

(1.) Show directly from the definition that  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  is a Cauchy sequence, where

$$x_n = \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^3} + \frac{1}{4^4} + \cdots + \frac{1}{n^n} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{j^j},$$

Proof. To show that  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  is Cauchy, which means for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an  $N \in \mathbf{R}$  so that for every  $k, \ell \geq N$ , there holds  $|x_k - x_\ell| < \varepsilon$ .

Choose  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let  $N = 1/\varepsilon$ . Suppose we choose  $k, \ell \in \mathbf{N}$  so that  $k, \ell \geq N$ . If  $k < \ell$  then swap the names of the numbers. Thus we may assume  $k \geq \ell$ . If  $k = \ell$  then  $|x_k - x_\ell| = 0 < \varepsilon$ . If  $k > \ell$  then

$$|x_k - x_\ell| = \left| \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{j^j} - \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{j^j} \right| = \sum_{j=\ell+1}^k \frac{1}{j^j} \leq \sum_{j=\ell+1}^k \frac{1}{2^j} = \frac{1}{2^\ell} - \frac{1}{2^k} \leq \frac{1}{2^\ell} < \frac{1}{\ell} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon.$$

where we have used  $j^j \geq 2^j$  for  $j \geq \ell + 1$  ( $\geq 2$ ),  $2^\ell > \ell$  (which is problem 1.2.6a) and the sum of a geometric series  $\sum_{j=\ell+1}^k r^j = (r^{\ell+1} - r^{k+1})/(1 - r)$ .

(2.) For each  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ , suppose that  $a_n \in \mathbf{R}$  satisfies  $|a_n| \leq n$ . Show that the sequence  $\{r_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  where  $r_n = a_n/n$  has a convergent subsequence.

Proof. We show that  $\{r_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  is a bounded sequence. Indeed, for all  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ , by the hypothesis  $|a_n| \leq n$ ,

$$|r_n| = \left| \frac{a_n}{n} \right| = \frac{|a_n|}{n} \leq \frac{n}{n} = 1.$$

By the Bolzano-Weierstraß Theorem 2.26, the bounded sequence  $\{r_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  has a convergent subsequence.  $\square$

(3.) Suppose that the real sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  is bounded and that the real sequence  $\{y_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  tends to infinity  $y_n \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Show

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (x_n + y_n) = \infty, \quad [\text{i.e. } x + \infty = \infty.]$$

Proof. We show that  $z_n = x_n + y_n \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  which means for all  $M \in \mathbf{R}$  there is an  $N \in \mathbf{N}$  so that for every  $k \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $k \geq N$  we have  $z_k > M$ .

As  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  is a bounded sequence, there is a  $C \in \mathbf{R}$  so that  $|x_k| \leq C$  for all  $k \in \mathbf{N}$ . Choose  $M \in \mathbf{R}$ . As  $\{y_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  diverges to infinity as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , there is an  $N \in \mathbf{N}$  so that for every  $k \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $k \geq N$  we have  $y_k > M + C$ . We show that this  $N$  proves the claim for  $\{z_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$ . Thus if we choose  $k \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $k \geq N$  then

$$z_k = y_k + x_k > (M + C) - |x_k| \geq (M + C) - C = M. \quad \square$$

(4.) Suppose  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  is a Cauchy Sequence such that some subsequence  $x_{n_j} \rightarrow L$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$ . Then the full sequence converges  $x_n \rightarrow L$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Proof. We show that  $x_n \rightarrow L$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  which means, for all  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an  $N \in \mathbf{N}$  so that for all  $k \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $k \geq N$  we have  $|x_k - L| < \varepsilon$ .

Choose  $\varepsilon > 0$ . As  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  is a Cauchy Sequence, there is a  $K \in \mathbf{N}$  so that for all  $k, \ell \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $k, \ell \geq K$  we have  $|x_k - x_\ell| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$ . As the subsequence  $x_{n_j} \rightarrow L$  as  $j \rightarrow \infty$ , there is a  $J \in \mathbf{N}$  such that for every  $j \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $j \geq J$  we have  $|x_{n_j} - L| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$ . Now  $N = \max\{K, n_J\}$  is the number that proves the convergence. Choose any  $k \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $k \geq N$ . Let  $\ell = n_N$ . We have  $\ell = n_N \geq N \geq n_J \geq J$ . Then, by the triangle inequality,

$$|x_k - L| = |(x_k - x_\ell) + (x_\ell - L)| \leq |x_k - x_\ell| + |x_{n_N} - L| < \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon + \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon = \varepsilon. \quad \square$$

(5.) Show directly from the definition that  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  is a Cauchy Sequence, where

$$x_n = \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{4!} + \frac{1}{6!} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(2n)!} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{(2j)!}.$$

Proof. To show that  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbf{N}}$  is Cauchy, which means for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is an  $N \in \mathbf{R}$  so that for every  $k, \ell \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $k, \ell \geq N$ , there holds  $|x_k - x_\ell| < \varepsilon$ .

