

# Fundamentals of Analysis II: Homework 9

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**Exercise 6.4.8.** Consider the function

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(x/k)}{k}.$$

Where is  $f$  defined? Continuous? Differentiable? Twice-differentiable?

*Solution.* We use the Weierstrass M-test to show that  $f$  is defined on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Notice that

$$\left| \frac{\sin(x/k)}{k} \right| \leq \frac{|x|}{k^2}.$$

Therefore, we get

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{|x|}{k^2} = |x| \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2},$$

converges by the  $p$ -series test. Therefore,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(x/k)}{k}.$$

converges uniformly on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

To determine continuity, we check uniform convergence. The Weierstrass M-test applies here. Since

$$\left| \frac{\sin(x/k)}{k} \right| \leq \frac{|x|}{k^2},$$

and  $\sum_k 1/k^2$  converges, the original series converges uniformly by the Weierstrass M-test. Uniform convergence of a series of continuous functions ensures continuity of  $f(x)$ . Thus,  $f(x)$  is continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

To determine differentiability, we differentiate each term of the series to get

$$f'(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos(x/k)}{k^2}.$$

To check whether this series converges uniformly, we use the bound

$$\left| \frac{\cos(x/k)}{k^2} \right| \leq \frac{1}{k^2}.$$

Again, the Weierstrass M-test applies, and since  $\sum_k 1/k^2$  converges, the series converges uniformly. Thus,  $f'(x)$  is continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

To determine twice-differentiability, we differentiate again to get

$$f''(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} -\frac{\sin(x/k)}{k^3}.$$

To check uniform convergence, we use the bound

$$\left| -\frac{\sin(x/k)}{k^3} \right| \leq \frac{|x|}{k^3}.$$

The Weierstrass M-test applies again, and since  $\sum_k 1/k^3$  converges, the series converges uniformly. Thus,  $f''(x)$  is continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$

**Exercise 6.4.9.** Let

$$h(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + n^2}.$$

- (i) Show that  $h$  is a continuous function defined on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .
- (ii) Is  $h$  differentiable? If so, is the derivative function  $f'$  continuous?

*Solution to (i).* For any fixed  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , we note that  $x^2 + n^2 \geq n^2$  for all  $n \geq 1$ , so

$$\frac{1}{x^2 + n^2} \leq \frac{1}{n^2}.$$

Since  $\sum_n 1/n^2$  is a convergent  $p$ -series, the given series converges absolutely for all  $x$ . By the Weierstrass M-test, the series converges uniformly on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since the series converges uniformly, it is continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

To prove continuity, we check uniform convergence. The Weierstrass M-test applies

$$\left| \frac{1}{x^2 + n^2} \right| \leq \frac{1}{n^2}.$$

Since  $\sum_n 1/n^2$  converges, the series converges uniformly on any bounded subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ , implying that  $h(x)$  is continuous everywhere. Thus,  $h(x)$  is continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$

*Solution to (ii).* To check differentiability, we differentiate each term of the series to get

$$h'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -\frac{2x}{(x^2 + n^2)^2}.$$

To check whether this series converges uniformly, we use the bound

$$\left| -\frac{2x}{(x^2 + n^2)^2} \right| \leq \frac{2|x|}{n^4}.$$

The Weierstrass M-test applies again, and since  $\sum_n 1/n^4$  converges, the series converges uniformly. Thus,  $h(x)$  is differentiable on all of  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $h'(x)$  is continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$

**Exercise 6.5.1.** Consider the function  $g$  defined by the power series

$$g(x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots$$

- (i) Is  $g$  defined on  $(-1, 1)$ ? Is it continuous on this set? Is  $g$  defined on  $(-1, 1]$ ? Is it continuous on this set? What happens on  $[-1, 1]$ ? Can the power series for  $g(x)$  possibly converge for any other points  $|x| > 1$ ? Explain.
- (ii) For what values of  $x$  is  $g'(x)$  defined? Find a formula for  $g'$ .

*Solution to (i).* We're given the following Taylor Series

$$g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{x^n}{n} = \ln(1+x), \text{ for } |x| < 1.$$

Convergence on  $(-1, 1)$ : A power series  $\sum a_n x^n$  converges absolutely inside its radius of convergence  $R$ , which is given by

$$R = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right|.$$

For this series, the ratio test gives

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

As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , this approaches  $\frac{1}{|x|}$ . Therefore, the series converges absolutely for  $|x| < 1$ . Thus,  $g(x)$  is defined on  $(-1, 1)$ .

At  $x = 1$ : The series becomes the alternating harmonic series

$$g(1) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n} = \ln(2),$$

which is conditionally convergent. Thus,  $g(x)$  is defined at  $x = 1$ .

At  $x = -1$ : The series becomes

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

This series diverges, so  $g(x)$  is not defined at  $x = -1$ .

Convergence for  $|x| > 1$ : For  $|x| > 1$ , the terms  $x^n/n$  grow too large, and the series diverges by the  $n$ th-term test. Thus,  $g(x)$  is not defined for  $|x| > 1$ .

