

MATH 314 FALL 2012 FINAL PRACTICE

- You should also
 - review homework problems.
 - try the 2011 final (and you should feel most of its problems are easy).
- Most problems in the final will be at the “Basic” and “Intermediate” levels (First 36 problems).

BASIC

Problem 1. Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & x \leq -1 \\ ax^2 + bx + c & |x| < 1, x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \\ 1 & x \geq 1 \end{cases}. \quad (1)$$

Find $a, b, c \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x)$ is continuous at every x .

Solution. We know that $-1, ax^2 + bx + c, 0, 1$ are all continuous functions, therefore for $f(x)$ to be continuous, we only need to make sure $f(x)$ is continuous at $1, 0, -1$.

- At -1 . We need

$$-1 = a(-1)^2 + b(-1) + c \iff a - b + c = -1; \quad (2)$$

- At 1 . We need

$$a + b + c = 1; \quad (3)$$

- At 0 . We need

$$c = 0. \quad (4)$$

Putting all these together we have

$$a = 0, b = 1, c = 0. \quad (5)$$

Problem 2. Calculate the derivatives of the following functions.

$$f_1(x) = \left(\frac{1+x^2}{1-x^2}\right)^3; \quad f_2(x) = \sqrt{1+x+x^2}; \quad f_3(x) = \exp[x \ln x]. \quad (6)$$

Solution. We have

$$f_1'(x) = \frac{12x(x^2+1)^2}{(x^2-1)^4}; \quad f_2'(x) = \frac{2x+1}{2\sqrt{x^2+x+1}}; \quad f_3'(x) = e^{x \ln x} [\ln x + 1]. \quad (7)$$

Problem 3. Calculate the following limits.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos^2 x}{\sqrt{1+x^2} - 1}; \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - e^{-x} - 2x}{x - \sin x}; \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi - \arctan x}{\sin(1/x)}. \quad (8)$$

Solution.

- We first check that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 - \cos^2 x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\sqrt{1 + x^2} - 1) = 0 \quad (9)$$

so we should apply L'Hospital's rule.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos^2 x}{\sqrt{1 + x^2} - 1} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \cos x \sin x}{x/\sqrt{1 + x^2}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \cos x}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}} \cdot \frac{\sin x}{x}. \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

Notice that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \cos x}{\sqrt{1 + x^2}} = \frac{2}{1} = 2$. We only need to find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$. Applying L'Hospital's rule again:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} = 1. \quad (11)$$

So finally we conclude

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos^2 x}{\sqrt{1 + x^2} - 1} = 2. \quad (12)$$

- We first check that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (e^x - e^{-x} - 2x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x - \sin x) = 0 \quad (13)$$

so L'Hospital's rule can be applied:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - e^{-x} - 2x}{x - \sin x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x + e^{-x} - 2}{1 - \cos x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{\sin x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{\cos x} = 2. \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

- We notice that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\pi - \arctan x) = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0. \quad (15)$$

To decide whether the limit is ∞ or $-\infty$, we notice $\sin(1/x) > 0$ for all $x > 1/\pi$. Therefore

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi - \arctan x}{\sin(1/x)} = \infty. \quad (16)$$

Problem 4. Calculate Taylor polynomial to degree 2 with Lagrange form of remainder.

$$f(x) = x \sin(\ln x); \quad x_0 = 1. \quad (17)$$

Solution. We have

$$f(1) = 0; \quad (18)$$

$$f'(x) = \sin(\ln x) + \cos(\ln x) \implies f'(1) = 1; \quad (19)$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{1}{x} \cos(\ln x) - \frac{1}{x} \sin(\ln x) \implies f''(1) = 1; \quad (20)$$

$$f'''(x) = -\frac{\cos(\ln x) - \sin(\ln x)}{x^2} - \frac{\sin(\ln x) + \cos(\ln x)}{x^2} = -\frac{2 \cos(\ln x)}{x^2}. \quad (21)$$

Therefore the Taylor polynomial with Lagrange form of remainder is

$$x \sin(\ln x) = (x-1) + \frac{(x-1)^2}{2} - \frac{\cos(\ln \xi)}{3\xi^2} (x-1)^3 \quad (22)$$

where ξ is between 1 and x .

Problem 5. Let $f(x) = 2x - \sin x$ defined on \mathbb{R} . Prove that its inverse function g exists and is differentiable. Then calculate $g'(0)$, $g'(\pi-1)$.

Solution. We have $f'(x) = 2 - \cos x \geq 1 > 0$ so g exists and is differentiable. We have

$$g'(y) = 1/f'(x) = \frac{1}{2 - \cos x} \quad (23)$$

so all we need to do is to figure out x_1, x_2 such that $f(x_1) = 0$ and $f(x_2) = \pi - 1$. It's easily seen that $x_1 = 0, x_2 = \pi/2$. Therefore

$$g'(0) = 1, \quad g'(\pi-1) = \frac{1}{2}. \quad (24)$$

Problem 6. Which of the following functions is/are differentiable at $x_0 = 0$? Justify your answers

$$f_1(x) = \begin{cases} x+2 & x > 0 \\ x-2 & x \leq 0 \end{cases}; \quad f_2(x) = \begin{cases} x \sin \frac{1}{x} & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}; \quad f_3(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}. \quad (25)$$

Solution.

- $f_1(x)$. Clearly $f_1(x)$ is not continuous at 0 so is not differentiable there.
- $f_2(x)$. We check

$$\frac{f_2(x) - f_2(0)}{x - 0} = \sin \frac{1}{x}. \quad (26)$$

As the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \frac{1}{x}$ does not exist, $f_2(x)$ is not differentiable at $x_0 = 0$.

- $f_3(x)$. We have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f_3(x) - f_3(0)}{x - 0} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0 \quad (27)$$

so $f_3(x)$ is differentiable at $x_0 = 0$.

Problem 7. Let $f(x): \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and $x_0 \in E$. Define $F(x) := \begin{cases} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} & x \neq x_0 \\ c & x = x_0 \end{cases}$. Prove that f is differentiable at x_0 if and only if there is $c \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $F(x)$ is continuous for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof. It is clear that $F(x)$ is continuous at all $x \neq x_0$ no matter what c is.

- Only if. If f is differentiable at x_0 then by definition

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} F(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = f'(x_0) \quad (28)$$

So if we set $c = f'(x_0)$, $F(x)$ is also continuous at x_0 .

- If. Since $F(x)$ is continuous at x_0 , we have

$$c = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} F(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \quad (29)$$

which by definition means f is differentiable at x_0 . □

Problem 8. Calculate the following integrals:

$$I_1 = \int_e^{e^2} \frac{dx}{x(\ln x)^4}; \quad I_2 = \int_0^4 e^{-\sqrt{x}} dx; \quad I_3 = \int_1^e x^3 \ln x dx \quad (30)$$

Solution.

- I_1 . Change of variable: $y = u(x) = \ln x$. Then we have

$$\begin{aligned} I_1 &= \int_e^{e^2} \frac{dx}{x(\ln x)^4} = \int_e^{e^2} \left(\frac{1}{u(x)^4} \right) u'(x) dx \\ &= \int_{u(e)}^{u(e^2)} \frac{1}{y^4} dy \\ &= \int_1^2 \frac{1}{y^4} dy \\ &= \left. -\frac{1}{3} y^{-3} \right|_1^2 \\ &= \frac{7}{24}. \end{aligned} \quad (31)$$

- I_2 . Change of variable: $y = u(x) = \sqrt{x}$. We have

$$\begin{aligned} I_2 &= \int_0^4 e^{-\sqrt{x}} dx = \int_0^4 e^{-u(x)} u'(x) (2u(x)) dx \\ &= \int_{u(0)}^{u(4)} e^{-y} 2y dy \\ &= 2 \int_0^2 y e^{-y} dy \\ &= 2 \int_0^2 y (-e^{-y})' dy \\ &= 2 \left[(-y e^{-y}) \Big|_0^2 + \int_0^2 e^{-y} dy \right] \\ &= 2[-2e^{-2} + 1 - e^{-2}] \\ &= 2 - 6e^{-2}. \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

- I_3 . We integrate by parts:

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &= \int_1^e x^3 \ln x dx = \int_1^e \ln x \left(\frac{x^4}{4} \right)' dx \\ &= \left[\ln x \left(\frac{x^4}{4} \right) \right]_{x=1}^{x=e} - \int_1^e \frac{x^4}{4} (\ln x)' dx \\ &= \frac{e^4}{4} - \frac{1}{4} \int_1^e x^3 dx \\ &= \frac{3e^4 + 1}{16}. \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

Problem 9. Prove that the following improper integrals exist and calculate their values:

$$J_1 = \int_0^\infty e^{-2x} \cos(3x) dx; \quad J_2 = \int_{-1}^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}; \quad J_3 = \int_0^1 (\ln x)^2 dx \quad (34)$$

Solution.

