**1(a)** Proof. We claim that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

First note that if x = 0, then  $f_n = n \cdot 0/(1 + n^2 \cdot 0) = 0$  for all n. Therefore,  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(0) = 0$ . Now if  $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ . Then  $nx \neq 0$  for any n, so

$$|f_n(x)| = \left| \frac{nx}{1 + n^2 x^2} \right| = \frac{|nx|}{1 + |nx|^2} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{|nx|} + |nx|}.$$

Note that  $1/|nx| + |nx| \to \infty$  as  $n \to \infty$ . Therefore,  $|f_n(x)| \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . This proves that  $\{f_n(x)\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  converge pointwisely and the limit is 0.

**1(b)** Proof. Before we prove the whole statement, we prove a few useful results that would be helpful.

We first claim that  $\varphi(x) = |f_N(x)|$  is decreasing on  $[1/N, +\infty)$  and increasing on  $(-\infty, -1/N]$ , for N fixed. Pick any  $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$  such that N , which also means that <math>1/N > 1/p > 1/q. We want to show that  $\varphi(1/p) < \varphi(1/q)$ . Note that

$$\varphi(1/p) = \frac{N/p}{1 + (N/p)^2} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{N/p} + N/p} = \frac{1}{\frac{p^2 + N^2}{Np}} = \frac{1}{\frac{qp^2 + qN^2}{Npq}},$$
$$\varphi(1/q) = \frac{N/q}{1 + (N/q)^2} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{N/q} + N/q} = \frac{1}{\frac{q^2 + N^2}{Nq}} = \frac{1}{\frac{pq^2 + pN^2}{Nqp}}.$$

Also note that

$$\frac{qp^2 + qN^2}{Npq} - \frac{pq^2 + pN^2}{Npq} = \frac{pq(p-q) + N^2(q-p)}{Npq} = \frac{(q-p)(pq - N^2)}{Npq} > 0,$$

as p < q, and  $N^2 < pq$  from N < p, q. Therefore,

$$\frac{qp^2+qN^2}{Npq}>\frac{pq^2+pN^2}{Npq}\implies \frac{1}{\frac{qp^2+qN^2}{Npq}}<\frac{1}{\frac{pq^2+pN^2}{Npq}}\implies \varphi(1/p)<\varphi(1/q).$$

 $\varphi$  is decreasing on  $[1/N, +\infty)$  as desired, and by a similar argument,  $\varphi$  is increasing on  $(-\infty, -1/N]$ .

Also it's clear that  $\varphi(x)$  is an even function.

\* \* \*

We now first prove the backward direction. Suppose that  $0 \notin A'$ . Then there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $(-\delta, +\delta) \cap A = \emptyset$ . Thus, we can show that  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges uniformly to 0 on A by showing that  $\{f_n(x)\}$  uniformly converges to 0 on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus (-\delta, +\delta)$ , since  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R} \setminus (-\delta, +\delta)$ . Let  $I = \mathbb{R} \setminus (-\delta, +\delta)$ .

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We want a natural N such that  $n \geq N$  implies  $|f_n(x)| < \varepsilon$  for all  $x \in I$ . Consider the points  $x = \pm \delta$ . First there must be a natural  $N_1$  such that  $\delta \in [1/N_1, +\infty)$ . Therefore, by previous results  $\varphi(x) = |f_{N_1}(x)|$  is decreasing on  $[1/N_1, +\infty)$  and increasing on

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 $(-\infty, -1/N_1]$ . Since  $-\delta < -1/N_1 < 1/N_1 < \delta$ ,  $\varphi(x)$  is decreasing on  $[\delta, +\infty)$  and increasing on  $(-\infty, -\delta]$  as well, i.e.,  $\sup_{x \in I} \varphi(x) = \varphi(\delta) = \varphi(-\delta)$ . And since  $\{f_n(\delta)\} \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ , there must be another  $N_2$  such that  $n \ge N_2$  implies that  $|f_n(\delta)| = |f_n(-\delta)| < \varepsilon$ . We thus take  $N > \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ . Note that  $N > N_1 \implies 1/N < 1/N_1 < \delta$ . Hence for any  $n \ge N$ ,  $\sup_{x \in I} f_n(x) = |f_n(\delta)| = |f_n(-\delta)| < \varepsilon$ . This proves that the function converges uniformly to zero.

