

W. Rudin, Principles of Mathematical Analysis, 3rd Edition

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1. Let f be defined for all real x , and suppose that

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq (x - y)^2$$

for all x and y . Prove that f is constant.

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Starting at $f(0)$, we show that $f(x) = f(0)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^1$. Consider the case $x > 0$, and for $n = 1, 2, \dots$, let $\{x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ be a *partition* of the interval $[0, x]$ with $x_0 = 0$, $x_n = x$, and $x_{j+1} - x_j = \frac{x}{n}$ for $j \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - f(0)| &= \left| \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} f(x_{j+1}) - f(x_j) \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} |f(x_{j+1}) - f(x_j)| \\ &\leq \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (x_{j+1} - x_j)^2 \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \left(\frac{x}{n}\right)^2 \\ &= \frac{x^2}{n} \end{aligned}$$

where the third line of the above inequality follows by assumption. Since $\frac{x^2}{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we conclude that $|f(x) - f(0)| = 0$ or $f(x) = f(0)$. The other case $x < 0$ is in a similar way. Hence f is constant.

2. Suppose $f'(x) > 0$ in (a, b) . Prove that f is strictly increasing in (a, b) , and let g be its inverse function. Prove that g is differentiable, and that

$$g'(f(x)) = \frac{1}{f'(x)} \quad (a < x < b)$$

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- (i) By the mean value theorem (Theorem 5.10), for $x, y \in (a, b)$ with $x < y$,

$$f(y) - f(x) = f'(c)(y - x) > 0$$

for some $c \in (x, y)$. So f is strictly increasing in (a, b) .

(ii) Let $g : f(a, b) \rightarrow (a, b)$ be the inverse function of f , i.e., $g(f(x)) = x$ for all $x \in (a, b)$. We now show that

$$g'(y) = \lim_{z \rightarrow y} \frac{g(z) - g(y)}{z - y}$$

exists for all $y \in f(a, b)$. Put $y = f(x)$ and $z = f(t)$, where $x, t \in (a, b)$, then since f is continuous (by Theorem 5.2), so is g (by Theorem 4.17), and $z \rightarrow y$ implies $t \rightarrow x$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{z \rightarrow y} \frac{g(z) - g(y)}{z - y} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{g(f(t)) - g(f(x))}{f(t) - f(x)} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{t - x}{f(t) - f(x)} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{1}{\frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}} \\ &= \frac{1}{f'(x)} \end{aligned}$$

Since $f' > 0$, we see that $g'(y)$ is defined for all $y \in f(a, b)$. Hence g is differentiable. It is also clear that $g'(f(x)) = \frac{1}{f'(x)}$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

3. Suppose g is a real function on R^1 , with bounded derivative (say $|g'| \leq M$). Fix $\varepsilon > 0$, and define $f(x) = x + \varepsilon g(x)$. Prove that f is one-to-one if ε is small enough. (A set of admissible value of ε can be determined which depends only on M .)

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If $0 < \varepsilon < \frac{1}{M}$, then $g' \geq -M$ implies

$$f'(x) = 1 + \varepsilon g'(x) \geq 1 - \varepsilon M > 0$$

Thus by Exercise 2, f is strictly increasing, and hence f is one-to-one.

4. If

$$C_0 + \frac{C_1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{C_{n-1}}{n} + \frac{C_n}{n+1} = 0$$

where C_0, \dots, C_n are real constants, prove that the equation

$$C_0 + C_1x + \cdots + C_{n-1}x^{n-1} + C_nx^n = 0$$

has at least one real root between 0 and 1.

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Let $f(x) = C_0x + \frac{C_1}{2}x^2 + \cdots + \frac{C_n}{n+1}x^{n+1}$, then clearly f is a differentiable real function (since C_0, C_1, \dots, C_n are real constants). Moreover, we have $f(0) = 0$ and

$$f(1) = C_0 + \frac{C_1}{2} + \cdots + \frac{C_{n-1}}{n} + \frac{C_n}{n+1} = 0$$

By the mean value theorem, there exists a point $x_0 \in (0, 1)$ such that $f'(x_0) = \frac{f(1)-f(0)}{1-0} = 0$, i.e.,

$$C_0 + C_1x_0 + \cdots + C_{n-1}x_0^{n-1} + C_nx_0^n = 0$$

5. Suppose f is defined and differentiable for every $x > 0$, and $f'(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow +\infty$. Put $g(x) = f(x+1) - f(x)$. Prove that $g(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow +\infty$.

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By the mean value theorem, for $x > 0$, let $c(x)$ be a real number such that $c(x) \in (x, x+1)$ and $f'(c(x)) = f(x+1) - f(x)$. Then $c(x) \rightarrow +\infty$ as $x \rightarrow +\infty$, which implies

$$g(x) = f'(c(x)) \rightarrow 0$$

6. Suppose
 (a) f is continuous for $x \geq 0$,
 (b) $f'(x)$ exists for $x > 0$,
 (c) $f(0) = 0$,
 (d) f' is monotonically increasing.

Put

$$g(x) = \frac{f(x)}{x} \quad (x > 0)$$

and prove that g is monotonically increasing.

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Since $g'(x) = \frac{xf'(x) - f(x)}{x^2}$ where $x > 0$, by Theorem 5.11(a), it suffices to show that

$$xf'(x) - f(x) \geq 0$$

for all $x > 0$. Since conditions (a), (b), and (c) hold, by the mean value theorem,

$$f(x) = f(x) - f(0) = f'(c)(x - 0) = xf'(c)$$

for some $c \in (0, x)$. Since $c < x$ here, by condition (d), $xf'(c) \leq xf'(x)$. So we conclude that $f(x) \leq xf'(x)$.

7. Suppose $f'(x)$, $g'(x)$ exist, $g'(x) \neq 0$, and $f(x) = g(x) = 0$. Prove that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{f(t)}{g(t)} = \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

(This holds also for complex functions.)

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We have

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{f(t)}{g(t)} = \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{\frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}}{\frac{g(t) - g(x)}{t - x}} = \frac{\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}}{\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{g(t) - g(x)}{t - x}} = \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

where the first equality shown above follows by $f(x) = g(x) = 0$.

8. Suppose f' is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $\varepsilon > 0$. Prove that there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\left| \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} - f'(x) \right| < \varepsilon$$

whenever $0 < |t - x| < \delta$, $a \leq x \leq b$, $a \leq t \leq b$. (This could be expressed by saying that f is *uniformly differentiable* on $[a, b]$ if f' is continuous on $[a, b]$.) Does this hold for vector-valued functions too?

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(i) By the mean-valued theorem, there exists $c(t)$ between x and t such that $\frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} = f'(c(t))$. Since f' is continuous on $[a, b]$, and since $c(t) \rightarrow x$ as $t \rightarrow x$ (by the *squeeze theorem* (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Squeeze_theorem)), we have

$$\frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} = f'(c(t)) \rightarrow f'(x)$$

as $t \rightarrow x$. This completes the proof.

(ii) Yes. Provided that each component of a given vector-valued function has continuous derivative on an interval.

9. Let f be a continuous real function on R^1 , of which it is known that $f'(x)$ exists for all $x \neq 0$ and that $f'(x) \rightarrow 3$ as $x \rightarrow 0$. Does it follow that $f'(0)$ exists?

