

SOLUTIONS TO PRACTICE FINAL

MATH 3410 - SPRING 2015

#1 (a) TRUE $\lim S_n = s \in \mathbb{R}$ means $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N = N(\varepsilon)$
with $s - \varepsilon < S_n < s + \varepsilon \quad \forall n > N$

$\liminf S_n = \limsup S_n = s \in \mathbb{R}$ means $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N_1 \text{ \& } N_2$
 $s - \varepsilon < S_n \quad \forall n > N_1$, and $S_n < s + \varepsilon \quad \forall n > N_2$

so $s - \varepsilon < S_n < s + \varepsilon \quad \forall n > \max\{N_1, N_2\}$.

(b) FALSE Counterexample: $S_n = \begin{cases} 1, & n = \text{odd} \\ n, & n = \text{even} \end{cases}$

is an unbounded sequence for which $\lim \frac{1}{S_n} \neq 0$

[in fact $\frac{1}{S_n} = \begin{cases} 1, & n = \text{odd} \\ \frac{1}{n}, & n = \text{even} \end{cases}$ is divergent!]

(c) TRUE: By the Triangle Inequality:

$$||S_n| - |s|| \leq |S_n - s|$$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = s \Rightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N_\varepsilon: |S_n - s| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n > N_\varepsilon$

$\Rightarrow ||S_n| - |s|| \leq |S_n - s| < \varepsilon, \quad \forall n > N_\varepsilon \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |S_n| = |s|.$

(d) TRUE: $A = \text{bounded below}$ and $\alpha = \inf A \in \mathbb{R}$

$\Rightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists s \in A$ with $s < \alpha + \varepsilon$.

Iteratively, we pick $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{n}, n = 1, 2, \dots$, and ~~construct~~ choose $S_n \in A$
with $\alpha \leq S_n < \alpha + \frac{1}{n}$ and $S_n \leq S_{n-1}$. In this way, $(S_n) \subset A$ is a
non-increasing sequence which converges to α .

(e) **FALSE** $\sum \frac{S_n}{n}$ is convergent is NOT equivalent to $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = 0$
 In fact, neither statement implies the other.

Ex: $S_n = (-1)^n$, $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ is convergent but $(-1)^n$ does not converge to 0
 or $S_n = \begin{cases} 1, & n = \text{perfect square } k^2 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ $\sum \frac{S_n}{n} = \sum_k \frac{1}{k^2} < +\infty$
 while S_n does not converge to zero.

Also, one can construct a sequence convergent to zero while $\sum \frac{S_n}{n}$ divergent.

Ex: $S_n = \frac{1}{\log n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ but $\sum \frac{1}{\log n} = \sum \frac{1}{\ln n} = +\infty$ diverges (by integral test).

(f) **TRUE** Fix $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Consider the infinite series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$. By Ratio Test, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{x^n}{n!}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x|}{n+1} = 0 < 1$
 so $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$ converges $\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$ converges to 0!

#2 (a) We prove by induction $P_n: (1+a)^n \geq 1+na$, $n \in \mathbb{N}, a \in \mathbb{R}$

Indeed we first show $P_1: (1+a)^1 = 1+a = 1+1 \cdot a \Rightarrow P_1$ true

Induction step. Assume P_n has been already proved to be true, then

$$\begin{aligned} P_{n+1}: (1+a)^{n+1} &= (1+a)^n \cdot (1+a) \geq (1+na)(1+a) = \\ &= 1+(n+1)a + na^2 \geq 1+(n+1)a \Rightarrow \end{aligned}$$

$P_{n+1} = \text{true!}$

(b) For $b > 1$, let $b = 1 + a$, $a > 0$

then $b^n = (1+a)^n \geq 1 + na = 1 + n(b-1) \rightarrow \infty$

so $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b^n = +\infty$ (for $b > 1$)

(c) Indeed, if $|r| < 1 \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |r|^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\frac{1}{|r|}^n}$

$$= \frac{1}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{|r|}\right)^n} = 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

#3 (a) Using Archimedean property $[\forall a, b > 0, \exists n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ such that } na > b]$

with $a = \varepsilon, b = 1 \Rightarrow \exists N: N\varepsilon > 1$ or $\frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon$.

(b) If $(s_n), (t_n)$ are sequences with $s_n \rightarrow s$

and $|s_n - t_n| < \frac{1}{n}, \forall n$, then $t_n \rightarrow s$.