- J_1 . Notice that $e^{-2x} \cos(3x)$ is continuous on $[0, c]$ for every $c > 0$ and is therefore integrable there, we check

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_0^c e^{-2x} \cos(3x) dx &= \int_0^c e^{-2x} \left(\frac{1}{3} \sin(3x) \right)' dx \\
&= e^{-2c} \frac{1}{3} \sin(3c) - e^{-2 \cdot 0} \frac{1}{3} \sin(3 \cdot 0) \\
&\quad - \int_0^c \frac{1}{3} \sin(3x) (e^{-2x})' dx \\
&= \frac{1}{3} e^{-2c} \sin(3c) + \frac{2}{3} \int_0^c e^{-2x} \sin(3x) dx \\
&= \frac{1}{3} e^{-2c} \sin(3c) - \frac{2}{9} \int_0^c e^{-2x} (\cos(3x))' dx \\
&= \frac{1}{3} e^{-2c} \sin(3c) - \frac{2}{9} \left[e^{-2c} \cos(3c) - e^{-2 \cdot 0} \cos(3 \cdot 0) + \right. \\
&\quad \left. 2 \int_0^c e^{-2x} \cos(3x) dx \right] \\
&= \frac{1}{3} e^{-2c} \sin(3c) - \frac{2}{9} e^{-2c} \cos(3c) + \frac{2}{9} - \frac{4}{9} \int_0^c e^{-2x} \cos(3x) dx. \quad (35)
\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\int_0^c e^{-2x} \cos(3x) dx = \frac{9}{13} \left[\frac{1}{3} e^{-2c} \sin(3c) - \frac{2}{9} e^{-2c} \cos(3c) + \frac{2}{9} \right]. \quad (36)$$

Taking limit $c \rightarrow \infty$ we have

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^c e^{-2x} \cos(3x) dx = \frac{2}{13} \quad (37)$$

exists and is finite. So the improper integral exists,

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-2x} \cos(3x) dx = \frac{2}{13}. \quad (38)$$

- J_2 . Notice that $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ becomes unbounded at $x=1$ and $x=-1$. So we consider

$$\int_a^b \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \quad (39)$$

with $-1 < a < b < 1$. We apply change of variable $x = \sin y$ with $y \in (\arcsin a, \arcsin b)$. Then $dx = \cos y dy$ and the integral becomes (note that for the above y we have $\cos y > 0$)

$$\int_a^b \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \int_{\arcsin a}^{\arcsin b} \frac{\cos y dy}{\cos y} = \arcsin b - \arcsin a. \quad (40)$$

Now taking limits $a \rightarrow -1+$, $b \rightarrow 1-$, we have

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow -1+} \left[\lim_{b \rightarrow 1-} \int_a^b \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \right] = \pi \quad (41)$$

exists and is finite. So

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \pi. \quad (42)$$

- J_3 . As $(\ln x)^2$ is continuous and thus integrable on $[c, 1]$ for any $c \in (0, 1)$, we consider

$$\begin{aligned} \int_c^1 (\ln x)^2 dx &= [x (\ln x)^2]_c^1 - \int_c^1 2 \ln x dx \\ &= -c (\ln c)^2 - 2 \left[1 \ln 1 - c \ln c - \int_c^1 dx \right] \\ &= -c (\ln c)^2 + c \ln c + 2(1 - c). \end{aligned} \quad (43)$$

Thus

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow 0^+} \int_c^1 (\ln x)^2 dx = 2 \quad (44)$$

exists and is finite, so

$$\int_0^1 (\ln x)^2 dx = 2. \quad (45)$$

Problem 10. Prove by definition that $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x=0 \\ 0 & x \neq 0 \end{cases}$ is integrable over $[-1, 1]$ and find the value of $\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx$.

Proof. Let P be any partition of $[-1, 1]$. Then we have, since $f(x) \geq 0$,

$$L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \right) (x_i - x_{i-1}) \geq 0; \quad (46)$$

On the other hand, take $P_n = \{x_0 = -1, x_1 = -1 + \frac{1}{n}, \dots, x_{2n-1} = 1 - \frac{1}{n}, x_{2n} = 1\}$. We see that

$$\sup_{[x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & i = n, n+1 \\ 0 & \text{all other } i \end{cases}. \quad (47)$$

Therefore

$$U(f, P_n) = \sum_{i=1}^{2n} \left(\sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \right) (x_i - x_{i-1}) = \sum_{i=n}^{n+1} (x_i - x_{i-1}) = \frac{2}{n}. \quad (48)$$

By definition we have

$$U(f) \leq U(f, P_n) = \frac{2}{n} \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N} \implies U(f) \leq 0. \quad (49)$$

This gives $0 \geq U(f) \geq L(f) \geq 0$ which means $U(f) = L(f) = 0$. So $f(x)$ is integrable with $\int_{-1}^1 f(x) dx = 0$. \square

Problem 11. (USTC) Is the following calculation correct? Justify your answer.

$$\int_0^\pi \cos^2 x dx = \int_0^0 \frac{dt}{(1+t^2)^2} = 0 \quad (50)$$

where the change of variable is $t = \tan x$.

Solution. No. Since $\cos^2 x > \frac{1}{2}$ when $x \in (0, \pi/4)$ we have

$$\int_0^\pi \cos^2 x dx \geq \int_0^{\pi/4} \cos^2 x dx > \int_0^{\pi/4} \frac{1}{2} dx = \frac{\pi}{8} > 0 \quad (51)$$

so the calculation is not correct. The problem is $u(x) = \tan x$ is not differentiable over $(0, \pi)$.

Problem 12. Let $F(x) := \int_{\sin x}^{x^2+2} e^t dt$. Calculate $F'(x)$ and $F''(x)$.

Solution. Let $G(x) := \int_0^x e^t dt$. Then we have $G'(x) = e^x$, and

$$F(x) = \int_0^{x^2+2} e^t dt + \int_{\sin x}^0 e^t dt = \int_0^{x^2+2} e^t dt - \int_0^{\sin x} e^t dt = G(x^2+2) - G(\sin x). \quad (52)$$

This gives

$$F'(x) = G'(x^2+2)(x^2+2)' - G'(\sin x)(\sin x)' = 2x e^{x^2+2} - e^{\sin x} \cos x. \quad (53)$$

Taking derivative again we have

$$F''(x) = (4x^2+2)e^{x^2+2} + [\sin x - (\cos x)^2]e^{\sin x}. \quad (54)$$

Problem 13. Prove the convergence/divergence of (can use convergence/divergence of $\sum n^a$ and $\sum r^n$).

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n + n}{3^n + 5n + 4}, \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + n}{n^5 - 4}, \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}}{(n^{1/3} + 19)^5}. \quad (55)$$

Proof.

- For all $n \geq 1$ we have $2^n > n$. Therefore

$$\left| \frac{2^n + n}{3^n + 5n + 4} \right| \leq \frac{2 \cdot 2^n}{3^n} = 2 \left(\frac{2}{3} \right)^n. \quad (56)$$

As $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{2}{3} \right)^n$ converges, so does $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n + n}{3^n + 5n + 4}$.

- When $n \geq 2$ we have $\frac{n^5}{2} \geq 4$. This gives

$$\left| \frac{n^2 + n}{n^5 - 4} \right| \leq \frac{2n^2}{n^5/2} = 4n^{-3} \quad (57)$$

when $n \geq 2$. As $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-3}$ converges, so does $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + n}{n^5 - 4}$.

- Intuitively when n is large, we have

$$\frac{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}}{(n^{1/3} + 19)^5} \sim \frac{n}{n^{5/3}} = n^{-2/3}. \quad (58)$$

So we expect the series to diverge.

To justify, note that when $n > 19^3$, $n^{1/3} > 19$ and $n^2 > 1$. Therefore for such n we have

$$\frac{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}}{(n^{1/3} + 19)^5} > \frac{\sqrt{2n^2}}{(2n^{1/3})^5} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{32} |n^{-2/3}|. \quad (59)$$

The divergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-2/3}$ now implies the divergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}}{(n^{1/3} + 19)^5}$. \square

Problem 14. Prove that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+3)}$ converges and find its sum.

Proof. Since for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ we have $\frac{1}{n(n+3)} \leq \frac{1}{n^2}$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+3)}$ converges too. To find the sum, we notice

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k(k+3)} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k+3} \right) = \frac{1}{3} \left[\sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k} - \sum_{k=4}^{n+3} \frac{1}{k} \right] = \frac{1}{3} \left[\sum_{k=1}^3 \frac{1}{k} - \sum_{k=n+1}^{n+3} \frac{1}{k} \right]. \quad (60)$$

Taking limit $n \rightarrow \infty$ now gives $S_n \rightarrow \frac{11}{18}$. \square

Problem 15. Prove: If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^2$ converges then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{n}$ converges. (Hint: $\frac{a^2 + b^2}{2} \geq ab$)

Proof. It suffices to show the convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{n} \right|$. Since this is a non-negative series, all we need to show is that it is bounded from above. Notice that

$$\left| \frac{a_n}{n} \right| = |a_n| \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(a_n^2 + \frac{1}{n^2} \right). \quad (61)$$

We know that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^2$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ are convergent, therefore

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \left| \frac{a_k}{k} \right| \leq \frac{1}{2} \left[\sum_{k=1}^n a_k^2 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k^2} \right] < \frac{1}{2} \left[\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^2 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \right] \in \mathbb{R}. \quad (62)$$

So $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{n} \right|$ is bounded above and thus converges. \square

Problem 16. Study the convergence/divergence of

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{(1+1/n)}}. \quad (63)$$

Solution. It diverges because $n^{1/n} \leq 2$. To prove this statement, we only need to prove $2^n \geq n$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Use mathematical induction: The statement $P(n) = "2^n \geq n"$.

- $P(1)$ is true. We have $2^1 \geq 1$.
- If $P(n)$ is true, that is $2^n \geq n$, then we have

$$2^{n+1} = 2 \cdot 2^n \geq 2n \geq n+1 \quad (64)$$

therefore $P(n+1)$ is true.

Now we have

$$\frac{1}{n^{(1+1/n)}} \geq \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{n}. \quad (65)$$

Since $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ diverges, so does $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^{(1+1/n)}}$.

Problem 17. Prove that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n+1} = \infty. \quad (66)$$

You can use the divergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$.

Proof. For all $n \geq 1$ we have

$$\frac{1}{2n+1} \geq \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{n}. \quad (67)$$

Therefore $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = \infty \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n+1} = \infty$. \square

Problem 18. Consider $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n r^n$. Identify the values of $r \in \mathbb{R}$ such that it is convergent. Justify your answer. You can use the fact that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n r^n = 0$ when $|r| < 1$.

Solution.

Apply ratio test, we have

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{n+1}{n} |r| \longrightarrow |r| \text{ as } n \longrightarrow \infty. \quad (68)$$

Therefore the series converges for $|r| < 1$. On the other hand, when $|r| \geq 1$ it is clear that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n r^n = 0$ does not hold. Therefore the series is divergent for such r .