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Yes. Note that $f'(x) \rightarrow 3$ as $x \rightarrow 0$, so by L'Hospital's rule,

$$f'(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f'(x) = 3$$

10. Suppose f and g are complex differentiable functions on $(0, 1)$, $f(x) \rightarrow 0$, $g(x) \rightarrow 0$, $f'(x) \rightarrow A$, $g'(x) \rightarrow B$ as $x \rightarrow 0$, where A and B are complex numbers, $B \neq 0$. Prove that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{A}{B}$$

Compare with Example 5.18. *Hint:*

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \left\{ \frac{f(x)}{x} - A \right\} \cdot \frac{x}{g(x)} + A \cdot \frac{x}{g(x)}$$

Apply Theorem 5.13 to the real and imaginary parts of $f(x)/x$ and $g(x)/x$.

Following the hint, write $f = f_1 + i f_2$, where f_1 and f_2 are real functions on $(0, 1)$. Then $f_1(x) \rightarrow 0$ and $f_1'(x) \rightarrow \operatorname{Re}(A)$ as $x \rightarrow 0$, and by L'Hospital's rule,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{Re} \left[\frac{f(x)}{x} \right] = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_1(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f_1'(x) = \operatorname{Re}(A)$$

Similarly we have $\operatorname{Im} \left[\frac{f(x)}{x} \right] \rightarrow \operatorname{Im}(A)$, $\operatorname{Re} \left[\frac{g(x)}{x} \right] \rightarrow \operatorname{Re}(B)$, and $\operatorname{Im} \left[\frac{g(x)}{x} \right] \rightarrow \operatorname{Im}(B)$ as $x \rightarrow 0$. So

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\operatorname{Re} \left[\frac{f(x)}{x} \right] + i \operatorname{Im} \left[\frac{f(x)}{x} \right] \right) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{Re} \left[\frac{f(x)}{x} \right] + i \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{Im} \left[\frac{f(x)}{x} \right] \\ &= \operatorname{Re}(A) + i \operatorname{Im}(A) \\ &= A \end{aligned}$$

and similarly $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x)}{x} = B$ or the limit of its reciprocal

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\frac{g(x)}{x}} = \frac{1}{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x)}{x}} = \frac{1}{B}$$

exists, since $B \neq 0$. The result will therefore follow.

11. Suppose f is defined in a neighborhood of x , and suppose $f''(x)$ exists. Show that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) + f(x-h) - 2f(x)}{h^2} = f''(x)$$

Show by an example that the limit may exist even $f''(x)$ does not.

Hint: Use Theorem 5.13.

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(i) By L'Hospital's rule,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) + f(x-h) - 2f(x)}{h^2} \\
 &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x+h) - f'(x-h)}{2h} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{f'(x+h) - f'(x)}{h} + \frac{f'(x) - f'(x-h)}{h} \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x+h) - f'(x)}{h} + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x) - f'(x-h)}{h} \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} [f''(x) + f''(x)] \\
 &= f''(x)
 \end{aligned}$$

(ii) For example, let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x+1 & x < 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \\ x-1 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

12. If $f(x) = |x|^3$, compute $f'(x)$, $f''(x)$ for all real x , and show that $f^{(3)}(0)$ does not exist.

(i) For $x > 0$, $f'(x) = (x^3)' = 3x^2$. For $x < 0$, $f'(x) = (-x^3)' = -3x^2$. Finally,

$$f'(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|h|^3}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{sgn}(h)h^2 = 0$$

where

$$\operatorname{sgn}(h) = \begin{cases} 1 & h > 0 \\ -1 & h < 0 \end{cases}$$

(ii) For $x > 0$, $f''(x) = (3x^2)' = 6x$. For $x < 0$, $f''(x) = (-3x^2)' = -6x$. Finally, use part (i),

$$f''(0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(h)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\operatorname{sgn}(h)3h^2}{h} = \operatorname{sgn}(h)3 \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h = 0$$

(iii) To show that $f^{(3)}(0)$ does not exist, just write

$$\frac{f''(h) - f''(0)}{h} = \frac{f''(h)}{h} = \frac{\operatorname{sgn}(h)6h}{h} = 6 \operatorname{sgn}(h)$$

The result then follows.

13. Suppose a and x are real numbers, $c > 0$, and f is defined on $[-1, 1]$ by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^a \sin(|x|^{-c}) & (\text{if } x \neq 0) \\ 0 & (\text{if } x = 0) \end{cases}$$

Prove the following statements:

- (a) f is continuous if and only if $a > 0$.
- (b) $f'(0)$ exists if and only if $a > 1$.
- (c) f' is bounded if and only if $a \geq 1 + c$.
- (d) f' is continuous if and only if $a > 1 + c$.
- (e) $f''(0)$ exists if and only if $a > 2 + c$.
- (f) f'' is bounded if and only if $a \geq 2 + 2c$.
- (g) f'' is continuous if and only if $a > 2 + 2c$.

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(a) It is clear that f is continuous at any nonzero point x , so we only consider the point $x = 0$. If $a > 0$, then

$$|f(x)| = |x^a \sin(|x|^{-c})| \leq |x^a| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 0$$

By squeezing, $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow 0$, and hence f is continuous at 0. Conversely, if $a \leq 0$, let $x_n = (2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})^{-\frac{1}{c}}$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Then $x_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, but $-\frac{a}{c} \geq 0$ implies

$$f(x_n) = \left(2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^{-\frac{a}{c}} \geq 1 \quad \text{for all } n$$

This shows that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) \neq 0 = f(0)$, and hence f is not continuous at 0.

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(b) If $a > 1$ or $a - 1 > 0$, then

$$\left| \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x} \right| = \left| \frac{x^a \sin(|x|^{-c})}{x} \right| \leq |x^{a-1}| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 0$$

By squeezing, $f'(0) = 0$. Conversely, if $a \leq 1$ or $a - 1 \leq 0$, let $x_n = (2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})^{-\frac{1}{c}}$ and $y_n = (2n\pi)^{-\frac{1}{c}}$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Then $x_n \rightarrow 0$ and $y_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, but $-\frac{a-1}{c} \geq 0$ implies

$$\frac{f(x_n) - f(0)}{x_n} = \left(2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)^{-\frac{a-1}{c}} \geq 1 \quad \text{for all } n$$

Also, we have $\frac{f(y_n) - f(0)}{y_n} = 0$ for all n . This gives

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x_n) - f(0)}{x_n} \neq 0 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(y_n) - f(0)}{y_n}$$

and hence $f'(0)$ does not exist.