Indeed $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N_1$ such that $|s_n - s| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \forall n > N_1$,

and $\exists N_2$ such that $\frac{1}{N_2} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \Rightarrow |s_n - t_n| < \frac{1}{n} < \frac{1}{N_2} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$
 $\forall n > N_2$

$\Rightarrow \forall n > N = \max\{N_1, N_2\},$

$$|s - t_n| = |(s - s_n) + (s_n - t_n)| \leq |s - s_n| + |s_n - t_n| <$$

$$< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon \quad (\forall n > N)$$

$\Rightarrow t_n \rightarrow s$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$!

#4 (i) Assume $S_n < b$ for all but finitely many n 's.
then $\exists N_0 \in \mathbb{N} : S_n < b \ \forall n > N_0$.

$\Rightarrow \sup \{S_n \mid n \geq N_0\} \leq b$. But $\sup \{S_n \mid n \geq N\}$ is
a non-increasing sequence in $\mathbb{N}$, which also converges
to $\limsup$

$$\text{so } \limsup S_n = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left(\sup \{S_n \mid n \geq N\} \right) \leq b.$$

(ii) If $S_n < a$ for infinitely many n 's

$$\Rightarrow \inf \{S_n \mid n \geq N\} < a, \ \forall N \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left(\inf \{S_n \mid n \geq N\} \right) \leq a. = \liminf S_n \leq a.$$

(iii) If (S_n) is nondecreasing (so $S_n \leq S_{n+1}, \forall n$)

then $\lim S_n = S = \sup \{S_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ (given S is finite)

Indeed, if $\lim S_n = S \in \mathbb{R}$ then $S = \sup \{S_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$

because $S_n \leq S_{n+1} \leq S, \forall n$.

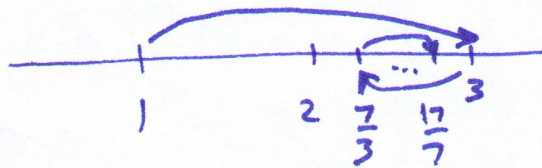
(otherwise, if $S_n > S$ for some n , then $\lim S_n > S$
Contradiction!)

If $\lim S_n = +\infty$, then $\sup \{S_n \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\} = +\infty$
(otherwise S_n were bounded and $\lim S_n \in \mathbb{R}$).

#5

$$S_{n+1} = 2 + \frac{1}{S_n}, \quad S_1 = 1$$

$$S_2 = 2 + \frac{1}{1} = 3 \Rightarrow S_3 = 2 + \frac{1}{3} = \frac{7}{3} \Rightarrow S_4 = 2 + \frac{3}{7} = \frac{17}{7}, \dots \text{ etc.}$$



(a) $S_{n+1} > S_n$ if and only if $S_n < S_{n-1}$

Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} S_{n+1} - S_n &= 2 + \frac{1}{S_n} - \left(2 + \frac{1}{S_{n-1}}\right) = \frac{1}{S_n} - \frac{1}{S_{n-1}} \\ &= \frac{S_{n-1} - S_n}{S_n S_{n-1}} \end{aligned}$$

So $S_{n+1} - S_n > 0 \Leftrightarrow S_{n-1} - S_n > 0$ (as long as we establish $S_n > 0$)

[The fact $S_n > 0$ follows by induction. In fact we can establish $S_n > 2$, $\forall n \geq 1$ by induction]

$$S_2 = 3 > 2; \text{ Assume } S_n > 2 \Rightarrow S_{n+1} = 2 + \frac{1}{S_n} > 2.]$$

(b) Since $S_2 = 3 > 1 = S_1 \Rightarrow S_3 < S_2$.

