

Advanced Calculus MA-2046 Midterm 1

National Central University, Apr. 2, 2013

Name: _____ Class: _____

Problem 1. (15%) Express the sum of the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{n+1}/n(n+1)$ as an integral to show that

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

Proof. Since

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{x^{n+1}}{n(n+1)} = \sum_{n=1}^N x^{n-1} = \frac{1-x^N}{1-x};$$

we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{x^{n+1}}{n(n+1)} &= \int_0^x \int_0^y \frac{1-z^N}{1-z} dz dy = -\int_0^x \log(1-y) dy - \int_0^x \int_0^y \frac{z^N}{1-z} dz dy \\ &= (1-x) \log(1-x) + x - \int_0^x \int_0^y \frac{z^N}{1-z} dz dy, \end{aligned}$$

where we use the fact that

$$\int \log x dx = x \log x - x + C$$

to derive the anti-derivative of $\log(1-y)$.

In particular, when $x = -1$ we have

$$\sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n(n+1)} = 2 \log 2 - 1 - \int_0^{-1} \int_0^y \frac{z^N}{1-z} dz dy;$$

thus

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{n=1}^N \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n(n+1)} - (2 \log 2 - 1) \right| &\leq \int_{-1}^0 \int_{-1}^0 \frac{|z|^N}{1-z} dz dy \\ &\leq \int_{-1}^0 |z|^N dz = \frac{1}{N+1} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } N \rightarrow \infty. \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

Problem 2. (10%) Let the function $f_n : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be given by

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} \sin(x^2) & \text{if } x \in \left[\frac{k}{2^n}, \frac{k+1}{2^n} \right) \text{ for some even number } k, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and set

$$F_n(x) = \int_0^x f_n(t) dt, \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1.$$

Prove that F_n has a uniformly convergent subsequence.

Proof. By Corollary 5.6.3, it suffices to show that the family $\{F_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is pointwise bounded and equi-continuous.

1. Since $|f_n(x)| \leq 1$ for all $x \in [0, 1]$,

$$|F_n(x)| = \left| \int_0^x f_n(t) dt \right| \leq \int_0^1 1 dt = 1 \quad \forall x \in [0, 1]$$

which implies that $\{F_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is pointwise bounded.

2. Since $|f_n(x)| \leq 1$ for all $x \in [0, 1]$, by the property of integrals,

$$|F_n(x) - F_n(y)| = \left| \int_x^y f_n(t) dt \right| \leq \left| \int_x^y 1 dt \right| = |x - y|$$

which implies that $\{F_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is equi-continuous. \square

Problem 3. (15%) In the book you are asked to show the following theorem:

Theorem. Let $g : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function such that

$$\int_0^\infty g(x) dx = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R g(x) dx < \infty,$$

and $f_n : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a sequence of continuous functions satisfying

- (a) $|f_n(x)| \leq g(x)$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- (b) For each $R > 0$, f_n converges to f uniformly on $[0, R]$.

$$\text{Then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\infty f_n(x) dx = \int_0^\infty f(x) dx.$$

Use this theorem to show that the sequence

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin x}{1+x^2} & x \in [0, 2n\pi] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

satisfies

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\infty f_n(x) dx = \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin x}{1+x^2} dx.$$

Sol: Let $g(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$. Then

$$(a) \int_0^\infty g(x) dx = \int_0^\infty \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \tan^{-1} x \Big|_{x=0}^{x=\infty} = \frac{\pi}{2};$$

$$(b) |f_n(x)| \leq g(x) \text{ for all } x \in [0, \mathbb{R}^+);$$

$$(c) \text{ For any fixed } R > 0, \text{ if } 2N\pi \geq R, \text{ then } f_n(x) = f(x) \text{ in } [0, R] \text{ for all } n \geq N. \text{ In other words, } f_n \rightarrow f \text{ uniformly on } [0, R] \text{ for any } R > 0.$$

Therefore, by the theorem we conclude that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\infty f_n(x) dx = \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin x}{1+x^2} dx. \quad \square$$

Problem 4. (20%) Let \mathcal{B} be the collection of polynomials of the form

$$\sum_{k=0}^m a_k x^{2k}.$$

Show that \mathcal{B} is dense in $\mathcal{C}([0, 1], \mathbb{R})$. Is \mathcal{B} also dense in $\mathcal{C}([-1, 1], \mathbb{R})$?

Proof. We check the following properties:

1. Suppose that $f, g \in \mathcal{B}$; that is, $f(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m a_k x^{2k}$ and $g(x) = \sum_{j=0}^n b_j x^{2j}$.

Then

$$(a) \quad (f \cdot g)(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m \sum_{j=0}^n a_k b_j x^{2(k+j)} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{m+n} c_\ell x^{2\ell}, \text{ where}$$

$$c_\ell = \sum_{\substack{k+j=\ell \\ 0 \leq k \leq m, 0 \leq j \leq n}} a_k b_j;$$

thus $f \cdot g \in \mathcal{B}$.

- (b) Define $a_k = 0$ if $k > m$ and $b_j = 0$ if $j > n$. Then

$$(f + g)(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{\ell} c_k x^{2k}$$

with $\ell = \max\{m, n\}$ and $c_k = a_k + b_k$. Therefore, $f + g \in \mathcal{B}$.

$$(c) \quad (\alpha f)(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m (\alpha a_k) x^{2k}; \text{ thus } \alpha f \in \mathcal{B}.$$

2. It is easy to see that the constant function $f = 1$ belongs to \mathcal{B} . In fact, $1 = 1 * x^0$.
3. Finally, if $x_1 \neq x_2$ and $x_1, x_2 \in [0, 1]$, the function $f(x) = x^2$ satisfies $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$.

