

1. Define:

$$f_n(x) := \frac{n}{1 + nx^2}$$

Prove that  $f_n$  is uniformly continuous.

Is the family of function  $\mathcal{F} := \{f_n(x) | n \in \mathbb{Z}_{pos}\}$  equicontinuous?

**Proposition**  $\frac{x}{1+nx^2}$  is bounded.

**Proof** First, consider the function in the range  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus [-1, 1]$ . Within the range, we have  $|x| > 1$  and hence  $x^2 > 1$ . Write:

$$\left| \frac{x}{1 + nx^2} \right| < \left| \frac{x}{nx^2} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{nx} \right| < 1$$

Now, consider the range  $x \in [-1, 1]$ . Write:

$$\left| \frac{x}{1 + nx^2} \right| < \left| \frac{x}{1} \right| < 1$$

This shows that our function is bounded for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  □

**Claim**  $f_n(x)$  is uniformly continuous. Given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we wish to obtain a  $\delta_{max}$  where for any  $\delta$  such that  $|\delta| < \delta_{max}$  satisfies:

$$|f_n(x) - f_n(x + \delta)| < \epsilon$$

Or equivalently

$$\left| \frac{n}{1 + nx^2} - \frac{n}{1 + n(x + \delta)^2} \right| < \epsilon$$

Notice:

$$\left| \frac{n}{1 + nx^2} - \frac{n}{1 + n(x + \delta)^2} \right| < \left| \frac{n}{1 + nx^2} - \frac{n}{1 + n(x + \delta_{max})^2} \right|$$

It suffices to construct  $\delta_{max}$  that satisfies:

$$\left| \frac{n}{1 + nx^2} - \frac{n}{1 + n(x + \delta_{max})^2} \right| < \epsilon$$

Through some algebra:

$$\left| \frac{n [1 + n(x + \delta_{max})^2 - (1 + nx^2)]}{(1 + nx^2)(1 + n(x + \delta_{max})^2)} \right| < \epsilon$$

$$\left| \frac{n [2nx\delta_{max} + n\delta_{max}^2]}{(1 + nx^2)(1 + n(x + \delta_{max})^2)} \right| < \epsilon$$

$$\left| \frac{n^2\delta_{max} [2x + \delta_{max}]}{(1 + nx^2)(1 + n(x + \delta_{max})^2)} \right| < \epsilon$$

Set  $\delta_{max} < 1$ . Also, notice that the terms in the denominators are both greater than 1. We construct a  $\delta_{max}$  that satisfies a stronger condition:

$$\left| \frac{n^2 \delta_{max}(2x+1)}{1+nx^2} \right| < \epsilon \quad \text{or} \quad |\delta_{max}| |n^2| \left| \frac{2x}{1+nx^2} + \frac{1}{1+nx^2} \right| < \epsilon$$

It is easy to see that the function  $\frac{1}{1+nx^2}$  is bounded. The denominator is always greater than 1, so the function is bounded by 1. We have shown that the second summand is bounded for any real  $x$ . Again, we construct a stronger  $\delta_{max}$  that satisfies:

$$|\delta_{max}| B < \epsilon$$

Where  $B$  is the maximum bound of the other terms. If  $B < 0$ , the statement is a tauology. Otherwise, set  $\delta = \epsilon/(2B)$ . This concludes the proof.  $\square$

**Claim** The family  $\mathcal{F}$  is not equicontinuous

**Proof** We claim that equicontinuity is violated at  $x = 0$ . Notice that  $f_n(0) = n$ . Assume for a contradiction, that  $\mathcal{F}$  is equicontinuous at  $x = 0$ . For  $\epsilon = 1$ , it must be possible to obtain a  $\delta_{max}$  where for all  $\delta$  such that  $|\delta| < \delta_{max}$ ,  $\delta$  satisfies:

$$|f_n(0) - f_n(\delta)| < 1 \quad \text{or} \quad |n - f_n(\delta)| < 1$$

So

$$|f_n(\delta)| > n - 1$$

$\delta \neq 0$  by assumption, so as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $|f_n(\delta)| \rightarrow 1$ . This is a contradiction.  $\square$

2. Define:

$$f_n(x) := \begin{cases} 1 - nx & (x \in (0, 1/n)) \\ 0 & (\text{Otherwise}) \end{cases}$$

Show that the limit of this function exists and find the limit.