\* \* \*

We now proceed to the forward direction. We do proof by contraposition. Suppose that  $0 \in A'$ . Then there exists a sequence  $(a_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}} \subseteq A$  converges to 0 where  $|a_{i+1}| \leq |a_i|$  for all i. To see this, note that there exists  $x_1 \in (-1,1) \cap A$ ; set  $a_1 = x_1$ , and for any  $i \geq 2$ , there exists  $x_i \in (\max\{-1/i, -|x_{i-1}|\}, \min\{1/i, |x_{i-1}|\})$ ; set  $a_i = x_i$ .

We want to show that  $\{f_n(x)\}\$  does not converge uniformly to 0, i.e., there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$ , and there exist infinitely many N's such that for each N,  $|f_N(x)| > \varepsilon$  for some x.

We pick  $\varepsilon = 1/4$ . Now consider the  $(a_i)_{i \in \mathbb{N}}$  generated before. Note that for each  $a_i$ , there exists a natural N such that  $|a_i| \in [1/N, 1/(N-1)]$ . And note that  $\varphi(x) = |f_N(x)|$  is decreasing on  $[1/N, +\infty)$  and increasing on  $(-\infty, -1/N]$ , and note that fact that  $\varphi(x)$  is even. Thus,

$$f_N\left(\frac{1}{N-1}\right) \le f_N(a_i) \le f_N\left(\frac{1}{N}\right).$$

Also note that for any natural  $N \geq 2$ ,

$$f_N\left(\frac{1}{N-1}\right) = \frac{\frac{N}{N-1}}{1+\left(\frac{N}{N-1}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{\frac{N-1}{N}+\frac{N}{N-1}} = \frac{N(N-1)}{(N-1)^2+N^2} = \frac{N^2-N}{2(N^2-N)+1} = \frac{1}{2+\frac{1}{N^2-N}} > \varepsilon.$$

Putting everything together, we know that since  $(a_i)$  is such a sequence that its absolute value is decreasing and it converges to zero, then it generates an infinite sequence of  $(N_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$  where each  $|a_i|\in[1/N_i,1/(N_i-1)]$ , and there are infinitely many distinct elements in the sequence  $(N_i)_{i\in\mathbb{N}}$ . And for each  $N_i$ ,

$$f_{N_i}(a_i) \ge f_{N_i}\left(\frac{1}{N-1}\right) > \varepsilon.$$

This completes the proof that  $\{f_n(x)\}\$  does not converge uniformly on A.

**2(a)** Proof. First note that if x = 0 or x = 1, then for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and any  $x \in [0, 1]$ ,  $f_n(x) = 0$ . If however,  $x \in (0, 1)$ , then  $0 < 1 - x^4 < 1$ , i.e.,  $1 - x^4 = 1/(1 + p)$  for some p > 0. Therefore, by Rudin Theorem 3.20(d), for any fixed  $x \in [0, 1]$ 

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} n^c (1 - x^4)^n = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n^c}{(1+p)^n} = 0,$$

so,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} n^c x^3 (1 - x^4)^n = \lim_{n \to \infty} x^3 \cdot \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{n^c}{(1 + p)^n} = x^3 \cdot 0 = 0.$$

The limit function f(x) thus exists and f(x) = 0 for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

**2(b)** Proof. We claim that the convergence is not uniform for  $c \ge 3/4$  but it is uniform for c < 3/4.

For  $c \ge 3/4$ , let  $x_n = n^{-1/4}$ , then

$$f_n(x_n) = n^{c-\frac{3}{4}} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right)^n.$$

Note that  $(1-1/n)^n \to e^{-1}$  as  $n \to \infty$ . Therefore, when c = 3/4,  $f_n(x_n) \to e^{-1}$  as  $n \to \infty$ . And when c > 3/4,  $n^{c-3/4}$  diverges, so  $f_n(x_n)$  diverges as  $n \to \infty$ . In either case,  $f_n(x_n)$  is at least  $e^{-1}/2$  for infinitely many n's. This concludes that  $\{f_n(x)\}$  cannot be converging to zero uniformly in this case.

For c < 3/4. First note that  $1 + t \le e^t$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . We also set  $y = nx^4$ . Thus,

$$|f_n(x)| = \left| n^c x^3 (1 - x^4)^n \right| \le \left| n^c x^3 e^{-nx^4} \right| = \left| n^{c - \frac{3}{4}} (nx^4)^{\frac{3}{4}} e^{-nx^4} \right| = \left| n^{c - \frac{3}{4}} y^{\frac{3}{4}} e^{-y} \right|.$$

Note that  $y^{3/4}e^{-y} \to 0$  as exponential grows faster than polynomial. Therefore the function  $\varphi(y) = y^{3/4}e^{-y}$  is bounded. Also note that  $n^{c-3/4} \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$  since c - 3/4 < 0. Hence,  $\left| n^{c-3/4}y^{3/4}e^{-y} \right| \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . This means that  $\sup_{x \in [0,1]} |f_n(x)| \to 0$ , which shows that  $\{f_n(x)\}$  converges uniformly to zero in this case.