INTERMEDIATE

Problem 19. Let f, g be continuous at $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$. Then so are

$$F(x) := \max \{f(x), g(x)\}, \quad G(x) := \min \{f(x), g(x)\}. \quad (69)$$

Proof. Note that we have

$$F(x) = \max \{f(x), g(x)\} = \frac{f(x) + g(x)}{2} + \frac{|f(x) - g(x)|}{2} \quad (70)$$

and

$$G(x) = \min \{f(x), g(x)\} = \frac{f(x) + g(x)}{2} - \frac{|f(x) - g(x)|}{2} \quad (71)$$

As f, g are continuous at x_0 , so are $\frac{f(x) + g(x)}{2}$ and $\frac{|f(x) - g(x)|}{2}$. Consequently F, G are also continuous at x_0 . \square

Problem 20. Prove the following.

- a) There is **exactly one** $x \in (0, 1)$ such that

$$x^{1/2} e^x = 1. \quad (72)$$

- b) There are infinitely many $x \in \mathbb{R}$ satisfying

$$x \sin x = 1. \quad (73)$$

Proof.

- a) Since $x^{1/2}$ and e^x are both continuous on \mathbb{R} , $x^{1/2} e^x$ is also continuous on \mathbb{R} . We try to use intermediate value theorem. Denote $f(x) = x^{1/2} e^x$. Calculate

$$f(0) = 0, \quad f(1) = e \implies 1 \in (f(0), f(1)). \quad (74)$$

Thus there is $\xi \in (0, 1)$ such that $f(\xi) = 1$.

To show that ξ is the only solution to the equation, we check that $f(x)$ is strictly increasing:

$$f'(x) = \left(\frac{1}{2} x^{-1/2} + x^{1/2} \right) e^x > 0 \quad (75)$$

for all $x \in (0, 1)$. Thus $f(x) > 1$ when $x > \xi$ and $f(x) < 1$ when $x < \xi$.

- b) Since $x, \sin x$ are both continuous on \mathbb{R} , $f(x) := x \sin x$ is also continuous on \mathbb{R} . Now we check, for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$f(n\pi) = 0 < 1, \quad f\left(n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2} > 1. \quad (76)$$

Thus the intermediate value theorem gives the existence of $x_n \in (n\pi, n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2})$ satisfying $f(x_n) = 1$. So there are infinitely many solutions to $f(x) = 1$. \square

Problem 21. Let $f(x)$ be differentiable at x_0 with derivative $f'(x_0) = 3$. Calculate

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (3n^2 + 2n - 1) \left[f\left(x_0 + \frac{2}{n^2}\right) - f(x_0) \right] \quad (77)$$

Solution. Since $f(x)$ is differentiable at x_0 , we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{2} \left[f\left(x_0 + \frac{2}{n^2}\right) - f(x_0) \right] = f'(x_0) = 3. \quad (78)$$

Therefore as $n \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\begin{aligned} (3n^2 + 2n - 1) \left[f\left(x_0 + \frac{2}{n^2}\right) - f(x_0) \right] &= \left(6 + \frac{4}{n} - \frac{2}{n^2}\right) \left\{ \frac{n^2}{2} \left[f\left(x_0 + \frac{2}{n^2}\right) - f(x_0) \right] \right\} \\ &\rightarrow 6 f'(x_0) = 18. \end{aligned} \quad (79)$$

Problem 22. Let f, g be differentiable on (a, b) and continuous on $[a, b]$. Further assume $f(a) = g(b)$, $f(b) = g(a)$. Prove that there is $\xi \in (a, b)$ such that $f'(\xi) = -g'(\xi)$.

Proof. Let $h(x) := f(x) + g(x)$. Then we have $h(x)$ differentiable on (a, b) and continuous on $[a, b]$, and furthermore

$$h(a) = f(a) + g(a) = f(a) + f(b) = g(b) + f(b) = h(b). \quad (80)$$

Applying the mean value theorem we have: there is $\xi \in (a, b)$ such that $h'(\xi) = 0$. But this is exactly $f'(\xi) = -g'(\xi)$. \square

Problem 23. Prove the following inequalities

- $|\cos x - \cos y| \leq |x - y|$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$;
- $|\arctan x - \arctan y| \leq |x - y|$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$;
- $\frac{a-b}{a} < \ln \frac{a}{b} < \frac{a-b}{b}$, $0 < b < a$.

Proof.

- By mean value theorem

$$|\cos x - \cos y| = |(\sin \xi)(x - y)| = |\sin \xi| |x - y| \leq |x - y|. \quad (81)$$

- By mean value theorem

$$|\arctan x - \arctan y| = \left| \frac{1}{1 + \xi^2} (x - y) \right| = \left| \frac{1}{1 + \xi^2} \right| |x - y| \leq |x - y|. \quad (82)$$

- By mean value theorem

$$\ln \frac{a}{b} = \ln a - \ln b = \frac{1}{\xi} (a - b). \quad (83)$$

Since $b < \xi < a$ and $a - b > 0$, we have

$$\frac{a-b}{a} < \frac{a-b}{\xi} < \frac{a-b}{b}. \quad (84)$$

\square

Problem 24.

- Let $a \in (0, 1)$. Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [(n+1)^a - n^a] = 0. \quad (85)$$

You can use $(x^a)' = ax^{a-1}$.

- Prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [\sin((n+1)^{1/3}) - \sin(n^{1/3})] = 0. \quad (86)$$

Proof.

- Applying Mean Value Theorem to $f(x) = x^a$, we have

$$0 \leq (n+1)^a - n^a = a \xi^{a-1} [(n+1) - n] = \frac{a}{\xi^{1-a}} \leq \frac{1}{n^{1-a}} \quad (87)$$

where the last inequality follows from $\xi \in (n, n+1)$ and $1 - a > 0$. Now take $n \rightarrow \infty$, Squeeze Theorem gives

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [(n+1)^a - n^a] = 0. \quad (88)$$

- By Mean Value Theorem we have

$$\sin((n+1)^{1/3}) - \sin(n^{1/3}) = \cos(\xi) [(n+1)^{1/3} - n^{1/3}] \quad (89)$$

where $\xi \in (n^{1/3}, (n+1)^{1/3})$. This gives

$$|\sin((n+1)^{1/3}) - \sin(n^{1/3})| \leq (n+1)^{1/3} - n^{1/3}. \quad (90)$$

Thanks to a) we have $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [(n+1)^{1/3} - n^{1/3}] = 0$. Application of Squeeze Theorem to

$$-[(n+1)^{1/3} - n^{1/3}] \leq \sin((n+1)^{1/3}) - \sin(n^{1/3}) \leq (n+1)^{1/3} - n^{1/3} \quad (91)$$

gives the desired result. \square

Problem 25. (USTC) Let f be differentiable on \mathbb{R} , $f(0) = 0$ and $f'(x)$ is strictly increasing. Prove that $\frac{f(x)}{x}$ is strictly increasing on $(0, \infty)$.

Proof. We calculate

$$\left(\frac{f(x)}{x}\right)' = \frac{f'(x)x - f(x)}{x^2}. \quad (92)$$

Now notice that by the mean value theorem,

$$\frac{f(x)}{x} = \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = f'(\xi) \quad (93)$$

for some $\xi \in (0, x)$. As $f'(x)$ is strictly increasing, $f'(\xi) < f'(x)$ therefore

$$f(x) = x f'(\xi) < x f'(x) \quad (94)$$

thanks to $x > 0$.

This gives

$$\left(\frac{f(x)}{x}\right)' = \frac{f'(x)x - f(x)}{x^2} > 0 \quad (95)$$

for all $x \in (0, \infty)$. So $\frac{f(x)}{x}$ is strictly increasing on $(0, \infty)$. \square

Problem 26. Let $f(x)$ be differentiable on $(-\infty, 0)$ and $(0, \infty)$. Assume that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f'(x) = A, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f'(x) = B. \quad (96)$$

Prove that if $A \neq B$ then $f(x)$ is not differentiable at $x = 0$.

Proof. First notice that if $f(x)$ is not continuous at $x = 0$ then it is not differentiable there. In the following we assume $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = 0$.

Take one sequence $x_n < 0$, $x_n \rightarrow 0$ and another sequence $y_n > 0$, $y_n \rightarrow 0$. Then by Mean Value Theorem (note that we can apply MVT because now $f(x)$ is continuous on the closed intervals $[x_0, 0]$ and $[0, y_n]$) there are $\xi_n \in (x_n, 0)$ and $\eta_n \in (0, y_n)$ such that

$$\frac{f(x_n) - f(0)}{x_n - 0} = f'(\xi_n); \quad \frac{f(y_n) - f(0)}{y_n - 0} = f'(\eta_n). \quad (97)$$

As $x_n, y_n \rightarrow 0$, application of Squeeze Theorem gives $\xi_n, \eta_n \rightarrow 0$. Therefore

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x_n) - f(0)}{x_n - 0} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f'(\xi_n) = A \neq B = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f'(\eta_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(y_n) - f(0)}{y_n - 0} \quad (98)$$

which means

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} \quad (99)$$

does not exist and therefore $f(x)$ is not differentiable at 0. \square

Problem 27. Let $a > 1$. Assume $f(x)$ satisfies $|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |x - y|^a$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. Prove that f is constant.

Proof. We show that $f(x)$ is differentiable and $f'(x) = 0$. Take any $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$-|x - x_0|^{a-1} \leq -\frac{|f(x) - f(x_0)|}{|x - x_0|} \leq \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} \leq \frac{|f(x) - f(x_0)|}{|x - x_0|} \leq |x - x_0|^{a-1}. \quad (100)$$

Since $a > 1$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} |x - x_0|^{a-1} = 0$. Application of Squeeze Theorem gives

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = 0 \implies f'(x_0) = 0. \quad (101)$$

Therefore $f'(x) = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x)$ is a constant. \square

Problem 28. (USTC) Let f, g be differentiable on $[a, \infty)$, and $|f'(x)| \leq g'(x)$ for all $x \in [a, \infty)$. Prove that

$$|f(x) - f(a)| \leq g(x) - g(a) \quad (102)$$

for all $x > a$. (Hint: Cauchy's generalized mean value theorem.)