**Solution** Consider the function:

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} 1 & (x = 0) \\ 0 & (x \neq 0) \end{cases}$$

We claim that  $f_n$  converges to  $f$  pointwise. We must show that for any  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ , the following equality holds:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x_0) = f(x_0)$$

If  $x_0 \leq 0$ , the problem becomes trivial. If the inequality is strict,  $f_n(x_0) = 0$  regardless of the value of  $n$ . Also computing the value of  $f_n(0)$ , we notice that the value is identically 1, regardless of the value of  $n$ .

It remains to demonstrate the equality for  $x_0 > 0$ . Recall that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} 1/n = 0$ . Hence, it is possible to obtain a sufficiently large integer  $N$  such that for any  $n > N$ , we have  $1/n < x_0$ . By the construction of  $f_n(x)$ ,  $f_n(x_0) = 0$  for any  $n > N$ . This concludes the proof.  $\square$

3. Define:

$$f_n(x) := \begin{cases} 1 - nx & (x \in (0, 1/n)) \\ 0 & (\text{Otherwise}) \end{cases}$$

and,

$$\mathcal{F} := \{f_n(x) | n \in \mathbb{Z}_{pos}\}$$

Is the family  $\mathcal{F}$  normal?

**Claim** No,  $\mathcal{F}$  is not normal.

**Proof** Assume for a contradiction, that indeed the family is normal. Then, the entire family  $\mathcal{F}$  must have some subsequence of functions that converge uniformly. Let the sequence of functions  $\{f_{m_1}, f_{m_2}, f_{m_3}, \dots\}$  be such a sequence of functions.

For the value  $\epsilon = 1/4$ , we extract some integer  $N$  such that for any  $n > N$ , the function achieves:

$$|f_{m_n}(x) - f(x)| < 1/4$$

For any real value  $x$ .  $f(x)$  is some imaginary function that the subsequence uniformly converges to. Extract another arbitrary integer  $k > N$  that satisfies the same condition. Adding the two inequalities, we obtain:

$$|f_{m_n}(x) - f(x)| + |f_{m_k}(x) - f(x)| < 1/2$$

Which implies, by the triangle inequality:

$$|f_{m_n}(x) - f_{m_k}(x)| < 1/2$$

And this is for any values of  $n, k > N$ . We explicitly construct a value  $x_0$  that violates this inequality.

Take any integer  $n$  greater than  $N$ . Obtain  $k$  such that  $m_k > 2m_n$ . This is possible because  $m$  is a strictly increasing sequence of integers. Set  $x_0 = 1/m_k$ . Write:

$$|f_{m_n}(x_0) - f_{m_k}(x_0)| = |f_{m_n}(1/m_k) - f_{m_k}(1/m_k)|$$

Notice that the latter summand vanishes. Also the fraction  $1/m_k$  is between zero and  $1/m_n$ . We proceed to write:

$$|f_{m_n}(x_0) - f_{m_k}(x_0)| = |1 - m_n/m_k| > 1/2$$

by construction. But then again, this whole absolute value must be less than  $1/2$ , which is a contradiction.  $\square$

4. Solve the integral:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{x^4 + x^2 + 1} dx$$

**Solution** Define the integrand as a complex function. That is:

$$f(z) := \frac{z^2}{z^4 + z^2 + 1}$$

We look at the semicircular contour with radius  $R$  that is centered at the origin. The contour occupies the first and the second quadrant. Call the contour  $\gamma$ .

The circular part of the contour vanishes as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ . Write:

$$\left| \oint_{\gamma_c} f \right| = \left| \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \frac{R^2 e^{2i\theta}}{R^4 e^{4i\theta} + R^2 e^{2i\theta} + 1} R i e^{i\theta} d\theta \right| < 2\pi/R$$

and as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ , clearly the integral converges to zero.

