## Homework Solutions #4

**CAS MA 511** 

**Problem** (5.2.2). (a) is possible. Consider f(x) to be the Dirichlet function and

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathbb{Q} \\ 1 & \text{if } x \notin \mathbb{Q} \end{cases}$$

(b) is possible. Consider g(x) = x and

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

(c) is impossible. If g and f+g are differentiable, then by the algebraic differentiability theorem, the difference (f+g)-g=f must be differentiable.

(d) is possible. Let d(x) be the Dirichlet function and consider  $f(x)=x^2d(x)$ . If f(x) were differentiable at any point other than 0, then it would be continuous at that point and hence  $\frac{f(x)}{x^2}=d(x)$  would be continuous which is a contradiction. So, now we just need to show that f(x) is indeed differentiable at x=0. We have:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x^2 d(x) - 0^2 d(0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x^2 d(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} x d(x) = 0$$

Thus, f(x) is differentiable at x=0 (and you can see why we needed to multiply by  $x^2$ .)

**Problem** (5.2.3). For (a), we have:

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{\frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{c}}{x - c} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{\frac{c - x}{xc}}{x - c} = -\lim_{x \to c} \frac{1}{xc} = -\frac{1}{c^2}$$

Thus,  $h'(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}$ .

For (b), from part (a) and the chain rule, we have:

$$\left(\frac{1}{g(x)}\right)' = -\frac{g'(x)}{[g(x)]^2}$$

Thus, by theorem 5.2.4 part (iii), we have:

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(x) = f'(x)\frac{1}{g(x)} + f(x)\left(\frac{1}{g(x)}\right)' = f'(x)\frac{g(x)}{[g(x)]^2} - f(x)\frac{g'(x)}{[g(x)]^2} = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{[g(x)]^2}$$

For (c), we have:

$$\frac{\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{f(c)}{g(c)}}{x - c} = \frac{1}{x - c} \frac{f(x)g(c) - f(c)g(x)}{g(x)g(c)} = \frac{1}{x - c} \frac{f(x)g(c) - f(c)g(c) + f(c)g(c) - f(c)g(x)}{g(x)g(c)}$$

$$\frac{1}{x-c} \frac{f(x)g(c) - f(c)g(c) + f(c)g(c) - f(c)g(x)}{g(x)g(c)} = \frac{1}{g(x)g(c)} \left( g(c) \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x-c} - f(c) \frac{g(x) - g(c)}{x-c} \right)$$

Now, when we take a limit as  $x \to c$ , we have:

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{1}{g(x)g(c)} \left( \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c} g(c) - f(c) \frac{g(x) - g(c)}{x - c} \right) = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{[g(x)]^2}$$

**Problem** (5.2.12). Let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  be continuous and differentiable on its domain, with  $f'(x)\neq 0$ . Then there exists a function  $f^{-1}$  defined on its range by  $f^{-1}(y)=x$  where f(x)=y. Thus, by the chain rule:

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$$

$$(f^{-1}(f(x)))' = (x)'$$

$$(f^{-1})'(f(x))f'(x) = 1$$

$$(f^{-1})'(f(x)) = \frac{1}{f'(x)}$$

$$(f^{-1})'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(x)}$$

where y = f(x). The second to last equality is where we use that  $f'(x) \neq 0$ .

**Problem** (5.3.6). For (a), let  $g(x):[0,a]\to\mathbb{R}$  be differentiable, suppose g(0)=0 and  $|g'(x)|\leq M$  on [0,a]. Then, for  $x\in[0,a]$  by the mean value theorem, there is some  $0\leq c\leq x\leq a$  such that:

$$g'(c) = \frac{g(x) - g(0)}{x - 0} = \frac{g(x)}{x}$$

and hence  $|g(x)| = |g'(c)x| \le Mx$ .

For (b), suppose that  $h(x):[0,a]\to\mathbb{R}$  is twice differentiable with h'(0)=h(0)=0 and  $|h''(x)|\le M$  on [0,a]. If we try to apply the technique of (a), twice, we will get that  $h(c)\le Mx^2$ , so we will try something different. Consider  $f_1(x)=h(x)-M\frac{x^2}{2}$ . Then,  $f''(x)=h''(x)-M\le 0$  on [0,a] and hence by applying the mean value theorem twice, we see that  $f_1(x)\le 0$  on [0,a] and hence  $h(x)\le M\frac{x^2}{2}$  on [0,a]. Similarly, if we let  $f_2(x)=h(x)+M\frac{x^2}{2}$ , then we will find that  $f_2(x)\ge 0$  so that  $h(x)\ge -M\frac{x^2}{2}$  on [0,a] and hence  $|h(x)|\le M\frac{x^2}{2}$  on [0,a]