Proof. Since $|a| = \max(a, -a)$ for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$, it suffices to prove

$$f(x) - f(a) \leq g(x) - g(a) \text{ and } (-f)(x) - (-f)(a) \leq g(x) - g(a). \quad (103)$$

It is clear that $g'(x) \geq 0$ so $g(x)$ is increasing. Therefore if $f(x) = f(a)$, we have

$$|f(x) - f(a)| = 0 \leq g(x) - g(a). \quad (104)$$

Thus in the following we only consider those x such that $f(x) \neq f(a)$. This implies $g(x) > g(a)$.

Applying generalized mean value theorem to f and g we have

$$\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{g(x) - g(a)} = \frac{f'(\xi)}{g'(\xi)} \quad (105)$$

for some $\xi \in (a, x)$. As $f(x) \neq f(a)$, $f'(\xi) \neq 0$ which means $g'(\xi) \neq 0$.

Since $|f'(\xi)| \leq g'(\xi)$ we have $f'(\xi)/g'(\xi) \leq 1$ so

$$\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{g(x) - g(a)} \leq 1 \xrightarrow{\text{Recall that } g(x) - g(a) > 0} f(x) - f(a) \leq g(x) - g(a). \quad (106)$$

On the other hand, applying the same theorem to $-f$ and g gives

$$\frac{-(f(x) - f(a))}{g(x) - g(a)} \leq 1 \implies -(f(x) - f(a)) \leq g(x) - g(a). \quad (107)$$

Combining the two inequalities we reach

$$|f(x) - f(a)| \leq g(x) - g(a) \quad (108)$$

as required. \square

Problem 29. Let f be continuous and g be integrable on $[a, b]$. Further assume that $g(x)$ doesn't change sign in $[a, b]$. Prove that there is $\xi \in [a, b]$ such that

$$\int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx = f(\xi) \int_a^b g(x) dx. \quad (109)$$

Does the conclusion still hold if we drop " $g(x)$ doesn't change sign in $[a, b]$ "?

Proof. First notice that we only need to prove for the case $g(x) \geq 0$ since the case $g(x) \leq 0$ can be immediately obtained through the former case by considering $-g(x)$.

Next we notice that if $\int_a^b g(x) dx = 0$, then $\left| \int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(x)| g(x) dx \leq A \int_a^b g(x) dx = 0$ where $A = \max_{[a,b]} |f(x)| \in \mathbb{R}$ whose existence follows from the continuity of f on $[a, b]$. Therefore in this case

$$0 = \int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx = f(\xi) \int_a^b g(x) dx = 0 \quad (110)$$

holds for any $\xi \in [a, b]$.

Now we assume $\int_a^b g(x) dx > 0$. As $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ there are $\xi_1, \xi_2 \in [a, b]$ such that

$$f(\xi_1) \leq f(x) \leq f(\xi_2) \quad (111)$$

for all $x \in [a, b]$. As $g(x) \geq 0$, we have

$$f(\xi_1) g(x) \leq f(x) g(x) \leq f(\xi_2) g(x) \quad (112)$$

which leads to

$$f(\xi_1) \int_a^b g(x) dx \leq \int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx \leq f(\xi_2) \int_a^b g(x) dx. \quad (113)$$

that is

$$f(\xi_1) \leq \frac{\int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx}{\int_a^b g(x) dx} \leq f(\xi_2). \quad (114)$$

Application of the Intermediate Value Theorem now gives the existence of $\xi \in [a, b]$ satisfying

$$f(\xi) = \frac{\int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx}{\int_a^b g(x) dx} \quad (115)$$

which is what we need to prove.

If g changes sign the conclusion does not hold anymore. For example take $g(x) = \sin x$, $f(x) = 1$ and $a = 0, b = 2\pi$. \square

Problem 30. Prove the following inequalities:

- a) $\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx > \int_1^2 e^{-x^2} dx$;
- b) $\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx > \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx$;

Proof.

- a) We do a change of variable: $y = x - 1$ for the second integral:

$$\int_1^2 e^{-x^2} dx = \int_0^1 e^{-(y+1)^2} dy = \int_0^1 e^{-(x+1)^2} dx. \quad (116)$$

Now for $x \in (0, 1)$ we have

$$-x^2 > -(x+1)^2 \implies e^{-x^2} > e^{-(x+1)^2} \quad (117)$$

which gives

$$\int_0^1 e^{-x^2} dx > \int_0^1 e^{-(x+1)^2} dx \quad (118)$$

as desired.

- b) We show that for $x \in (0, \frac{\pi}{2})$, $0 \leq \frac{\sin x}{x} < 1$. The first inequality is obvious. To show the second, we calculate

$$\left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)' = \frac{x \cos x - \sin x}{x^2}. \quad (119)$$

Now let $f(x) = x \cos x - \sin x$ and notice that

$$f(0) = 0, \quad f'(x) = -x \sin x < 0 \text{ for all } x \in \left(0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \quad (120)$$

therefore

$$f(x) < 0 \quad (121)$$

for all $x > 0$. Consequently $f(x)$ is strictly decreasing which means

$$x \cos x - \sin x = f(x) < f(0) = 0. \quad (122)$$

Therefore

$$\left(\frac{\sin x}{x}\right)' < 0 \implies \frac{\sin x}{x} \text{ is strictly decreasing.} \quad (123)$$

As $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$, this means

$$\frac{\sin x}{x} < 1 \quad (124)$$

for $x \in (0, \frac{\pi}{2})$.

From this we have

$$\frac{\sin x}{x} > \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} \quad \forall x \in \left(0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \quad (125)$$

which gives

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx > \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} dx. \quad (126)$$

□

Problem 31. (USTC) Prove

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \left[\int_x^{2\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \right] dx = 0. \quad (127)$$

(Hint: Set $u(x) = \int_x^{2\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt$ then integrate by parts)

Proof. Set

$$u(x) = \int_x^{2\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt, \quad v(x) = x \quad (128)$$

then we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{2\pi} \left[\int_x^{2\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \right] dx &= \int_0^{2\pi} u(x) v'(x) dx \\ &= u(2\pi) v(2\pi) - u(0) v(0) - \int_0^{2\pi} v(x) u'(x) dx \\ &= 0 - 0 - \int_0^{2\pi} x \left(-\frac{\sin x}{x} \right) dx \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

□

Problem 32. Let f be continuous on \mathbb{R} . Let $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, $a < b$. Then

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_a^b \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} dx = f(b) - f(a). \quad (129)$$

Proof. Let $F(x)$ be an antiderivative of f . Since $f(x)$ is continuous on the closed interval $[a, b]$ it is integrable. We have

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a) \quad (130)$$

On the other hand,

$$\int_a^b f(x+h) dx = \int_{a+h}^{b+h} f(y) dy = F(b+h) - F(a+h). \quad (131)$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \int_a^b \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{h} [(F(b+h) - F(b) - (F(a+h) - F(a)))] \\ &= F'(b) - F'(a) \\ &= f(b) - f(a) \end{aligned} \quad (132)$$

Thanks to FTC Version 2. □

Problem 33. (USTC) Let f be integrable. Prove that

$$\int_0^\pi x f(\sin x) dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \int_0^\pi f(\sin x) dx. \quad (133)$$

(Hint: Change of variable: $t = \pi - x$.)

Proof. Do the change of variable as in the hint, we have

$$\int_0^\pi \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) f(\sin x) dx = \int_\pi^0 \left(t - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) f(\sin t) (-1) dt = - \int_0^\pi \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - t\right) f(\sin t) dt \quad (134)$$

That is

$$\int_0^\pi \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) f(\sin x) dx = - \int_0^\pi \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) f(\sin x) dx \quad (135)$$

so

$$\int_0^\pi \left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) f(\sin x) dx = 0. \quad (136)$$

□

Problem 34. Apply Ratio/Root tests to determine the convergence/divergence of the following series (You need to decide which one is more convenient to use).

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} (1 + 1/n)^{n^2}; \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (n!) x^n; \quad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(n!)}{n^n} x^n. \quad (137)$$

You can use the fact $(1 + 1/n)^n \rightarrow e$, and the Stirling's formula

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{\sqrt{2\pi n} (n/e)^n} = 1 \quad (138)$$

without proof.

Solution.

- We apply root test:

$$|a_n|^{1/n} = \frac{1}{2} (1 + 1/n)^n. \quad (139)$$

As $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} (1 + 1/n)^n = \frac{e}{2}$, we have

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} |a_n|^{1/n} = \frac{e}{2} > 1 \quad (140)$$

so the series diverges.

- We apply ratio test:

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = (n+1) |x|. \quad (141)$$

This leads to

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+1) |x| = \begin{cases} 0 & x = 0 \\ \infty & x \neq 0 \end{cases}. \quad (142)$$

Since the limit exists, we have

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = 0 < 1 \text{ when } x = 0; \quad \liminf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \infty > 1 \text{ when } x \neq 0. \quad (143)$$

So the series converges for $x = 0$ but diverges for all $x \neq 0$.

- We apply ratio test:

$$\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|} = \frac{(n+1)|x|}{(n+1)^{n+1}n^{-n}} = \frac{|x|}{(1+1/n)^n} \rightarrow \frac{|x|}{e}. \quad (144)$$

The ratio test then gives convergence when $|x| < e$ and divergence when $|x| > e$. When $|x| = e$, we have

$$|a_n| = \frac{(n!)}{n^n} e^n = \frac{n!}{(n/e)^n} \quad (145)$$

and Stirling's formula gives

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_n|}{\sqrt{2\pi n}} = 1. \quad (146)$$

This means $a_n \not\rightarrow 0$ so the series diverges.

Summarizing, the series converges when $|x| < e$ and diverges when $|x| \geq e$.

Problem 35. $a_n \geq 0$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges. Prove that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{a_n a_{n+1}}$ converges. On the other hand, if a_n furthermore is decreasing, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{a_n a_{n+1}}$ converges $\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges. Any example of if a_n is not decreasing then not true? (Take $a_n = 0$ for all n even)

Proof. First we note that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ converges} \iff \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n+1} \text{ converges.} \quad (147)$$

since

$$\sum_{k=1}^n a_k = a_1 + \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_{k+1}. \quad (148)$$

- If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, so does $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n+1}$ and then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n + a_{n+1})$. The convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{a_n a_{n+1}}$ then follows from

$$\sqrt{a_n a_{n+1}} \leq \frac{1}{2}(a_n + a_{n+1}). \quad (149)$$

- If a_n is decreasing, we have $a_n \geq a_{n+1} \implies a_{n+1} \leq \sqrt{a_n a_{n+1}}$. Thus the convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{a_n a_{n+1}}$ implies the convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_{n+1}$ and then that of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$.