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(c)

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(d)

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(e)

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(f)

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(g)

- 14.** Let f be a differentiable real function defined on (a, b) . Prove that f is convex if and only if f' is monotonically increasing. Assume next that $f''(x)$ exists for every $x \in (a, b)$, and prove that f is convex if and only if $f''(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

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(i) If f is convex. For $x, y, t \in (a, b)$ with $x < t < y$, and let $c = \frac{f(y)-f(x)}{y-x}$. By Exercise 4.23,

$$c \geq \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} \quad \text{and} \quad c \leq \frac{f(y) - f(t)}{y - t}$$

Since f is differentiable, we have $c \geq f'(x)$ and $c \leq f'(y)$ as $t \rightarrow x$ and $t \rightarrow y$, respectively. Hence $f'(x) \leq f'(y)$. Conversely, if f' is monotonically increasing, given $x, y \in (a, b)$ with $x < y$, and $\lambda \in (0, 1)$. Put $t = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y$, then

$$t - x = (1 - \lambda)(y - x) \quad \text{and} \quad y - t = \lambda(y - x)$$

Since f' is monotonically increasing, applying the mean value theorem,

$$\frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x} = f'(c_1) \leq f'(c_2) = \frac{f(y) - f(t)}{y - t}$$

for some $c_1 \in (x, t)$ and $c_2 \in (t, y)$. It follows that

$$\lambda [f(t) - f(x)] \leq (1 - \lambda) [f(y) - f(t)]$$

or

$$f(t) \leq \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y)$$

(ii) We first show that f' is monotonically increasing if and only if $f''(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$. The sufficiency part is the result of Theorem 5.11(a). To show the necessity part, given $x \in (a, b)$, observe that the fraction $\frac{f'(t)-f'(x)}{t-x}$ is always nonnegative, for all $t \in (a, b)$ with $t \neq x$, since f' is monotonically increasing. Thus by definition,

$$f''(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{f'(t) - f'(x)}{t - x} \geq 0$$

Hence, f is convex if and only if f' is monotonically increasing [by part (i)], if and only if $f''(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in (a, b)$.

15. Suppose $a \in \mathbb{R}^1$, f is a twice-differentiable real function on (a, ∞) , and M_0, M_1, M_2 are the least upper bounds of $|f(x)|, |f'(x)|, |f''(x)|$, respectively, on (a, ∞) . Prove that

$$M_1^2 \leq 4M_0M_2$$

Hint: If $h > 0$, Taylor's theorem shows that

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2h} [f(x+2h) - f(x)] - hf''(\xi)$$

for some $\xi \in (x, x+2h)$. Hence

$$|f'(x)| \leq hM_2 + \frac{M_0}{h}$$

To show that $M_1^2 = 4M_0M_2$ can actually happen, take $a = -1$, define

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x^2 - 1 & (-1 < x < 0) \\ \frac{x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 1} & (0 \leq x < \infty) \end{cases}$$

and show that $M_0 = 1, M_1 = 4, M_2 = 4$.

Does $M_1^2 \leq 4M_0M_2$ hold for vector-valued functions too?

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(i) First, note that M_0M_2 be of the form $0 \cdot \infty$ is exceptional. Now we consider the following four cases.

Case 1: $M_0 = \infty$ or $M_2 = \infty$. The result is trivial.

Case 2: $M_0 = 0$. Then $f(x) = 0$, and then $f'(x) = f''(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (a, \infty)$. It follows that $M_1 = M_2 = 0$, and the result is also trivial.

Case 3: $0 < M_0 < \infty$ and $M_2 = 0$. Then $f''(x) = 0$, and then $f'(x) = c$ and $f(x) = cx + d$ for some constants $c, d \in \mathbb{R}$, for all $x \in (a, \infty)$. Since M_0 is finite, we need $c = 0$ and then $M_1 = 0$. The result therefore follows.

Case 4: $0 < M_0 < \infty$ and $0 < M_2 < \infty$. Following the hint, use Taylor's theorem (Theorem 5.15), for $x \in (a, \infty)$ and $h > 0$ there exists $\xi \in (x, x+2h)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} f(x+2h) &= f(x) + f'(x) \cdot 2h + \frac{f''(\xi)}{2} \cdot (2h)^2 \\ &= f(x) + f'(x) \cdot 2h + f''(\xi) \cdot 2h^2 \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{2h} [f(x+2h) - f(x)] - hf''(\xi)$$

and hence

$$|f'(x)| \leq hM_2 + \frac{M_0}{h}$$

By assumption, we may put $h = \sqrt{\frac{M_0}{M_2}}$ and the inequality becomes

$$|f'(x)| \leq 2\sqrt{M_0M_2}$$

implying $M_1 \leq 2\sqrt{M_0M_2}$ or $M_1^2 \leq 4M_0M_2$.

(ii) By some calculation,

$$\begin{aligned} (-1 < x < 0) & \begin{cases} f'(x) = 4x \\ f''(x) = 4 \end{cases} \\ (0 < x < \infty) & \begin{cases} f'(x) = \frac{4x}{(x^2 + 1)^2} \\ f''(x) = \frac{-4(3x^2 - 1)}{(x^2 + 1)^3} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

To find $f'(0)$ and $f''(0)$, calculate

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(t) - f(0)}{t} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{t^2 - 1}{t^2 + 1} + 1}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{2t}{t^2 + 1} = 0 \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(t) - f(0)}{t} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{(2t^2 - 1) + 1}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} 2t = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Then $f'(0) = 0$. Next,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f'(t) - f'(0)}{t} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{4t}{(t^2 + 1)^2}}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{4}{(t^2 + 1)^2} = 4 \\ \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f'(t) - f'(0)}{t} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{4t}{t} = 4 \end{aligned}$$

Then $f''(0) = 4$. Now, $-1 \leq f(x) < 1$ for $x \in (-1, \infty)$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 1$, are both trivial. Hence $M_0 = 1$. Also, since $f''(x) = 4$ for $x \in (-1, 0]$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f''(x) = 4$, we see that f is twice-differentiable on $(-1, \infty)$. To show that $|f''(x)| < 4$ for all $x > 0$, observe that

$$3x^2 - 1 < 3x^2 + 1 < x^6 + 3x^4 + 3x^2 + 1 = (x^2 + 1)^3$$

and that $\left| \frac{3x^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)^3} \right| = \frac{3x^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)^3} < 1$ for $x > 0$. So

$$|f''(x)| = 4 \left| \frac{3x^2 - 1}{(x^2 + 1)^3} \right| < 4$$

for $x > 0$, and hence $M_2 = 4$. Finally, since $0 \leq f'(x) < 4$ for $x \in (-1, 0]$, and

$$2x \leq 1 + x^2 < 1 + 2x^2 + x^4 = (x^2 + 1)^2$$

for $x > 0$. We see that

$$|f'(x)| = \left| \frac{4x}{(x^2 + 1)^2} \right| = 2 \left[\frac{2x}{(x^2 + 1)^2} \right] < 2 < 4$$

for $x > 0$, and hence $M_1 = 4$ (since $\lim_{t \rightarrow (-1)^+} f'(x) = -4$).

(iii) Yes. In R^k , let $\mathbf{f}(x) = (f_1(x), \dots, f_k(x))$ where each f_j ($1 \leq j \leq k$) is a twice-differentiable real function. Note that $M_0 M_2$ be of the form $0 \cdot \infty$ is exceptional, and we consider the following four cases. (The first three cases are simple extensions of $k = 1$.)

Case 1: $M_0 = \infty$ or $M_2 = \infty$. The result is trivial.

Case 2: $M_0 = 0$. Then $f_j(x) = 0$, and then $f'_j(x) = f''_j(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (a, \infty)$ and for all j . It follows that $M_1 = M_2 = 0$, and the result is also trivial.

