

1. To say that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  means

$$(\forall \epsilon > 0)(\exists N \in \mathbb{Z}^+)(\forall n \geq N) \quad |a_n - L| < \epsilon .$$

Suppose this holds and take any  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then there exists  $N \in \mathbb{Z}^+$  such that  $|a_n - L| < \epsilon$  for all  $n \geq N$ . But if  $n \geq N$  then certainly  $n + k \geq N$  so that

$$|b_n - L| = |a_{n+k} - L| < \epsilon .$$

This verifies that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$  also.

2. Taylor's Theorem tells us that if  $f$  is infinitely differentiable and  $n \geq 0$ , then

$$f(x) = T_n(x) + R_n(x)$$

where  $T_n(x)$  is the Taylor polynomial of degree  $n$  of  $f$  about  $x = a$  and

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x-a)^{n+1}$$

represents the remainder term for some  $c$  between  $a$  and  $x$ . If  $P(x)$  denotes the Taylor series expansion of  $f$  about  $x = a$  then, when convergence takes place,

$$P(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n(x) .$$

3. The definite integral  $\int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$  is technically improper only because the integrand is undefined at  $x = 0$  (not because of any unbounded behaviour). If we define a function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by the rule

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \\ \frac{\sin x}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

then  $f$  is continuous and  $\int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = \int_0^1 f(x) dx$  becomes proper.

4. The Taylor polynomial of degree 6 for  $f$  about  $x = 0$  is  $T_6(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!}$  (technically a polynomial of degree 5) and the remainder term is

$$R_6(x) = \frac{f^{(7)}(c)}{7!} x^7 = \frac{-\cos c}{7!} x^7$$

for some  $c$  between 0 and  $x$ . But  $|\cos c| \leq 1$  so that  $|R_6(x)| \leq \frac{|x^7|}{7!}$ . Hence, for  $0 < x \leq 1$ ,

$$x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^7}{7!} \leq \sin x \leq x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \frac{x^7}{7!} ,$$

so that

$$1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \frac{x^6}{7!} \leq \frac{\sin x}{x} \leq 1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} + \frac{x^6}{7!} .$$

5. The previous inequality also holds for  $x = 0$  so that, integrating over the interval  $[0, 1]$  gives

$$1 - \frac{1}{3(3!)} + \frac{1}{5(5!)} - \frac{1}{7(7!)} \leq \int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x} dx \leq 1 - \frac{1}{3(3!)} + \frac{1}{5(5!)} + \frac{1}{7(7!)} ,$$

which simplifies to the following (quoting at least 5 decimal places):

$$0.94608 \dots \leq \int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x} dx \leq 0.94613 \dots$$

Hence  $\int_0^1 \frac{\sin x}{x} dx = 0.946$  to three decimal places.

6. If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = L < \infty$  then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{k=0}^n a_k - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k \right) = \left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \right) - \left( \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} a_k \right) = L - L = 0 .$$

The converse is false: for example, the harmonic series diverges but the terms tend to zero.

7. (i) We have that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^{n+1} n!}{(n+1)! 2^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{n+1} = 0 < 1$ , so the series converges by the ratio test.

- (ii) We have that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^{n+1} n^3}{(n+1)^3 2^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{(1 + \frac{1}{n})^3} = 2 > 1$ , so the series diverges by the ratio test.

- (iii) We have that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3(n+1)+1}{2^{n+1}} \frac{2^n}{3n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3 + \frac{4}{n}}{2(3 + \frac{1}{n})} = \frac{1}{2} < 1$ , so the series converges by the ratio test.

8. We have

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) = \frac{1}{x} &= \frac{1}{1 - (1-x)} = 1 + (1-x) + (1-x)^2 + (1-x)^3 + \dots \\ &= 1 - (x-1) + (x-1)^2 - (x-1)^3 + \dots , \end{aligned}$$

which must be the Taylor series about  $x = 1$ , by uniqueness of power series expansions.

9. Observe first that  $\frac{1}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{1-(-x^2)} = 1 - x^2 + x^4 - x^6 + \dots$  so, antidifferentiating,

$$\tan^{-1} x = C + x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots$$

for some constant  $C$ . But  $\tan^{-1}(0) = 0$ , so  $C = 0$ , giving finally the Maclaurin series

$$\tan^{-1} x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^7}{7} + \dots .$$

10. (i) Expanding and collecting like powers of  $x$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-x^2} \sinh x &= \left(1 - x^2 + \frac{x^4}{2!} - \frac{x^6}{3!} + \cdots\right) \left(x + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \cdots\right) \\ &= x - x^3 + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \frac{x^5}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{2!} + \cdots \\ &= x - \frac{5}{6}x^3 + \frac{41}{120}x^5 + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