For (c), we can show that if  $l(x):[0,a]\to\mathbb{R}$  is differentiable n times with  $l^{(n)}(0)=\dots=l'(0)=0$  and  $|l^{(n)}(x)|\le M$  on [0,a], then  $|l(x)|\le M\frac{x^n}{n!}$ . Then, by applying the mean value theorem n times to  $f_1(x)=l(x)-M\frac{x^n}{n!}$  and  $f_2(x)=l(x)+M^n\frac{x^n}{n!}$  we can show that  $f_1(x)\le 0$  and  $f_2(x)\ge 0$  on [0,a], since we have  $f_1^{(n)}(x)=l^{(n)}(x)-M\le 0$  and  $f_2^{(n)}(x)=l^{(n)}(x)+M\ge 0$ . Thus, we have  $l(x)\le M\frac{x^n}{n!}$  and  $l(x)\ge -M\frac{x^n}{n!}$  and hence  $|l(x)|\le M\frac{x^n}{n!}$ . (Note that we need the  $\frac{1}{n!}$  to cancel all of the factors introduced by taking the n derivatives of  $x^n$ .)

**Problem** (5.3.10). First, of all we have:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} g(x) = \lim_{x \to 0} e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} = 0$$

since  $\frac{1}{x^2} \to \infty$  as  $x \to 0$  and  $e^{-x} \to 0$  as  $x \to \infty$ . Next, we have:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} |f(x)| = \lim_{x \to 0} |x| \left| \sin \left( \frac{1}{x^4} \right) \right| \left| e^{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \right| \le \lim_{x \to 0} |xg(x)| = 0$$

since  $g(x) \to 0$  as  $x \to 0$ . Since we have  $|f(x)| \to 0$  as  $x \to 0$ , we must have that  $f(x) \to 0$  as  $x \to 0$ . Thus both f(x) and g(x) tend to 0 as  $x \to 0$ . Now, consider the quotient:

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

since  $-x \le x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^4}\right) \le x$ , which allows us to use the squeeze theorem. Finally, consider the quotient of derivatives:

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

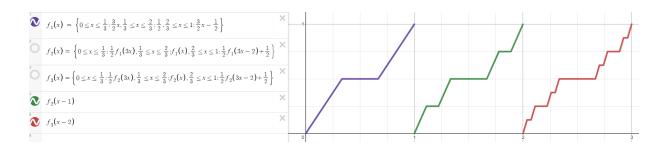
where the second to last equality follows by two applications of the squeeze theorem. Now this final limit diverges, since we can always find some small x>0 such that  $\frac{1}{x^4}=2k\pi$  or  $(2k+1)\pi$ . This allows us to find sequences  $(x_n)\to 0$  such that  $\left(x_n^{-1}\cos\left(\frac{1}{x_n^4}\right)\right)\to \infty$  or  $-\infty$ . This does not contradict L'Hospital's rule, since the limit of the quotient of derivatives *does not* converge, so we cannot apply it.

**Problem** (5.4.2). First of all, we have  $0 \le h(2^n x) \le 1$ , and thus we have  $0 \le \frac{1}{2^n} h(2^n x) \le \frac{1}{2^n}$ . Furthermore, we have:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 2$$

Thus, by the comparison test,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} h(2^n x)$  also converges.

**Problem** (6.2.12). For (a), we have the graphs of  $f_1$ ,  $f_2$ , and  $f_3$  below (spaced out so we can see all 3 without overlap):



Indeed, we observe that each is continuous, increasing and constant on  $[0,1] \setminus C_n$ .

For (b), we can continue this process to obtain a sequence  $(f_n)$ . Now, we want to use the Cauchy criterion for uniform convergence. First of all, if  $x \in \left[\frac{1}{3}, \frac{2}{3}\right]$ :

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| = 0$$

Now, if  $x \in \left[0, \frac{1}{3}\right]$ , then:

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| = \frac{1}{2}|f_{n-1}(3x) - f_{m-1}(3x)| \le \frac{1}{2}|f_{n-1}(x) - f_{m-1}(x)|$$

where the last inequality follows since each  $f_n$  is increasing. Thus, we have:

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \le \frac{1}{2} |f_{n-1}(x) - f_{m-1}(x)| \le \frac{1}{2^2} |f_{n-2}(x) - f_{m-2}(x)| \le \dots \le \frac{1}{2^m} |f_{n-m}(x) - f_0(x)| \le \frac{1}{2^m} |f_{n-m}(x) - f_0(x)| \le \frac{1}{2^m} |f_{n-1}(x) - f_0(x)| \le \frac{1}{2^m$$

where this final inequality holds since  $f_0(x) = x \le 1$  and each  $0 \le f_n \le 1$ . Since,  $\frac{1}{2^m} \to 0$ , we have by the Cuachy criterion for uniform convergence that  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly.

