## RUDIN CHAPTER 8 SOLUTIONS

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## 1. Problem 8.1

**Theorem 1.1.** Define  $f(x) = e^{-1/x^2}$  if  $x \neq 0$  and f(x) = 0 if x = 0. Prove that f has derivatives of all orders at x = 0 and that  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Proof. Define  $g(x) = e^{-1/x^2}$ . We know that  $e^x$  is differentiable by a theorem in Rudin. Moreover, we know that  $-\frac{1}{x^2}$  is differentiable at every point except x=0 because  $x^2$  is differentiable. Thus, we see by the chain rule that  $g(x) = e^{-1/x^2}$  is differentiable everywhere but at x=0. Moreover, the chain rule tells us that the derivative is given by  $g'(x) = -\frac{2}{x^3}e^{-1/x^2} = -\frac{2}{x^3}g(x)$ . We will use induction to find g(n)(x). First, we have already established the base case of  $g'(x) = -\frac{2}{x^3}g(x)$ . Assume that  $g^{(n)}(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k x^{-(2k+n)}g(x)$  where  $c_k$  are constants. Then we have:

(1.2) 
$$g^{(n+1)}(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \sum_{i=1}^{n} c_k x^{-(2k+n)} g(x)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} -c_k(2k+n)x^{-(2k+n)-1}g(x) + \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k x^{-(2k+n)}g'(x)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} c'_k x^{-(2k+(n+1))} g(x) + \sum_{k=1}^{n} c''_k x^{-(2k+n)-3} g(x)$$

$$(1.5) \qquad = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c'_k x^{-(2k+(n+1))} g(x) + \sum_{k=1}^{n} c''_k x^{-(2(k+1)+(n+1))} g(x)$$

$$(1.6) = \sum_{k=1}^{n} c'_k x^{-(2k+(n+1))} g(x) + \sum_{k=2}^{n+1} c''_k x^{-(2k+(n+1))} g(x)$$

(1.7) 
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \bar{c}_k x^{-(2k+(n+1))} g(x)$$

The last step comes from the fact that for indices k=2 through k=n, we have  $(c'_k+c''_k)x^{-(2k+(n+1))}g(x)$ , where  $c'_k+c''_k$  is just another constant. Therefore, we have shown that  $g^{(n)}(x)=\sum_{k=1}^n c_k x^{-(2k+n)}g(x)$  using mathematical induction. Therefore, since f(x)=g(x) if  $x\neq 0$ , we see that f(x) has derivatives of all order if  $x\neq 0$ , since we have already shown that g(x) has derivatives of all orders. Now we are left to show that this still works at x=0.

To do so, we will show that for any r > 0, we have  $\lim_{x\to 0} x^{-r} g(x) = 0$ . First, we note that for any  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $\lim_{h\to\infty} h^{r/2} e^{-h} = 0$  for h > 1 by a theorem in Rudin. Therefore, if we substitute  $h = \frac{1}{x^2}$ , we obtain:

$$0 = \lim_{h \to \infty} h^{r/2} e^{-h}$$

$$= \lim_{\frac{1}{x^2} \to \infty} \frac{1}{x^r} e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

$$(1.10) \qquad = \lim_{\substack{x \to 0 \\ 1}} x^{-r} g(x)$$

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Thus, for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have the following limit for the derivative of  $g^{(n)}(0)$ :

(1.11) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} g^{(n)}(x) = \lim_{x \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k x^{-(2k+n)} g(x)$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{n} c_k \lim_{x \to 0} x^{-(d_k)} g(x)$$

$$(1.13) = 0$$

Where we have replaced  $(2k+n)=d_k$  as a positive constant. Since we have shown  $\lim_{x\to 0} x^{-d_k} g(x)=0$  for all positive constants  $d_k$ , we discover that  $f^{(n)}(0)=0=\lim_{x\to 0} g^{(n)}(x)$ . Therefore, for all  $n\in\mathbb{N}$ , we have shown that  $f^{(n)}(0)=0$  exists. This completes the proof.

