## Online Self-Assessment for Analysis

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The math questions in this document are from https://www2.mathematik.tu-darmstadt.de/~eickmeyer/OSA/analysis.html. I have provided my solutions and proofs in here. The latest version of this document is available at here.

## Question 1

1. Every sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n\geq 1}$  of real numbers that satisfies  $|x_n-x_{2n}|\to 0$  is convergent. Yes or no? Justify your answer.

Solution. No. The counterexample is

$$x_n = \begin{cases} 1, & n = 1, 2, 2^2, 2^3, \cdots, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$
 (1)

This means that if  $n=2^k$  with k being a non-negative integer, then  $x_n=x_{2n}=1$ . On the other hand,  $x_n=x_{2n}=0$  for  $n\neq 2^k$ . Both cases give  $|x_n-x_{2n}|\to 0$ , but  $\{x_n\}_{n\geq 1}$  is not convergent, because it has two subsequences which converge to different limits. More generally, given that  $\phi(n)$  is a strictly increasing function and  $\phi(n)-n$  is unbounded, we can always find a divergent sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n\geq 1}$  with  $|x_{\phi(n)}-x_n|\to 0$  by constructing it as follows.

$$x_n = \begin{cases} 1, & n = k, \phi(k), \phi(\phi(k)), \cdots, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 (2)

where k is the smallest positive interger such that  $\phi(k) > k$ .

2. For every sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n\geq 1}$  of real numbers the sequence  $\{y_n\}_{n\geq 1}$  with

$$y_n := \frac{1}{1 + x_n^2}$$

has a convergent subsequence. Yes or no? Justify your answer.

Solution. Yes. Since  $x_n$  is a real number, then  $x_n^2 \ge 0$ . Then we have  $0 \le 1/(1+x_n^2) \le 1$ , which implies that  $y_n$  is bounded. According to the fact that a bounded sequence must contain a convergent subsequence, the claim is true.

3. For every set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  we let  $\exp(A) := \{e^a | a \in A\}$ . Then  $\exp(A)$  has a finite infimum for every nonempty A.

Solution. Yes. For any real number a, we have  $e^a > 0$ . Therefore,  $\exp A$  is bounded below by 0 for every nonempty set A. Then it must have exactly one greatest lower bound, i.e. infimum, which is supposed to be no less than 0.

- 4. A set is closed if, and only if, it is not open.

  Solution. No. For example, [0,1) is not open, but it is not closed, either.
- 5. Let  $K_n \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  be compact for every  $n \ge 1$ . Then the intersection  $\bigcap_{n \ge 1} K_n$  is compact as well. Solution. Yes. In  $\mathbb{R}$ , a set is compact if and only if it is bounded and closed. Since  $K_n$  is compact, then  $K_n$  is closed and bounded. For boundedness, for any  $K_n$ , there exists  $M_n > 0$  such that  $K_n \subseteq [-M_n, M_n]$ . Then  $\bigcap_{n \ge 1} K_n$  is closed because the intersection of any collection of any closed sets is closed. In addition,  $\bigcap_{n \ge 1} K_n$  is bounded due to  $\bigcap_{n \ge 1} K_n \subseteq [-M_1, M_1]$ . Hence,  $\bigcap_{n \ge 1} K_n$  is closed and bounded. Thus, it is compact as well.
- 6. Let  $f:(0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$  be continuous. Then

$$x \mapsto \frac{1}{1 + f(x)^2}$$

has a limit for  $x \to 0^+$  (i.e. x tending to 0 from the right).

Solution. No. A counterexample is  $f(x) = \sin(1/x)$  which oscillates between -1 and 1 as  $x \to 0^+$ , resulting in an oscillation between 1/2 and 1 of the above mapping.

- 7. Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be twice continuously differentiable. Then the function  $x \mapsto |f(x)|$  is continuously differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$ .
  - Solution. No. A counterexample is f(x) = x which is twice continuously differentiable. However, the derivative of |f(x)| does not exist at x = 0. Because |f(x)|' = -1 for all x < 0 and |f(x)|' = 1 for all x > 0.
- 8. Let  $\{f_n\}_{n\geq 1}$  be a uniformly convergent sequence of real functions on [0,1]. Then the sequence  $\{|f_n|\}_{n\geq 1}$  is uniformly convergent as well.

