## Real Analysis Exams

## Exam №3

Instructor: Dr. Eric Westlund

David Oniani Luther College

oniada01@luther.edu

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- 1. (a) Yes, it is continuous at 0. Recall that a function is continuous at x = 0 if  $\lim_{x\to 0} f(x) = f(0) = 0$ . Notice that  $\forall x \neq 0, |\sin(\frac{1}{x^2})| \leq 1$ . We then have that  $|f(x)| \leq x^4$  (multiply both sides of the inequality by  $x^4$ ). Now, since  $\lim_{x\to 0} x^4 = 0$  and  $\lim_{x\to 0} (-x^4) = 0$ , it follows by **Squeeze Theorem** that  $\lim_{x\to 0} 0 = 0 = f(0)$ . Hence, f(x) is continuous at 0.
  - (b) Yes, it is differentiable at 0. Recall that a function is differentiable at x = 0 if the limit  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{f(x)-f(0)}{x-0}$  exists. We have:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - 0}{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x^4 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right)}{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} x^3 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right)$$

Now, notice that  $x^3 \sin(\frac{1}{x^2})$  is bounded by  $-|x^3|$  and  $|x^3|$  and once again, by **Squeeze Theorem**, it follows that f is differentiable at 0.

(c) f'(x) is continuous at 0. Away from 0, we have  $f'(x) = 4x^3 \sin(\frac{1}{x^2}) - 2x \cos(\frac{1}{x^2})$ . Then  $\lim_{x\to 0} f'(x) = 0$  and thus,  $\lim_{x\to 0} f'(x) = 0 = f'(0)$ . Hence, f'(x) is continuous at 0.

(d) No, it is not differentiable at 0. Recall that a function is differentiable at x=0 if the limit  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{f(x)-f(0)}{x-0}$  exists. We have:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f'(x) - f'(0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{f(x) - 0}{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{4x^3 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) - 2x \cos\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right)}{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} 4x^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) - 2\cos\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right)$$

Now, notice that  $\lim_{x\to 0} 4x^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) - 2\cos\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right)$  does not exist and thus, f'(x) is not differentiable at 0.

- 2. (a) Since f(x) is differentiable on [0,4], it is also continuous on [0,4]. Now, let g(x) = f(x) x. Then g is again both differentiable and continuous on [0,4]. We have g(0) = f(0) = 2 and g(4) = f(4) 4 = -3. Now, since g is continuous, it follows by the **Theorem 4.5.1** (Intermediate Value Theorem)  $\exists c \in (0,4)$  s.t. g(c) = 0 and for this c, we will have f(c) = g(c) + c = 0 + c = c. Hence, f(x) has a fixed point on [0,4]
  - (b) Notice that  $\frac{f(4)-f(0)}{4-0}=\frac{1-2}{4}=-\frac{1}{4}$ . Then it follows by **Theorem 5.3.2 (Mean Value Theorem)** that  $\exists c \in (0,4)$  s.t.  $f'(c)=-\frac{1}{4}$ . On the other hand, we know that f'(1)=2. Finally, it follows by **Theorem 5.2.7 (Darboux's Theorem)** that  $\exists c \in (0,4)$  s.t. f'(c)=0.

3. (a) For any fixed x, we have:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x^n e^{-x}}{n!} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x^n}{n! e^x} = 0$$

The reason the limit is 0 is that as n approaches infinity,  $n!e^x$  grows a lot faster than  $x^n$  (one could also use **Squeeze Theorem** to show that the limit is 0).

(b) For any fixed x, we have:

$$|g_n(x) - g(x)| = \left| \frac{x^n e^{-x}}{n!} - 0 \right| = \left| \frac{x^n}{n! e^x} \right|$$

Now, we need to pick N s.t.  $\forall n \geq N$ ,  $\left|\frac{x^n}{n!e^x}\right| < \epsilon$  holds. Now, although it is possible to do for every  $x \in [0, \infty)$ , there is no way to choose a single value of N that will work for all values of x at the same time. Thus, such N does not exist. Finally, we conclude that the sequence of functions  $(g_n)$  does not uniformly converge to g on  $[0, \infty)$ .

4. (a)

$$f'_n(x) = \left(xe^{-nx^2}\right)' = e^{-nx^2}(1 - 2nx^2)$$

(b) We need to solve the equation  $f'_n(x) = 0$ . We have:

$$e^{-nx^2}(1-2nx^2) = 0 \implies x = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}}$$

Hence, the global maximum occurs at  $x=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}}$  and the global minimum occurs at  $x=-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}}$ .

Let us sketch  $f_n(x)$  for n=2. For n=2, we have the function  $f_2(x)=xe^{-2x^2}$ .