For (c), let  $f=\lim f_n$ . Since each  $f_n$  is continuous, by theorem 6.2.6, f is also continuous. Now, consider  $x,y\in [0,1]$  with  $x\leq y$ . Then, since  $f_n$  is increasing, we have  $f_n(x)\leq f_n(y)$ . Taking a limit as  $n\to\infty$ , we obtain that  $f(x)\leq f(y)$ , so that f is also increasing. Since  $f_n(0)$  and  $f_1(1)=1$  for all n, we have f(0)=0 and f(1)=1.

Now, consider  $x \in [0,1] \setminus C$ . Then, since  $C_n \subset C_{n+1}$ , there must be some N such that  $x \notin C_n$  for all  $n \geq N$ . Then, x is in some open interval of length  $\frac{1}{3^N}$  on which  $f_n$  is constant for n > N. In particular, f is also constant on this interval and hence has f'(x) = 0. (Note that to say something about the derivative at x we need to know what is going on in a small neighborhood around x.) Since x was arbitrary, f'(x) = 0 on  $[0,1] \setminus C$ .

**Problem** (6.2.15). Let  $(f_n)$  be a bounded, equicontinuous sequence on [0,1]. For (a), using exercise 6.2.13, since  $Q \cap [0,1]$  is countable and  $(f_n)$  is bounded, we can produce a subsequence  $f_{n_k}$  that converges on  $Q \cap [0,1]$ . Denote this subsequence by  $g_k$ .

For (b), since  $(f_n)$  is equicontinuous, so is  $(g_k)$ . Thus, there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - y| < \delta$  implies that  $|g_k(x) - g_k(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ .

Now, since [0,1] is compact it can be covered in a finite number of  $\delta$ -neighborhoods centered at rational points  $r_1,\ldots,r_m$ . Thus, since  $(g_k)$  converges to g, we can find a single N (by taking a maximum over the finite number  $\delta$ -neighborhoods) such that for  $s,t\geq N$  we have  $|g_s(r_i)-g_t(r_i)|<\frac{\varepsilon}{3}$  for all i. If the number of points weren't finite the maximum might not exist.

For (c), for each  $x \in [0,1]$ , we must have that x is in some  $\delta$ -neighborhood of one of the  $r_i$  and hence for  $s,t \geq N$ , we have:

$$|g_{s}(x) - g_{t}(x)| = |g_{s}(x) - g_{s}(r_{i}) + g_{s}(r_{i}) - g_{t}(r_{i}) + g_{t}(r_{i}) - g_{t}(x)|$$

$$\leq |g_{s}(x) - g_{t}(r_{i})| + |g_{t}(r_{i}) - s(r_{i})| + |g_{t}(r_{i}) - g_{t}(x)|$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon$$

Thus,  $(g_k)$  converges uniformly on [0,1], by the Cauchy criterion.

**Problem** (6.3.4). For any x, we have:

$$|h_n(x)| \le \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \to 0$$

and hence  $h_n(x) \to 0$  regardless of x, so that the convergence is uniform. On the other hand, consider the derivatives:

$$h'_n(x) = n \frac{\cos(nx)}{\sqrt{n}} = \sqrt{n}\cos(nx)$$

Suppose to reach a contradiction that  $\cos(nx)=0$  for all  $n\geq N$ , since otherwise the sequence will be unbounded because of the  $\sqrt{n}$ . In particular,  $\cos(Nx)=0$ . However, this implies that  $\cos(2Nx)\neq 0$ , which is a contradiction. Thus, for any x, we can find arbitrarily large n for which  $\cos(nx)\neq 0$  and hence  $(h'(x))=((\sqrt{n}\cos(nx))$  is unbounded.

