

(1) Prove that if the function f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then there is $c \in [a, b]$ such that

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx.$$

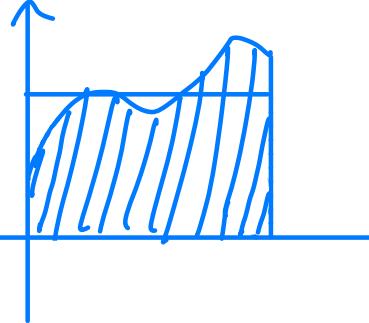
Proof Since f is continuous on $[a, b]$,

by extreme value theorem,

there exist $x_1, x_2 \in [a, b]$

s.t. $f(x_1) \leq f(x) \leq f(x_2)$

for all $x \in [a, b]$



And since f is continuous on $[a, b]$

$\Rightarrow f$ is integrable on $[a, b]$

$$\text{So } \int_a^b f(x_1) dx \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq \int_a^b f(x_2) dx$$

by monotonicity of integration

$$\text{i.e. } (b-a)f(x_1) \leq \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq (b-a)f(x_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_1) \leq \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx \leq f(x_2)$$

By continuity of f between x_1 and x_2 and IVT

$$\exists c \in [x_1, x_2] \text{ s.t. } f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

hw 7 ① (积分中值定理)

~~连续~~ $f(x)$ ~~在~~ ctn on $[a, b]$, 且 $\exists c \in [a, b]$ s.t.

☆

$$f(c) = \frac{1}{b-a} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

- (2) (a) Let $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be nonnegative and continuous. Prove that if $f(x) > 0$ for some $x \in [a, b]$, then $\int_a^b f > 0$.
- (b) Let $f, g : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous functions such that $f(x) < g(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$.
 Prove that if $\int_a^b f = \int_a^b g$, then $f = g$.

hw 7 ② if f 在 $[a, b]$ 上非负且连续
若有 $\exists x$ 使 $f(x) > 0$ 则 $\int_a^b f > 0$

(a) Proof

Assume the hypothesis. let $x_0 \in [a, b]$ s.t. $f(x_0) > 0$

Since f is continuous on $[a, b]$,

there exist $\varepsilon > 0$ s.t. for all $x \in V_\varepsilon(x_0) \cap [a, b]$,

$f(x) > 0$ (by hw 4, problem 8)

Note that $V_\varepsilon(x_0) \cap [a, b] \neq \emptyset$ is an interval

Fix a closed interval $[c, d] \subseteq V_\varepsilon(x_0) \cap [a, b]$

Since f is continuous on $[a, b]$, it is integrable on

$[c, d]$ and $\int_c^d f > 0$ since $\int_c^d f = (d - c)f(x_0)$ for some $x_0 \in [c, d]$, by problem (1), and $f(x_0) > 0$

Since $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, $\int_a^c f \geq 0$ and $\int_d^b f \geq 0$

Therefore $\int_a^b f = \int_a^c f + \int_c^d f + \int_d^b f \geq 0$

□

(b) Assume the hypothesis and suppose for contradiction that

$$\int_a^b f = \int_a^b g \text{ but } f \neq g$$

Consider the function $g(x) - f(x)$ is nonnegative and continuous

Since $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$, $f \neq g$ implies $f(x) < g(x)$ for

some $x \in [a, b]$. So by (a), $\int_a^b (g - f) > 0$ i.e. $\int_a^b g > \int_a^b f$, contradicts with $\int_a^b f = \int_a^b g$.

This proves that if $\int_a^b f = \int_a^b g$ then $f = g$.

□

- (3) (a) Prove that if the function f is integrable on $[a, b]$, then there is $c \in [a, b]$ such that $\int_a^c f = \int_c^b f$.
- (b) Give an example to show that in part (a) we may not have $c \in (a, b)$.