Solution. Yes. Since  $f_n(x)$  is uniformly convergent to f(x) on [0,1], then for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists N > 0 such that for all n > N

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon, \quad \forall x \in [0, 1]$$

holds. By the triangle inequality, for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists N > 0 such that for all n > N

$$||f_n(x)| - |f(x)|| \le |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon, \quad \forall x \in [0, 1]$$
 (4)

which implies that the sequence  $\{|f_n|\}_{n\geq 1}$  is uniformly convergent as well.

## Question 2

1. Check the following series for convergence and determine its limit, if it exists:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + 3n}{n^3 + n^2 - n + 5}$$

Solution. The above series is divergent. To see this,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + 3n}{n^3 + n^2 - n + 5} > \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^3 + n^2 - n + 5n}$$
 (5)

$$> \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^2 + n + 4} \tag{7}$$

$$> \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^2 + n + 4n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^2 + 5n}$$
 (8)

$$=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n+5} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} - \sum_{n=1}^{5} \frac{1}{n}$$
 (9)

(10)

which indicates that the series is divergent as it is greater than the harmonic series which is a divergent series.

2. Determine the set of  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , for which

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(k!)^2}{(3k)!} (x-5)^2 k$$

converges.

Solution. Since  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(k!)^2}{(3k)!} (x-5)^2 k = (x-5)^2 \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(k!)^2}{(3k)!} k$ , we only need to check the convergence of  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(k!)^2}{(3k)!} k$ . We employ the ratio test as follows.

$$\limsup_{k \to \infty} \frac{|a_{k+1}|}{|a_k|} = \limsup_{k \to \infty} \frac{((k+1)!)^2}{(3(k+1))!} (k+1) \frac{(3k)!}{(k!)^2 k}$$
(11)

$$= \limsup_{k \to \infty} \frac{(k+1)^3}{(3k+1)(3k+2)(3k+3)k}$$
 (12)

$$=0<1\tag{13}$$

which shows that the series is convergent for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

## Question 3

Let the function  $f_n:[0,\infty)\to\mathbb{R}$  for  $n\geq 1$  be defined as

$$f_n(x) := \int_0^x e^{-\frac{t^2}{n}} dt.$$

1. Show that  $f_n$  is continuously differentiable on  $(0, \infty)$  for each n.

Solution. By definition, we have

$$f_n'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\int_0^{x+h} e^{-\frac{t^2}{n}} dt - \int_0^x e^{-\frac{t^2}{n}} dt}{h}$$
 (14)

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\int_{x}^{x+h} e^{-\frac{t^{2}}{n}} dt}{h}$$
 (15)

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{e^{-\frac{c^2}{n}} \int_x^{x+h} dt}{h}, \quad \text{where } c \in [x, x+h]$$
 (16)

$$=\lim_{h\to 0}\frac{e^{-\frac{c^2}{n}}h}{h}\tag{17}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} e^{-\frac{c^2}{n}} = e^{-\frac{x^2}{n}} \tag{18}$$

Since the function  $g(x) = e^{-\frac{x^2}{n}}$  is an exponential function composed with a polynomial function, both of which are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then g(x) is continuous. Thus,  $f_n$  is continuously differentiable on  $(0, \infty)$  for each n with  $f'_n(x) = g(x)$ .

2. Show that for every  $x \geq 0$  the limit  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x)$  exists and determine its value. Solution. Obviously, for any fixed  $t \geq 0$ , we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} e^{-\frac{t^2}{n}} = 1,\tag{19}$$

which shows the pointwise convergence of the integrand. Note that  $0 \le e^{-\frac{t^2}{n}} \le 1$  for all  $t \ge 0$  and  $n \ge 1$ . Also, F(t) = 1 is integrable on  $(0, \infty)$ . By the Dominated Convergence Theorem, we can exchange the limit and the integral as follows.

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^x e^{-\frac{t^2}{n}} dt = \int_0^x \lim_{n \to \infty} e^{-\frac{t^2}{n}} dt = \int_0^x 1 dt = x.$$
 (20)