**Problem** (6.3.7). Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of differentiable functions defined on the closed interval [a,b], and assume  $(f'_n)$  converges uniformly on [a,b]. Suppose there exists  $x_0 \in [a,b]$  where  $f_n(x_0)$  is convergent. Now, since  $f_n(x) - f_m(x)$  is differentiable, we can apply the mean value theorem to find some c between  $x_0$  and x such that:

$$f'_n(c) - f'_m(c) = \frac{f_n(x) - f_m(x) - (f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0))}{x - x_0}$$

Now, since the derivatives converge uniformly, we can choose  $N_1$  such that for  $n, m \ge N_1$  we have that  $|f_n'(c) - f_m'(c)| < \min\{\frac{\varepsilon}{2}, \frac{\varepsilon}{2(b-a)}\}$  and hence:

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x) - (f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0))| = |x - x_0||f'_n(c) - f'_m(c)| \le |b - a||f'_n(c) - f'_m(c)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Now, since  $(f_n)$  converges at  $x_0$ , can choose  $N_2$  such that for  $n,m \geq N_2 |f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$ . Thus, for any  $x \in [a,b]$  and  $n,m \geq \max N_1,N_2$ , we have:

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \le |f_n(x) - f_m(x) - (f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0))| + |f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon$$

Thus,  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly on [a, b].

**Problem** (6.5.5). For (a), we have:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{(n+1)s^n}{ns^{n-1}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} s \frac{n+1}{n} = s < 1$$

Thus, by the ratio test,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} ns^{n-1}$  converges. Since this series converges, we must have  $ns^{n-1} \to 0$  and hence this sequence must be bounded.

For (b), suppose that  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges on (-R,R) and pick t such that |x| < t < R. Then, we will show that the differentiated series converges absolutely at t and hence converges on [-t,t] for any such t, which implies that it converges on (-R,R). Since  $\frac{|x|}{t} < 1$ , (a) says that  $n\left(\frac{|x|}{t}\right)^{n-1} < M$  for some M:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |na_n x^{n-1}| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (t^{n-1}|a_n|) \left( n \left( \frac{|x|}{t} \right)^{n-1} \right) \le M \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} t^{n-1}|a_n| = \frac{M}{t} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} t^n |a_n|$$

Now, since  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges on (-R,R) it converges absolutely on [-t,t] by theorem 6.5.1 and theorem 6.5.2. Thus,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} t^n |a_n|$  converges so that by the comparison test,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |na_n x^{n-1}|$  converges, so we are done.

**Problem** (6.5.8b). Suppose that  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges on (-R,R) and f'(x) = f(x) for all  $x \in (-R,R)$  and f(0) = 1. Then, since f'(x) = f(x), differentiating term by term, we have:

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = f(x) = f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (n+1) a_{n+1} x^n$$

So, by the uniqueness of power series representations (i.e. 6.5.8a), we have:

$$a_{n+1} = \frac{a_n}{n+1}$$

Now, since f(0) = 1, we have  $a_0 = 1$ , so that:

$$a_n = \frac{a_{n-1}}{n} = \frac{a_{n-2}}{n(n-1)} = \dots = \frac{a_0}{n!} = \frac{1}{n!}$$

What function has this special property that f'(x) = f(x)?

**Problem** (6.6.5). For (a), since  $f^{(n)}(x) = e^x$ , we have that the Taylor coefficients are:

$$\frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} = \frac{e^0}{n!} = \frac{1}{n!}$$

Now, let R>0 and consider the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty}\frac{R^n}{n!}.$  Then, we have:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{R^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{R^n}{n!}} \right| = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{R}{n+1} = 0 < 1$$

Thus, by the ratio test, this series converges. Moreover, the convergence is absolute (since the terms are positive) so that by theorem 6.5.2, the Taylor series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  converges on the closed interval [-R,R].

For (b), we differentiate term by to term to compute f'(x), as follows:

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \frac{x^{n-1}}{n!} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!} = f(x)$$

For (c), we have:

$$e^{-x} = f(-x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-x)^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n!}$$

Then, we have:

$$e^{x}e^{-x} = \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n}}{n!}\right) \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n}x^{n}}{n!}\right)$$

$$= 1 + (x - x) + \left(\frac{x^{2}}{2} + x(-x) + \frac{(-x)^{2}}{2}\right) + \left(\frac{x^{3}}{6} + \frac{x^{2}}{2}(-x) + x\frac{(-x)^{2}}{2} + \frac{(-x)^{3}}{6}\right) + \cdots$$

$$= 1 + (x - x) + (x^{2} - x^{2}) + \left(\frac{x^{3}}{6} - \frac{x^{3}}{2} + \frac{x^{3}}{2} - \frac{x^{3}}{6}\right) + \cdots$$

$$= 1$$