Case 3: $0 < M_0 < \infty$ and $M_2 = 0$. Then $f''_j(x) = 0$, and then $f'_j(x) = c_j$ and $f_j(x) = c_j x + d_j$ for some constants $c_j, d_j \in R$, for all $x \in (a, \infty)$ and for all j . Since M_0 is finite, we need $c_j = 0$ for each j , and then $M_1 = 0$. The result therefore follows.

Case 4: $0 < M_0 < \infty$ and $0 < M_2 < \infty$. If $M_1 = 0$ then we are done. If $M_1 > 0$, let $p \in R^1$ be such that $0 < p < M_1$, and let $x_0 \in (a, \infty)$ be such that $|\mathbf{f}'(x_0)| > p$. Put $\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{f}'(x_0)}{|\mathbf{f}'(x_0)|}$. Consider the real-valued function $g(x) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f}(x)$ for $x \in (a, \infty)$, and note that g is twice-differentiable. Let N_0, N_1, N_2 be the least upper bounds of $|g(x)|, |g'(x)|, |g''(x)|$, respectively. Since $|\mathbf{u}| = 1$, by Schwarz inequality [Theorem 1.37(d)],

$$|g(x)| \leq |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{f}(x)| = |\mathbf{f}(x)|, \quad |g''(x)| \leq |\mathbf{u}| |\mathbf{f}''(x)| = |\mathbf{f}''(x)|$$

for all $x \in (a, \infty)$. So that $N_0 \leq M_0$ and $N_2 \leq M_2$. Also, since

$$N_1 \geq g'(x_0) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f}'(x_0) = |\mathbf{f}'(x_0)| > p$$

and since $N_1 \leq 4N_0 N_2$ [by part (i)], we have $p < 4M_0 M_2$. Since p is arbitrarily chosen such that $0 < p < M_1$, we conclude that $M_1 \leq 4M_0 M_2$.

16. Suppose f is twice-differentiable on $(0, \infty)$, f'' is bounded on $(0, \infty)$, and $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Prove that $f'(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

Hint: Let $a \rightarrow \infty$ in Exercise 15.

--

Let $M > 0$ be such that $|f''(x)| \leq M$ for $x \in (0, \infty)$. Given $a \in (0, \infty)$, let $M_0(a), M_1(a), M_2(a)$ be the least upper bounds of $|f(x)|, |f'(x)|, |f''(x)|$, respectively, for $x \in (a, \infty)$. Then clearly $M_2(a) \leq M$ for all a . Since $f(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists $a_0 \in (0, \infty)$ such that $|f(x)| < \varepsilon$ for all $x \in (a_0, \infty)$. It follows that $M_0(a_0) \leq \varepsilon$ and that (by Exercise 15)

$$M_1^2(a_0) \leq 4M_0(a_0)M_2(a_0) \leq 4M\varepsilon$$

i.e., $|f'(x)| \leq 2\sqrt{M\varepsilon}$ for all $x \in (a_0, \infty)$. Hence $f'(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

17. Suppose f is a real, three times differentiable function on $[-1, 1]$, such that

$$f(-1) = 0, \quad f(0) = 0, \quad f(1) = 1, \quad f'(0) = 0$$

Prove that $f^{(3)}(x) \geq 3$ for some $x \in (-1, 1)$.

Note that equality holds for $\frac{1}{2}(x^3 + x^2)$.

Hint: Use Theorem 5.15, with $\alpha = 0$ and $\beta = \pm 1$, to show that there exist $s \in (0, 1)$ and $t \in (-1, 0)$ such that

$$f^{(3)}(s) + f^{(3)}(t) = 6$$

--

Following the hint, use Taylor's theorem (Theorem 5.15), there exists $s \in (0, 1)$ and $t \in (-1, 0)$ such that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 = f(1) &= f(0) + f'(0) + \frac{f''(0)}{2} + \frac{f^{(3)}(s)}{6} = \frac{f''(0)}{2} + \frac{f^{(3)}(s)}{6} \\ 0 = f(-1) &= f(0) - f'(0) + \frac{f''(0)}{2} - \frac{f^{(3)}(t)}{6} = \frac{f''(0)}{2} - \frac{f^{(3)}(t)}{6} \end{aligned}$$

Subtract them we get

$$f^{(3)}(s) + f^{(3)}(t) = 6$$

It follows that either $f^{(3)}(s) \geq 3$ or $f^{(3)}(t) \geq 3$, which completes the proof.

18. Suppose f is a real function on $[a, b]$, n is a positive integer, and $f^{(n-1)}$ exists for every $t \in [a, b]$. Let α, β , and P be as in Taylor's theorem (5.15). Define

$$Q(t) = \frac{f(t) - f(\beta)}{t - \beta}$$

for $t \in [a, b]$, $t \neq \beta$, differentiate

$$f(t) - f(\beta) = (t - \beta)Q(t)$$

$n - 1$ times at $t = \alpha$, and derive the following version of Taylor's theorem:

$$f(\beta) = P(\beta) + \frac{Q^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!}(\beta - \alpha)^n$$

--

By induction, we easily conclude that

$$f^{(k)}(\alpha) = kQ^{(k-1)}(\alpha) - (\beta - \alpha)Q^{(k)}(\alpha)$$

and then

$$\frac{f^{(k)}(\alpha)}{k!} (\beta - \alpha)^k = \frac{Q^{(k-1)}(\alpha)}{(k-1)!} (\beta - \alpha)^k - \frac{Q^{(k)}(\alpha)}{k!} (\beta - \alpha)^{k+1}$$

for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} P(\beta) &= f(\alpha) + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(\alpha)}{k!} (\beta - \alpha)^k \\ &= f(\alpha) + Q(\alpha)(\beta - \alpha) - \frac{Q^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!} (\beta - \alpha)^n \\ &= f(\alpha) + [f(\beta) - f(\alpha)] - \frac{Q^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!} (\beta - \alpha)^n \\ &= f(\beta) - \frac{Q^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!} (\beta - \alpha)^n \end{aligned}$$

or $f(\beta) = P(\beta) + \frac{Q^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!} (\beta - \alpha)^n$.

- 19.** Suppose f is defined in $(-1, 1)$ and $f'(0)$ exists. Suppose $-1 < \alpha_n < \beta_n < 1$, $\alpha_n \rightarrow 0$, and $\beta_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Define the difference quotients

$$D_n = \frac{f(\beta_n) - f(\alpha_n)}{\beta_n - \alpha_n}$$

Prove the following statements:

- (a) If $\alpha_n < 0 < \beta_n$, then $\lim D_n = f'(0)$.
- (b) If $0 < \alpha_n < \beta_n$ and $\{\beta_n/(\beta_n - \alpha_n)\}$ is bounded, then $\lim D_n = f'(0)$.
- (c) If f' is continuous in $(-1, 1)$, then $\lim D_n = f'(0)$.

Give an example in which f is differentiable in $(-1, 1)$ (but f' is not continuous at 0) and in which α_n, β_n tend to 0 in such a way that $\lim D_n$ exists but is different from $f'(0)$.