Choose  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let  $N = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ . Choose  $k, \ell \in \mathbf{N}$  so that  $k, \ell \geq N$ . If  $k = \ell$  then  $|x_k - x_\ell| = 0 < \varepsilon$ . If  $k \neq \ell$ , by swapping roles if needed, we may assume  $k > \ell$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |x_k - x_\ell| &= \left| \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{1}{(2j)!} - \sum_{j=1}^{\ell} \frac{1}{(2j)!} \right| = \left| \sum_{j=\ell+1}^k \frac{1}{(2j)!} \right| = \frac{1}{(2\ell+2)!} + \frac{1}{(2\ell+4)!} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(2k)!} \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\ell)!} \left( \frac{1}{(2\ell+1)(2\ell+2)} + \frac{1}{(2\ell+1)(2\ell+2)(2\ell+3)(2\ell+4)} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(2\ell+1)(2\ell+2) \cdots (2k-1)(2k)} \right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{(2\ell)!} \left( \frac{1}{(2\ell+1)(2\ell+2)} + \frac{1}{(2\ell+2)(2\ell+3)} + \cdots + \frac{1}{(\ell+k)(\ell+k+1)} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\ell)!} \left( \left[ \frac{1}{2\ell+1} - \frac{1}{2\ell+2} \right] + \left[ \frac{1}{2\ell+2} - \frac{1}{2\ell+3} \right] + \cdots + \left[ \frac{1}{\ell+k} - \frac{1}{\ell+k+1} \right] \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\ell)!} \left( \frac{1}{2\ell+1} - \frac{1}{\ell+k+1} \right) \leq \frac{1}{2\ell} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

#### From Midterm Given November 17, 2004.

(1.) Let  $f(x) = (x-1)^2$ . Using the definition of differentiable directly, show that  $f$  is differentiable at  $a = 4$ .

A function is differentiable at  $a$  if the limit exists and equals the derivative:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = f'(a)$ . Let  $a = 4$  and  $f(x) = (x-1)^2$ . For  $x \neq 4$ , the difference quotient equals

$$\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = \frac{(x-1)^2 - (4-1)^2}{x-4} = \frac{x^2 - 2x + 1 - 9}{x-4} = \frac{(x-4)(x+2)}{x-4} = x+2$$

which tends to  $4+2=6$  as  $x \rightarrow 4$  by the sum theorem for limits. Since the limit exists and equals 6, we conclude that  $f$  is differentiable at 4 and  $f'(4) = 6$ .  $\square$

(2.) Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x^3 - 5x - 6) = \infty$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$  means for every  $M \in \mathbf{R}$  there is a  $X_0 \in \mathbf{R}$  so that for every  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $x > X_0$ , we have  $f(x) > M$ .

Choose  $M \in \mathbf{R}$ . Let  $X_0 = \max\{4, (3|M|)^{1/3}\}$ . Choose  $x \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $x > X_0$ . Since  $x > 4$  it follows that  $x^3 > 18$  which implies  $\frac{1}{3}x^3 > 6$ . Since  $x > 4$  it also follows that  $x^2 > 15$  which implies  $\frac{1}{3}x^2 > 5$ . Finally, since  $x > (3|M|)^{1/3} \geq 0$  we get

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= x^3 - 5x - 6 = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + \left(\frac{1}{3}x^2 - 5\right)x + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - 6 \\ &> \frac{1}{3} \left( (3|M|)^{1/3} \right)^3 + \frac{1}{3}(5-5)x + (6-6) = |M| + 0 + 0 \geq M. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Alternately, for  $x > 0$ , use the function version of Theorem 2.15(iii) (see p. 69): If there are numbers  $X_1, y_0 > 0$  such that  $b(x) \geq y_0$  for all  $x > X_0$  and  $u(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$  then  $b(x) \cdot u(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence, as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$x^3 - 6x - 6 = \left( \frac{x^3 - 5x - 6}{x^3} \right) \cdot x^3 = \left( 1 - \frac{5}{x^2}x - \frac{6}{x^3} \right) \cdot x^3 = b(x) \cdot u(x) \rightarrow \infty.$$

The conditions on  $b(x)$  and  $u(x)$  can be seen as follows: By choosing  $X_1 = 10$ , we see that  $x > X_1$  implies  $b(x) = 1 - \frac{5}{x^2} - \frac{6}{x^3} > 1 - 0.05 - 0.006 > 0.9$  so  $y_0 = 0.9$ . Similarly for  $x > X_1 = 10$  we see that  $u(x) = x^3 = x^2 \cdot x > 100x > x$  which tends to infinity by assumption, so  $u(x) \rightarrow \infty$  (see Prob. 71[7a].)  $\square$

(3.) Show that the set  $E$  is infinite, where  $E = \{x \in \mathbf{R} : x \cos x = 7 \sin x\}$ .