## 2. Problem 8.2

**Theorem 2.1.** Let  $a_{ij}$  be defined so that

(2.2) 
$$a_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & i < j \\ -1 & i = j \\ 2^{j-i} & i > j \end{cases}$$

Prove that  $\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{ij} = -2$  and that  $\sum_{j} \sum_{i} a_{ij} = 0$ .

*Proof.* First we will show that  $\sum_{i} \sum_{j} a_{ij} = -2$ . First pick  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . The we have the following:

(2.3) 
$$\sum_{i} a_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{i} a_{ij} = -1 + \sum_{i=1}^{i-1} 2^{j-i} = -1 + \sum_{n=1}^{i-1} 2^{-n} = \frac{-1}{2^{i-1}}$$

Where we have made a substitution of n = i - j and used the formula for computing geometric series. Thus, we find that when we sum over all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , we obtain:

(2.4) 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{-1}{2^{i-1}} = \frac{1}{2} - 4 = -2$$

Next, we shall pick some  $j \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then we have the following:

(2.5) 
$$\sum_{i} a_{ij} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} = -1 + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 2^{j-i} = -1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = -1 + 1 = 0$$

Therefore, summing over all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ , we find:

(2.6) 
$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} a_{ij} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} 0 = 0$$

This completes the proof.

## 3. Problem 8.4

**Theorem 3.1.** Prove that  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{b^x-1}{x} = \log b$  for b>0.

*Proof.* First assume that the derivative of  $b^x$  for b > 1 is given by  $b^x \ln b$ . If this is the case, then we can use L'Hospital's Theorem to obtain the following:  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{b^x-1}{x} = \lim_{x\to 0} b^x \ln b = \ln b$ . Thus, we only need to prove that  $\frac{d}{dx}b^x = b^x \ln b$ .

First, we note that for b > 0, we have  $b^x = e^{\ln b^x} = e^{x \ln b}$ . Now, we can use the chain rule to obtain the following:

$$\frac{d}{dx}b^x = \frac{d}{dx}e^{x\ln b}$$

$$= e^{x \ln b} \ln b$$

$$(3.4) = b^x \ln b$$

Thus, we have completed the proof.

**Theorem 3.5.** Prove that  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = 1$ .

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*Proof.* We can use L'Hospital's Theorem to obtain the following:

(3.6) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\frac{1}{1+x}}{1} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{1+x} = 1$$

This completes the proof.

**Theorem 3.7.** Prove that  $\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e$ .

*Proof.* We will prove that  $\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e^{\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{1}{x} \ln(1+x)}$ . Suppose that this is the case, then we have:

(3.8) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e^{\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{x} \ln(1+x)} = e^{\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{1+x}} = e^1 = e$$

Thus, we only need to show that  $\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e^{\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{1}{x}\ln(1+x)}$ . Well, a theorem in Rudin shows that that  $y^{\alpha} = E(\alpha L(y)) = e^{\alpha \ln y}$  for any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Q}$  and y > 0. Therefore, substituting y = (1+x) and  $\alpha = 1/x$ , we obtain  $(1+x)^{1/x} = e^{\frac{1}{x}\ln(1+x)}$ . Next, we will show that the limit commutes. We have:

(3.9) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = \lim_{x \to 0} e^{\frac{1}{x} \ln(1+x)}$$

A theorem in Rudin says that if f and g are both continuous functions at 0 and f(0) respectively, then h(x) = g(f(x)) is continuous at 0. Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x} \ln(1+x)$  and  $g(x) = e^x$ . A theorem in Rudin says that  $e^x$ is continuous for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Moreover, we can show that f(x) is continuous at 0. This is because the limit is well defined:

(3.10) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} f(x) = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{1+x} = 1$$

Therefore, all the conditions are satisfied, and we know that  $h(x) = g(f(x)) = (1+x)^{1/x}$  is continuous at 0. Therefore, we can commute the limit by a theorem in Rudin so that  $\lim_{x\to 0} h(x) = g(\lim_{x\to 0} f(x))$ , which is what we wanted to show. Note that for later problems, it is possible to generalize this, and we will prove a lemma to which we will refer later. 

**Lemma 3.11.** If  $p \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\lim_{x \to p} g(x) = P$  is defined, then  $\lim_{x \to p} g(x) = e^{\lim_{x \to p} \ln g(x)}$ .