$\Rightarrow S_{n+1} > S_n$ for $n = \text{odd}$ and $S_{n+1} < S_n$ for $n = \text{even}$

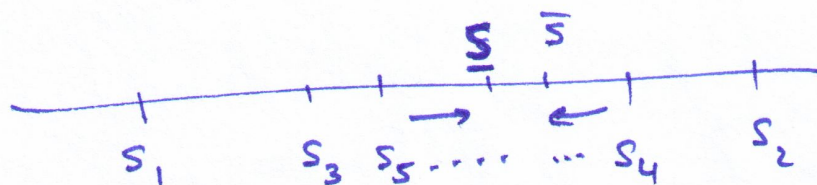
Moreover, $S_{n+1} - S_n = \frac{S_{n-1} - S_n}{S_n S_{n-1}} \Rightarrow |S_{n+1} - S_n| \leq \frac{|S_{n-1} - S_n|}{4}$

For $n = \text{odd}$:

$$\Rightarrow S_{n+2} - S_n = (S_{n+2} - S_{n+1}) + (S_{n+1} - S_n) > (S_{n+1} - S_n) - \frac{(S_{n+1} - S_n)}{4} > 0$$

$\Rightarrow S_{n+2} > S_n \Rightarrow (S_{2k+1})$ is increasing

and similarly (S_{2k}) decreasing



Denote $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} S_{2k+1} = \underline{S}$, and $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} S_{2k} = \overline{S}$

$$\text{From } |S_{n+1} - S_n| \leq \frac{|S_{n-1} - S_n|}{4} \Rightarrow |\underline{S} - \overline{S}| \leq \frac{|\overline{S} - \underline{S}|}{4}$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{S} = \overline{S} \text{ so } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n \text{ exists and equals } \underline{S} = \overline{S}.$$

(c) If $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S \Rightarrow$ taking the limit in the

recursion relation $S_{n+1} = 2 + \frac{1}{S_n} \Rightarrow$

$$S = 2 + \frac{1}{S} \Rightarrow S^2 - 2S - 1 = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow S = 1 \pm \sqrt{1+1} = 1 \pm \sqrt{2}.$$

$$\text{Since } S_n > 2, \forall n \Rightarrow S = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n \geq 2 \Rightarrow \boxed{S = 1 + \sqrt{2}}.$$

~~4~~ Note:. This sequence's behavior resembles the behavior of partial sums of an alternating series.

Indeed, one can make a similar argument based on the infinite series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (S_{n+1} - S_n).$$

(#6) (a) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin \frac{1}{n}$

By limit comparison test with $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin \frac{1}{n}}{\frac{1}{n}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \quad (\text{e.g. via l'Hôpital rule})$$

So $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \sin \frac{1}{n} = +\infty$ (divergent!)

(b) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}}{n}$ is an alternating series

with $b_n = \frac{\sqrt{n+1} - \sqrt{n}}{n} = \frac{(n+1) - n}{n(\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n})} = \frac{1}{n(\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n})} \rightarrow 0$

in a decreasing fashion, so by Alt Series Test, the series convergent. In fact, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(\sqrt{n+1} + \sqrt{n})}$ is also convergent (compare it with $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n\sqrt{n}} < +\infty$) so the original series converges absolutely!

(c) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{n}{n^2+1}$ is conditionally convergent!

[again, it is alternating series with $b_n = \frac{n}{n^2+1} \rightarrow 0$

and, in this case $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^2+1} = +\infty$, either

by limit comparison with $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{n^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = +\infty$ or by

the integral test: $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{x}{x^2+1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2+1) \Big|_1^{\infty} = +\infty$.

$$(d) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \underbrace{n^p}_{a_n} r^n, \quad p, r \in \mathbb{R}, |r| < 1$$

(this can be thought as a power series in r , for each fixed p)

By ratio test

$$\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| \frac{(n+1)^p r^{n+1}}{n^p r^n} \right| = |r| \cdot \left(\frac{n+1}{n} \right)^p = |r| \left(1 + \frac{1}{n} \right)^p$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = |r| < 1 \Rightarrow \text{absolutely convergent!!!!}$$

$$\textcircled{\#7} \quad f(x) = \sin^2 x, \quad x=0. \quad f(0)=0$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x)$$

$$\text{Now } f'(x) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2 \sin 2x = \sin 2x$$

$$f'(0) = 0$$

$$f''(x) = 2 \cos 2x$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$f''(0) = 2$$

$$f'''(x) = -2^2 \sin 2x$$

$$f'''(0) = 0$$

$$f^{(iv)}(x) = -2^3 \cos 2x$$

$$f^{(iv)}(0) = -2^3$$

$$f^{(v)}(x) = +2^4 \sin 2x$$

$$f^{(v)}(0) = 0$$

So, iteratively, we get $f^{(n)}(0) = \begin{cases} 0, & n = \text{odd} \\ (-1)^{\frac{n}{2}} 2^{n-1}, & n = \text{even}, n \geq 2 \end{cases}$

