

Hwk #6 Solutions

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Section 4.1 #7, 20, 24, 33

7. Suppose $S_n \rightarrow S$ (finite) and $\forall \epsilon > 0$ $|S_n - t_n| < \epsilon$ if n is large enough. Show that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n = S$.

Fix $\epsilon > 0$, $S_n \rightarrow S \Rightarrow \exists N_1$ s.t. $n > N_1$ $|S_n - S| < \epsilon/2$

From what is given $\exists N_2$ s.t. $n > N_2$ $|S_n - t_n| < \epsilon/2$

$$\Rightarrow |t_n - S| = |t_n - S_n + S_n - S|$$

$$< |t_n - S_n| + |S_n - S|$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2$$

$$= \epsilon$$

if $n > \max(N_1, N_2)$.

$$\Rightarrow t_n \rightarrow S.$$

20. Prove: If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{S_n - S}{S_n + S} = 0$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$

Let $t_n = \frac{S_n - S}{S_n + S}$. Then $t_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Solving for $S_n = \frac{(1+t_n)S}{1-t_n}$ we can take the limit:

of this ratio since the individual limits of the numerator and denominator exist

$$\Rightarrow S_n \rightarrow S \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

24. Find \bar{S} and \underline{S}

2.

a) $S_n = [(-1)^n + 1]n^2$

If n is even say $n=2k$ then $S_{2k} = 2(2k)^2 \Rightarrow \bar{S} = \infty$

n odd say $n=2k+1$ then $S_{2k+1} = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{S} = 0$

b) $S_n = (1-r^n) \sin \frac{n\pi}{2}$

The answer will clearly depend on the value of r , so let's consider this on a case by case basis.

If $r=1$ then $S_n = 0 \Rightarrow \bar{S} = \underline{S} = 0$

If $|r| < 1$ then $1-r^n \rightarrow 1$ and we only need to worry about $\sin \frac{n\pi}{2}$. This term takes on the values $-1, 0, 1$ depending on the value of n .

$\Rightarrow \bar{S} = 1, \underline{S} = -1$

If $|r| > 1$ then $1-r^n \rightarrow -\infty$ if $r > 1$

and oscillates towards $\pm\infty$ if $r < -1$

$\sin \frac{n\pi}{2}$ still takes on values $-1, 0, 1$

$\Rightarrow \bar{S} = +\infty, \underline{S} = -\infty$

c) $S_n = \frac{r^{2n}}{1+r^n} \quad r \neq -1$

If $|r| < 1$, then $S_n \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow \bar{S} = \underline{S} = 0$

If $r > 1$ then $S_n \rightarrow +\infty \Rightarrow \bar{S} = \underline{S} = +\infty$

If $r < -1$ then ~~the~~ sequence oscillates, and $\bar{S} = +\infty, \underline{S} = -\infty$.

3

(d) $S_n = n^2 - n = n(n-1) \rightarrow +\infty \Rightarrow \overline{S} = \underline{S} = +\infty$

(e) $S_n = (-1)^n t_n$ where $t_n \rightarrow t$.

$\Rightarrow \overline{S} = t, \underline{S} = -t.$

33. Let S_0 and S_1 be arbitrary and $S_{n+1} = \frac{S_n + S_{n-1}}{2} \quad n \geq 1$

Use Cauchy's convergence criterion to show S_n converges.

Thus we must show that $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N$ s.t. if $n, m > N$ then $|S_n - S_m| < \epsilon$.

First note that S_{n+1} is the average ~~between~~ of the two preceding values S_n and S_{n-1} . Therefore $\{S_n\}$ is bounded both above and below for all n .

Now fix $\epsilon > 0$ and consider $m = n+k, k \geq 1$.

$|S_m - S_n| = |S_{n+k} - S_n|$, we will systematically replace S_{n+k} with terms like $S_{n+k} - S_{n+k-1} + S_{n+k-1} - S_{n+k-2} + S_{n+k-2}$ etc.

But first observe the following

$$S_{n+1} - S_n = \frac{S_n + S_{n-1}}{2} - S_n = \frac{S_{n-1} - S_n}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow |S_{n+1} - S_n| = \frac{|S_n - S_{n-1}|}{2}$$

Thus by induction

(4)

$$|S_{n+1} - S_n| = \frac{|S_1 - S_0|}{2^n}$$

Therefore

$$|S_m - S_n| = |(S_m - S_{m-1}) + (S_{m-1} - S_{m-2}) + \dots + (S_{n+1} - S_n)|$$

$$\leq |S_m - S_{m-1}| + |S_{m-1} - S_{m-2}| + \dots + |S_{n+1} - S_n|$$

$$\leq \frac{|S_1 - S_0|}{2^n} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{m-n-1}} \right)$$

$$< \frac{|S_1 - S_0|}{2^{n-1}}$$

Thus by taking n sufficiently large, $\frac{1}{2^{n-1}} < \varepsilon$

\Rightarrow by the Cauchy criterion $\{S_n\}$ converges.

