## NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF SINGAPORE MATHEMATICS SOCIETY

# PAST YEAR PAPER SOLUTIONS with credits to Lin Mingyan Simon, Chang Hai Bin

## MA2108 Mathematical Analysis I AY 2011/2012 Sem 2

## Question 1

- (a) (i) We shall prove by induction that  $2 \le x_n \le 5$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let P(n) denote the proposition  $2 \le x_n \le 5$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . P(1) is clearly true by the question. Assume that P(k) holds for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . By induction hypothesis, one has  $2 \le x_k \le 5$ . Then one has  $x_{k+1} = \sqrt{6x_k - 5} \ge \sqrt{6(2) - 5} = \sqrt{7} \ge 2$ , and  $x_{k+1} = \sqrt{6x_k - 5} \le \sqrt{6(5) - 5} = 5$ . So one has  $2 \le x_{k+1} \le 5$  and hence P(k+1) is true as well. Therefore, by the principle of mathematical induction, we have P(n) to be true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
  - (ii) We shall prove by induction that  $x_{n+1} \ge x_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let P(n) denote the proposition  $x_{n+1} \ge x_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We have  $x_2 = \sqrt{6x_1 5} = \sqrt{6(2) 5} = \sqrt{7} \ge 2 = x_1$ . So P(1) is true. Assume that P(k) holds for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . By induction hypothesis, one has  $x_{k+1} \ge x_k$ . Then one has  $x_{k+2} = \sqrt{6x_{k+1} 5} \ge \sqrt{6x_k 5} = x_{k+1}$ . Hence P(k+1) is true as well.

Therefore, by the principle of mathematical induction, we have P(n) to be true for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Since  $(x_n)$  is bounded and increasing, it follows from the Monotone Convergence Theorem that  $(x_n)$  is convergent. Let x denote the limit of the sequence  $(x_n)$ . Then one has

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt{6x_n - 5}$$

$$\Rightarrow x = \sqrt{6x - 5}$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 = 6x - 5$$

$$\Rightarrow (x - 1)(x - 5) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = 1 \text{ or } x = 5.$$

Moreover, since  $x_n \ge 2$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , one has  $x = \lim_{n \to \infty} x_n \ge \lim_{n \to \infty} 2 = 2$ . So x = 5.

(b) Let M > 0 be given. Choose  $K \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $K > M^2$ . Then it follows that for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $n \geq K$ , one has

$$\frac{3n^3-1}{\sqrt{n^5+2n^3+1}} \geq \frac{3n^3-n^3}{\sqrt{n^5+2n^5+n^5}} = \frac{2n^3}{2n^2\sqrt{n}} = \sqrt{n} \geq \sqrt{K} > M.$$

Hence, by definition, one has  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{3n^3-1}{\sqrt{n^5+2n^3+1}} = \infty$ .

(c) Let  $a_n = n\left(\sqrt{n^2 + 1} - n\right)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then we have  $x_n = a_n \sin \frac{n\pi}{8}$ , so it is easy to see that  $-a_n \le x_n \le a_n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Also, we note that

$$a_n = n\left(\sqrt{n^2 + 1} - n\right) = \frac{n\left(\sqrt{n^2 + 1} - n\right)\left(\sqrt{n^2 + 1} + n\right)}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1} + n} = \frac{n}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1} + n} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{n^2} + 1}}.$$

Therefore, we have  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\frac{1}{n^2}+1}} = \frac{1}{2}$ .

Hence, it follows that if  $(x_{n_k})$  is a convergent subsequence with x as its limit, then one has  $x = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k} \le \lim_{k \to \infty} a_{n_k} = \frac{1}{2}$ . So  $\frac{1}{2}$  is an upper bound on the set of cluster points of  $(x_n)$ . On the other hand, one has

$$x_{16k+4} = a_{16k+4} \sin \frac{(16k+4)\pi}{8} = a_{16k+4} \sin \left(2k + \frac{1}{2}\right)\pi = a_{16k+4}.$$

This implies that  $\lim_{k\to\infty} x_{16k+4} = \lim_{k\to\infty} a_{16k+4} = \frac{1}{2}$ . So  $\limsup x_n = \frac{1}{2}$ .