Therefore,  $g(x)$  is defined on  $(-1, 1]$  and continuous on  $(-1, 1)$ . It is not defined at  $x = -1$  and diverges at  $x = 1$ . The power series for  $g(x)$  converges for  $|x| < 1$  and diverges for  $|x| > 1$ .  $\square$

*Solution to (ii).* To find  $g'(x)$ , we differentiate the power series term by term:

$$g'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{nx^{n-1}}{n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^n.$$

This is a geometric series. For  $|x| < 1$ , we recognize this as the Taylor series for

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}.$$

Thus,  $g'(x)$  is defined on  $(-1, 1)$ .

At  $x = 1$ : The series becomes the alternating series

$$g'(1) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n,$$

which does not converge. Thus,  $g'(1)$  is not defined.

At  $x = -1$ : As  $x \rightarrow -1^+$ , the series  $\sum(-1)^n x^n$  diverges. Thus,  $g'(-1)$  is not defined.

Therefore,  $g'(x)$  is defined on  $(-1, 1)$ , not defined at  $x = \pm 1$ , and the formula for  $g'(x)$  is given by

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}, \text{ for } |x| < 1. \quad \square$$

**Exercise 6.5.2.** Find suitable coefficients  $(a_n)$  so that the resulting power series  $\sum_n a_n x^n$  has the given properties, or explain why such a request is impossible.

- (i) Converges for every value of  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- (ii) Diverges for every value of  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- (iii) Converges absolutely for all  $x \in [-1, 1]$  and diverges off of this set.

*Solution to (i).* Let

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n!}.$$

This results in the power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = e^x,$$

which converges for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $\square$

*Solution to (ii).* Impossible, as  $x = 0$  will always converge.  $\square$

*Solution to (iii).* Let

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n^2},$$

with the convention that  $a_0 = 1$ . This gives the power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n^2}.$$

We first analyze the radius of convergence  $R$ . By the root test, we compute

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{n^2} \right|^{1/n} = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{n^2} \right)^{1/n} = 1,$$

since  $\left( \frac{1}{n^2} \right)^{1/n} \rightarrow 1$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus, the radius of convergence is  $R = 1$ .

Therefore, the series converges absolutely for  $|x| < 1$  and diverges for  $|x| > 1$ .

Next, we analyze what happens when  $|x| = 1$ . In this case, the series becomes

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2},$$

which is a convergent  $p$ -series with  $p = 2 > 1$ . Hence, the series converges absolutely when  $|x| = 1$ .

Therefore, the series converges absolutely for all  $x \in [-1, 1]$  and diverges off of this set.  $\square$

### Exercise 6.5.8(i).

- (i) Show that power series representations are unique. If we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n,$$

for all  $x$  in an interval  $(-R, R)$ , prove that  $a_n = b_n$  for all  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ .

*Solution to (i).* Define the sequence  $c_n = a_n - b_n$ , and consider the power series formed by their difference

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n - b_n) x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n.$$

Since the original series are equal for all  $x \in (-R, R)$ , we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = 0,$$

for all  $x \in (-R, R)$ .

Thus, the function defined by this power series is identically zero on  $(-R, R)$ .

Recall that a power series defines an analytic function on its interval of convergence. Analytic functions are uniquely determined by their power series expansion. Moreover, if a power series converges to zero on an interval  $(-R, R)$ , all its coefficients must vanish.

Thus, since

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n = 0,$$

for all  $x \in (-R, R)$ , it follows that

$$c_n = 0 \quad \text{for all } n \geq 0.$$

Since  $c_n = a_n - b_n = 0$ , we conclude that  $a_n = b_n$  for all  $n \geq 0$ .  $\square$

**Exercise 6.5.10.** Let  $g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$  converge on  $(-R, R)$ , and assume  $(x_n) \rightarrow 0$  with  $x_n \neq 0$ . If  $g(x_n) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , show that  $g(x)$  must be identically zero on all of  $(-R, R)$ .

*Solution.* Recall that a power series defines an analytic function. Since  $g(x)$  is given by a power series converging on  $(-R, R)$ , it defines an analytic function on that interval. Analytic functions are infinitely differentiable and determined completely by their Taylor series at any point in their domain.

A key fact about analytic functions (also called the identity theorem) says: If an analytic function is zero on a set that has a limit point inside its domain, then the function is identically zero on its domain. In this case, we know the following

- (i)  $g(x)$  is analytic on  $(-R, R)$ ,
- (ii)  $\{x_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is a set of points in  $(-R, R)$ ,
- (iii)  $x_n \neq 0$ ,  $x_n \rightarrow 0$ , so 0 is a limit point of this set,
- (iv)  $g(x_n) = 0$  for all  $n$ .

Thus, by the identity theorem,  $g(x) \equiv 0$  on  $(-R, R)$ .

Hence,  $g(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in (-R, R)$ . Since  $g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ , it follows that all coefficients must vanish, giving us  $b_n = 0$ , for all  $n \geq 0$ .  $\square$