(a) Proof

Since f is (Riemann) integrable on $[a, b]$,

by Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$F(x) = \int_a^x f(x) dx$ is continuous on $[a, b]$

Since $0 = F(a) < \frac{F(a) + F(b)}{2} < F(b) = \int_a^b f$
 by W.L.T., there exists $c \in [a, b]$ s.t $F(c) = \frac{F(a) + F(b)}{2}$

so $\underbrace{\int_a^c f}_{\text{So}} = \int_c^b f = \frac{\int_a^b f}{2}$ since $\int_a^c f + \int_c^b f = \int_a^b f$

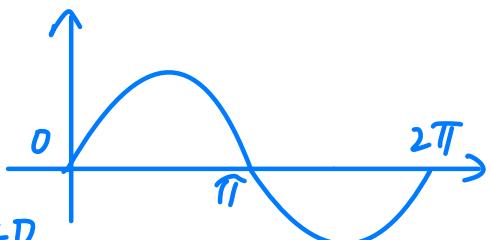
□

(b) Consider $a = 0, b = 2\pi$

$f = \sin(x)$ is continuous on

$[a, b]$, thus integrable

Consider $c = a$, $\int_a^c f = \int_c^b f = 0$



hw 7 ③ 在 $[a, b]$ 上 intble b.s f

- \nexists $\exists c \in [a, b]$ 使 $\int_a^c f = \int_c^b f$

(4) Compute the following limits:

$$(a) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x e^{t^2} dt$$

$$(b) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_3^{3+h} e^{t^2} dt$$

(a) Since e^{t^2} is continuous at $t=0$, by Fundamental Theorem of Calculus ②, $F(x) = \int_0^x e^{t^2} dt$ is differentiable at $x=0$

$$\text{And } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_0^x e^{t^2} dt}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\int_0^x e^{t^2} dt - \int_0^0 e^{t^2} dt}{x-0}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{F(x) - f(0)}{x-0} = \underbrace{F'(0)}_{=f(0)} = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_0^x e^{t^2} dt \right) \Big|_{x=0}$$

$= e^{x^2} \Big|_{x=0}$ by Fundamental Theorem of Calculus ②

$$= \underbrace{1}_{\sim}$$

$$(b) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_3^{3+h} e^{t^2} dt = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\int_3^{3+h} e^{t^2} dt - \int_3^3 e^{t^2} dt}{h-0} \cdot h \right)$$

$$= \left(\frac{d}{dx} \left(\int_3^x e^{t^2} dt \right) \right) \left(\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h \right) \text{ since } e^{t^2} \text{ is continuous at } 0.$$

$$= \left(e^{(3+h)^2} \Big|_{h=0} \right) \cdot \left(\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h \right) \text{ by Fundamental Theorem of Calculus ②}$$
$$= e^{9+0} = \underbrace{e^9}_{\sim}$$

(5) For all $x \geq 0$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$, let $f_n(x) = \frac{x^n}{1+x^n}$.

(a) Find $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$.

(b) Show that for all $0 < b < 1$, f_n converges uniformly on $[0, b]$.

(c) Does f_n converge uniformly on $[0, 1]$? Prove your claim.

$$(a) f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{1+x^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1+x^n}\right)$$

for $x \in [0, 1)$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1+x^n}\right) = 0$ since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = 0$

for $x=1$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1+x^n}\right) = \frac{1}{2}$ since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = 1$

for $x > 1$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1+x^n}\right) = 1$ since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1+x^n} = 0$

$$\text{So } f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } x \in [0, 1) \\ \frac{1}{2}, & \text{if } x=1 \\ 1, & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$$

(b) Take arbitrary b s.t. $b \in (0, 1)$

let $\varepsilon > 0$.

Note that for all $0 \leq x \leq b < 1$, $x^n < b^n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{1+b^n} = 1$, $\Rightarrow 1 > \frac{1}{1+b^n} > \frac{1}{1+x^n}$

we can fix $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $\left|\frac{1}{1+b^n} - 1\right| < \varepsilon$

So $\left|1 - \frac{1}{1+x^n} - 0\right| = 1 - \frac{1}{1+x^n} < 1 - \frac{1}{1+b^n} < \varepsilon$ for all $x \in [0, b]$

Since ε is arbitrary, this proves that

for all $0 < b < 1$, f_n converges uniformly on $[0, b]$ \square

(c) (f_n) does not uniformly converges to f on $[0,1]$

Take $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{4}$

let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be arbitrary

Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} |f_n(x) - f(x)| = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{\pi^n}{1 + \pi^n} = \frac{1}{2}$,

$\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. for all $1 > x > 1 - \delta$, $|f_n(x) - \frac{1}{2}| < \varepsilon$
 $\Rightarrow f_n(x) \in (\frac{1}{4}, \frac{3}{4})$

So take $x_0 \in (1 - \delta, 1)$, $|f_n(x) - f(x)| = f_n(x) - 0 > \frac{1}{4} = \varepsilon$

This shows that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\exists x \in [0,1]$ s.t.