--

- (a) Denote $\lambda_n = \frac{\beta_n}{\beta_n - \alpha_n}$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$, then clearly $0 < \lambda_n < 1$ (since $\alpha_n < 0 < \beta_n$). Now, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} D_n &= \frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0) + f(0) - f(\alpha_n)}{\beta_n - \alpha_n} \\ &= \frac{\beta_n}{\beta_n - \alpha_n} \cdot \frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0)}{\beta_n} + \frac{-\alpha_n}{\beta_n - \alpha_n} \cdot \frac{f(0) - f(\alpha_n)}{-\alpha_n} \\ &= \lambda_n \cdot \frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0)}{\beta_n} + (1 - \lambda_n) \cdot \frac{f(\alpha_n) - f(0)}{\alpha_n} \end{aligned}$$

Since $f'(0)$ exists, by definition, for $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a positive integer N such that $n \geq N$ implies

$$\left| \frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0)}{\beta_n} - f'(0) \right| < \varepsilon \quad \text{and} \quad \left| \frac{f(\alpha_n) - f(0)}{\alpha_n} - f'(0) \right| < \varepsilon$$

So $n \geq N$ implies

$$\begin{aligned} |D_n - f'(0)| &= \left| \lambda_n \left[\frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0)}{\beta_n} - f'(0) \right] + (1 - \lambda_n) \left[\frac{f(\alpha_n) - f(0)}{\alpha_n} - f'(0) \right] \right| \\ &\leq \lambda_n \left| \frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0)}{\beta_n} - f'(0) \right| + (1 - \lambda_n) \left| \frac{f(\alpha_n) - f(0)}{\alpha_n} - f'(0) \right| \\ &< \lambda_n \varepsilon + (1 - \lambda_n) \varepsilon \\ &= \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} D_n = f'(0)$.

--

(b) Let λ_n be the same notation as in part (a), then we know that $\lambda_n > 0$ for each n . Since $\{\beta_n/(\beta_n - \alpha_n)\}$ is bounded, there exists $M > 0$ such that $\lambda_n \leq M$ for each n . Now, we can write

$$\begin{aligned} D_n &= \frac{[f(\beta_n) - f(0)] - [f(\alpha_n) - f(0)]}{\beta_n - \alpha_n} \\ &= \frac{\beta_n}{\beta_n - \alpha_n} \cdot \frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0)}{\beta_n} + \frac{-\alpha_n}{\beta_n - \alpha_n} \cdot \frac{f(\alpha_n) - f(0)}{\alpha_n} \\ &= \lambda_n \cdot \frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0)}{\beta_n} + (1 - \lambda_n) \cdot \frac{f(\alpha_n) - f(0)}{\alpha_n} \end{aligned}$$

Then if we let ε and N be the same meaning as in part (a), it follows that $n \geq N$ implies

$$\begin{aligned} |D_n - f'(0)| &= \left| \lambda_n \left[\frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0)}{\beta_n} - f'(0) \right] + (1 - \lambda_n) \left[\frac{f(\alpha_n) - f(0)}{\alpha_n} - f'(0) \right] \right| \\ &\leq \lambda_n \left| \frac{f(\beta_n) - f(0)}{\beta_n} - f'(0) \right| + (1 + \lambda_n) \left| \frac{f(\alpha_n) - f(0)}{\alpha_n} - f'(0) \right| \\ &< \lambda_n \varepsilon + (1 + \lambda_n) \varepsilon \\ &\leq (1 + 2M) \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} D_n = f'(0)$.

--

(c) By the mean value theorem, for each n there exists $\gamma_n \in (\alpha_n, \beta_n)$ such that

$$D_n = f'(\gamma_n)$$

By squeezing, we see that $\gamma_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Since f' is continuous, $D_n = f'(\gamma_n) \rightarrow f'(0)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

--

Inspired from Exercise 13, we give an example as below. Let $f : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ be defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x = 0 \\ x^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then $f'(x) = 2x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) - \cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ for $x \neq 0$, and

$$f'(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = 0$$

i.e., such f is differentiable on $(-1, 1)$ but f' is not continuous at 0. Moreover, let $\alpha_n = (2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})^{-1}$ and $\beta_n = (2n\pi)^{-1}$ for $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Then $0 < \alpha_n < \beta_n < 1$, $\alpha_n \rightarrow 0$, and $\beta_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. But

$$\begin{aligned} D_n &= \frac{-(2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})^{-2}}{(2n\pi)^{-1} - (2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})^{-1}} \\ &= \frac{-1}{(2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})^2 (2n\pi)^{-1} - (2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})} \\ &= \frac{-1}{(2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}) \left(1 + \frac{1}{4n}\right) - (2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})} \\ &= \frac{-4n}{2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}} \end{aligned}$$

which follows that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} D_n = -\frac{2}{\pi} \neq 0 = f'(0)$.

- 20.** Formulate and prove an inequality which follows from Taylor's theorem and which remains valid for vector-valued functions.

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(i) The statement in the real-valued case: [i] Suppose f is a real function on $[a, b]$, n is a positive integer, $f^{(n-1)}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, $f^{(n)}(t)$ exists for every $t \in (a, b)$. Let

$$P(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (t - a)^k$$

then there exists $x \in (a, b)$ such that [i]

$$|f(b) - P(b)| \leq \left| \frac{f^{(n)}(x)}{n!} \right| (b - a)^n$$

The proof of the assertion directly follows from the Taylor' theorem.

(ii) The statement in the vector-valued case: [i] Suppose \mathbf{f} is a mapping on $[a, b]$ into R^k , n is a positive integer, $\mathbf{f}^{(n-1)}$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, $\mathbf{f}^{(n)}(t)$ exists for every $t \in (a, b)$. Let

$$\mathbf{P}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{\mathbf{f}^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (t - a)^k$$

then there exists $x \in (a, b)$ such that [i]

$$|\mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{P}(b)| \leq \left| \frac{\mathbf{f}^{(n)}(x)}{n!} \right| (b - a)^n$$

To show it, note that $|\mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{P}(b)| = 0$ is a trivial case. If $|\mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{P}(b)| \neq 0$, define

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{P}(b)|} [\mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{P}(b)]$$

Then $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f}$ is a real-valued function on $[a, b]$, satisfying all the conditions in the statement of part (i). Since $(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f})^{(k)} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f}^{(k)}$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$, and

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f})^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (t - a)^k &= \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f}^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (t - a)^k \\ &= \mathbf{u} \cdot \left[\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{\mathbf{f}^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (t - a)^k \right] \\ &= \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{P}(t) \end{aligned}$$

by part (i) we have

$$|\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{P}(b)| \leq \left| \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f}^{(n)}(x)}{n!} \right| (b - a)^n \leq \left| \frac{\mathbf{f}^{(n)}(x)}{n!} \right| (b - a)^n$$

for some $x \in (a, b)$, where the above second inequality follows by the fact $|\mathbf{u}| = 1$, and by the Schwarz inequality. On the other hand,

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{P}(b) = \mathbf{u} \cdot [\mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{P}(b)] = |\mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{P}(b)|$$

we then conclude that

$$|\mathbf{f}(b) - \mathbf{P}(b)| \leq \left| \frac{\mathbf{f}^{(n)}(x)}{n!} \right| (b - a)^n$$

- 21 Let E be a closed subset of R^1 . We saw in Exercise 22, Chap. 4, that there is a real continuous function f on R^1 whose zero set is E . It is possible, for each closed set E , to find such an f which is differentiable on R^1 , or one which is n times differentiable, or even one which has derivatives of all orders on R^1 ?
--

22. Suppose f is a real function on $(-\infty, \infty)$. Call x a *fixed point* of f if $f(x) = x$.
(a) If f is differentiable and $f'(t) \neq 1$ for every real t , prove that f has at most one fixed point.
(b) Show that the function f defined by

$$f(t) = t + (1 + e^t)^{-1}$$

has no fixed point, although $0 < f'(t) < 1$ for all real t .