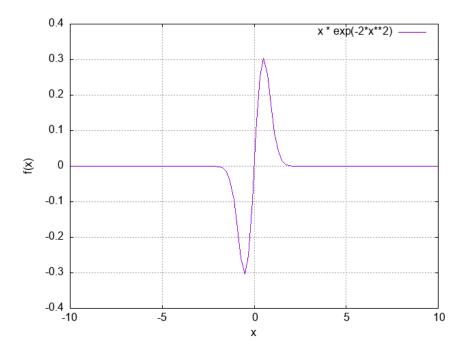


Figure 1: Plot of  $g = xe^{-2x^2}$ .

(c)

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \left( xe^{-nx^2} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x}{e^{nx^2}}$$

$$= 0 \qquad \text{(notice that as } n \to \infty, e^{nx^2} \to \infty \text{)}$$

(d) Since the global maximum of f(x) is  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}}$ , we can let  $N = \lceil \frac{1}{\epsilon^2} \rceil$ . Then  $\forall n \geq N$ , we have:

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = |f_n(x)| = |xe^{-nx^2}| \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{2n}} \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{2N}} \le \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{2}} < \epsilon$$

Now, we could find  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $\forall n \geq N, |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$  holds and hence,  $f_n$  converges uniformly to f on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

(e)  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n'(x) = \lim_{n\to\infty} e^{-nx^2} (1 - 2nx^2) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{-2nx^2 + 1}{e^{nx^2}} = 0$  (notice that as  $n\to\infty$ ,  $e^n$  grows a lot faster than 2n)

Since f(x) = 0, it follows that f'(x) = 0 and finally, we have  $f'(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f'_n(x) = 0$ .

5. (a) Notice that the following holds:

$$\left| \frac{\cos(3^n x)}{2^n} \right| \le \frac{1}{2^n}$$

Now, recall that  $\frac{1}{2^n}$  converges (showed many times over the course of the class). Then, it follows by **Corollary 6.4.5 (Weierstrass M-Test)** that  $g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos{(3^n x)}}{2^n}$  converges uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ . And since the uniform convergence implies continuity, it follows that  $g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos{(3^n x)}}{2^n}$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

(b) Notice that we have:

$$g'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^n \sin(3^n x)$$

Unfortunately, in this case we cannot apply Corollary 6.4.5 (Weierstrass M-Test) as  $\left(\frac{3}{2}\right)^n$  is not bounded. Hence, this is the difference between part (a) and part (b) of the exercise (we cannot determine if g is differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$ ).

As a side note, recall that this is the Weierstrass function of the form  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^n \cos(b^n x)$  which is a nowhere-differentiable function. Hence, g'(x) is not differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

6. For  $x \notin \mathbb{Q}$ , we can show  $f_n(x)$  is continuous, since for  $x < r_n$ , we can choose a small enough  $\delta$  such that  $f_n(y) = 0$  for  $y \in V_{\delta}(x)$ . Similar logic can be applied when  $x > r_n$ . Now, notice that

$$f_n(x) \le \frac{1}{2^n}$$

Then it follows by Corollary 6.4.5 (Weierstrass M-Test) that f(x) converges uniformly. Now, since  $f_n$  are all continuous, and f converges uniformly, we have that f is continuous. Furthermore, since every  $f_n(x)$  is increasing, f is monotonely increasing. Thus, for x < y, we get:

$$\forall n \ f_n(x) \le f_n(y)$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^k f_n(x) \le \sum_{n=1}^k f_n(y)$$

$$\lim_k \sum_{n=1}^k f_n(x) \le \lim_k \sum_{n=1}^k f_n(y)$$

$$f(x) \le f(y)$$

Hence, we got that f is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

7. (a) We have:

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n\geq 1} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n$$

$$= \sum_{n\geq 1} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}(n-1)!}{n!} x^n$$

$$= \sum_{n\geq 1} \frac{(-1)^{n-1}}{n} x^n$$

$$= \sum_{n\geq 1} \frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} x^{n+1}$$

$$= x - \frac{x^2}{3} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$$

Hence the taylor series representation is  $x - \frac{x^2}{3} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots$ 

- (b) When x = 1, we get alternating harmonic series that we know converges [shown many times over the course of the class]. It diverges when x = -1 as we get the  $-\frac{1}{n}$  which is the negative harmonic series that we know diverges [shown many times over the course of the class]). Then it follows that the series converges when  $-1 < x \le 1$ . Hence, the interval of convergence of the series is (-1, 1] (the radius of convergence is 1).
- (c) Yes, it does. Let us apply the ratio test. We get:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n+2} x^{n+2}}{\frac{(-1)^n}{n+1} x^{n+1}} = -\frac{n+1}{n+2} x = -x$$

Note that the series converges uniformly if |-x| = |x| < 1. Hence, it converges on (-1, 1). We now need to check the endpoints x = -1 and x = 1. Notice that if x = -1, the

series does not converge uniformly as  $\ln(1+-1) = \ln(0)$  which is undefined (negative infinity). For x=1, it follows by **Leibnitz' test for alternating series**, that the series converges. Hence, the Taylor series converges uniformly to f on (-1,1] which is its interval of convergence.