- (ii) Observe first that

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \cdots ,$$

so, after antidifferentiating,

$$\ln(1-x) = -x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} - \cdots ,$$

yielding

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-x} \ln(1-x) &= \left(1 - x + \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \cdots\right) \left(-x - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} - \cdots\right) \\ &= -x + x^2 - \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{2} + \frac{x^3}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} + \cdots \\ &= -x + \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

11. The following calculation is justified by the addition limit law, which holds for complex numbers. For any real number  $\theta$  we have, using the usual Maclaurin series for real sin and cos,

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i\theta} &= 1 + i\theta + \frac{i^2\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{i^3\theta^3}{3!} + \cdots + \frac{i^n\theta^n}{n!} + \cdots \\ &= 1 + i\theta - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} - i\frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} + i\frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \frac{\theta^6}{6!} - i\frac{\theta^7}{7!} + \cdots \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{\theta^2}{2!} + \frac{\theta^4}{4!} - \frac{\theta^6}{6!} + \cdots\right) + i\left(\theta - \frac{\theta^3}{3!} + \frac{\theta^5}{5!} - \frac{\theta^7}{7!} + \cdots\right) \\ &= \cos \theta + i \sin \theta . \end{aligned}$$

12. The integral  $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{e^t - 1}{t} dt$  is technically improper because the integrand is not defined at  $t = 0$ . However, by L'Hopital's Rule,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^t - 1}{t} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^t}{1} = 1$ , so that the function

$$g(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t = 0 \\ \frac{e^t - 1}{t} & \text{if } t \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

is continuous and  $f(x) = \int_0^x \frac{e^t - 1}{t} dt = \int_0^x g(t) dt$  becomes proper. Using the series expansion

$$e^t = 1 + t + \frac{t^2}{2!} + \frac{t^3}{3!} + \frac{t^4}{4!} + \cdots$$

we get

$$\frac{e^t - 1}{t} = 1 + \frac{t}{2!} + \frac{t^2}{3!} + \frac{t^3}{4!} + \dots,$$

noting that the right-hand side also represents the entire rule for  $g$ . Since  $f$  is an antiderivative of  $g$  it suffices to antidifferentiate this series, replacing  $t$  with  $x$  to get

$$f(x) = x + \frac{x^2}{2(2!)} + \frac{x^3}{3(3!)} + \frac{x^4}{4(4!)} + \dots,$$

noting that the constant term must be  $f(0) = 0$ .

- 13.** It is easy to see that  $f^{(n)}(x) = (-1)^{n-1}(n-1)!(1+x)^{-n}$  so that  $f^{(n)}(0) = (-1)^{n-1}(n-1)!$ . It follows that the Taylor polynomial of degree  $n$  for  $f$  about  $x = 0$  is

$$T_n(x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \frac{x^5}{5} - \dots + (-1)^n \frac{x^n}{n}.$$

By Taylor's Theorem, the remainder term has the form

$$R_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} = \frac{(-1)^n n! (1+c)^{-n-1}}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} = \frac{(-1)^n}{(n+1)(1+c)^{n+1}} x^{n+1}$$

for some  $c$  between 0 and  $x$ . In particular (taking  $x = 1$ ),

$$|R_n(1)| = \frac{1}{(n+1)(1+c)^{n+1}} \leq \frac{1}{n+1} \rightarrow 0$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , so that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} R_n(1) = 0$ . Hence

$$\ln 2 = f(1) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n(1) = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots,$$

the alternating harmonic series.

- 14.** For each positive integer  $n$ , put

$$A_n = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1}{n},$$

$$S_n = A_{2n},$$

$$T_n = A_{2n+1} = S_n + \frac{1}{2n+1}.$$

Then

$$S_n = \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4}\right) + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{2n-1} - \frac{1}{2n}\right),$$

so the  $S_n$  form a monotonically increasing sequence, since  $\frac{1}{2n-1} - \frac{1}{2n} > 0$  for each  $n$ . Further, this sequence is bounded above by 1 since

$$S_n = 1 - \left(\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{3}\right) - \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{5}\right) - \dots - \left(\frac{1}{2n-2} - \frac{1}{2n-1}\right) - \frac{1}{2n}.$$

By the Monotone Convergence Theorem,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = L$  for some  $L$ . Hence also

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} T_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n + \frac{1}{2n+1} = L + 0 = L.$$

Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then there exist  $N_1, N_2$  such that

$$|S_n - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } n \geq N_1, \quad \text{and} \quad |T_n - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } n \geq N_2.$$

Put  $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ , so

$$|S_n - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{and} \quad |T_n - L| < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } n \geq N.$$

Let  $m \geq 2N$ . If  $m$  is even then  $m/2 \geq N$  and

$$|A_m - L| = |S_{m/2} - L| < \epsilon.$$

If  $m$  is odd then  $\frac{m-1}{2} \geq N$  and

$$|A_m - L| = |T_{\frac{m-1}{2}} - L| < \epsilon.$$

Thus  $|A_m - L| < \epsilon$  for all  $m \geq N$ , which shows  $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} A_m = L$ . Thus the alternating harmonic series converges.