- (c) However, if there is a constant $A < 1$ such that $|f'(t)| \leq A$ for all real t , prove that a fixed point x of f exists, and that $x = \lim x_n$, where x_1 is an arbitrary real number and

$$x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$$

for $x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

- (d) Show that the process described in (c) can be visualized by the zig-zag path

$$(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow (x_2, x_2) \rightarrow (x_2, x_3) \rightarrow (x_3, x_3) \rightarrow (x_3, x_4) \rightarrow \dots$$

--

- (a) Suppose there are two fixed points of f , saying x and y . W.l.o.g., let $x < y$. Since f is differentiable, by the mean value theorem, there exists a point $t \in (x, y)$ such that $f(y) - f(x) = (y - x)f'(t)$. But since $f(x) = x$ and $f(y) = y$, we have

$$y - x = (y - x)f'(t)$$

implying $f'(t) = 1$.
--

- (b) Note that $f(t) = t$ if and only if $(1 + e^t)^{-1} = 0$, which is impossible. So f has no fixed point. Next, observe that

$$f'(t) = 1 - \frac{e^t}{(1 + e^t)^2} \in (0, 1)$$

since $\frac{e^t}{(1 + e^t)^2} \in (0, 1)$.
--

- (c) The uniqueness of the fixed point x of f follows by part (a). To show the existence, given $x_1 \in R^1$ and define

$$x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$$

for $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Then by induction and by the mean value theorem,

$$\begin{aligned} |x_{n+1} - x_n| &= |f(x_n) - f(x_{n-1})| \\ &= |f'(c_n)(x_n - x_{n-1})| \\ &\leq A|x_n - x_{n-1}| \\ &\leq A^2|x_{n-1} - x_{n-2}| \\ &\vdots \\ &\leq A^{n-1}|x_2 - x_1| \end{aligned}$$

Since $0 < A < 1$, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a positive N such that $\frac{A^N}{1-A}|x_2 - x_1| < \varepsilon$. It follows that for integers m, n with $n \geq m \geq N + 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} |x_n - x_m| &\leq |x_{m+1} - x_m| + |x_{m+2} - x_{m+1}| + \dots + |x_n - x_{n-1}| \\ &\leq (A^{m-1} + A^m + \dots + A^{n-2})|x_2 - x_1| \\ &\leq \frac{A^{m-1}}{1-A}|x_2 - x_1| \\ &\leq \frac{A^N}{1-A}|x_2 - x_1| \\ &< \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

i.e., $\{x_n\}$ forms a Cauchy sequence in R^1 , and then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ for some $x \in R^1$. Note that such x is the desired fixed point of f , since

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n+1} = x$$

--

(d) The visualization is clear.

23. The function f defined by

$$f(x) = \frac{x^3 + 1}{3}$$

has three fixed points, say α, β, γ , where

$$-2 < \alpha < -1, \quad 0 < \beta < 1, \quad 1 < \gamma < 2$$

For arbitrarily chosen x_1 , define $\{x_n\}$ by setting $x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$.

(a) If $x_1 < \alpha$, prove that $x_n \rightarrow -\infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(b) If $\alpha < x_1 < \gamma$, prove that $x_n \rightarrow \beta$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(c) If $\gamma < x_1$, prove that $x_n \rightarrow +\infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Thus β can be located by this method, but α and γ cannot.

--

Define $g(x) = f(x) - x$, then $g(\alpha) = g(\beta) = g(\gamma) = 0$ and

$$g(-2) = -\frac{1}{3}, \quad g(-1) = 1, \quad g(0) = \frac{1}{3}, \quad g(1) = -\frac{1}{3}, \quad g(2) = 1$$

We claim that

- (1) $g(x) < 0$ for $x < \alpha$;
- (2) $g(x) > 0$ for $\alpha < x < \beta$;
- (3) $g(x) < 0$ for $\beta < x < \gamma$;
- (4) $g(x) > 0$ for $\gamma < x$.

Proof of the claim. We only prove (1) because the others are in a similar way. Since g is a polynomial of degree 3 and g has three zeros α, β, γ , it is impossible that $g(x) = 0$ whenever $x < \alpha$. Now, suppose there exists $x_0 < \alpha$ such that $g(x_0) > 0$, then $g(-2) < 0 < g(x_0)$ implies there exists c between -2 and x_0 , such that $g(c) = 0$. Since $-2 < \alpha$ and $x_0 < \alpha$, we have $c < \alpha$, which is impossible to happen. \square

To complete the proof, we consider the following five cases.

Case 1: $x_1 < \alpha$. Suppose $x_n < \alpha$, then $x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n^3+1}{3} < \frac{\alpha^3+1}{3} = \alpha$ (since x^3 monotonically increases). So by mathematical induction, $x_n < \alpha$ for all n . It follows from (1) that $x_{n+1} = g(x_n) + x_n < x_n$ for each n , i.e., $\{x_n\}$ is monotonically decreasing. Suppose $\{x_n\}$ is bounded below, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x'$ for some $x' \in \mathbb{R}^1$, and

$$f(x') = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n+1} = x'$$

i.e., x' is a fixed point of f . Since $g(x') = 0$ and $x' \leq x_1 < \alpha$, a contradiction occurs (since g has only three zeros). Hence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = -\infty$.

Case 2: $\alpha < x_1 < \beta$. Suppose $\alpha < x_n < \beta$, then $x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n^3+1}{3} > \frac{\alpha^3+1}{3} = \alpha$ and $x_{n+1} = \frac{x_n^3+1}{3} < \frac{\beta^3+1}{3} = \beta$ (since x^3 monotonically increases). So by mathematical induction, $\alpha < x_n < \beta$ for all n . It follows from (2) that $x_{n+1} = g(x_n) + x_n > x_n$ for each n , i.e., $\{x_n\}$ is monotonically increasing. Since $\{x_n\}$ is bounded above (by β), we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x'$ for some $x' \in \mathbb{R}^1$, and

$$f(x') = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n+1} = x'$$

i.e., x' is a fixed point of f . Since $\alpha < x_1 \leq x' \leq \beta$, $g(x') = 0$, and $g(x) > 0$ for all $x \in (\alpha, \beta)$, this means that $x' = \beta$.

Case 3: $x_1 = \beta$. It is clear that $x_n = \beta$ for all n , implying $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \beta$.

Case 4: $\beta < x_1 < \gamma$. Similar to Case 2, the conclusion is $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \beta$.

Case 5: $\gamma < x_1$. Similar to Case 1, the conclusion is $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = +\infty$.

In summary, part (a) follows by Case 1; part (b) follows by Case 2, 3, and 4; part (c) follows by Case 5.

- 24.** The process described in part (c) of Exercise 22 can of course also be applied to functions that map $(0, \infty)$ to $(0, \infty)$.