### Question 2

(a) (i) Let  $a_n = \frac{n(2n^3+1)}{7n^5-2n^2+1}$  and  $b_n = \frac{1}{n}$ . Then one has  $\frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{2n^5+n^2}{7n^5-2n^2+1}$ , and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2n^5 + n^2}{7n^5 - 2n^2 + 1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2 + \frac{1}{n^3}}{7 - \frac{2}{n^3} + \frac{1}{n^5}} = \frac{2}{7} > 0.$$

Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  diverges, we have  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  to diverge by the Limit Comparison Test.

(ii) We have

$$0 \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n n^5}{3^n (n^2 + 1)} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^5}{3^n (n^2 + 1)} \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^5}{3^n n^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{3^n}.$$

Let  $a_n = \frac{n^3}{3^n}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{3} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^3 = \frac{1}{3} < 1$ , it follows from the Ratio Test that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{3^n}$  converges absolutely. Hence, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^5}{3^n(n^2+1)}$  converges by the Comparison Test, and this implies that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n^5}{3^n(n^2+1)}$  converges (absolutely).

(iii) We have

$$0 \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{3\cos n - 2^n}{6^n} \right| \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \left| \frac{3\cos n}{6^n} \right| + \left| \frac{2^n}{6^n} \right| \right) \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{3}{6^n} + \frac{1}{3^n} \right).$$

Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{6^n}$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n}$  both converge, it follows that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{6^n} + \frac{1}{3^n}\right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{6^n} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n}$  converges. Therefore it follows from the Comparison Test that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left|\frac{3\cos n - 2^n}{6^n}\right|$  converges. This implies that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3\cos n - 2^n}{6^n}$  converges (absolutely).

(b) Suppose  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$  converges. For each  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $s_k = \sum_{n=1}^k c_n$ ,  $t_k = \sum_{n=1}^k a_n$  and  $u_k = \sum_{n=1}^k b_n$ . Note that  $s_{2k} = \sum_{n=1}^{2k} c_n = \sum_{n=1}^k c_{2n-1} + \sum_{n=1}^k c_{2n} = \sum_{n=1}^k a_n + \sum_{n=1}^k b_n = t_k + u_k$ . Since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, it follows that both limits  $\lim_{k \to \infty} s_k$  and  $\lim_{k \to \infty} t_k$  exist, and thus it follows that the limit  $\lim_{k \to \infty} s_{2k}$  exists as well. Therefore, the limit  $\lim_{k \to \infty} u_k = \lim_{k \to \infty} (s_{2k} - t_k) = \lim_{k \to \infty} s_{2k} - \lim_{k \to \infty} t_k$  exists, which implies that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  is convergent, a contradiction. So the desired holds.

#### Question 3

(a) Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta = \min\{\frac{\varepsilon}{6}, \frac{1}{4}\}$ . Then it follows that if  $|x-2| < \delta$ , then one has  $x-2 > -\delta \ge -\frac{1}{4}$ , so one has  $2x-3 = 2(x-2)+1 > 2\left(-\frac{1}{4}\right)+1 = \frac{1}{2}$ . This implies that  $|2x-3| > \frac{1}{2}$ , or equivalently,  $\frac{1}{|2x-3|} < 2$ . Hence, we have

$$\left| \frac{x}{2x - 3} - 2 \right| = \left| \frac{x - 2(2x - 3)}{2x - 3} \right| = \left| \frac{6 - 3x}{2x - 3} \right| = \frac{3|x - 2|}{|2x - 3|} < 3 \cdot \delta \cdot 2 = 6\delta \le 6 \cdot \frac{\varepsilon}{6} = \varepsilon$$

whenever  $|x-2| < \delta$ . Since  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrary, it follows from the  $\varepsilon - \delta$  definition that  $\lim_{x \to 2} \frac{x}{2x-3} = 2$ .