*Proof.* We know that q(x) is continuous at p. Now define  $q(x) = e^x$ . We know that q(x) is continuous at all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  by a theorem in Rudin. Therefore, we can define h(x) = g(f(x)) and see that h(x) is continuous at p by a theorem in Rudin. Therefore, it is possible to commute the limit and have  $\lim_{x\to p} h(x) = \lim_{x\to p} g(f(x)) =$  $g(\lim x \to pf(x))$ . Moreover, since we know that  $e^{\ln f(x)} = f(x)$  is also continuous at p by the fact that  $\ln f(x)$  is continuous, we have the shown that  $\lim_{x\to p} f(x) = \lim_{x\to p} e^{\ln f(x)} = e^{\lim_{x\to p} \ln f(x)}$ , which is what we wanted.

**Theorem 3.12.** Prove that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} (1+\frac{x}{n})^n = e^x$ .

*Proof.* We will use L'Hospital's Theorem and a change of variable for  $t=\frac{1}{n}$  to obtain:

(3.13) 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \ln\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n = \lim_{n \to \infty} n \ln\left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)$$

(3.14) 
$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+tx)}{t}$$
(3.15) 
$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{x}{1+tx}$$

$$= \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{x}{1+t^n}$$

$$(3.16) = x$$

By lemma 5.8, we see that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} (1+\frac{x}{n})^n = e^{\lim_{n\to\infty} \ln(1+\frac{x}{n})^n} = e^{-x}$ , which is what we wanted.  JOHN WANG

*Proof.* Using L'Hospital's Theorem and lemma 5.8 we obtain:

(4.2) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e - (1+x)^{1/x}}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e - e^{\frac{1}{x}\ln(1+x)}}{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} -e^{\frac{1}{x}\ln(1+x)} \left( \frac{1}{x(1+x)} - \frac{1}{x^2}\ln(1+x) \right)$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} -(1+x)^{1/x} \left( \frac{x - (1+x)\ln(1+x)}{x^2(1+x)} \right)$$

$$= -e \lim_{x \to 0} \left( \frac{x - (1+x)\ln(1+x)}{x^2(1+x)} \right)$$

$$= -e \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \frac{1}{1+x} - \ln(1+x) - \frac{x}{1+x}}{3x^2 + 2x}$$

$$= -e \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{-\ln(1+x)}{3x^2 + 2x}$$

(4.8) 
$$= e \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{(1+x)(6x+2)}$$

$$= \frac{e}{2}$$

$$(4.9) = \frac{e}{2}$$

**Theorem 4.10.** Find  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n}{\ln n} (n^{1/n} - 1)$ .

*Proof.* Using L'Hospital's Theorem, lemma 5.8, and the theorem in Rudin stating  $\lim_{n\to\infty} n^{1/n} = 1$ , we find:

(4.11) 
$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n}{\ln n} (n^{1/n} - 1) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n}{\ln n} (e^{\frac{1}{n} \ln n} - 1)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{e^{\frac{1}{n} \ln n} - 1}{\frac{1}{n} \ln n}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{e^{\frac{1}{n} \ln n} \left(\frac{\ln n - 1}{n^2}\right)}{\frac{\ln n - 1}{n^2}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} n^{1/n}$$

$$(4.15) = 1$$

**Theorem 4.16.** Find  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\tan x - x}{x(1-\cos x)}$ .

*Proof.* Using L'Hospital's Theorem and the trigonometric identities  $\sec^2 x - 1 = \tan^2 x$  and the fact that  $\frac{d}{dx}\tan x = \sec^2 x$ , we obtain:

(4.17) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\tan x - x}{x(1 - \cos x)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sec^2 x - 1}{1 + x \sin x - \cos x}$$

(4.18) 
$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\tan^2 x}{1 - \cos x + x \sin x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{2 \tan x \sec^2 x}{2 \sin x + x \cos x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{2 \tan x \sec^2 x}{2 \sin x + x \cos x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{2 \tan x}{2 \cos^2 x \sin x + x \cos^3 x}$$

