

# MTH 101A 2021-2022

## Mid-Sem: Solutions

- Q1.** (a) Let  $A = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x^3 + x < 1\}$ . Show that the set  $A$  is bounded above. If  $a = \sup A$ , then show that  $a^3 + a = 1$ . [7 marks]
- (b) Let  $a_1 = 1$  and  $a_{n+1} = \left(1 + \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n}\right)a_n$ , for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Show that the sequence  $(a_n)$  is convergent. [8 marks]

### Solutions:

- (a) We first show that 1 is an upper bound for  $A$ . If  $x > 1$  for some  $x$  then  $x^3 + x > 2$ , a contradiction.

Consider the sequence  $x_n = a + 1/n$ . Since  $a$  is an upper bound for  $A$  we have  $x_n \notin A$ . So  $x_n^3 + x_n \geq 1$ . Further, notice that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = a$ , so  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n^3 + x_n) = a^3 + a$ . But since  $x_n^3 + x_n \geq 1$ , it follows that  $a^3 + a \geq 1$ .

Similarly, consider the sequence  $y_n = a - 1/n$ . Then  $y_n$  is not an upper bound of  $A$ . So there exists  $x \in A$  such that  $y_n < x$ . Then  $y_n^3 + y_n < x^3 + x < 1$  as 1 is an upper bound. Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n^3 + y_n = a^3 + a \leq 1$ . So we conclude that  $a^3 + a = 1$ .

### Alternate Solution:

Let  $f(x) = x + x^3$ . Note that  $f$  is continuous.

Note  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(1) = 2$ . Then by IVP (Intermediate Value Property) there exists  $c \in (0, 1)$  such that  $f(c) = 1$ .

Note  $f$  is increasing.

So  $f(x) < 1$  for  $x < c$  and  $f(x) > 1$  for  $x > c$ .

So we can identify  $A = (-\infty, c)$ .

So  $a = \sup A = c$ . Hence  $f(a) = a + a^3 = 1$ .

(b)

$$\begin{aligned} |a_{n+1} - a_n| &= \frac{1}{2^n} |a_n| \\ |a_n - a_{n-1}| &= \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} |a_{n-1}| \\ \frac{|a_{n+1} - a_n|}{|a_n - a_{n-1}|} &= \frac{1}{2} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n-1}} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left| 1 + \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{2^{n-1}} \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) \\ &\leq \frac{3}{4} < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $(a_n)$  is Cauchy. So converges.

### Alternate Solution:

$|a_{n+1}| \leq (1 + \frac{1}{2^n})(1 + \frac{1}{2^{n-1}}) \cdots (1 + \frac{1}{2}) \leq (\frac{n+1}{n})^n < 3$ . (Using AM-GM Inequality.)

$$|a_{n+1} - a_n| = \frac{|a_n|}{2^n} < \frac{3}{2^n}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |a_m - a_n| &\leq |a_m - a_{m-1}| + |a_{m-1} - a_{m-2}| + \cdots + |a_{n+1} - a_n| \\ &< \frac{3}{2^{m-1}} + \frac{3}{2^{m-2}} + \cdots + \frac{3}{2^n} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{3}{2^{k-1}} - \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{3}{2^{k-1}} \end{aligned}$$

Since,  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{3}{2^{k-1}}$  is convergent series, we see that the sequence  $(a_n)$  is Cauchy Sequence.

Hence  $(a_n)$  is convergent.

**Q2. (a)** Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by

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

Using  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of continuity, show that the function  $f(x)$  is not continuous at 0. Find a Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)$  such that  $f(x_n)$  is not a Cauchy sequence. **[8 marks]**

**(b)** Let  $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be an infinitely differentiable function, and let  $x_0 \in (a, b)$ . Suppose there exist  $k \geq 1$  such that  $f''(x_0) = f^{(3)}(x_0) = \cdots = f^{(2k)}(x_0) = 0$ . If  $f^{(2k+1)}(x_0) \neq 0$  then show that  $x_0$  is a point of inflection for  $f$ . **[7 marks]**

**Solutions:**

**(a)** If the function is continuous at 0, then by definition, for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - 0| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x) - f(0)| < \epsilon$ .

We choose  $\epsilon = 1/2$  and let  $\delta > 0$  be given.

Note that  $\cos(\frac{1}{x}) = 1$  if  $x = 1/(2k\pi)$ .

Choose  $k$  large enough so that  $x = 1/(2k\pi)$  and  $|x| \leq \delta$ . Then  $|1 - 0| < \epsilon = 1/2$ , a contradiction.

Let  $(x_n) = 2/n\pi$ , then  $f(x_n) = 0$  if  $n$  is odd and  $f(x_n) = (-1)^k$  if  $n$  is even. So  $(f(x_n))$  is not Cauchy.

**(b)** Since  $f^{(2k+1)}(x_0) \neq 0$ , by the continuity of  $f^{(2k+1)}$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $f^{(2k+1)}(x)$  has same sign as  $f^{(2k+1)}(x_0)$  for all  $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ .

By Taylor's theorem, for any  $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$  there exists a point  $c$  between  $x$  and  $x_0$  such that

$$f''(x) = \frac{f^{(2k+1)}(c)}{(2k-1)!} (x - x_0)^{2k-1}.$$

If  $f^{(2k+1)}(x_0) > 0$  then  $f''(x) \leq 0$  for  $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0)$  and  $f''(x) \geq 0$  for  $x \in (x_0, x_0 + \delta)$ .

