

## 8.4

- D. Does  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+n^2}$  converge uniformly on the whole real line?

We know  $0 \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+n^2} < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ . Because  $\frac{1}{n^2}$  is convergent, then  $\frac{1}{x^2+n^2}$  must also be convergent.

This also gives us uniform convergence, because for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists an  $N$  such that  $0 \leq \left\| \sum_{i=k+1}^l \frac{1}{x^2+i^2} \right\| \leq \left\| \sum_{i=k+1}^l \frac{1}{i^2} \right\| \leq \varepsilon$  for every  $l > k \geq N$  regardless of our choice of  $x$ .

- E. Show that if  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n| < \infty$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos nx$  converges uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Because  $0 \leq |\cos nx| \leq 1$  then  $|a_n \cos nx| \leq |a_n|$ . Now we know that  $|a_n|$  converges and so then for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists an  $N$  such that  $\sum_{i=k+1}^l |a_n| < \varepsilon$  for any  $l > k \geq N$ . But  $\sum_{i=k+1}^l |a_n \cos nx| \leq \sum_{i=k+1}^l |a_n| < \varepsilon$  regardless of our choice of  $x$ . And since  $|a_n \cos nx|$  converges uniformly, then we get  $a_n \cos nx$  converging uniformly for free.

- F. (a) Let  $f_n(x) = \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^n}$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Evaluate the sum  $S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x)$ .

At  $x = 0$  the sum is 0. At all other values we have a geometric series which converges to  $\frac{x^2}{1 - (\frac{1}{1+x^2})} = \frac{x^2}{\frac{x^2}{1+x^2}} = 1 + x^2$

- (b) Is this convergence uniform? For which values  $a < b$  does this series converge uniformly on  $[a, b]$ ?

The convergence is not uniform. Our series converges to a discontinuous function ( $0 < 1 < 1 + x^2$ ), and so it is not uniformly continuous, by theorem 8.4.4.

We take the derivative

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^n} &= 2x(1+x^2)^{-n} - nx^2(1+x^2)^{-n-1}2x \\ &= \frac{2x(1+x^2)}{(1+x^2)(1+x^2)^n} - \frac{2nx^3}{(1+x^2)(1+x^2)^n} \\ &= \frac{2x(1+x^2 - nx^2)}{(1+x^2)(1+x^2)^n} \\ &= \frac{2x(1+x^2(1-n))}{(1+x^2)(1+x^2)^n} \end{aligned}$$

So the denominator of our derivative has no zeros, and our numerator has zeros at  $x = 0$  at  $x = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-1}}$ . Zero is obviously a minimum

because the function has no negative terms. And  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n-1}}$  is less than 1 for all  $n > 2$ . So if comparing  $x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n-1}}$  and  $x = 1$  when  $n = 3$  we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\frac{1}{n-1}}{(1 + \frac{1}{n-1})^3} &? \frac{1}{(1+1)^3} \\ \frac{\frac{1}{n-1}}{(\frac{n}{n-1})^3} &? \frac{1}{2^3} \\ \frac{1}{n-1} \left( \frac{n-1}{n} \right)^3 &? \frac{1}{8} \\ \frac{(n-1)^2}{n^3} &? \frac{1}{8} \\ \frac{2^2}{3^3} &? \frac{1}{8} \\ 0.148 &> .125 \end{aligned}$$

And so  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n-1}}$  is a maximum. Observe that

$$\frac{\frac{1}{n-1}}{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n-1}\right)^n} = \frac{1}{n-1} \left(\frac{n-1}{n}\right)^n = \frac{(n-1)^{n-1}}{n^n}$$

We have a higher degree on the bottom, so this will converge to zero. And so we have uniform convergence on  $[a, \infty)$  for all  $a > 0$ . And of course  $(-\infty, -a]$  or any subinterval of these.

- H. Suppose that  $a_k(x)$  are continuous functions on  $[0, 1]$ , and define  $s_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k(x)$ . Show that if  $(s_n)$  converges uniformly on  $[0, 1]$ , then  $(a_n)$  converges uniformly to 0.