(4.21) 
$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{-4 \sec^2 x}{\cos x (3x \sin 2x - 7\cos 2x + 1)}$$

$$= \frac{-4}{\lim_{x\to 0}\cos^3 x(3x\sin 2x - 7\cos 2x + 1)}$$

$$= \frac{-4}{-7+1}$$

$$(4.24) = \frac{2}{3}$$

Theorem 4.25. Find  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x-\sin x}{\tan x-x}$ 

*Proof.* Using some common trigonometric identities, such as  $\sin 2x = 2\cos x \sin x$ ,  $\sec^2 x - 1 = \tan^2 x$ , and  $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$ , as well as L'Hospital's Theorem, we obtain the following expression:

(4.26) 
$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x - \sin x}{\tan x - x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{\sec^2 x - 1}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{\tan^2 x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(1 - \cos x)\cos^2 x}{\sin^2 x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x \cos x (3 \cos x - 2)}{\sin 2x}$$

(4.28) 
$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\tan^2 x}{\sin^2 x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(1 - \cos x) \cos^2 x}{\sin^2 x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x \cos x (3 \cos x - 2)}{\sin 2x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin 2x}{\sin 2x} (3 \cos x - 3)$$

$$(4.31) = \frac{1}{2}$$

5. Problem 8.9

**Theorem 5.1.** Put  $s_N = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \ldots + \frac{1}{N}$ . Prove that  $\lim_{N \to \infty} (s_N - \ln N)$  exists.

*Proof.* We let  $\gamma = \lim_{N \to \infty} s_N - \ln N$  and note that we have the following telescoping sum:

(5.2) 
$$g(x) = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{n} - \ln(n+1) + \ln n = \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{n} - \ln(N+1)$$

If we can show that  $\lim_{N\to\infty} g_N(x)$  converges, then we can show that  $\gamma$  converges as well. This is because  $\ln(N+1)$  and  $\ln(N)$  converge to the same thing. Formally, we have  $\lim_{N\to\infty}\ln(N+1)-\ln N=$  $\lim_{N\to\infty}\ln(1+\frac{1}{N})=\ln 1=0$ . Therefore, we only must show that g(x) converges to show that  $\gamma$  converges. By the properties of logarithms, we have:

(5.3) 
$$g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} - \ln(n+1) + \ln n$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} + \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)$$

(5.5)

Now, we will show that the summand is bounded by  $x^2$ . First we take the function  $f(x) = x^2 - x - \ln(1 - x)$ . We must show that for  $x = \frac{1}{n}$ , we always have f(x) > 0. First, we show that  $f'(x) = 2x - 1 - \frac{1}{1 - x}$  and  $f''(x) = 2 + \frac{1}{(1-x)^2}$ . We see that f''(x) > 0 for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , and that f'(0) = 0. Therefore, f'(x) > 0 for all x>0. Next, we see that f(0)=0, which shows that f(x)>0 for all x>0. Thus, substituting  $x=\frac{1}{n}$ , we have discovered that  $f(1/n) = \frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{n} - \ln(1 - \frac{1}{n}) > 0$ . Rearranging, we have the following inequalities:

(5.6) 
$$0 < \frac{1}{n} + \ln\left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) < \frac{1}{n^2}$$

The lower bound of 0 comes from the fact that  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  must be positive and so  $\ln(1+\frac{1}{n})>0$ . Therefore, taking sums and limits, we have:

(5.7) 
$$\lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{N} g(x) < \lim_{N \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{n^2} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} g(x) < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

We know that  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges because it is a geometric series with p=2, so by the comparison test, we know that  $\sum g(x)^n$  also converges. Since we have shown above that the convergence of g(x) implies the convergence of  $\gamma$ , we have completed our proof.

**Theorem 5.8.** Roughly how large must m be so that  $N = 10^m$  satisfies  $s_N > 100$ ?

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*Proof.* Since we know that  $0 \le s_N - \ln N \le \sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  for all  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have the following inequality for  $s_N$ :

$$ln N \le s_N \le ln N + \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Therefore, in order for  $s_N > 100$ , we must have  $\ln N > 100$ . This implies that we need  $\ln 10^m > 100$ , which is the same as  $e^{100} < 10^m$ . Therefore, we want  $m = \log_{10}(e^{100})$  in order for  $s_N > 100$ .