**2(c)** Proof. First note that

$$\int_0^1 f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = \int_0^1 0 \, \mathrm{d}x = 0.$$

We then use change of variable and let  $g(x) = 1 - x^4$ , so  $g'(x) = -4x^3$ ; note that the derivative is continuous. Thus,

$$\int_0^1 x^3 (1 - x^4)^n \, dx = \frac{-1}{4} \int_0^1 (1 - x^4)^n (-4x^3) \, dx = \frac{-1}{4} \int_0^1 (g(x))^n g'(x) \, dx$$

$$= \frac{-1}{4} \int_{g(0)}^{g(1)} u^n \, du = \frac{-1}{4} \int_1^0 u^n \, du$$

$$= \frac{-1}{4} \left[ \frac{u^{n+1}}{n+1} \right]_{u=1}^{u=0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{n+1}.$$

Therefore,

$$\int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = n^c \int_0^1 x^3 (1 - x^4)^n dx = \frac{n^c}{4(n+1)}.$$

And it's clear that the above integral converges to 0 iff c < 1.

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**3** Proof. Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Since g is continuous at 0, there exists  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $|g(x) - g(0)| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $|x| < \delta$ . And by (iii), there exists a natural N s.t.  $f_n(x) < \varepsilon$  for all  $n \ge N$  and for all  $x \in [-1, -\delta] \cup [+\delta, +1]$ . Also let  $M = \sup_{x \in [-1, 1]} g(x)$ . Therefore, for all  $n \ge N$ ,

$$\begin{split} &\left|\int_{-1}^{1} f_n(x)g(x) - g(0) \, \mathrm{d}x\right| \\ &= \left|\int_{-1}^{1} f_n(x)[g(x) - g(0)] \, \mathrm{d}x\right| \\ &\leq \left|\int_{-1}^{-\delta} f_n(x)[g(x) - g(0)] \, \mathrm{d}x\right| + \left|\int_{-\delta}^{+\delta} f_n(x)[g(x) - g(0)] \, \mathrm{d}x\right| + \left|\int_{+\delta}^{+1} f_n(x)[g(x) - g(0)] \, \mathrm{d}x\right| \\ &\leq \int_{-1}^{-\delta} f_n(x) \left|g(x) - g(0)\right| \, \mathrm{d}x + \int_{-\delta}^{+\delta} f_n(x) \left|g(x) - g(0)\right| \, \mathrm{d}x + \int_{+\delta}^{+1} f_n(x) \left|g(x) - g(0)\right| \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &\leq \int_{-1}^{-\delta} \varepsilon \left|g(x) - g(0)\right| \, \mathrm{d}x + \int_{-\delta}^{+\delta} f_n(x) \varepsilon \, \mathrm{d}x + \int_{+\delta}^{+1} \varepsilon \left|g(x) - g(0)\right| \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &\leq \varepsilon \int_{-1}^{-\delta} \left|g(x) - g(0)\right| \, \mathrm{d}x + \varepsilon \int_{-\delta}^{+\delta} f_n(x) \, \mathrm{d}x + \varepsilon \int_{+\delta}^{+1} \left|g(x) - g(0)\right| \, \mathrm{d}x \\ &\leq \varepsilon 2M(1 - \delta) + \varepsilon \int_{-1}^{1} f_n(x) + \varepsilon 2M(1 - \delta) & \text{(since } f_n(x) \geq 0) \\ &\leq \varepsilon 4M + \varepsilon \\ &\leq \varepsilon 4M + \varepsilon \end{split}$$

This concludes the proof.

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**4(a)** Proof. First note that for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $0 \le \varphi(x) \le 1$ . Also note that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$  is a geometric series hence converge and equals 1. Now fix  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Note that  $f_1(t)$  is a series of non-negative terms that's bounded above,

$$0 \le f_1(t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\varphi(3^{2n-2}t)}{2^n} \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 1.$$

So,  $f_1(t)$  converges, which means that  $f_1$  is well-defined. With a similar reasoning,  $f_2$  is well-defined as well. And  $0 \le f_i(t) \le 1$  for all t.

\* \* \*

$$4(c)$$
 Proof.