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| > \varepsilon$$

So f_n does not converge uniformly on $[0,1]$

□

(6) Prove that if (f_n) is a sequence of uniformly continuous functions on the interval (a, b) such that $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly on (a, b) , then f is also uniformly continuous on (a, b) .

Proof Assume the hypothesis.

let $\varepsilon > 0$ be arbitrary.

hw 7(4)

if uni. ctn. $(f_n) \rightarrow f$ [unif]

then f is uni. ctn.

So $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t. $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ whenever $n \geq N$, for all $x \in (a, b)$

and $|f_{N+1}(x) - f_{N+1}(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ whenever $|x - y| < \delta$ for some $\delta > 0$

let $x, y \in (a, b)$ s.t. $|x - y| < \delta$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(y)| &\leq |f(x) - f_{N+1}(x)| + |f_{N+1}(x) - f_{N+1}(y)| + |f_{N+1}(y) - f(y)| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

This finishes the proof.

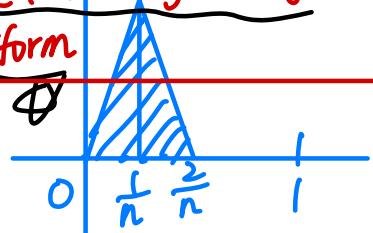
□

- (7) Give an example of a sequence (f_n) of continuous functions from $[0, 1]$ to \mathbb{R} that converges pointwise but *not* uniformly to a continuous limit function $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

ex Consider: hw 7 ⑤ $\lim f_n \rightarrow f$ 中 每个 f_n 和 f 都是连续的, 但 convergence by pointwise, 且 f 不是 uniform.

on $x \in [0, 1]$:

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} n^2x, & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{n} \\ 2n - n^2x, & \text{if } \frac{1}{n} < x < \frac{2}{n} \\ 0, & \text{if } \frac{2}{n} \leq x \end{cases}$$



So $(f_n) \rightarrow f(x) = 0, x \in [0, 1]$ pointwise

since $\forall x \in [0, 1], \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = 0$

But take $\epsilon = 1$

let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be arbitrary

Consider $x = \frac{1}{n} \Rightarrow f_n(x) = n \geq 1$

$$\Rightarrow |f_n(x) - f(x)| \geq 1 = \epsilon$$

So the convergence is not uniform, though f_n is continuous for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and f is also continuous.

- (8) Let (f_n) be a sequence in of C^1 functions on $[0, 1]$ such that (f'_n) converges uniformly. Prove that if $(f_n(a))$ converges for some $a \in [0, 1]$, then $(f_n(x))$ converges for all $x \in [0, 1]$.

hw 7 ⑥ if $(f_n \in C^1)$ 的 (f'_n) uni. conv., 且 (f_n) 在 \mathbb{R} 上 conv.
 $\Rightarrow (f_n)$ uni. conv.

Pf Assume the hypothesis.

Let $\varepsilon > 0$.

Fix $N \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $|f_m'(x) - f_n'(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}$ for all $x \in [0,1]$

and $|f_n(a) - f_m(a)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ whenever $n, m \geq N$ (by the uniform

let $x \in [0,1]$ be arbitrary.

convergence of (f_n') on $[0,1]$
and convergence of (f_n))

let $m, n \geq N$ be arbitrary

$$\Rightarrow \int_a^x f'_n(t) dt = f_n(x) - f_n(a) \quad \text{by FTC.}$$

$$\int_a^x f'_m(t) dt = f_m(x) - f_m(a)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| &= \left| f_m(a) - f_n(a) + \int_a^x (f'_m(t) - f'_n(t)) dt \right| \\ &\leq |f_m(a) - f_n(a)| + \left| \int_a^x (f'_m(t) - f'_n(t)) dt \right| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)} |x-a| < \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

Therefore (f_n) is uniformly Cauchy, thus uniformly convergent
for all $x \in [0,1]$.

hw 7 ⑦ 在任何一个 closed interval 上的 ctn function f
都可以用一个 step function seq. (f_n) 表达. (B) \exists step $(f_n) \rightarrow f$ unifly.)

(9) A function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a *step function* if there is a partition $\mathcal{P} = (x_k)_{k=0}^n$ of $[a, b]$ such that f is constant on (x_{k-1}, x_k) for each k . Prove that for every continuous function $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, there is a sequence $f_n : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ of step functions such that $f_n(x) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$ and $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly on $[a, b]$.

Let continuous $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary.