(b) (i) Write  $f(x) = \cos\left(\frac{1}{2-\sqrt{x}}\right)$  and let  $x_n = \left(2 - \frac{1}{n\pi}\right)^2$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $0 < 2 - \frac{1}{n\pi} < 2$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , it follows that  $x_n \neq 4$ . Also, we have  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left(2 - \frac{1}{n\pi}\right)^2 = (2 - 0)^2 = 4$ , and  $f(x_n) = \cos n\pi$ . From here, we see that for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$f(x_{2k}) = \cos 2k\pi = 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{k \to \infty} f(x_{2k}) = 1,$$
  
 $f(x_{2k+1}) = \cos(2k+1)\pi = -1 \Rightarrow \lim_{k \to \infty} f(x_{2k+1}) = -1.$ 

Consequently, the sequence  $(f(x_n))$  diverges so the limit  $\lim_{x\to 4} f(x)$  does not exist.

(ii) Take a rational sequence  $(x_n)$  and an irrational sequence  $(y_n)$  such that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n = 0 = \lim_{n\to\infty} y_n$ . Then we see that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F(x_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} (x_n - 1)^3 = (0 - 1)^3 = -1,$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} F(y_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{2^{y_n}}{1 + y_n^2} = \frac{2^0}{1 + 0^2} = 1.$$

Since  $\lim_{n\to\infty} F(x_n) \neq \lim_{n\to\infty} F(y_n)$ , it follows that the limit  $\lim_{x\to 0} F(x)$  does not exist.

(c) Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $\lim_{x \to b^-} f(x) = L$ , it follows that there exists some  $\delta > 0$ , such that  $a < b - \delta$ , and if  $b - \delta < x < b$ , then one has  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$  and  $|h(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ , or equivalently,  $L - \varepsilon < f(x) < L + \varepsilon$  and  $L - \varepsilon < h(x) < L + \varepsilon$ . This implies that  $L - \varepsilon < f(x) \le g(x) \le h(x) < L + \varepsilon$ , or equivalently,  $|g(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . Since  $\varepsilon > 0$  is arbitrary, it follows from definition that  $\lim_{x \to b^-} g(x) = L$ .

#### Question 4

- (a) Note that  $f(x)^2 = 1 \Leftrightarrow f(x) = 1$  or f(x) = -1. Suppose on the contrary that f is not a constant function on (0,1). Then necessarily, there must exist  $a,b \in (0,1)$  such that f(a) = 1 and f(b) = -1. WLOG, we may assume that a < b. Since f is continuous on (0,1), f is certainly continuous on [a,b], and thus by the Intermediate Value Theorem, there exists some  $c \in [a,b] \subseteq (0,1)$  such that f(c) = 0. This would imply that  $f(c)^2 = 0$ , which is a contradiction. So the desired holds.
- (b) For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , define  $\varepsilon_0 = 1$ ,  $x_n = 1 \frac{1}{n+2}$  and  $y_n = 1 \frac{1}{n+1}$ . Clearly, we have  $x_n, y_n \in (0,1)$ . Then we see that  $\lim_{n \to \infty} |x_n y_n| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{1}{n+1} \frac{1}{n+2} \right| = 0$ . However, we have  $g(x_n) = n+2$  and  $g(y_n) = n+1$ , so  $|g(x_n) g(y_n)| = 1 \ge \varepsilon_0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . So g is not uniformly continuous on (0,1).

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#### Question 5

- (a) Let  $\limsup b_n = b$ . Note that for a given bounded sequence  $(x_n)$ ,  $\limsup x_n = x$  if and only if:
  - (1) There exists a convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  of  $(x_n)$  converging to x, and
  - (2) For every other convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_{\ell}})$  of  $(x_n)$ , one has  $\lim_{\ell \to \infty} x_{n_{\ell}} \leq x$ .

Firstly, we shall show that  $ab \leq \limsup a_n b_n$ . Since  $\limsup b_n = b$ , by property (1) it follows that there exists a convergent subsequence  $(b_{n_k})$  of  $(b_n)$  that converges to b. Since  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a$ , it follows that  $(a_{n_k})$  converges to a as well. Hence, the subsequence  $(a_{n_k}b_{n_k})$  of  $(a_nb_n)$  converges to ab and so by property (2) one has  $ab \leq \limsup a_nb_n$ .

