

**Page 173/ #2:**

If we do the integral first, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} \left[ \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^{n+1} \right]_0^1 \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} \left( \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n+1} - 1 \right) \\ &= 1 \cdot (e - 1) = e - 1. \end{aligned}$$

If we take the limit first, we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n dx = \int_0^1 e^x dx = e - 1.$$

**Page 174/ #5:**

First I will show that if I set  $f_n(x) = (f(x))^n$ , then  $f_n(x) \rightarrow 0$  uniformly on  $[a, b]$ . Since  $f$  is continuous,  $|f|$  is also continuous. Since  $[a, b]$  is closed, we know that there exists a point  $c \in [a, b]$  such that  $|f(x)| \leq |f(c)|$  for every  $x$  in  $[a, b]$ . Therefore, if  $\epsilon > 0$  is given, I choose  $N \in \mathbf{N}$  larger than  $\log \epsilon / \log |f(c)|$ . Then  $n \geq N$  implies that

$$|f_n(x) - 0| = |f(x)|^n \leq |f(c)|^n \leq |f(c)|^N \leq |f(c)|^{\frac{\log \epsilon}{\log |f(c)|}} = \epsilon$$

for every  $x \in [a, b]$ . Note that the last two inequalities hold because of the hypotheses that  $|f(c)| < 1$ . This proves that  $f_n(x)$  converges uniformly to zero on  $[a, b]$ .

Now I can invoke theorem 5.2.2 to obtain

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b (f(x))^n dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx = \int_a^b 0 dx = 0,$$

as desired. □

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Let  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be the limit of the sequence  $\{f_n\}$ . By Theorem 5.2.1, we know that  $f$  is continuous. Since continuous functions on closed intervals are bounded, there exists a number  $M \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $|f(x)| \leq M$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Now let  $\epsilon$  be a fixed positive number. For the sake of this argument, we can take  $\epsilon = 1$ . Then by the definition of uniform converge, there exists a number  $N \in \mathbf{N}$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$$

for all  $n \geq N$  and all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . Therefore

$$|f_n(x)| = |f_n(x) - f(x) + f(x)| \leq |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |f(x)| < 1 + M$$

for all  $n \geq N$  and all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . On the other hand, for each  $n < N$ , continuity of  $f_n$  implies that there exists a constant  $M_n \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $|f_n(x)| \leq M_n$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . If we let  $K = \max\{1 + M, M_1, M_2, \dots, M_{N-1}\}$ , then it follows from the above arguments that  $|f_n(x)| \leq K$  for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$  and all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . □

(A)  $\|f\|_1 = \int_a^b |f(x)| dx \geq \int_a^b 0 dx = 0$  for all continuous functions  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$ . Clearly  $\|f\|_1 = 0$  if  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . If on the other hand  $\|f\|_1 = 0$ , then since  $|f|$  is continuous and non-negative, we can apply problem 3b on page 94 to conclude that  $f(x) = 0$  for every  $x \in [a, b]$ . In summary,  $\|f\|_1 \geq 0$  with equality if and only if  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .

(B) If  $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$  is given, then

$$\|\alpha f\|_1 = \int_a^b |\alpha f(x)| dx = |\alpha| \int_a^b |f(x)| dx = |\alpha| \cdot \|f\|_1.$$

(C) If  $f$  and  $g$  are two continuous functions defined on  $[a, b]$ , then

$$\|f + g\|_1 = \int_a^b |f(x) + g(x)| dx \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| + |g(x)| dx = \|f\|_1 + \|g\|_1.$$

□

(A) Let  $x \in [0, 1]$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. If  $x \leq 1/2$ , choose any  $N \in \mathbf{N}$ . If  $n \geq N$ , then

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = |1 - 1| = 0 < \epsilon$$

If on the other hand  $x > 1/2$ , choose  $N \in \mathbf{N}$  larger than  $(x - 1/2)^{-1}$ . Then  $n \geq N$  implies that  $x > 1/2 + 1/n$ . In particular,

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = |0 - 0| = 0 < \epsilon.$$

For all  $x \in [0, 1]$ , therefore, we see that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$ . In other words  $f_n$  converges pointwise to  $f$  on  $[0, 1]$ . □

(B) Since both  $f_n(x)$  and  $f(x)$  are always between 0 and 1, it's clear that  $\|f - f_n\|_\infty \leq 1$ . On the other hand, for any given  $n$ , we have for  $1/2 < x < 1/2 + 1/n$  that  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| = 1 - n(x - 1/2)$ . Hence

$$\|f - f_n\|_\infty \geq |f(x) - f_n(x)| = 1 - n(x - 1/2).$$

By letting  $x$  tend toward  $1/2$ , we obtain that  $\|f - f_n\|_\infty \geq 1$ . Therefore the only possibility is that  $\|f - f_n\|_\infty = 1$  for each  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ . In particular  $\|f - f_n\|$  does not converge to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , so the convergence of  $f_n$  to  $f$  is not uniform. □

(C) Using Theorem 5.2.1 we could have predicted that the  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f - f_n\|_\infty \neq 0$ , because if the limit were zero, we would know that  $f_n$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $[0, 1]$ . The theorem would then imply that  $f$  is a continuous function. But  $f$  has a discontinuity at  $1/2$ , so the convergence can't be uniform.

(D) This is best accomplished by direct computation.

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n - f\|_1 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 |f_n(x) - f(x)| dx \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{1/2}^{1/2+1/n} |1 - n(x - 1/2) - 0| dx \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_{1/2}^{1/2+1/n} 1 - n(x - 1/2) dx \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2n} = 0.\end{aligned}$$

□