The function  $h(x) = x \cos x - 7 \sin x$  is continuous on  $\mathbf{R}$  since it is the difference of products of the continuous functions  $x$ ,  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$ . Let  $x_k = 2\pi k$  and  $y_k = 2\pi k + \pi$ . Observe that for  $k \in \mathbf{N}$ ,  $x_k < y_k < x_{k+1}$  for all  $k$ . Now  $h(x_k) = (2\pi k) \cos(2\pi k) - 7 \sin(2\pi k) = 2\pi k > 0$  and  $h(y_k) = (2\pi k + \pi) \cos(2\pi k + \pi) - 7 \sin(2\pi k + \pi) = -(2\pi k + \pi) < 0$ . Thus for each  $k$ ,  $h$  is a continuous function on the closed bounded interval  $[x_k, y_k]$  such that  $h(x_k) > 0 > h(y_k)$ . By the Intermediate Value Theorem, there is a  $z_k \in (x_k, y_k)$  such that  $h(z_k) = 0$  so  $z_k \in E$ . Now, as the  $z_k$ 's are all distinct,  $E$  is infinite because it contains the countably infinite set  $\{z_k : k \in \mathbf{N}\}$ . To see the distinctness, suppose  $k, \ell \in \mathbf{N}$  such that  $k \neq \ell$ . We may assume  $k < \ell$ . Then  $z_k < y_k < x_{k+1} < y_{k+1} < \dots < x_{\ell-1} < y_{\ell-1} < x_\ell < z_\ell$  so  $z_k \neq z_\ell$ . (Of course there are more zeros, such as the ones from the increasing parts of  $h$ .)  $\square$

(4.) Let  $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{1 + |x|}$ . Show that  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $\mathbf{R}$ .

$f$  is uniformly continuous on  $\mathbf{R}$  iff for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  so that for every  $x, y \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $|x - y| < \delta$  we have  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \varepsilon$ .

Choose  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Let  $\delta = \varepsilon$ . Choose  $x, y \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $|x - y| < \delta$ . Then since

$$|x + y| + |x||y| \leq |x| + |y| + |x||y| \leq 1 + |x| + |y| + |x||y| = (1 + |x|)(1 + |y|)$$

we get  $|f(x) - f(y)| =$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left| \frac{x^2}{1 + |x|} - \frac{y^2}{1 + |y|} \right| = \left| \frac{x^2(1 + |y|) - y^2(1 + |x|)}{(1 + |x|)(1 + |y|)} \right| = \left| \frac{(x^2 - y^2) + (x^2|y| - y^2|x|)}{(1 + |x|)(1 + |y|)} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{(x - y)(x + y) + (|x|^2|y| - |y|^2|x|)}{(1 + |x|)(1 + |y|)} \right| \leq \frac{|x - y| |x + y| + |x||y| |x| - |y||x|}{(1 + |x|)(1 + |y|)} \\ &\leq \frac{|x - y| |x + y| + |x||y| |x - y|}{(1 + |x|)(1 + |y|)} \leq \frac{|x + y| + |x||y|}{(1 + |x|)(1 + |y|)} |x - y| \leq |x - y| < \delta = \varepsilon. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

(5.) Determine whether the statements are true or false. If the statement is true, give the reason. If the statement is false, provide a counterexample.

(a.) **Statement.** Let  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a bounded function. Then there is at least one point  $a \in \mathbf{R}$  such that  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ .

**FALSE.** Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in \mathbf{Q}, \\ 0, & \text{if } x \in \mathbf{R} \setminus \mathbf{Q}. \end{cases}$  Then  $|f(x)| \leq 1$  for all  $x$  so  $f$  is bounded, but  $f$  is not continuous anywhere.

(b.) **Statement.** Let  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be continuous at 0. Then  $g(x) = f(x^2)$  is differentiable at  $x = 0$ .

**FALSE.** Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{|x|}$ . Then  $f(x)$  is (uniformly) continuous on  $\mathbf{R}$  (so continuous at 0,) but  $f(x^2) = \sqrt{|x^2|} = |x|$  which is not differentiable at 0.

(c.) **Statement.** Suppose that  $f : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  is differentiable at  $x = 0$ . Let  $a_k = f\left(\frac{1}{k}\right)$ .

Then  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k$  exists.

**TRUE.**  $f$  differentiable at 0 implies that  $f$  is continuous at 0. In other words, the limit exists and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = f(0)$ . But by the sequential characterization of continuity at zero, there is an  $L \in \mathbf{R}$  such that any sequence  $x_k \neq 0$  such that  $x_k \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_k) = L$  where  $L = f(0)$ . In particular,  $x_k = \frac{1}{k}$  is such a sequence, so  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f\left(\frac{1}{k}\right)$  exists and equals  $f(0)$ .