Next, we shall show that  $\limsup a_nb_n \leq ab$ . By property (1), it follows that there exists a convergent subsequence  $(a_{n_k}b_{n_k})$  of  $(a_nb_n)$  that converges to  $\limsup a_nb_n$ . As  $\lim_{k\to\infty}a_{n_k}=a>0$ , it follows that there exists some  $N\in\mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_{n_k}>0$  for all  $k\geq N$ . Henceforth, we may assume that  $a_{n_k}>0$  for all  $k\in\mathbb{N}$  (else, we may simply discard the first N-1 terms of the sequence  $(a_{n_k})$ ). We have  $\lim_{k\to\infty}b_{n_k}=\lim_{k\to\infty}\frac{a_{n_k}b_{n_k}}{a_{n_k}}=\frac{1}{a}\limsup a_nb_n$ . As  $\limsup b_n=b$ , by property (2) one has  $\frac{1}{a}\limsup a_nb_n\leq b$ , so  $\limsup a_nb_n\leq ab$ . Therefore,  $\limsup a_nb_n=ab$  as desired.

(b) Let  $L = \lim_{n \to \infty} n^p x_n$ . Then one has  $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{|x_n|}{1/n^p} = \lim_{n \to \infty} |n^p x_n| = |L| \ge 0$ . As p > 1, we see that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$  converges, and thus the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |x_n|$  converges by the Limit Comparison Test. The desired now follows.

#### Question 6

(i) First Solution (by Hai Bin):

Define the function h on [0,1] as follows: h(x) = g(x) - f(x) for all  $x \in [0,1]$ . Clearly, h is continuous on [0,1] with h(x) > 0 for all  $x \in [0,1]$ . Then it suffices to show that there exists some  $\mu > 0$ , such that  $\mu f(x) \le h(x)$  for all  $x \in [0,1]$ .

By the Extreme Value Theorem, there exists some  $c \in [0,1]$ , such that  $h(x) \geq h(c) > 0$  for all  $x \in [0,1]$ . Let L = h(c). Also, since f is continuous on [0,1], it follows that |f| is continuous on [0,1], and hence by the Extreme Value Theorem, there exists some  $d \in [0,1]$ , such that  $|f(x)| \leq |f(d)| < |f(d)| + 1$  for all  $x \in [0,1]$ . Let M = |f(d)|, and we note that  $M \geq 0$ . This implies that  $M + 1 \geq 1$  and  $\frac{|f(x)|}{M+1} < 1$  for all  $x \in [0,1]$ . Thus, for all  $x \in [0,1]$ , we have

$$\frac{L}{M+1}f(x) \leq \frac{|f(x)|}{M+1} \cdot L \leq L \leq h(x).$$

The desired now follows by setting  $\mu = \frac{L}{M+1}$  and  $\lambda = 1 + \mu$ .

Second Solution (by Simon):

If  $f(x) \leq 0$ , then any  $\lambda > 1$  would do since  $\lambda f(x) \leq f(x) < g(x)$ . Henceforth, we shall consider only the case where f(x) > 0. Define the set  $A = \left\{\frac{g(x)}{f(x)} : x \in [0,1], f(x) > 0\right\}$ . Note that if  $t \in A$ , then  $t = \frac{g(s)}{f(s)} > 1$  for some  $s \in [0,1]$  such that f(s) > 0, so it follows that 1 is a lower bound of the set A, and hence inf  $A \geq 1$ . The claim is that inf A > 1.

Suppose inf A = 1. This implies that for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $1 + \frac{1}{n}$  is not a lower bound of A, so there exists some  $x_n \in [0,1]$  such that  $\frac{g(x_n)}{f(x_n)} < 1 + \frac{1}{n}$ , or equivalently,  $g(x_n) < \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right) f(x_n)$ . Since

 $0 \le x_n \le 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , it follows that  $(x_n)$  is bounded, and hence there exists a convergent subsequence  $(x_{n_k})$  of  $(x_n)$  by the Bolzano-Weierstrass Theorem. Let  $x = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k}$ .