Fix some $\alpha > 1$, and put

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(x + \frac{\alpha}{x} \right), \quad g(x) = \frac{\alpha + x}{1 + x}$$

Both f and g have $\sqrt{\alpha}$ as their fixed point in $(0, \infty)$. Try to explain, on the basis of properties of f and g , why the convergence in Exercise 16, Chap. 3, is so much more rapid than it is in Exercise 17. (Compare f' and g' , draw the zig-zags suggested in Exercise 22.)

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- 25.** Suppose f is twice differentiable on $[a, b]$, $f(a) < 0$, $f(b) > 0$, $f'(x) \geq \delta > 0$, and $0 \leq f''(x) \leq M$ for all $x \in [a, b]$. Let ξ be the unique point in (a, b) at which $f(\xi) = 0$.

Complete the details in the following outline of *Newton's method* for computing ξ .

- (a) Choose $x_1 \in (\xi, b)$, and define $\{x_n\}$ by

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$$

Interpret this geometrically, in terms of a tangent to the graph of f .

- (b) Prove that $x_{n+1} \leq x_n$ (c.f. Rudin's book says $x_{n+1} < x_n$, but sometimes " $=$ " may hold. For example, consider $f(x) = cx + d$ where $c > 0$, then $x_n = \xi = -d/c$ for $n = 2, 3, \dots$) and that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \xi$$

- (c) Use Taylor's theorem to show that

$$x_{n+1} - \xi = \frac{f''(t_n)}{2f'(x_n)} (x_n - \xi)^2$$

for some $t_n \in (\xi, x_n)$.

- (d) If $A = M/2\delta$, deduce that

$$0 \leq x_{n+1} - \xi \leq \frac{1}{A} [A(x_1 - \xi)]^{2^n}$$

(Compare with Exercise 16 and 18, Chap. 3.)

- (e) Show that Newton's method amounts to finding a fixed point of the function g defined by

$$g(x) = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$$

How does $g'(x)$ behave for x near ξ ?

- (f) Put $f(x) = x^{1/3}$ on $(-\infty, \infty)$ and try Newton's method. What happens?

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- (a) Note that the tangent line of the graph of f passing through $(x_n, f(x_n))$ is of the form

$$y - f(x_n) = f'(x_n)(x - x_n)$$

Thus $x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)}$ is the intersection of the tangent line and the x -axis.

(b) We first show that $x_{n+1} \leq x_n$. Since $f'' \geq 0$, the function f' is increasing. If $x_n = \xi$ for some n , then clearly $x_m = \xi$ for all $m \geq n$ and it is nothing to prove. If $x_n > \xi$, then by the mean value theorem there exists $c_n \in (\xi, x_n)$ such that

$$f(x_n) = f(x_n) - f(\xi) = f'(c_n)(x_n - \xi) \leq f'(x_n)(x_n - \xi)$$

Since $f' \geq \delta > 0$, this reveals that $\frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \leq x_n - \xi$, and that

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \geq x_n - (x_n - \xi) = \xi$$

Note that $x_1 > \xi$, so by induction, we conclude that $x_n \geq \xi$ for all n , and then $f(x_n) \geq 0$ for all n (since $f' > 0$ implies f is increasing). It follows that $\frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \geq 0$, or equivalently $x_{n+1} \leq x_n$ for all n .

We next show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \xi$. Since $\{x_n\}$ is monotonically decreasing with a lower bound ξ , $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ for some $x \geq \xi$. But then $x = x - \frac{f(x)}{f'(x)}$, implying $f(x) = 0$, so by the uniqueness, $x = \xi$.

(c) By Taylor's theorem, there exists $t_n \in (\xi, x_n)$ such that

$$f(\xi) = f(x_n) + f'(x_n)(\xi - x_n) + \frac{f''(t_n)}{2}(\xi - x_n)^2$$

Since $f(\xi) = 0$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_{n+1} - \xi &= x_n - \xi - \frac{f(x_n)}{f'(x_n)} \\ &= x_n - \xi + \frac{1}{f'(x_n)} \left[f'(x_n)(\xi - x_n) + \frac{f''(t_n)}{2}(\xi - x_n)^2 \right] \\ &= \frac{f''(t_n)}{2f'(x_n)}(x_n - \xi)^2 \end{aligned}$$

(d) By part (c), we have

$$\begin{aligned} x_{n+1} - \xi &\leq A(x_n - \xi)^2 \\ &\leq A \cdot A^2(x_{n-1} - \xi)^4 \\ &\vdots \\ &\leq A \cdot A^2 \cdots A^{2^{n-1}}(x_1 - \xi)^{2^n} \\ &= \frac{1}{A} [A(x_1 - \xi)]^{2^n} \end{aligned}$$

--

(e) Since $g(x) = x$ if and only if $f(x) = 0$, the result then follows. Next, compute

$$g'(x) = 1 - \frac{[f'(x)]^2 - f(x)f''(x)}{[f'(x)]^2} = \frac{f(x)f''(x)}{[f'(x)]^2}$$

It follows that $g(x)$ tends to 0 as x near ξ .

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(f) Given $x_n \in (-\infty, \infty)$ with $x_n \neq 0$, then $f'(x_n) = \frac{1}{3} x_n^{-\frac{2}{3}}$. So

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{x_n^{\frac{1}{3}}}{\frac{1}{3} x_n^{-\frac{2}{3}}} = -2x_n$$

and we see that $\{x_n\}$ oscillates and diverges.

- 26.** Suppose f is differentiable on $[a, b]$, $f(a) = 0$, and there is a real number A such that $|f'(x)| \leq A|f(x)|$ on $[a, b]$. Prove that $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \in [a, b]$. *Hint:* Fix $x_0 \in [a, b]$, let

$$M_0 = \sup |f(x)|, \quad M_1 = \sup |f'(x)|$$

for $a \leq x \leq x_0$. For any such x ,

$$|f(x)| \leq M_1(x_0 - a) \leq A(x_0 - a)M_0$$

Hence $M_0 = 0$ if $A(x_0 - a) < 1$. That is, $f = 0$ on $[a, b]$. Proceed.

--

Following the hint, choose some $x_0 \in (a, b]$ such that $A(x_0 - a) < 1$. If $M_0 = 0$, then clearly $f = 0$, and we can proceed. If $M_0 > 0$, note that

$$|f'(x)| \leq A|f(x)| \leq AM_0$$

for $x \in [a, b]$, so $M_1 \leq AM_0$. Now, denote $\delta = 1 - A(x_0 - a)$, then for $x \in [a, x_0]$,

$$|f(x)| = |f'(c)|(x - a) \leq M_1(x_0 - a) \leq A(x_0 - a)M_0 = M_0 - \delta M_0$$

where $c \in (a, x)$ exists because of the mean value theorem. It follows that $M_0 - \delta M_0$ is a new upper bound of $|f(x)|$ for $x \in [a, x_0]$, contradicting the definition of M_0 . So $M_0 > 0$ is impossible, and we conclude that $f = 0$ on $[a, x_0]$. Next, choose $x_k = (k + 1)x_0 - ka$ for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n - 1$, where $n \geq 1$ satisfying $x_n = b$ and $x_n - x_{n-1} \leq x_0 - a$. By using the same argument, $f = 0$ on $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$, for $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Hence $f = 0$ on $[a, b]$.