The problem reduces down to identifying the poles of the function  $f$ . We must identify all the zeros of the denominator. Notice:

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

Ergo, the zeros of the denominators are the four complex roots of  $z^6 - 1$ . The two real roots  $z = \pm 1$  can be excluded by computing  $f(1) = 3, f(-1) = 3$ . In the contour  $\gamma$ , the two poles are:

$$z_0 = e^{i\pi/3} \quad \text{and} \quad z_1 = e^{2i\pi/3}$$

Both poles are of order 1. To compute the residue, apply L'Hopital's rule. For any of the poles  $p \in z_0, z_1$ ,

$$Res_f(p) = \lim_{z \rightarrow p} \frac{(z - p)z^2}{z^4 + z^2 + 1}$$

By taking derivatives in both the numerator and the denominator:

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow p} \frac{(z - p)z^2}{z^4 + z^2 + 1} = \lim_{z \rightarrow p} \frac{3z^2 - 2zp}{4z^3 + 2z} = \frac{3p - 2p}{4p^2 + 2} = \frac{1}{4p + 2p^{-1}}$$

Plugging in the appropriate values of  $p$ , we write:

$$Res_f(e^{i\pi/3}) = \frac{1}{4e^{i\pi/3} + 2e^{-i\pi/3}} = \frac{1}{2 + 2\sqrt{3}i + 1 - \sqrt{3}i} = \frac{1}{3 + \sqrt{3}i} = \frac{3 - \sqrt{3}i}{12}$$

$$Res_f(e^{2i\pi/3}) = \frac{1}{4e^{2i\pi/3} + 2e^{-2i\pi/3}} = \frac{1}{-2 + 2\sqrt{3}i - 1 - \sqrt{3}i} = \frac{1}{-3 + \sqrt{3}i} = \frac{-3 - \sqrt{3}i}{12}$$

By the residue theorem, we evaluate the contour integral:

$$\oint_{\gamma} f = 2\pi i [Res_f(z_0) + Res_f(z_1)] = 2\pi i \frac{-2\sqrt{3}i}{12} = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}}$$

Finally we conclude

$$\boxed{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{x^4 + x^2 + 1} = \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{3}}}$$

5. Solve the integral:

$$I := \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1}{a + b \sin(\theta)} d\theta$$

**Solution** First, consider when the integral is valid. The integrand must be finite, that is, the denominator must be nonzero. The magnitude of the function  $b \sin(\theta)$  must not be greater than  $a$ . Otherwise, the denominator will hit zero at some point, and the integral will be invalid. From now on, assume  $|b| < |a|$ .

Also, if  $b = 0$ , the integral becomes trivial.  $I = 2\pi/a$  given that  $a$  is nonzero. Recall Euler's formula:

$$\sin(\theta) = \frac{e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta}}{2i}$$

Now manipulate the integral:

$$\begin{aligned} I &= \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{2i}{2ia + 2ib \sin(\theta)} d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{2i}{2ia + b(e^{i\theta} - e^{-i\theta})} d\theta \\ I &= \frac{2}{b} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{ie^{i\theta}}{e^{2i\theta} + 2iae^{i\theta}/b + 1} d\theta \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\zeta := e^{i\theta}$ .  $\zeta$  forms a unit circle in the range  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$ . Rewrite the integral as:

$$I = \frac{2}{b} \oint_{\zeta \in C} \frac{d\zeta}{\zeta^2 + 2ik\zeta + 1}$$

Where  $k := a/b$  and  $C$  is the unit circle. By the quadratic formula, the integrand has poles at:

$$\zeta = -ik \pm \sqrt{-k^2 + 1}$$

$k^2 > 1$  since  $|a/b| > 1$ .  $\zeta$  is purely imaginary. Note that one of the poles necessarily fall into the circle and that the other does not. The pole  $p$  that falls into the unit circle is:

$$p = -ik + \sqrt{-k^2 + 1}$$

Denote the integrand of the contour function  $f$ .

$$f(z) = \frac{1}{z^2 + 2ikz + 1}$$

Compute the residue at  $p$ . The pole is a simple pole.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Res}_f(p) &= \lim_{z \rightarrow p} \frac{z - p}{z^2 + 2ikz + 1} = \lim_{z \rightarrow p} \frac{1}{2z + 2ik} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{-ik + \sqrt{-k^2 + 1} + ik} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - k^2}} \end{aligned}$$

By the residue theorem:

$$I = \frac{2}{b} 2\pi i [\text{Res}_f(p)] = \frac{2\pi}{b\sqrt{k^2-1}} = \pm \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{a^2-b^2}}$$

The  $\pm$  sign depends on the sign of  $b$ . As inserting  $b$  into the square root, we must separate its sign.

We conclude, for  $|b| > |a|$

$$I = \begin{cases} \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{a^2-b^2}} & (b > 0) \\ -\frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{a^2-b^2}} & (b < 0) \end{cases}$$