If a_n is not decreasing then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sqrt{a_n a_{n+1}}$ converges $\not\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges. For example take $a_n = \begin{cases} 0 & n \text{ even} \\ 1 & n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$. □

Problem 36. Let $a_n \geq 0$. Prove that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^2$ converges. Is the converse true? Justify your answer.

Proof. Since $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$. Thus there is $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n > N$, $a_n < 1$. Now for these n we have

$$|a_n^2| = a_n^2 < a_n. \quad (150)$$

Therefore the convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ gives the convergence of $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^2$.

The converse is not true. Take $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$. □

ADVANCED

Problem 37. A function $f(x): E \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is called “uniformly continuous” if for any $\varepsilon > 0$, there is $\delta > 0$ such that for all $x, y \in E$ satisfying $|x - y| < \delta$, $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$.

- Prove that if f is uniformly continuous, then it is continuous.
- Give an example of a continuous function that is not uniformly continuous. Justify your answer.
- If $f: E \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is continuous with E a bounded closed set, then f is uniformly continuous.
- Prove that if f is continuous on $[a, b]$, then it is integrable on $[a, b]$.

Proof.

- This is obvious.
- $f(x) = 1/x$ defined for $x > 0$. Take $\varepsilon = 1$. Then for any $\delta > 0$ we can take $n \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $n > \delta^{-1}$. Then we have $\left| \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{n+1} \right| < \delta$ but $|f(1/n) - f(1/(n+1))| = 1 \geq \varepsilon$.
- Assume the contrary. Then there is $\varepsilon_0 > 0$ such that for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there are x_n, y_n such that

$$|x_n - y_n| < 1/n, \quad |f(x_n) - f(y_n)| \geq \varepsilon_0. \quad (151)$$

Applying Bolzano-Weierstrass, there is a subsequence $x_{n_k} \rightarrow \xi \in [a, b]$. As $|x_n - y_n| \rightarrow 0$, we have $y_{n_k} \rightarrow \xi$ too. But then $|\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_{n_k}) - \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(y_{n_k})| \geq \varepsilon_0$, contradicting the continuity of f .

- From c) we know that f is uniformly continuous. Now for any $\varepsilon > 0$, take δ such that for all $|x - y| < \delta$, $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon/(b - a)$.

Now take any partition $P = \{x_0 = a, x_1, \dots, x_n = b\}$ with $|x_i - x_{i-1}| < \delta$ for all $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$. Then we have

$$U(f, P) - L(f, P) = \sum_{i=1}^n (\sup f - \inf f)(x_i - x_{i-1}) < \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\varepsilon}{b-a} (x_i - x_{i-1}) = \varepsilon. \quad (152)$$

Therefore f is integrable. □

Problem 38. Let $f(x)$ be continuous over \mathbb{R} , and satisfies $f(x + y) = f(x) + f(y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$. Prove that there is $a \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = ax$.

Proof. First

$$f(0 + 0) = f(0) + f(0) \implies f(0) = 0; \quad (153)$$

Now let $a = f(1)$. Clearly $f(n) = na$. Next consider any rational number $q = \frac{n}{m}$. Then we have

$$na = f(n) = f(mq) = mf(q) \implies f(q) = aq. \quad (154)$$

Finally for any $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \mathbb{Q}$, there is $q_n \rightarrow x$. Since $f(x)$ is continuous we have

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(q_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} aq_n = ax. \quad (155)$$

Thus ends the proof. □

Problem 39. (USTC) Let $f(x)$ be differentiable. Assume that there are $a < b$ such that $f(a) = f(b) = 0$, $f'(a)f'(b) > 0$. Prove that there is $\xi \in (a, b)$ such that $f(\xi) = 0$.

Proof. There are two cases, $f'(a) > 0, f'(b) > 0$ and $f'(a) < 0, f'(b) < 0$. Considering $-f$ instead of f would turn any one case into the other, so we only consider the first case here.

Since $f'(a) > 0$,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} > 0. \quad (156)$$

Thus there is $x_1 \in \left(a, \frac{a+b}{2}\right)$ such that $f(x_1) > 0$; On the other hand, since $f'(b) > 0$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b} \frac{f(x) - f(b)}{x - b} > 0 \quad (157)$$

which means there is $x_2 \in \left(\frac{a+b}{2}, b\right)$ such that $f(x_2) < 0$.

Now $f(x)$ is differentiable on (a, b) so is continuous on (a, b) . Application of Intermediate Value Theorem gives the existence of $\xi \in (x_1, x_2) \subseteq (a, b)$ satisfying $f(\xi) = 0$. \square

Problem 40. Let $f(x)$ be continuous on (a, b) . Assume there is $x_0 \in (a, b)$ such that $f'''(x_0)$ exists. Prove that there are constants A, B, C, D such that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A f(x_0 + h) + B f(x_0) + C f(x_0 - h) + D f(x_0 - 2h)}{h^3} = f'''(x_0) \quad (158)$$

and find their values. (Hint: L'Hospital)

Proof. First notice that if $A + B + C + D \neq 0$, then the limit cannot be finite. Therefore we have

$$A + B + C + D = 0. \quad (159)$$

Now apply L'Hospital: Note that since $f'''(x_0)$ exists, $f''(x)$ must exist and be continuous on some (a_2, b_2) containing x_0 , then so does $f'(x)$ and $f(x)$. Therefore $f(x_0 + h)$ (and others) is differentiable at $h = 0$.

$$f'''(x_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A f'(x_0 + h) - C f'(x_0 - h) - 2D f'(x_0 - 2h)}{3h^2}. \quad (160)$$

This gives us

$$A - C - 2D = 0. \quad (161)$$

Applying L'Hospital again:

$$f'''(x_0) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A f''(x_0 + h) + C f''(x_0 - h) + 4D f''(x_0 - 2h)}{6h} \quad (162)$$

we obtain

$$A + C + 4D = 0. \quad (163)$$

Note that we cannot apply L'Hospital's rule anymore since it requires $f'''(x)$ to exist in some open interval around x_0 . But we can use definition: (In fact we can use Toy L'Hospital here...)

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{A f''(x_0 + h) + C f''(x_0 - h) + 4D f''(x_0 - 2h)}{6h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} A \frac{f''(x_0 + h) - f''(x_0)}{6h} \\ &\quad + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} C \frac{f''(x_0 - h) - f''(x_0)}{6h} \\ &\quad + \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 4D \frac{f''(x_0 - 2h) - f''(x_0)}{6h} \\ &= \frac{A - C - 8D}{6} f'''(x_0). \end{aligned} \quad (164)$$

$$(165)$$

This implies

$$A - C - 8D = 6. \quad (166)$$

Putting things together, it is sufficient and necessary for the constants to satisfy

$$A + B + C + D = 0 \quad (167)$$

$$A - C - 2D = 0 \quad (168)$$

$$A + C + 4D = 0 \quad (169)$$

$$A - C - 8D = 6 \quad (170)$$

Notice that D can be solved from the 2nd and the 4th equation: $D = -1$. This gives

$$A - C = -2, \quad A + C = 4 \implies A = 1, C = 3. \quad (171)$$

Finally we obtain $B = -3$. Summarizing,

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - 3f(x_0) + 3f(x_0 - h) - f(x_0 - 2h)}{h^3} = f'''(x_0) \quad (172)$$

□

Problem 41. (USTC) Let $f(x)$ be differentiable at x_0 with $f(x_0) \neq 0$ and $f'(x_0) = 5$. Take for granted $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (1+h)^{1/h} = e$. Calculate

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n})}{f(x_0)} \right|^n. \quad (173)$$

Solution. First note that as $f(x)$ is continuous at x_0 ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n})}{f(x_0)} = 1 \quad (174)$$

which means there is $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n > N$,

$$\frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n})}{f(x_0)} > 0. \quad (175)$$

Therefore

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n})}{f(x_0)} \right|^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n})}{f(x_0)} \right)^n. \quad (176)$$

Write

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n})}{f(x_0)} \right|^n &= \left| 1 + \frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n}) - f(x_0)}{f(x_0)} \right|^n \\ &= \left| 1 + \frac{1}{n} \frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n}) - f(x_0)}{1/n} \frac{1}{f(x_0)} \right|^n. \end{aligned} \quad (177)$$

Now let

$$h_n = \frac{1}{n} \frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n}) - f(x_0)}{1/n} \frac{1}{f(x_0)}. \quad (178)$$

We have

$$h_n \longrightarrow 0 \quad (179)$$

and

$$n = \frac{1}{h_n} \frac{f(x_0 + \frac{1}{n}) - f(x_0)}{1/n} \frac{1}{f(x_0)}. \quad (180)$$

Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{f\left(x_0 + \frac{1}{n}\right)}{f(x_0)} \right|^n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{f\left(x_0 + \frac{1}{n}\right)}{f(x_0)} \right)^n \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + h_n)^{\frac{1}{h_n} \frac{f\left(x_0 + \frac{1}{n}\right) - f(x_0)}{1/n} \frac{1}{f(x_0)}} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[(1 + h_n)^{1/h_n} \right]^{\frac{f\left(x_0 + \frac{1}{n}\right) - f(x_0)}{1/n} \frac{1}{f(x_0)}} \\
 &= \left\{ \lim_{h_n \rightarrow 0} \left[(1 + h_n)^{1/h_n} \right] \right\} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\frac{f\left(x_0 + \frac{1}{n}\right) - f(x_0)}{1/n} \frac{1}{f(x_0)} \right] \\
 &= \exp [f'(x_0)/f(x_0)].
 \end{aligned} \tag{181}$$

Problem 42. (USTC) Let f be twice differentiable over \mathbb{R} , with $f(0) = f(1) = 0$. Let $F(x) = x^2 f(x)$. Prove that there is $\xi \in (0, 1)$ such that $F''(\xi) = 0$.

