- 6.2.11 Assume  $(f_n)$  and  $(g_n)$  are uniformly convergent sequences of functions.
  - (a) Show that  $(f_n + g_n)$  is a uniformly convergent sequence of functions.

Proof. Suppose  $\epsilon > 0$  is arbitrarily chosen. Since  $(f_n)$  is a uniformly convergent sequence of functions, we can choose  $N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  whenever  $n, m \geq N_1$  and  $x \in A$ . Similarly, since  $(g_n)$  is a uniformly convergent sequence of functions, we can choose  $N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|g_n(x) - g_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  whenever  $n, m \geq N_2$  and  $x \in A$ . Let  $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$ . Then,  $|f_n(x) + g_n(x) - f_m(x) - g_m(x)| \leq |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| + |g_n(x) - g_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$  whenever  $n, m \geq N$  and  $x \in A$ . Thus, by the Cauchy Criterion for Uniform Convergence,  $(f_n + g_n)$  is a uniformly convergent sequence of functions.

- (b) Give an example to show that the product  $(f_n g_n)$  may not converge uniformly. Let  $f_n = \frac{1}{n(1+x)}$  which the textbook says uniformly converges to 0 on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Let  $g_n = \frac{1}{n} + x$  which we can see converges to x on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then  $f_n * g_n = \frac{1}{n^2(1+x)} + \frac{x}{n(1+x)}$ . The limit of this as  $n \to \infty$  is 0. To see that it is not uniformly convergent notice that  $|f_n(x) f(x)| = \left|\frac{xn+1}{n^2(1+x)}\right|$  which means that  $N > \frac{xn+1}{n^2(1+x)}$ . So, N depends on x and thus there is no way to pick an N that will satisfy all x. Thus, it fails to be uniformly convergent.
- (c) Prove that if there exists an M > 0 such that  $|f_n| \leq M$  and  $|g_n| \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $(f_n g_n)$  does converge uniformly.

Proof. Suppose  $\epsilon > 0$  is arbitrarily chosen. Assume there exists an M > 0 such that  $|f_n| \leq M$  and  $|g_n| \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Need to show that  $(f_n g_n)$  does converge uniformly, that is there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $m, n \geq N$  and  $x \in A$ , it holds true that  $|f_n(x)g_n(x) - f_m(x)g_m(x)| < \epsilon$  which when simplified becomes

$$|f_n(x)g_n(x) - f_m(x)g_m(x)| = |f_n(x)g_n(x) - f_n(x)g_m(x) + f_n(x)g_m(x) - f_m(x)g_m(x)|$$

$$= |f_n(x)(g_n(x) - g_m(x)) + g_m(x)(f_n(x) - f_m(x))|$$

$$\leq |f_n(x)(g_n(x) - g_m(x))| + |g_m(x)(f_n(x) - f_m(x))|$$

$$\leq |f_n(x)||(g_n(x) - g_m(x))| + |g_m(x)||f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon$$

Since  $(f_n)$  is a uniformly convergent sequence of functions, we can choose  $N_1 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2M}$  whenever  $n, m \geq N_1$  and  $x \in A$ . Since  $(g_n)$  is a uniformly convergent sequence of functions, we can choose  $N_2 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|g_n(x) - g_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2M}$  whenever  $n, m \geq N_2$  and  $x \in A$ . Then, let  $N = \max(N_1, N_2)$ . So, we have that  $|f_n(x)||(g_n(x) - g_m(x))| + |g_m(x)||f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < |f_n(x)| \frac{\epsilon}{2M} + |g_m(x)| \frac{\epsilon}{2M}$ . Since  $|f_n| \leq M$  and  $|g_n| \leq M$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , this simplifies to  $M \frac{\epsilon}{2M} + M \frac{\epsilon}{2M} = \epsilon$ . So,  $|f_n(x)g_n(x) - f_m(x)g_m(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $m, n \geq N$  and  $x \in A$  as desired which means  $(f_n g_n)$  converges uniformly.

6.3.3 Consider the sequence of functions  $f_n(x) = \frac{x}{1+nx^2}$ . Exercise 6.2.4 contains some advice for how to show that  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Review or complete that exercise. Now, let  $f = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n$ . Compute  $f'_n(x)$  and find all the values of x for which  $f'(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f'_n(x)$ .

$$f'_n(x) = \frac{1 - nx^2}{(nx^2 + 1)^2}.$$

 $f'(x) = \lim f'_n(x)$  for all  $x \neq 0$ . We can see this because  $f = \lim f_n$  and  $f_n \to 0$  for all x which means that  $\lim f'_n(x) = f'(x) = 0$  when  $x \neq 0$ , but when x = 0, f'(x) = 1 and  $\lim f'_n(x) = 0$  – thus they are not equal at x = 0.

- 6.4.7 Let  $h(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2 + n^2}$ .
  - (a) Show that h is a continuous function defined on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

*Proof.* Let  $M_n = \frac{1}{n^2}$ . Notice that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n$  converges by the p-series test. Then, since  $\left|\frac{1}{x^2+n^2}\right| \leq M_n$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n$  converges, we know by the Weierstrass M-Test that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+n^2}$  converges uniformly. Thus, since it converges uniformly and  $\frac{1}{x^2+n^2}$  is continuous for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $n \geq 1$ , h must be a continuous function defined on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

- (b) Is h differentiable? If so, is the derivative function h' continuous? Yes it is differentiable and the derivative function h' is continuous. First, we look at the derivative of  $\frac{1}{x^2+n^2}$  which is  $\frac{-2x}{(x^2+n^2)^2}$ . Notice that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{-2x}{(x^2+n^2)^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left|\frac{-2x}{x^2+n^2}\right| \frac{1}{x^2+n^2} \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left|\frac{-2x}{x^2+n^2}\right| \frac{1}{n^2} \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2|x|}{n^2x^2+n^4} \le \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^3}$  which we know converges by the p-series test. Let  $M_n = \frac{1}{n^3}$ . So, by the Weierstrass M-Test,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{-2x}{(x^2+n^2)^2}$  converges uniformly for all x meaning that h is differentiable. Similar to part a, we see that since h' converges uniformly and it is continuous for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $n \ge 1$ , we know that h' must be continuous.
- 6.5.9 Use Theorem 6.5.7 to argue that power series 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... (Start by showing that  $a_0 = b_0$ .)

Proof. Suppose  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  and  $g(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ . Assume  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$ , in other words f(x) = g(x), for all x in an interval (-R, R). Then, for x = 0, we have  $a_0 = f(0)$  and  $b_0 = g(0)$  which means  $a_0 = b_0$ . Next, take the derivative of f and g to get  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1}$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n b_n x^{n-1}$  respectively. Once again, for x = 0, we have  $a_1 = f'(0)$  and  $b_1 = g'(0)$  which means that  $a_1 = b_1$ . We can inductively continue this process to find that the k'th derivative of f and g are  $\sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} a_n x^{n-k}$  and  $\sum_{n=k}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{(n-k)!} b_n x^{n-k}$  respectively. Then, once again, for x = 0, we have  $a_k = f^k(0)$  and  $b_k = g^k(0)$  which means that  $a_k = b_k$ . Thus,  $a_n = b_n$  for all n = 0, 1, 2... as desired.