Construction For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$:

let $\mathcal{P}_n = \{x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ where $x_k = a + k \frac{b-a}{n}$
 and define $f_n(x) = \inf_{y \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]} f(y)$, if $x \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$
 for each $0 \leq k \leq n$

Now we prove that $(f_n) \rightarrow f$ uniformly.

Proof let $\varepsilon > 0$

Since f is continuous on $[a, b]$, it is uniformly continuous
 $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$ whenever $|x - y| < \delta$

Fix this δ and fix $N \in \mathbb{N}$ st. $\frac{b-a}{N} < \delta$

$$\Rightarrow \forall n \geq N, \frac{b-a}{n} < \delta$$

So for all $n \geq N$ and $x \in [a, b]$,

$x \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$ for some $0 \leq k \leq n$

So $f_n(x) = \inf_{y \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]} f(y) = \min_{y \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]} f(y)$ by EUT,

So $|f_n(x) - f(x)| = |f(x_0) - f(x)|$ for some $x_0 \in [x_{k-1}, x_k]$
 $< \varepsilon$ since $|x - x_0| < \frac{b-a}{n} < \delta$

Since ε is arbitrary, this finishes the proof. □

- (10) Suppose $\sum c_n x^n$ is a power series such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{c_{n+1}}{c_n} \right| = L > 0$. Prove that $\sum c_n x^n$ converges for all $x \in (-R, R)$ and diverges for all $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus [-R, R]$, where $R = \frac{1}{L}$.

Proof ① Let $-R < x < R = \frac{1}{L}$ and fix x

$$\Rightarrow |x| \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{c_{n+1}}{c_n} \right| < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{c_{n+1}}{c_n} \cdot x \right| < 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{c_{n+1} x^{n+1}}{c_n x^n} \right| < 1$$

So by ratio test of numerical sequence,

$\sum c_n x^n$ converges (absolutely) for x

Since $x \in (-R, R)$ is arbitrary $\Rightarrow \underbrace{\sum c_n x^n \text{ converges for}}_{\text{all } x \in (-R, R)}$

② Likewise, for $|x| > R$,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{c_{n+1} x^{n+1}}{c_n x^n} \right| > 1,$$

so by ratio test of numerical sequence, $\sum c_n x^n$ diverges for all $x \in [R, \infty)$.

□

- (11) For each of the following power series, find the radius of convergence and determine the exact interval of convergence.

$$(a) \sum n^2 x^n \quad (b) \sum \left(\frac{2^n}{n^2} \right) x^n \quad (c) \sum \left(\frac{2^n}{n!} \right) x^n$$

$$(a) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^2}{n^2} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| 1 + \frac{2}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} \right| = 1$$

So by problem (d), the radius of convergence is 1

For $x=1$, $\sum n^2 1^n = \sum n^2 = \infty$, diverge

$$\text{For } x = 1, \sum n^2 x^n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n n^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (2k)^2 - (2k-1)^2 \\ = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 4k-1 = \infty, \text{ diverges.}$$

So the interval of convergence is $(-1, 1)$

$$(b) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{2^{n+1}/(n+1)!}{2^n/n!} \right|^2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{2(n^2 + 2n + 1)}{n^2} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| 2 + \frac{2}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} \right| = 2$$

So the radius of convergence is $\frac{1}{2}$

$$\text{For } x = \frac{1}{2}, \sum \frac{2^n}{n^2} x^n = \sum \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}, \text{ converges.}$$

$$\text{For } x = -\frac{1}{2}, \sum \frac{2^n}{n^2} x^n = \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2}, \text{ converges by}$$

the alternating series test.

So the interval of convergence is $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$

$$(c) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{2^{n+1}/(n+1)!}{2^n/n!} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{2}{n+1} \right| = 0$$

So the radius of convergence is ∞

the interval of convergence is \mathbb{R} .

- (12) Define the function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $f(x) = e^{-1/x^2}$ for $x \neq 0$, and $f(0) = 0$.
- Prove by induction that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \neq 0$, $f^{(n)}(x)$ exists and has the form $f^{(n)}(x) = p(\frac{1}{x})f(x)$ where p is a polynomial.
 - Show that for every polynomial p , $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} p(\frac{1}{x})f(x) = 0$. Remark: you may freely use without proof the fact from calculus that $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{p(x)}{e^x} = 0$ for every polynomial p .
 - Show by induction that $f^{(n)}(0)$ exists and is equal to 0 for all integers $n \geq 0$.
 - Give an example of a C^∞ function g whose Taylor series expansion about 0 converges to g for all $x \leq 0$ and converges but not to g for all $x > 0$. (No justification needed.)

a) Proof We prove this by induction on $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Base Case $n=1$, $f'(x) = (e^{-1/x^2})(-x^{-2})'$
 $= (e^{-1/x^2})(2x^{-3})$
 $= 2(\frac{1}{x})^3 f(x)$, the statement holds.