Proof. All we need are x_1, x_2 such that $F'(x_1) = F'(x_2) = 0$.

We calculate

$$F'(x) = 2x f(x) + x^2 f'(x). \tag{182}$$

Thus it is clear that $F'(0) = 0$.

On the other hand, $f(0) = f(1) = 0$ implies $F(0) = F(1) = 0$ which gives the existence of $\eta \in (0, 1)$ such that $F'(\eta) = 0$.

Now apply Mean Value Theorem again we obtain the existence of $\xi \in (0, \eta) \subset (0, 1)$ satisfying

$$F''(\xi) = 0. \tag{183}$$

□

Remark 1. Note that the same idea can show the following: Let f be m -th differentiable with $f(0) = f(1) = 0$, let $F(x) = x^m f(x)$, then there is $\xi \in (0, 1)$ such that $F^{(m)}(\xi) = 0$.

Problem 43. Let f be differentiable over \mathbb{R} . Then $f'(x)$, though may be not continuous, always satisfies the Intermediate Value Property:

For any s between $f'(a)$ and $f'(b)$, there is $\xi \in [a, b]$ such that $f'(\xi) = s$.

Then use this to prove: If f is differentiable in (a, b) and $f' \neq 0$, then f is either increasing or decreasing.

Proof. Define the function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} f(b) + f'(b)(x - b) & x > b \\ f(x) & x \in [a, b] \\ f(a) + f'(a)(x - a) & x < a \end{cases}. \tag{184}$$

Then $g(x)$ is differentiable over \mathbb{R} . Now use Mean Value Theorem. The idea is very easy to understand if you draw the graph of the function $g(x)$.

If there are $x_1 < x_2, x_3 < x_4$ such that $f(x_1) < f(x_2), f(x_3) > f(x_4)$, then by mean value theorem we have $\xi \in (x_1, x_2), \eta \in (x_3, x_4)$ such that $f'(\xi) > 0, f'(\eta) < 0$. Now the mean value property implies the existence of x_0 between ξ, η such that $f'(x_0) = 0$. Contradiction. □

Remark 2. A better way to prove is to consider $g(x) = f(x) - s x$ defined for $x \in [a, b]$. Assume $f'(a) < s < f'(b)$. Then we have $g'(a) < 0, g'(b) > 0$. Since g is continuous on $[a, b]$, there is a minimizer $\xi \in [a, b]$. All we need to show is $\xi \neq a, b$. Since $g'(a) < 0$, for h small enough we have $g(a + h) < g(a)$ so $\xi \neq a$. Similarly $\xi \neq b$. Thus $g'(\xi) = 0 \implies f'(\xi) = s$.

Problem 44. (USTC) Calculate

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right). \quad (185)$$

(Hint: Write $\sum_{k=1}^n \sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{ka}{n^2} + \sum_{k=1}^n \left[\sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right) - \frac{ka}{n^2}\right]$, try to estimate $\left|\sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right) - \frac{ka}{n^2}\right|$ using Taylor polynomial)

Solution. Write

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right) = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{ka}{n^2} + \sum_{k=1}^n \left[\sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right) - \frac{ka}{n^2}\right] \quad (186)$$

Now recall the Taylor expansion of $\sin x$ with Lagrange form of remainder (to degree 1):

$$\sin x = x - \frac{\sin \xi}{2} x^2 \quad (187)$$

for some $\xi \in (0, x)$. This gives

$$\left|\sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right) - \frac{ka}{n^2}\right| \leq \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right)^2 \leq \frac{a^2}{2} \frac{1}{n^2}. \quad (188)$$

Now notice

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{ka}{n^2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n k = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a}{n^2} \frac{n(n+1)}{2} = \frac{a}{2}. \quad (189)$$

On the other hand

$$\left|\sum_{k=1}^n \left[\sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right) - \frac{ka}{n^2}\right]\right| \leq \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{a^2}{2} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{a^2}{2n}. \quad (190)$$

Application of Squeeze Theorem gives

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \left[\sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right) - \frac{ka}{n^2}\right] = 0. \quad (191)$$

Therefore

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \sin\left(\frac{ka}{n^2}\right) = \frac{a}{2}. \quad (192)$$

Problem 45. Let f be differentiable on $(0, \infty)$ with $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [f(x) + f'(x)] = 0$. Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$. (Hint: Let $F(x) = e^x f(x)$, $G(x) = e^x$. Apply Cauchy's generalized mean value theorem.)

Proof. Following the hint, we have for any $x > y > 0$,

$$\frac{e^x f(x) - e^y f(y)}{e^x - e^y} = f(\xi) + f'(\xi) \quad \text{for some } \xi \in (y, x). \quad (193)$$

Therefore for every ε , there is $M > 0$ such that for all $x > y > M$,

$$\left|\frac{e^{x-y} f(x) - f(y)}{e^{x-y} - 1}\right| = \left|\frac{e^x f(x) - e^y f(y)}{e^x - e^y}\right| < \varepsilon/2. \quad (194)$$

This gives

$$|f(x)| < \left|\frac{e^{x-y}}{e^{x-y} - 1}\right| |f(y)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{|f(y)|}{|e^{x-y} - 1|} \quad (195)$$

Now fix $y = M + 1$. Take $M' = M + 1 + \ln\left(\frac{2|f(y)|}{\varepsilon} + 1\right)$, then for every $x > M'$, we have

$$\left|\frac{f(y)}{e^{x-y} - 1}\right| < \varepsilon/2 \quad (196)$$

which leads to

$$|f(x)| < \varepsilon. \quad (197)$$

So by definition $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$. \square

Problem 46. Let f be continuous on $[0, \infty)$ and satisfy $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = a$. Prove

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x f(t) dt = a. \quad (198)$$

Proof. For any $\varepsilon > 0$, since $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = a$, there is $M_1 > 0$ such that

$$|f(x) - a| < \varepsilon/2 \quad (199)$$

for all $x > M_1$. Because f is continuous on $[0, M_1]$, it is bounded on $[0, M_1]$, that is there is $A > 0$ such that

$$|f(x)| \leq A \quad (200)$$

for all $x \in [0, M_1]$.

Now take $M = \max \left\{ M_1, \frac{2M_1(A+|a|)}{\varepsilon} \right\}$, we have for any $x > M$,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x f(t) dt - a \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x (f(t) - a) dt \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{x} \int_0^x |f(t) - a| dt \\ &= \frac{1}{x} \int_0^{M_1} |f(t) - a| dt + \frac{1}{x} \int_{M_1}^x |f(t) - a| dt \\ &\leq \frac{1}{x} \int_0^{M_1} (A + |a|) dt + \frac{1}{x} \int_{M_1}^x \frac{\varepsilon}{2} dt \\ &\leq \frac{M_1(A + |a|)}{x} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\ &< \frac{M_1(A + |a|)}{M} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} < \varepsilon. \end{aligned} \quad (201)$$

\square

Problem 47. (USTC) Let

$$F(x) = \int_0^x \frac{\sin t}{t} dt, \quad x \in (0, \infty). \quad (202)$$

Prove that $\max_{x \in \mathbb{R}} F = F(\pi)$.

Proof. First notice that

$$\frac{\sin t}{t} \begin{cases} \geq 0 & t \in [2k\pi, 2k\pi + \pi] \\ \leq 0 & t \in [2k\pi + \pi, 2(k+1)\pi] \end{cases}. \quad (203)$$

Therefore $F(x)$ is increasing in $[2k\pi, 2k\pi + \pi]$ and decreasing in $[2k\pi + \pi, 2(k+1)\pi]$ for every $k \in \mathbb{Z}$. All we need to show now is $F(\pi) > F(2k\pi + \pi)$ for every k . In fact we will show

$$F(\pi) > F(3\pi) > F(5\pi) > \dots \quad (204)$$

We show $F(\pi) > F(3\pi)$ here, others can be done similarly. We have

$$\begin{aligned} F(3\pi) &= F(\pi) + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt + \int_{2\pi}^{3\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt \\ &= F(\pi) + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} dt + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \frac{\sin(x+\pi)}{x+\pi} dx \\ &= F(\pi) + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} \frac{\sin t}{t} - \frac{\sin t}{t+\pi} dt < F(\pi). \end{aligned} \quad (205)$$

The last inequality follows from the fact that $\sin t < 0$ in $(\pi, 2\pi)$. \square

Problem 48. $a_n \geq 0$, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges. Let $b_n = \frac{a_n}{\sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k}$. Prove that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$ diverges.

Proof. We show that b_n is not Cauchy through showing: For any $n \in \mathbb{N}$, there is $m > n$ such that

$$\sum_{k=n}^m b_k > \frac{1}{2}. \quad (206)$$

Take any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Since $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ converges, so does $\sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k$. Denote $S = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k > 0$. Now denote $S_m = \sum_{k=n}^m a_k$, we have S_m increasing and $S_m \rightarrow S$. Thus there is $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $S_m > S/2$.

For this m , we have

$$\sum_{k=n}^m b_k = \sum_{k=n}^m \frac{a_k}{\sum_{l=k}^{\infty} a_l} \geq \sum_{k=n}^m \frac{a_k}{\sum_{l=n}^{\infty} a_l} = \frac{\sum_{k=n}^m a_k}{\sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k} = \frac{S_m}{S} > \frac{1}{2}. \quad (207)$$

Thus ends the proof. \square

Problem 49. (Alternating series) Let $b_n \geq 0$ with $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$. Assume there is $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n > N$, $b_n \geq b_{n+1}$.

- Prove that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} b_n$ converges.
- Apply this criterion to prove the convergence of $1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n}$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{3^n}{n!}$.
- Show that the condition “ b_n is decreasing” cannot be dropped.

Proof.

- For any $n = 2k > N$, we have

$$S_{2(k+1)} = \sum_{n=1}^{2(k+1)} (-1)^{n+1} b_n = S_{2k} + b_{2k+1} - b_{2k+2} \geq S_{2k}. \quad (208)$$

Thus S_{2k} is increasing when $2k > N$.