$\Rightarrow$ Taylor's series is

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(2k)}(0)}{(2k)!} x^{2k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(2k)}(0)}{(2k)!} x^{2k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k \frac{2^{2k-1} x^{2k}}{(2k)!}$$

[This series can be also obtained from the Taylor series for $g(x) = \cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots \Rightarrow 1 - \cos x = \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$
 $\Rightarrow f(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos 2x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{(2x)^2}{2!} - \frac{(2x)^4}{4!} + \dots \right)]$

The convergence of this Taylor series to $f(x)$ is established as follows:

Method 1: The series has radius of convergence $R = +\infty$

$$\text{Since } \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} \right| = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{2^{2k+1} x^{2(k+1)}}{(2k+2)!} \cdot \frac{(2k)!}{2^{2k-1} x^{2k-1}} \right|$$

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(2x)^2}{(2k+1)(2k+2)} = 0 < 1, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Denoting $h(x)$ = the sum of this series and using the differentiating term by term property of power series,

$$h(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{(2x)^2}{2!} - \frac{(2x)^4}{4!} + \dots \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow h''(x) = \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4 \left(1 - \frac{(2x)^2}{2!} + \frac{(2x)^4}{4!} - \dots \right)$$

$$= 2 - 4h(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow h''(x) + 4h(x) = 2$$

$$h(0) = 0, h'(0) = 0$$

Solving this initial value problem leads to

$$\boxed{h(x) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cos 2x}$$

Method 2: The "more standard" method to establish the convergence of Taylor series to the original function recalls the Taylor remainder formula

$$R_n(x) = f(x) - T_n(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(y)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1}$$

In our case, $x_0 = 0$

for some $y \in [x, x_0]$

$$|R_n(x)| = \left| \frac{f^{(n+1)}(y)}{(n+1)!} \right| |x|^{n+1} \leq$$

$$\leq \frac{2^n}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} 0, \forall x$$

so $T_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)!!$
for $x \rightarrow \infty$

(b) $g(x) = \sqrt{1+x}$, $x=0$

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{2}(1+x)^{-1/2}$$

$$g''(x) = \frac{1}{2}(-\frac{1}{2})(1+x)^{-3/2}$$

$$g'''(x) = \frac{1}{2}(-\frac{1}{2})(-\frac{3}{2})(1+x)^{-5/2}$$

$\vdots$

$$g(x) = (1+x)^{1/2} \Rightarrow g(0) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow g'(0) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$g''(0) = \frac{1}{2}(-\frac{1}{2})$$

$$g'''(0) = \frac{1}{2}(-\frac{1}{2})(-\frac{3}{2}) \dots$$

$\Downarrow$

$$g^{(n)}(0) = \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) \dots \left(-\frac{2n-3}{2}\right)}_{n-1 \text{ factors}}$$

$$\Rightarrow g^{(n)}(0) = \frac{1}{2} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \dots (2n-3)}{2^{n-1}} = (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \dots (2n-3)}{2^n}$$

So its Taylor series is

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{g^{(n)}(0)}{n!} x^n = 1 + \frac{1}{2}x + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \dots (2n-3)}{2^n n!} x^n$$

(c) Radius of convergence is

$$R = \frac{1}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 \cdot 3 \dots (2n-3)}{2^n \cdot n!} \cdot \frac{2^{n+1} (n+1)!}{1 \cdot 3 \dots (2n-3)(2n-1)}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2(n+1)}{2n-1} = 1$$

So interval of convergence includes $(-1, 1)$.

(For $x = \pm 1$ one can show that the series converges, hence interval of convergence is indeed $[-1, 1]$.)

(d) To show $g(x)$ equals its Taylor series on $(-1, 1)$ it is enough to consider again the remainder

$$|R_n(x)| = |g(x) - T_n(x)| = \left| \frac{g^{(n+1)}(y)}{(n+1)!} x^{n+1} \right| \leq$$

$$\leq \frac{1 \cdot 3 \dots (2n-1)}{2^{n+1} (n+1)!} |x|^{n+1} \leq \frac{1 \cdot 3 \dots (2n-1)}{2 \cdot 4 \dots 2n \cdot (2n+2)} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$