Similarly, if  $f^{(2k+1)}(x_0) < 0$  then  $f''(x) \geq 0$  for  $x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0)$  and  $f''(x) \leq 0$  for  $x \in (x_0, x_0 + \delta)$ .

For both the case we conclude that  $x_0$  is a point of inflection for  $f$ .

**Q3.** (a) Does the following series converge? Does it converge absolutely?

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{5n + (\log_e n)^3}.$$

[6 marks]

(b) Find the Maclaurin series for  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+2x^2}$ . Find all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that the Maclaurin series is convergent at  $x$ . [6 marks]

(c) Determine the radius of convergence of the power series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{n^4 + 1} x^{3n}.$$

[3 marks]

**Solutions:**

(a) Since  $\frac{1}{5n+(\log_e n)^3}$  is a sequence which is positive, decreasing, and tending to 0, by the alternating series test,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{5n+(\log_e n)^3}$  converges.

Note that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{5n+(\log_e n)^3}}{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{5n + (\log_e n)^3} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{5 + \frac{(\log_e n)^3}{n}} = \frac{1}{5}.$$

Since  $0 < \frac{1}{5} < \infty$ , by limit comparison, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5n+(\log_e n)^3}$  behaves the same as the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ . Since the latter is a divergent  $p$ -series,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{5n+(\log_e n)^3}$  diverges.

(b) Writing  $\frac{1}{1+2x^2}$  as

$$\frac{1}{1 - (-2x^2)},$$

we can use the geometric series to see that

$$\frac{1}{1+2x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-2x^2)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n 2^n x^{2n}.$$

Since the equality  $\frac{1}{1-r} = \sum r^n$  is only valid when  $|r| < 1$ , we see that this series converges for  $|-2x^2| < 1$ , meaning that  $|x| < 1/\sqrt{2}$  (we could also have seen this by using the Ratio Test), so the interval of convergence is

$$\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right).$$

We have to check convergence at the endpoints:

when  $x = 1/\sqrt{2}$ , the series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n 2^n \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^{2n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n,$$

which diverges.

When  $x = -1/\sqrt{2}$ , the series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n 2^n \left( \frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^{2n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1,$$

which also diverges. Therefore, the series diverges at both endpoints and the interval of convergence is as stated above.

(c) Using the Ratio Test,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{(n+1)^3 x^{3n+3}}{(n+1)^4 + 1}}{\frac{n^3 x^{3n}}{n^4 + 1}} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n^4 + 1)(n+1)^3 x^3}{n^3((n+1)^4 + 1)} \right| \\ &= |x|^3 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n^4 + 1)(n+1)^3}{n^3((n+1)^4 + 1)} \\ &= |x|^3 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^7 + \dots}{n^7 + \dots} \\ &= |x|^3. \end{aligned}$$

The limit is less than 1 when  $|x| < 1$ , so the radius of convergence is 1.

**Q4.** (a) Define a function  $f$  on  $[0, 1]$  by  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \text{ is rational} \\ x^3 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational.} \end{cases}$

Is  $f$  Riemann integrable on  $[0, 1]$ ? If yes, then find  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx$ . (You may use the formula:

$$\sum_{k=0}^n k^3 = \left( \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \right)^2. \quad [8 \text{ marks}]$$

(b) Evaluate  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{n^2 + k^2}$  using definite integrals. [7 marks]

**Solutions:**

(a) Take a partition  $P$  of  $[0, 1]$  where  $P = \{0 < \frac{1}{n} < \frac{2}{n} < \dots < \frac{n-1}{n} < \frac{n}{n} = 1\}$

Since  $x^2 > x^3$  in each subinterval and  $\mathbb{Q}$  is dense in  $\mathbb{R}$ , we have  $M_i = \frac{i^2}{n^2}$ ;  $m_i = \frac{(i-1)^3}{n^3}$ , where  $M_i = \sup f(x)$  in subinterval  $[\frac{i-1}{n}, \frac{i}{n}]$  and  $m_i = \inf f(x)$  in this subinterval.

$$\text{Then } U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta_i = \frac{1}{n} \left\{ \frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{4}{n^2} + \dots + \frac{n^2}{n^2} \right\} = \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6n^3}.$$

$$\text{Again } L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta_i = \frac{1}{n} \left\{ 0 + \frac{1}{n^3} + \frac{8}{n^3} + \dots + \frac{(n-1)^3}{n^3} \right\} = \frac{n^2(n-1)^2}{4n^4}.$$

Then as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ;  $U(P, f) - L(P, f) = \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{12}$ , which does not go to 0. Hence  $f$  is not Riemann integrable.

(b) We apply the formula

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{f(k/n)}{n}$$

to the function  $f(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2}$ .

A simple calculation shows that

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{f(k/n)}{n} = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{k^2 + n^2}.$$

Also,  $\int_0^1 f(x)dx = \int_0^1 \frac{d}{dx} \frac{\log(1+x^2)}{2} dx$ . By fundamental Theorem of Calculus,  $\int_0^1 f(x)dx = \frac{\log 2}{2} = \log \sqrt{2}$ . This gives  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k}{k^2 + n^2} = \log \sqrt{2}$ .