Now let k_0 be such that $2k_0 > N$ but $2(k_0 - 1) < N$. Now we have, for any $k \geq k_0$,

$$S_{2k} = S_{2k_0-1} - b_{2k_0} + b_{2k_0+1} - \dots - b_{2k-2} + b_{2k-1} - b_{2k} \leq S_{2k_0-1} \quad (209)$$

which means S_{2k} is bounded above.

Therefore $S_{2k} \rightarrow s \in \mathbb{R}$. Since $S_{2k+1} - S_{2k} = b_{2k+1} \rightarrow 0$, we have $S_{2k+1} \rightarrow s$ too. Combine these two we have $S_k \rightarrow s$.

- All we need to show is $\frac{1}{n}$ is decreasing with limit 0, which is obvious, and $\frac{3^n}{n!}$ is decreasing with limit 0. For the latter, notice that

$$\frac{3^n/n!}{3^{n+1}/(n+1)!} = \frac{n+1}{3} \quad (210)$$

which ≥ 1 when $n \geq 2$.

On the other hand, for $n \geq 5$, we have

$$b_{n+1} = \frac{3^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} = \frac{3}{n+1} b_n \leq \frac{1}{2} b_n \quad (211)$$

which means $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = 0$.

- That the condition “ b_n is decreasing” is necessary can be seen from the following example: $b_n = \begin{cases} 1/n & n \text{ odd} \\ 0 & n \text{ even} \end{cases}$. \square

REALLY ADVANCED

Problem 50. Let f be defined on (a, b) and $x_0 \in (a, b)$. Assume that $f^{(n+1)}(x)$ exists and is continuous on (a, b) with $f^{(n+1)}(x_0) \neq 0$. Consider the Taylor polynomial with Lagrange remainder:

$$f(x) = \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(\xi)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n. \quad (212)$$

Recall that ξ can be viewed as a function of x . If we define (naturally) $\xi(x_0) = x_0$, prove that $\xi(x)$ is differentiable at x_0 with

$$\xi'(x_0) = \frac{1}{n+1}. \quad (213)$$

Proof. We only need to show

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{\xi(x) - x_0}{x - x_0} = \frac{1}{n+1}. \quad (214)$$

expand to degree n with Lagrange form of remainder

$$f(x) = \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(x_0)}{n!} (x - x_0)^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\eta)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1}. \quad (215)$$

Thus we have

$$\frac{f^{(n)}(\xi) - f^{(n)}(x_0)}{x - x_0} = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\eta)}{n+1}. \quad (216)$$

On the other hand, by Mean Value Theorem there is $\eta' \in (x_0, \xi)$ such that

$$\frac{f^{(n)}(\xi) - f^{(n)}(x_0)}{\xi - x_0} = f^{(n+1)}(\eta'). \quad (217)$$

Therefore

$$\frac{\xi(x) - x_0}{x - x_0} = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(\eta)}{f^{(n+1)}(\eta')} \frac{1}{n+1}. \quad (218)$$

Note that η is a function of x , while η' is a function of ξ which is itself a function of x , so η' is also a function of x . We further have

$$x \rightarrow x_0 \implies \eta, \eta' \rightarrow x_0 \quad (219)$$

by Squeeze Theorem.

Since $f^{(n+1)}$ is continuous with $f^{(n+1)}(x_0) \neq 0$, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{\xi(x) - x_0}{x - x_0} = \frac{\lim_{\eta \rightarrow x_0} f^{(n+1)}(\eta)}{\lim_{\eta' \rightarrow x_0} f^{(n+1)}(\eta')} \frac{1}{n+1} = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(x_0)}{f^{(n+1)}(x_0)} \frac{1}{n+1} = \frac{1}{n+1}. \quad (220)$$

So by definition $\xi(x)$ is differentiable with $\xi'(x_0) = \frac{1}{n+1}$. \square

Problem 51. (USTC) Let f be differentiable. $a, b > 0$. Then there is $\xi \in (a, b)$ such that

$$\frac{1}{a-b} [a f(b) - b f(a)] = f(\xi) - \xi f'(\xi). \quad (221)$$

(Hint: Use Cauchy's Generalized Mean Value Theorem).

Proof. Notice that

$$\frac{a f(b) - b f(a)}{a - b} = \frac{\frac{f(b)}{b} - \frac{f(a)}{a}}{\frac{1}{b} - \frac{1}{a}}. \quad (222)$$

Now apply Cauchy's Generalized Mean Value Theorem to $f(x)/x$ and $1/x$, we have

$$\frac{\frac{f(b)}{b} - \frac{f(a)}{a}}{\frac{1}{b} - \frac{1}{a}} = \frac{\left(\frac{f(x)}{x}\right)'_{x=\xi}}{\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)'_{x=\xi}} = \frac{[f'(\xi)\xi - f(\xi)]/\xi^2}{-1/\xi^2} = f(\xi) - \xi f'(\xi). \quad (223)$$

□

Remark 3. Note that the condition $ab > 0$ is necessary because $1/x$ is not differentiable on (a, b) if $ab < 0$.

Problem 52. (USTC) Let $f(x)$ be differentiable on $[0, 1]$. $f(0) = 0$, $f(1) = 1$. Then for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k_1, \dots, k_n > 0$, there are n distinct numbers $x_1, \dots, x_n \in (0, 1)$, such that

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{k_i}{f'(x_i)} = \sum_{i=1}^n k_i. \quad (224)$$

Remark 4. Note that when $k = 1$, this is simply mean value theorem. Also if we do not require x_1, \dots, x_n to be distinct, the problem is trivial since we can take $x_1 = \dots = x_n = \xi$ with $f'(\xi) = 1$.

(Hint: Take $y_1 < y_2 < \dots < y_{n-1}$ such that $f(y_i) = \frac{k_1 + \dots + k_i}{k_1 + \dots + k_n}$. Set $y_0 = 0$, $y_1 = 1$. Then define $g(x)$ to be linear on each $[y_i, y_{i+1}]$ with $g(y_i) = f(y_i)$, $g(y_{i+1}) = f(y_{i+1})$. Apply Cauchy's generalized mean value theorem.)

Proof. Following the hint, on each $[y_{i-1}, y_i]$ we have a x_i such that

$$\frac{g'(x_i)}{f'(x_i)} = \frac{g(y_i) - g(y_{i-1})}{f(y_i) - f(y_{i-1})} = 1. \quad (225)$$

But since g is linear, we have

$$g'(x_i) = \frac{k_i / \left(\sum_{j=1}^n k_j\right)}{y_i - y_{i-1}} \quad (226)$$

which gives

$$\frac{k_i}{f'(x_i)} = (y_i - y_{i-1}) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n k_j\right) \implies \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{k_i}{f'(x_i)} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y_{i-1})\right) \left(\sum_{j=1}^n k_j\right) = \sum_{j=1}^n k_j \quad (227)$$

since $\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - y_{i-1}) = y_n - y_0 = 1 - 0 = 1$. □

Problem 53. (USTC) Let f, g be continuous on $[-1, 1]$, infinitely differentiable on $(-1, 1)$, and

$$|f^{(n)}(x) - g^{(n)}(x)| \leq n! |x| \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (228)$$

Prove that $f = g$. (Hint: Show first $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$ for all n . Then use Taylor polynomial with Lagrange form of remainder)

Proof. Set $h(x) = f - g$. We have $h(0) = 0$. Next we have

$$|h(x) - h(0)| = |h'(\xi) x| \leq x^2 \implies h'(0) = 0. \quad (229)$$

Do this $n - 1$ more times we have $h^{(n)}(0) = 0$ for any $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Now estimate

$$|h(x)| = \left| \frac{h^{(n)}(\xi)}{n!} x^n \right| \leq |x|^{n+1}. \quad (230)$$

For every $|x| < 1$, letting $n \rightarrow \infty$, we have

$$|h(x)| \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x|^n = 0. \quad (231)$$

Therefore $h(x) = 0$ for all $x \in (-1, 1)$. As $h(x)$ is continuous on $[-1, 1]$, we have $h(x) = 0$ for all $x = -1, 1$ too. \square

Problem 54. Define γ_n through $\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{k} = \ln n + \gamma_n$

- Show that $\gamma_n \geq 0$, γ_n is increasing with respect to n .
- Show that $\gamma_n \rightarrow \gamma \in \mathbb{R}$.
- Show that $\sum_1^\infty (-1)^{n+1}/n = \ln 2$.

Proof.

- Denote

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n} - \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{x} dx. \quad (232)$$

Then we have $a_n \geq 0$ and

$$\gamma_n = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} a_n. \quad (233)$$

Clearly γ_n is increasing.

- All we need to show is γ_n is bounded above. We have

$$\gamma_n = \sum_1^{n-1} \frac{1}{k} - \int_1^n \frac{dx}{x} \leq 1 + \sum_2^n \frac{1}{k} - \int_1^n \frac{dx}{x} = 1 + \sum_{k=2}^n \left[\frac{1}{k} - \int_{k-1}^k \frac{dx}{x} \right] < 1. \quad (234)$$

Therefore γ_n converges with some limit $\gamma \in (0, 1)$.

- We have

$$\sum_{k=1}^{2m} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} = \sum_{k=1}^{2m} \frac{1}{k} - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{k} = \ln(2m+1) - \ln(m+1) = \ln\left(\frac{2m+1}{m+1}\right); \quad (235)$$

$$\sum_{k=1}^{2m+1} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} = \sum_{k=1}^{2m} \frac{1}{k} - \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{2m+1} = \ln\left(\frac{2m+1}{m+1}\right) + \frac{1}{2m+1}. \quad (236)$$

Since

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \ln\left(\frac{2m+1}{m+1}\right) = \ln 2, \quad (237)$$

for any $\varepsilon > 0$, if we take $N > \max\{N_1, \frac{2}{\varepsilon}\}$ where N_1 is such that for any $m > N_1/2$,

$$\left| \ln\left(\frac{2m+1}{m+1}\right) - \ln 2 \right| < \varepsilon/2 \quad (238)$$

Then for any $n > N$ we have

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} - \ln 2 \right| < \varepsilon. \quad (239)$$

Thus ends the proof. \square

Remark 5. The convergence of γ_n can be shown directly by estimating

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n} - \int_n^{n+1} \frac{1}{x} dx = \frac{1}{n} - \ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) = \frac{1}{n} - \left[\ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) - \ln 1 \right] \quad (240)$$

using Mean Value Theorem (on \ln).