15. (i) Observe that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{3^n - 2}}{\frac{1}{3^n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3^n}{3^n - 2} = 1,$$

so  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n - 2}$  converges by limit comparison with the geometric series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3^n}$ .

(ii) Observe that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{3n-2}}{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{3n-2} = \frac{1}{3},$$

so  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{3n-2}$  diverges by limit comparison with the harmonic series.

(iii) Observe that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin \frac{1}{n}}{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1,$$

so  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin \frac{1}{n}$  diverges by limit comparison with the harmonic series.

16. Suppose  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$  are series with positive terms and  $0 < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = L < \infty$ .

Suppose  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$  converges, say  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n = K < \infty$ . Then there exist positive integers  $N_1, N_2$  such that

$$(\forall n \geq N_1) \quad \left| \frac{a_n}{b_n} - L \right| < L, \quad \text{so} \quad a_n < 2Lb_n$$

and

$$(\forall n \geq N_2) \quad \left| \sum_{k=0}^n b_k - K \right| < K, \quad \text{so} \quad \sum_{k=0}^n b_k < 2K.$$

Put  $N = \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ . If  $n > N$  then

$$\begin{aligned}
\sum_{k=0}^n a_k &= \sum_{k=0}^N a_k + \sum_{k=N+1}^n a_k \\
&< \sum_{k=0}^N a_k + \sum_{k=N+1}^n 2Lb_k \\
&\leq \sum_{k=0}^N a_k + 2L \sum_{k=0}^n b_k \\
&< \sum_{k=0}^N a_k + 4LK .
\end{aligned}$$

By the Monotone Convergence Theorem,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n a_k$  exists, that is,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  converges.

Since  $0 < \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b_n}{a_n} = \frac{1}{L} < \infty$ , the same argument shows that if  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  converges then

so does  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$ .

This proves both directions of the limit comparison test.

- 17.** Define the following sequence recursively:  $a_0 = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $a_n = \sqrt{2 + a_{n-1}}$  for  $n \geq 1$ . We claim that  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots$  is increasing and bounded above by 2. To see this we prove

$$a_{n-1} < a_n < 2 \quad \text{for each } n \geq 1.$$

Clearly,  $a_0 = \sqrt{2} < \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2}} = a_1 < 2$ , which starts an induction. If  $i \geq 1$  and  $a_{i-1} < a_i < 2$  then  $2 + a_{i-1} < 2 + a_i < 4$ , so

$$a_i = \sqrt{2 + a_{i-1}} < a_{i+1} = \sqrt{2 + a_i} < \sqrt{4} = 2,$$

and the result follows by induction. Hence  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  exists by the Monotone Convergence Theorem. Thus

$$L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{2 + a_{n-1}} = \sqrt{2 + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_{n-1}} = \sqrt{2 + L},$$

so  $L^2 = 2 + L$ , so  $L^2 - L - 2 = (L - 2)(L + 1) = 0$ , so  $L = 2$  or  $L = -1$ . But  $L > 0$ , so  $L = 2$ , that is,

$$2 = \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \sqrt{2 + \dots}}}}.$$

Now define the following sequence recursively:  $b_0 = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $b_n = \sqrt{2 \times b_{n-1}}$  for  $n \geq 1$ . We claim that  $b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots$  is increasing and bounded above by 2. To see this we prove

$$b_{n-1} < b_n < 2 \quad \text{for each } n \geq 1.$$

Clearly,  $b_0 = \sqrt{2} < \sqrt{2 \times \sqrt{2}} = b_1 < 2$ , which starts an induction. If  $i \geq 1$  and  $b_{i-1} < b_i < 2$  then  $2 \times b_{i-1} < 2 \times b_i < 4$ , so

$$b_i = \sqrt{2 \times b_{i-1}} < b_{i+1} = \sqrt{2 \times b_i} < \sqrt{4} = 2,$$

and the result follows by induction. Hence  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = K$  exists by the Monotone Convergence Theorem. Thus

$$K = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{2 \times b_{n-1}} = \sqrt{2 \times \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_{n-1}} = \sqrt{2 \times K},$$

so  $K^2 = 2K$ , so  $K^2 - 2K = (K - 2)K = 0$ , so  $K = 2$  or  $K = 0$ . But  $K > 0$ , so  $K = 2$ , that is,

$$2 = \sqrt{2 \times \sqrt{2 \times \sqrt{2 \times \sqrt{2 \times \cdots}}}}.$$