Inductive Step

Assume the statement holds true for n

So $f^{(n)}(x) = p(\frac{1}{x})f(x)$ for some polynomial of $\frac{1}{x}$:

$p(\frac{1}{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^q C_k (\frac{1}{x})^k$ where $q \in \mathbb{N}$ and C_1, C_k are constants.

Then for $n+1$:

$$\begin{aligned} f^{(n+1)}(x) &= (f^{(n)}(x))' = f'(x) p(\frac{1}{x}) + f(x) p'(\frac{1}{x}) \\ &= f(x) p(\frac{1}{x}) + f(x) \sum_{k=1}^q -q C_k (\frac{1}{x})^{k+1} \\ &= f(x) \left(p(\frac{1}{x}) + \sum_{k=1}^q -q C_k (\frac{1}{x})^{k+1} \right) \end{aligned}$$

is the product of $f(x)$ and a polynomial of $\frac{1}{x}$.

This finishes the proof by induction. \square

(b) Let p be an arbitrary polynomial of $\frac{1}{x}$

So $p(\frac{1}{x}) = \sum_{k=1}^q C_k (\frac{1}{x})^k$ where $q \in \mathbb{N}$ and C_1, C_k are constants.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} p(\frac{1}{x}) f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sum_{k=1}^q C_k (\frac{1}{x})^k}{e^{-x^2}} = \sum_{k=1}^q \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} C_k \frac{e^{-x^2}}{x^k}$$

For each k , $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} C_k \frac{e^{-x^2}}{x^k} = C_k \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(-2x)e^{-x^2}}{x^{k-1}}$

$$= C_k \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(-2x)^k e^{-x^2}}{1} \text{ by L'Hopital's Rule}$$

$$= C_k \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (-2x)^k \right) \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{e} \right)^{x^2} \right) \text{ (apply k times)}$$

$$= 0 \cdot 1 = 0$$

$$\text{So } \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} p(\frac{1}{x}) f(x)}_{q} = \sum_{k=1}^q 0 = 0$$

Since p is arbitrary, it proves that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} p(\frac{1}{x}) f(x) = 0$
for every polynomial p .

(c) We prove that $f^{(n)}(0)$ exists and $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ by induction on n .

Base case $n=1$: $f'(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) \cdot \frac{1}{x} = 0$ by (b),
so the statement holds

Inductive step: Assume the statement holds for n

Then for $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$f^{(n)}(0) = \frac{f^{(n)}(x) - f^{(n)}(0)}{x - 0} = \frac{1}{x} \cdot f^{(n)}(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{1}{x} \cdot p(x) \right) f(x)$$

for some polynomial $p, = 0$ by (b)

This finishes the proof that $f^{(n)}(0)$ exists and $= 0$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$

(d) $g(x) = \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}}, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$

- (13) (a) For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define the function $f_n : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} -x - 2^{-n-1} & \text{if } -1 < x < 2^{-n} \\ 2^{n-1}x^2 & \text{if } -2^{-n} \leq x \leq 2^{-n} \\ x - 2^{-n-1} & \text{if } 2^{-n} < x < 1 \end{cases}$$

Show that each f_n is differentiable on $(-1, 1)$, and that (f_n) converges uniformly to the absolute value function on $(-1, 1)$.

- (b) For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define the function $g_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $g_n(x) = \frac{\sin(nx)}{n}$. Show that (g_n) converges uniformly on \mathbb{R} to a differentiable function whose derivative is not $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g'_n$

(14) Let $\mathbb{Q} = \{q_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$, and for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$ let $f_n : \mathbb{R} \setminus \{q_n\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function defined by

$$f_n(x) = 4^{-n} \sin\left(\frac{1}{x - q_n}\right).$$

For each $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, let $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$.

- (a) Prove that for all $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$ converges. Thus $\text{dom}(f) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$.
- (b) Prove that f is continuous.
- (c) Prove that for every $q \in \mathbb{Q}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow q} f(x)$ does not exist. (cf: HW 6, #17)