Problem 55. (Bonar2006)

- a) Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ be any convergent non-negative series, then there is another convergent non-negative series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n$ satisfying $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (A_n/a_n) = \infty$; (Hint: Set $A_n = \frac{a_n}{\sqrt{a_n + a_{n+1} + \dots}}$)
- b) Let $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} D_n$ be any divergent non-negative series, then there is another divergent non-negative series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} d_n$ satisfying $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (d_n/D_n) = 0$. (Hint: Set $d_n = D_n/(D_1 + \dots + D_{n-1})$)

Proof.

a) Define

$$t_n = \sum_{k=n}^{\infty} a_k \quad (241)$$

and then

$$A_n = \frac{a_n}{\sqrt{t_n}}. \quad (242)$$

Then clearly $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (A_n/a_n) = \infty$.

On the other hand, we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^n A_k = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{t_k - t_{k-1}}{\sqrt{t_k}} \leq \int_0^{t_1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx < \infty. \quad (243)$$

b) Define

$$S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n D_k \quad (244)$$

and then

$$d_n = \frac{D_n}{S_{n-1}}. \quad (245)$$

Since $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} D_n$ diverges, together with $D_n \geq 0$ we have $S_n \rightarrow \infty$ so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (d_n/D_n) = 0$.

On the other hand,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} d_k > \int_{S_1}^{S_n} \frac{1}{x} dx \rightarrow \infty \quad (246)$$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$. \square

REALLY REALLY ADVANCED

Problem 56. (USTC) Let $f(x)$ be continuous on $[0, \infty)$ and be bounded. Then for every $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, there is $x_n \rightarrow \infty$ such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [f(x_n + \lambda) - f(x_n)] = 0. \quad (247)$$

Proof. Prove by contradiction. Note that all we need to show is that the sets

$$A_n := \{x \geq n, |f(x + \lambda) - f(x)| \leq 1/n\} \quad (248)$$

are non-empty for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Assume the contrary: There is $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $A_{n_0} = \emptyset$. That is for all $x > n_0$, either

$$f(x + \lambda) - f(x) > 1/n_0 \quad \text{or} \quad f(x + \lambda) - f(x) < -1/n_0. \quad (249)$$

Let $g(x) := f(x + \lambda) - f(x)$. Then $g(x)$ is continuous. We have for every $x > n_0$, either $g(x) > 1/n_0$ or $g(x) < -1/n_0$. There are three possible cases:

- If there are $x_1 > n_0$ and $x_2 > n_0$ such that $g(x_1) > 1/n_0$, $g(x_2) < -1/n_0$, then by intermediate value theorem we have $\xi > n_0$ such that $g(\xi) = 0$. Contradiction.
- If $g(x) > 1/n_0$ for all $x > n_0$, then we have

$$f(n_0 + k\lambda) > f(n_0 + (k-1)\lambda) + \frac{1}{n_0} > \dots > f(n_0) + \frac{k}{n_0}. \quad (250)$$

As a consequence, for any $M \in \mathbb{R}$, take $k > (|M| + |f(n_0)|)n_0$, we have

$$f(n_0 + k\lambda) > M. \quad (251)$$

This means f is not bounded above and thus not bounded. Contradiction.

- $g(x) < -1/n_0$ for all $x > n_0$. Similar. □

Problem 57. Let $f(x)$ be differentiable with $f(x_0) = 0$. Further assume $|f'(x)| \leq |f(x)|$ for all $x > x_0$. Prove that $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \geq x_0$.

Proof. We prove that $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \in [x_0, x_0 + 1/2]$. Then by repeating the same argument setting with x_0 replaced by $x_0 + 1/2$ we will get $f(x) = 0$ for all $x \in [x_0, x_0 + 1]$. Doing this again and again we can cover all $x \geq x_0$.

Take any $x \in (x_0, x_0 + 1/2]$. By mean value theorem we have

$$\frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} = f'(\xi) \quad (252)$$

for some $\xi_1 \in (x_0, x_0 + 1/2)$. This leads to

$$|f(x)| = |f'(\xi)| |x - x_0| \leq \frac{1}{2} |f(\xi_1)|.$$

Apply the same argument we find $\xi_2 \in (x_0, \xi_1)$ such that

$$|f(\xi_1)| \leq \frac{1}{2} |f(\xi_2)|. \quad (253)$$

This way we obtain a decreasing sequence ξ_n satisfying

$$|f(\xi_{n-1})| \leq \frac{1}{2} |f(\xi_n)|. \quad (254)$$

This implies

$$|f(x)| \leq \frac{1}{2^n} |f(\xi_n)|. \quad (255)$$

Since $f(x)$ is differentiable it is continuous on $[x_0, x_0 + 1/2]$ which means there is $A > 0$ such that

$$|f(\xi_n)| \leq A \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}. \quad (256)$$

This gives

$$|f(x)| \leq \frac{A}{2^n} \quad (257)$$

for all n , so $f(x) = 0$. \square

Problem 58. (Darboux's Theorem) ¹Let $f(x)$ be a bounded function over a finite interval $[a, b]$. Let $P_n = \left\{x_0 = a, x_1 = a + \frac{b-a}{n}, \dots, x_n = b\right\}$. Then

$$U(f, P_n) \longrightarrow U(f); \quad L(f, P_n) \longrightarrow L(f). \quad (258)$$

Proof. Let $M > 0$ be the bound of $|f(x)|$. We prove the first statement, the second is similar.

Take any $\varepsilon > 0$. Let $P = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$ be a partition such that

$$U(f, P) \leq U(f) + \varepsilon/2. \quad (259)$$

Now consider P_n with $n > 2m$. It is clear that at least $n - 2m$ intervals in P_n are fully contained in some $[x_{i-1}, x_i]$ of P . As a consequence

$$\begin{aligned} U(f, P_n) &= \sum_{\text{intervals contained in some } [x_{i-1}, x_i]} + \sum_{\text{intervals containing some } x_i} \\ &\leq U(f, P) + \frac{2mM}{n} \\ &\leq U(f) + \frac{2mM}{n} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2}. \end{aligned} \quad (260)$$

From this we see that, if we take $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $N > \frac{4mM}{\varepsilon}$, then for every $n > N$,

$$U(f, P_n) \leq U(f) + \varepsilon. \quad (261)$$

On the other hand, by definition of $U(f)$ we have

$$U(f, P_n) \geq U(f). \quad (262)$$

Thus we have shown that, for every $\varepsilon > 0$, we can find $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n > N$,

$$|U(f, P_n) - U(f)| < \varepsilon. \quad (263)$$

This by definition gives $U(f, P_n) \longrightarrow U(f)$ as $n \longrightarrow \infty$. \square

Problem 59. (Claesson1970) Let $f(x)$ be a bounded function over a finite interval $[a, b]$. Let $U(f)$ denote its upper integral. Prove: f is integrable \iff For any bounded function $g(x)$,

$$U(f+g) = U(f) + U(g). \quad (264)$$

Proof.

- \implies . Assume f is integrable. Let P be any partition of $[a, b]$. We have by definition

$$U(f+g, P) \leq U(f, P) + U(g, P). \quad (265)$$

On the other hand, by definition

$$\begin{aligned} U(f+g, P) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) + g(x) \right] (x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &\geq \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) + \sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} g(x) \right] (x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &= L(f, P) + U(g, P). \end{aligned} \quad (266)$$

1. Darboux Theorem actually states that the conclusion holds for any sequence of partitions with $\sup_i (x_i - x_{i-1}) \longrightarrow 0$. But the proof in such general case is very similar to the special one here.

Thus we have

$$L(f, P) + U(g, P) \leq U(f + g, P) \leq U(f, P) + U(g, P) \quad (267)$$

for any partition P . Thus on one hand we have

$$U(f + g) \leq U(f + g, P) \leq U(f, P) + U(g, P) \quad (268)$$

which leads to

$$U(f + g) \leq U(f) + U(g) \quad (269)$$

due to the arbitrariness of P .

On the other hand, we have

$$U(f + g, P) \geq L(f, P) + U(g, P) \geq L(f, P) + U(g). \quad (270)$$

Now for any partition Q , we have

$$U(f + g, Q) \geq U(f + g, P \cup Q) \geq L(f, P \cup Q) + U(g) \geq L(f, P) + U(g). \quad (271)$$

Taking supreme over P and then infimum over Q we obtain

$$U(f + g) \geq L(f) + U(g). \quad (272)$$

Summarizing:

$$L(f) + U(g) \leq U(f + g) \leq U(f) + U(g). \quad (273)$$

But f is integrable so $L(f) = U(f)$ which leads to

$$U(f + g) = U(f) + U(g). \quad (274)$$

- \Leftarrow . Take $g = -f$. Then g is bounded. We have

$$0 = U(0) = U(f + g) = U(f) + U(-f). \quad (275)$$

In the following we show $U(-f) = -L(f)$ with when substituted into (275) immediately gives integrability of f .

Now notice, for any partition P ,

$$\begin{aligned} U(-f, P) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[\sup_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} (-f(x)) \right] (x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left[- \inf_{x \in [x_{i-1}, x_i]} f(x) \right] (x_i - x_{i-1}) \\ &= -L(f, P). \end{aligned} \quad (276)$$

From this we have

$$U(-f) \leq -L(f, P) \quad (277)$$

for any partition P so

$$U(-f) \leq -L(f) \implies L(f) \leq -U(-f). \quad (278)$$

On the other hand,

$$L(f, P) = -U(-f, P) \implies L(f) \geq -U(-f, P) \text{ for all } P \implies L(f) \geq -U(-f). \quad (279)$$

Summarizing, we have

$$U(-f) = -L(f). \quad (280)$$

Thus we have

$$0 = U(f) - L(f) \implies U(f) = L(f) \quad (281)$$

so f is integrable. \square