Notice that  $0 \le x_{n_k} \le 1$ , so one has  $0 \le x = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_{n_k} \le 1$ , i.e.  $x \in [0,1]$ . Since f and g are both continuous on [0,1], it follows that  $\lim_{k \to \infty} f(x_{n_k}) = f(x)$  and  $\lim_{k \to \infty} g(x_{n_k}) = g(x)$ . Noting that  $g(x_{n_k}) < \left(1 + \frac{1}{n_k}\right) f(x_{n_k})$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , we see that by taking limits one has  $g(x) = \lim_{k \to \infty} g(x_{n_k}) \le \lim_{k \to \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{n_k}) f(x_{n_k}) = f(x)$ , which is a contradiction. Therefore, one has inf A > 1 as desired. The desired now follows by setting  $\lambda = \inf A$ .

(ii) Here, we shall construct a counter-example where the desired conclusion could not be reached if we replace the closed interval [0,1] by the open interval (0,1). Define the functions f and g on (0,1) as follows:  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  and  $g(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{x}$  for all  $x \in (0,1)$ . Clearly, f and g are both continuous on (0,1) and 0 < f(x) < g(x) for all  $x \in (0,1)$ . Let  $\lambda > 1$  be given.

Noting that  $\frac{g(x)}{f(x)} = \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)/\frac{1}{x} = x + 1$ , we shall choose an  $\varepsilon \in (0, 1)$ , such that  $1 < 1 + \varepsilon < \lambda$ . Then we see that  $\frac{g(\varepsilon)}{f(\varepsilon)} = \varepsilon + 1 < \lambda$ . Thus one has  $\lambda f(\varepsilon) > g(\varepsilon)$ . Since  $\lambda > 1$  is arbitrary, this would imply that such a  $\lambda$  could never be found, and hence the conclusion does not necessarily hold if the closed interval [0, 1] were to be replaced by the open interval (0, 1).

### Question 7

(i) For each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , let  $x_n = f(n)$ . Since f is increasing, we must have  $x_n = f(n) \le f(n+1) = x_{n+1}$ , and hence we see that the sequence  $(x_n)$  is increasing. Also, since the function f is bounded, it follows that the sequence  $(x_n) = (f(n))$  is bounded as well. Hence  $(x_n)$  is convergent by the Monotone Convergence Theorem. Let the limit of  $(x_n)$  be a.

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. As  $\lim_{n \to \infty} x_n = a$ , it follows that there exists some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , such that if  $n \geq N$ , then one has  $0 \leq a - f(n) = a - x_n < \varepsilon$ . This implies that for all  $x \geq N$ , one has  $0 \leq a - f(x) \leq a - f(N) < \varepsilon$ , and thus  $|f(x) - a| < \varepsilon$ . Therefore, by definition, we have the limit  $\lim_{x \to \infty} f(x)$  to exist (and equal to a).

(ii) We shall prove that f is uniformly continuous on  $(0, \infty)$ .

By a similar argument above, we can also show that the limit  $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x)$  exists. Hence, we may define  $f(0) = \lim_{x\to 0} f(x)$  so that the extended function f is continuous on  $[0,\infty)$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $\lim_{x\to \infty} f(x) = a$ , it follows that there exists some K>0 such that if  $x \ge K$ , then one has  $|f(x) - a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4}$ . Thus, for any  $x_1, x_2 \ge K$ , one has  $|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| \le |f(x_1) - a| + |a - f(x_2)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{4} + \frac{\varepsilon}{4} = \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < \varepsilon$ .

Next, since f is (uniformly) continuous on [0,K], it follows that there exists a  $\delta>0$ , such that if  $x_1,x_2\in[0,K]$  and  $|x_1-x_2|<\delta$ , then one has  $|f(x_1)-f(x_2)|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}<\varepsilon$ . Finally, if  $0\leq x_1< K$ ,  $x_2>K$  and  $|x_1-x_2|=x_2-x_1<\delta$ , then one has  $|x_1-K|=K-x_1< x_2-x_1<\delta$ , so one has  $|f(x_1)-f(K)|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . Thus, one has  $|f(x_1)-f(x_2)|\leq |f(x_1)-f(K)|+|f(K)-f(x_2)|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2}+\frac{\varepsilon}{2}=\varepsilon$ .

The above argument now shows that if  $x_1, x_2 \in [0, \infty)$  and  $|x_1 - x_2| < \delta$ , then one has  $|f(x_1) - f(x_2)| < \varepsilon$ . Hence f is uniformly continuous on  $[0, \infty)$ . The desired now follows.