Section 4.2, # 5, 8

(5)

S. Prove: If $s_n \rightarrow S$ and $\{s_n\}$ has a subsequence $\{s_{n_k}\}$
 s.t. $(-1)^k s_{n_k} \geq 0$ then $S = 0$.

By theorem 4.2.2. every subsequence of $\{s_n\}$ must converge to S .

$$\Rightarrow s_{n_k} \rightarrow S \text{ as } n_k \rightarrow \infty$$

~~not~~ $(-1)^k s_{n_k}$ must also converge since it is the product of
 a convergent sequence and a bounded one. where $(-1)^k s_{n_k} \rightarrow S$.

Suppose $S < 0$. Then $\forall \epsilon > 0$, $\exists N$ s.t. $n_k > N \Rightarrow |(-1)^k s_{n_k} - S| < \epsilon$

but this would imply $(-1)^k s_{n_k} < 0$ for n_k sufficiently large.

$$\Rightarrow \dots S \geq 0$$

~~Suppose $S > 0$, then for n sufficiently large
 $0 < S - \epsilon < s_n \Rightarrow$ there cannot exist a
 subsequence s_{n_k} s.t. $(-1)^k s_{n_k} \geq 0$ for n_k sufficiently large.~~

Suppose $S > 0$, then for n sufficiently large

$$0 < S - \epsilon < s_n \Rightarrow \text{there cannot exist a}$$

subsequence s_{n_k} s.t. $(-1)^k s_{n_k} \geq 0$ for n_k sufficiently large.

$$\Rightarrow S \leq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow S = 0$$

8. Suppose $\{S_n\}$ is bounded and all convergent subsequences of $\{S_n\}$ converge to the same limit.

(6)

Now show that S_n is convergent. Give an example showing that the result need not hold if $\{S_n\}$ is unbounded.

First let's give the counter-example when $\{S_n\}$ is unbounded.

Let $S_n = \begin{cases} n & n \text{ even} \\ 0 & n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$. Clearly S_n does not converge. But every convergent subsequence converges to 0.

Now suppose $|S_n| \leq M$ is bounded and that for any $\{n_k\}$

$$S_{n_k} \rightarrow S \text{ as } n_k \rightarrow \infty$$

Let S' be the set of distinct numbers that occur in $\{S_n\}$ (see proof of theorem 4.2.5 on pg 19). If S' is finite, then some \bar{x} occurs infinitely often in S_n and $S_n \rightarrow \bar{x} = S$.

If S' is infinite, then since it is bdd, the Bolzano-Weierstrass

Theorem states that S' must have at least one limit point \bar{x} .

Since every infinite subsequence must also have a limit point and these,

by assumption are all the same, $\bar{x} = S$ is unique.

$$\Rightarrow S_n \rightarrow S.$$

Section 4.3 #4

(7)

4. a) Prove: If $\sum a_n$ converges then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + a_{n+1} + \dots + a_{n+r}) = 0$ $r \geq 0$

This is just a restatement of Cauchy's convergence

Criteria for series, Theorem 4.3.5 on pg 204.

which states that since $\sum a_n$ converges $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists N$

s.t. $|a_n + \dots + a_m| < \epsilon$ if $n, m \geq N$.

If we let $m = n+r$ then we obtain the result for $r \geq 0$.

b. no, the $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n + a_{n+1} + \dots + a_{n+r}) = 0$ does not imply $\sum a_n$ converges

Take $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ for example. Then $\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{n+r} \leq \frac{r+1}{n} \rightarrow 0$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$, but $\sum \frac{1}{n}$ does not converge.

1 a) $F_n(x) = x^n (1-x^2)$

$$F_n(x) \rightarrow F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & |x| < 1 \quad \text{since } x^n \rightarrow 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = \pm 1 \quad \text{since } (1-x^2) = 0 \end{cases}$$

and diverges otherwise

$$\Rightarrow F_n(x) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{on } |x| \leq 1.$$

d) $F_n(x) = \sin\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)x$

Since $\sin x$ is a continuous function

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} F_n(x) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sin\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)x = \sin\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)x\right) \\ &= \sin x, \quad \forall x \end{aligned}$$

5 a) $F_n(x) = x^n \sin nx$ on $(-1, 1)$

clearly if $x \in (-1, 1)$ $x^n \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow F_n(x) \rightarrow 0$ p.w

But at $x = \pm 1$ $F_n(x)$ does not converge.

Now let $T = [a, b] \subset (-1, 1)$ be any closed subset of $(-1, 1)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } |x^n \sin nx| &\leq |x^n| \\ &< M^n \quad \downarrow \quad \text{let } m = \max\{|a|, |b|\} \\ &< \varepsilon \quad \downarrow \quad m < 1 \end{aligned}$$

for n sufficiently large for any ε .

$$\Rightarrow F_n(x) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{uniformly on } [a, b]$$

5b. $F_n(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^{2n}}$ $S = \{x : x \neq \pm 1\}$ (9)
 $= (-\infty, -1) \cup (-1, 1) \cup (1, \infty)$

Then $F_n(x) \rightarrow \begin{cases} 0 & x < -1 \\ 1 & -1 < x < 1 \\ 0 & x > 1 \end{cases}$ By the way
 at $x = \pm 1$ $F_n(x) = \frac{1}{2}$
 though technically F_n is not defined at these pts

Since each $F_n(x)$ is continuous, but

$F(x)$ is not (if we include ± 1) the convergence cannot be uniform on S .

