6}$, $\pi \approx 3.141591$.