If we assume that  $(a_n)$  does not converge uniformly to 0. We know that  $(a_n)$  converges to zero at least pointwise, else  $(s_n)$  would not converge for some  $x$ . And so we assume that  $(a_n)$  converges but not uniformly. Now  $(s_n)$  must be uniformly Cauchy and so given any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists some  $N$  large enough that  $\left\| \sum_{i=k+1}^l a_i(x) \right\|_{\infty} \leq \varepsilon$  for all  $l > k \geq N$ . We take  $l = k+1$  and obtain  $\|a_l(x)\|_{\infty} \leq \varepsilon \forall l \geq N$ . But we are assuming that  $(a_n)$  does not converge uniformly. Therefore  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|a_k\|_{\infty} = L$  for some  $L > 0$ .

If we choose  $\varepsilon = \frac{L}{2}$ , then we have  $\|a_l\|_{\infty} > \varepsilon$  for some  $N$  and all  $l > N$ . Thus we have a contradiction, and  $(a_n)$  must converge uniformly.

- J. Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of functions defined on  $\mathbb{N}$  such that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_n(k) = L_n$  exists for each  $n \geq 0$ . Suppose that  $\|f_n\|_{\infty} \leq M_n$ , where  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} M_n < \infty$ .

Define a function  $F(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(k)$ . Prove that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} L_n$ .

HINT: Think of  $f_n$  as a function  $g_n$  on  $\{\frac{1}{k} : k \geq 1\} \cup 0$ . How will you define  $g_n(0)$ ?

We define  $g_n(x) = f_n(\frac{1}{x})$ . Because  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{k} = 0$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f_n(k) = L_n$  then it makes sense to define  $g_n(0) = L_n$ . Further, the Weierstrass M-Test tells us that the series converges uniformly and so  $G(x)$  is continuous. Thus  $g_n(x)$  is defined for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ .

Now we define  $G(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} g_n(x)$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} F(k) = G(0) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} L_n$

## 8.5

A. Determine the interval of convergence of the following power series:

(a)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n^3 x^n$  We have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^3}{n^3} \right| = 1$ . Obviously  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n^3$  and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n n^3$  diverge, and so our interval of convergence is  $(-1, 1)$

(b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n^2} x^n$ . So  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1} n^2}{(-1)^n (n+1)^2} \right| = 1$ . But  $\sum (-1)^n / n^2$  and  $\sum 1/n^2$  both converge, and so our interval of convergence is  $[-1, 1]$ .

(c)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n} x^n$

The limit of  $\left| \frac{(n+1)^2 2^n}{2^{n+1} n^2} \right|$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  is  $1/2$ . Now  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n} (\pm 2)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n n^2$  or  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n^2$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty}$  which obvious diverge, so our interval of convergence is  $(-2, 2)$

(d)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sqrt{n} x^n$ . Now  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt{n+1}}{\sqrt{n}} = \sqrt{1} + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = 1$ . Of course  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \sqrt{n}$  diverges along with  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \sqrt{n}$  and so our interval is  $(-1, 1)$

(e)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$ . So we define  $a_{2k+1} = 0$  and  $a_{2k} = (-1)^k / (2k)!$ . And  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(2k)!}{(2k+2)!} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{(2k+2)(2k+1)} = 0$ . And so our sum only for any interval in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

(f)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{n!}$ .

Let us say  $g(x) = x^{n!}$  and  $g'(x) = n! x^{n!-1}$ . Then  $x g'(x) = n! g(x)$  and  $g(0) = 0$ . Now we assume there is a power series  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  that satisfies this DE. Then  $x \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1} = n! \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ .

(g)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n!}{n^n} x^n$  Now  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)!n^n}{n!(n+1)^{n+1}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)n^n}{(n+1)(n+1)^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{n+1}{n+1}\right)^{-n} = \frac{1}{e}$ . And  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left|(-1)^n \frac{n!}{e^n/n^n}\right| \neq 0$  because factorials grow faster than exponentials. And so our interval is  $(-e, e)$

(h)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^2}{(2n)!} x^n$   
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{((n+1)!)^2 (2n)!}{(2n+2)! (n!)^2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(n+1)^2}{(2n+2)(2n+1)} = \frac{1}{4}$ . And  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)^2}{(2n)!} 4^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{n! 4^n}{(n+1) \dots (n+n)}$ .  
 The computer claims this diverges, and so our interval of convergence is  $(-4, 4)$

(i)  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} x^n$   
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{n+1} = 1$  but  $\frac{1}{n}$  diverges while  $\frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  converges, so our interval is  $[-1, 1)$

B.