If we take any closed subset $T = [a, b] \subset S$, then each

$F_n(x)$ is bounded and uniformly continuous on T . We can consider first

consider first $[a, b] \subset (-1, 1)$

then $\left| \frac{1}{1+x^{2n}} - 1 \right| = \left| \frac{x^{2n}}{1+x^{2n}} \right| < |x^{2n}| < \epsilon$ if n large enough
 since $|x| < 1$

next if $[a, b] \subset (1, \infty)$

$\left| \frac{1}{1+x^{2n}} - 0 \right| = \left| \frac{1}{1+x^{2n}} \right| < \frac{1}{x^{2n}} < \frac{1}{a^{2n}} < \epsilon$ if n is large enough
 since $|a| > 1$

if $[a, b] \subset (-\infty, -1)$

$\left| \frac{1}{1+x^{2n}} - 0 \right| = \left| \frac{1}{1+x^{2n}} \right| < \frac{1}{x^{2n}} < \frac{1}{|b|^{2n}} < \epsilon$ if n is large enough since

~~\Rightarrow In all cases the convergence is independent of x~~

In all cases, the convergence is independent of x and is thus uniform.

(10)

Q. Prove: If $\{F_n\}$ converges uniformly to F on S

$$\text{then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|F_n\|_S = \|F\|_S$$

$F_n \xrightarrow{u} F$ means that $\|F_n - F\|_S \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Let's separately look at $\|F_n\|_S$ and $\|F\|_S$

for each n ,

$$\|F_n\|_S = \sup_{x \in S} |F_n(x)| = S_n \quad \leftarrow \text{define}$$

Thus S_n is just a sequence of numbers.

$$\|F\|_S = \sup_{x \in S} |F(x)| = \bar{S} \quad \leftarrow \text{define}$$

we are assured $F_n(x)$ and $F(x)$ are bounded

Thus we want to show that $|S_n - \bar{S}| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |S_n - \bar{S}| &= \left| \|F_n\|_S - \|F\|_S \right| \\ &< \|F_n - F\|_S \end{aligned}$$

Reverse triangle Lemma 4.4.2

$\rightarrow 0$ since $F_n \xrightarrow{u} F$.

$$14. \quad a) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^4 \frac{n}{x} \sin \frac{x}{n} dx$$

If we call $F_n(x) = \frac{n}{x} \sin \frac{x}{n}$, then we can show

$$F_n(x) \xrightarrow{u} 1. \quad \text{In which case } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^4 \frac{n}{x} \sin \frac{x}{n} dx = \int_1^4 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{x} \sin \frac{x}{n} dx \\ = \int_1^4 dx = 3$$

To show $F_n(x) \xrightarrow{u} 1$, note

$$\frac{n}{x} \sin \frac{x}{n} = \frac{n}{x} \left[\frac{x}{n} - \frac{f'''(c) x^3}{6n^3} \right]$$

$$= \left[1 - \frac{mx^2}{6n^2} \right]$$

where $f(x) = \sin \frac{x}{n}$

and we have Taylor expanded.

Let $f'''(c) = m$

$$\Rightarrow |F_n(x) - 1| = \left| 1 - \frac{mx^2}{6n^2} - 1 \right|$$

$$= \left| \frac{mx^2}{6n^2} \right|$$

$$< \frac{16m}{6n^2} < \varepsilon \quad \text{if } n \text{ large enough independent of } x.$$

$$\Rightarrow F_n \xrightarrow{u} 1.$$

$$b) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^2 \frac{dx}{1+x^{2n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1+x^{2n}} + \int_1^2 \frac{dx}{1+x^{2n}} \quad (b)$$

By 5-b, we know the convergence is uniform on any closed subset of $(0,1]$ and of $[1,2]$, including the endpoints at $x=1$

$$\text{does not change that } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1+x^{2n}} = \int_0^1 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{dx}{1+x^{2n}} dx = 1$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^2 \frac{dx}{1+x^{2n}} = \int_1^2 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{dx}{1+x^{2n}} = 0$$

See also Theorem 4.4.10(b) on page 2.4.3

$$c. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 n x e^{-n x^2} dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{-n x^2}}{-2} \Big|_0^1 = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$d. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n dx$$

$F_n(x) = \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n \rightarrow e^x$ which is integrable on $(0,1]$

Further $\|F_n(x)\|_S = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n \rightarrow e$ is bounded

Thus by Theorem 4.4.10

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n dx = \int_0^1 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{x}{n}\right)^n dx = \int_0^1 e^x dx = e - 1.$$