27. Let ϕ be a real function defined on a rectangle R in the plane, given by $a \leq x \leq b, \alpha \leq y \leq \beta$. A solution of the initial-value problem

$$y' = \phi(x, y), \quad y(a) = c \quad (\alpha \leq c \leq \beta)$$

is, by definition, a differentiable function f on $[a, b]$ such that $f(a) = c, \alpha \leq f(x) \leq \beta$, and

$$f'(x) = \phi(x, f(x)) \quad (a \leq x \leq b)$$

Prove that such a problem has at most one solution if there is a constant A such that

$$|\phi(x, y_2) - \phi(x, y_1)| \leq A|y_2 - y_1|$$

whenever $(x, y_1) \in R$ and $(x, y_2) \in R$.

Hint: Apply Exercise 26 to the difference of two solutions. Note that this uniqueness theorem does not hold for the initial-value problem

$$y' = y^{1/2}, \quad y(0) = 0$$

which has two solutions: $f(x) = 0$ and $f(x) = x^2/4$. Find all other solutions.

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- (i) Let f_1 and f_2 be two solutions of the initial-value problem, define the difference function $f = f_2 - f_1$ on $[a, b]$. It suffices to show that $f = 0$ on $[a, b]$. Observe that $f(a) = f_2(a) - f_1(a) = c - c = 0$, and that

$$\begin{aligned} |f'(x)| &= |f_2'(x) - f_1'(x)| \\ &= |\phi(x, f_2(x)) - \phi(x, f_1(x))| \\ &\leq A|f_2(x) - f_1(x)| \\ &= A|f(x)| \end{aligned}$$

for all $x \in [a, b]$. Thus by Exercise 26, $f = 0$ on $[a, b]$.

- (ii) It is easy to check that $f(x) = 0$ and $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{4}$ are solutions of the given initial-value problem. To find the others, observe that if f is a *nonzero* solution, then $y' = y^{1/2}$ implies $f'(x) = [f(x)]^{1/2}$. Differentiate it we get

$$f''(x) = \frac{1}{2} [f(x)]^{-1/2} f'(x) = \frac{1}{2} [f(x)]^{-1/2} [f(x)]^{1/2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

So $f'(x) = \frac{x}{2} + c$ for some constant c , and then $f(x) = (\frac{x}{2} + c)^2$. Since $y(0) = 0$ implies $f(0) = 0$, we get $c = 0$. Hence $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{4}$.

28. Formulate and prove an analogous uniqueness theorem for systems of differential equations of the form

$$y_j' = \phi_j(x, y_1, \dots, y_k), \quad y_j(a) = c_j, \quad (j = 1, \dots, k)$$

Note that this can be rewritten in the form

$$\mathbf{y}' = \Phi(x, \mathbf{y}), \quad \mathbf{y}(a) = \mathbf{c}$$

where $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_k)$ ranges over a k -cell, Φ is the mapping of a $(k+1)$ -cell into the Euclidean k -space whose components are the functions ϕ_1, \dots, ϕ_k , and \mathbf{c} is the vector (c_1, \dots, c_k) . Use Exercise 26, for vector-valued functions.

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Statement: [i] Let Φ be a vector-valued mapping of a $(k+1)$ -cell $C = [a, b] \times I$ into R^k . Suppose there exists a constant A such that

$$|\Phi(x, \mathbf{y}_2) - \Phi(x, \mathbf{y}_1)| \leq A |\mathbf{y}_2 - \mathbf{y}_1|$$

whenever $(x, \mathbf{y}_1) \in C$ and $(x, \mathbf{y}_2) \in C$. Then the initial-value problem

$$\mathbf{y}' = \Phi(x, \mathbf{y}), \quad \mathbf{y}(a) = \mathbf{c} \quad (\mathbf{c} \in I)$$

has at most one solution. [/i]

To show this, let \mathbf{f}_1 and \mathbf{f}_2 be two solutions of the given initial-value problem, define $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{f}_2 - \mathbf{f}_1$ on $[a, b]$. It suffices to show that $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{0}$ on $[a, b]$. Observe that $\mathbf{f}(a) = \mathbf{f}_2(a) - \mathbf{f}_1(a) = \mathbf{c} - \mathbf{c} = \mathbf{0}$, and that

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{f}'(x)| &= |\mathbf{f}'_2(x) - \mathbf{f}'_1(x)| \\ &= |\Phi(x, \mathbf{f}_2(x)) - \Phi(x, \mathbf{f}_1(x))| \\ &\leq A |\mathbf{f}_2(x) - \mathbf{f}_1(x)| \\ &= A |\mathbf{f}(x)| \end{aligned}$$

for all $x \in [a, b]$. Thus by Exercise 26 for vector-valued functions, $\mathbf{f} = \mathbf{0}$ on $[a, b]$.

29. Specialize Exercise 28 by considering the system

$$\begin{aligned} y'_j &= y_{j+1} \quad (j = 1, \dots, k-1) \\ y'_k &= f(x) - \sum_{j=1}^k g_j(x) y_j \end{aligned}$$

where f, g_1, \dots, g_k are continuous real functions on $[a, b]$, and derive a uniqueness theorem for solutions of the equation

$$y^{(k)} + g_k(x)y^{(k-1)} + \dots + g_2(x)y' + g_1(x)y = f(x)$$

subject to initial conditions

$$y(a) = c_1, \quad y'(a) = c_2, \quad \dots, \quad y^{(k-1)}(a) = c_k$$

--

Put $\Phi(x, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_k) = (y_2, y_3, \dots, y_k, f(x) - \sum_{j=1}^k g_j(x)y_j)$ and $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, c_2, \dots, c_k)$, then the given system coincides with the initial-value problem

$$\mathbf{y}' = \Phi(x, \mathbf{y}), \quad \mathbf{y}(a) = \mathbf{c}$$

Observe that for $\mathbf{y}_1 = (y_{11}, y_{21}, \dots, y_{k1})$ and $\mathbf{y}_2 = (y_{12}, y_{22}, \dots, y_{k2})$,

$$|\Phi(x, \mathbf{y}_2) - \Phi(x, \mathbf{y}_1)|^2 = \sum_{i=2}^k (y_{i2} - y_{i1})^2 + \left[\sum_{j=1}^k g_j(x)(y_{j2} - y_{j1}) \right]^2$$

Denote $M = \sup\{|g_j(x)| : x \in [a, b], 1 \leq j \leq k\}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} |\Phi(x, \mathbf{y}_2) - \Phi(x, \mathbf{y}_1)|^2 &\leq \sum_{i=2}^k (y_{i2} - y_{i1})^2 + M^2 \left[\sum_{j=1}^k (y_{j2} - y_{j1}) \right]^2 \\ &\leq \sum_{i=2}^k (y_{i2} - y_{i1})^2 + kM^2 \sum_{j=1}^k (y_{j2} - y_{j1})^2 \\ &\leq (1 + kM^2) \sum_{j=1}^k (y_{j2} - y_{j1})^2 \\ &= (1 + kM^2) |\mathbf{y}_2 - \mathbf{y}_1|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence the uniqueness of the solution follows.