As a consequence,

1. \mathcal{B} is an algebra;
2. \mathcal{B} separates points;
3. the constant function $f = 1$ belongs to \mathcal{B} .

thus the Stone-Weierstrass theorem implies that \mathcal{B} is dense in $\mathcal{C}([0, 1], \mathbb{R})$.

However, \mathcal{B} is **not** dense in $\mathcal{C}([-1, 1], \mathbb{R})$ since, for example, the function $f(x) = x$ cannot be approximated by sequence of even functions in the uniform norm. In fact, suppose that $f_k \in \mathcal{B}$ and $f_k \rightarrow f$ in $\mathcal{C}([-1, 1], \mathbb{R})$. Then $f_k(1) \rightarrow 1$ and $f_k(-1) \rightarrow -1$. However, by the definition of \mathcal{B} , $f_k(1) = f_k(-1)$; thus it is impossible that $f_k(1) \rightarrow 1$ and $f_k(-1) \rightarrow -1$ simultaneously. \square

Problem 5. (40%) Prove or disprove the following statements:

1. Let f_k be a convergence sequence in $\mathcal{C}_b(A, \mathbb{R}^m)$, then $\{f_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is a closed set in $\mathcal{C}_b(A, \mathbb{R}^m)$.
2. Let M be a metric space (**not** necessary complete) and $\Phi : M \rightarrow M$ be such that

$$d(\Phi(x), \Phi(y)) < d(x, y)$$

for all $x, y \in M$, $x \neq y$. Then Φ has **at most one** fixed point.

3. Let $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ denote the collection of all polynomials on \mathbb{R} . Then $\mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ is closed in $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ with respect to the uniform norm defined by

$$\|f\| = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |f(x)|.$$

4. Let $f_n : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a sequence of continuous functions, and $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly on $[0, 1]$. Then the family $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is equi-continuous.

Sol:

1. **False.** For example, let $m = 1$, and $f_k : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be constant function $f_k(x) \equiv \frac{1}{k}$. Then $f_k \rightarrow 0$ uniformly, but the sequence $\{f_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is not closed since it does not contain its limit function $f = 0$.
2. **True.** Suppose that $x \neq y$ are two fixed-points. Then $\Phi(x) = x$ and $\Phi(y) = y$. Moreover,

$$d(x, y) = d(\Phi(x), \Phi(y)) < d(x, y)$$

which is impossible since $d(x, y)$ is a real number. Therefore, there is at most one fixed-point of Φ .

3. **True.** *This problem is another way of stating Exercise problem 50 in Chapter 5.* Now suppose that $p_n \in \mathcal{P}(\mathbb{R}, \mathbb{R})$ and $p_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly. Then p_n is a Cauchy sequence (with respect to the uniform norm); thus for any given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N > 0$ such that

$$\max |p_n(x) - p_m(x)| \equiv \|p_n - p_m\| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } n, m \geq N.$$

Since $p_n - p_m$ is also a polynomial, the maximum of $p_n - p_m$ cannot be finite unless $p_n - p_m$ is a constant. In other words, $p_n - p_m = c_{n,m}$ for some constant $c_{n,m}$ converging to 0 as $n, m \rightarrow \infty$. This implies that if $p_N(x) = \sum_{k=0}^m a_k x^k = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots + a_m x^m$, then for all $n \geq N$,

$$p_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^m a_k x^k + b_n = b_n + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \cdots + a_m x^m \quad (\star)$$

for some sequence b_n . We also note that $b_n - b_m = c_{n,m}$, so b_n is a Cauchy sequence in \mathbb{R} ; thus convergent. We emphasize that the coefficients a_k in (\star) does not depends on n if $k \geq 1$. Therefore, for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$p_n(x) \rightarrow p(x) \equiv \sum_{k=1}^m a_k x^k + b$$

for some constant b . This implies that p_n converges pointwise to p . On the other hand, $p_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly; thus $f = p$.

4. **True.** Let $\epsilon > 0$ be given. Since $f_n \rightarrow f$ uniformly, f_n is a Cauchy sequence in $C([0, 1], \mathbb{R})$; thus there exists $N > 0$ such that

$$\max_{x \in [0, 1]} |f_n(x) - f_m(x)| \equiv \|f_n - f_m\| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \quad \text{whenever } n, m \geq N.$$

Since f_1, f_2, \dots, f_N are continuous functions on a compact set $[0, 1]$, they are uniformly continuous; thus there exists $\delta_1, \delta_2, \dots, \delta_N$ such that

$$|f_k(x) - f_k(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} \quad \text{whenever } |x - y| < \delta_k, k = 1, 2, \dots, N.$$

Let $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \dots, \delta_N\}$. Then

$$|f_k(x) - f_k(y)| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } |x - y| < \delta, k = 1, 2, \dots, N, \quad (\star\star)$$

and for $k > N$,

$$\begin{aligned} |f_k(x) - f_k(y)| &\leq |f_k(x) - f_N(x)| + |f_N(x) - f_N(y)| + |f_N(y) - f_k(y)| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon. \end{aligned} \quad (\star\star\star)$$

Inequalities $(\star\star)$ and $(\star\star\star)$ together suggest that

$$\underline{\underline{|f_k(x) - f_k(y)| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever } |x - y| < \delta;}}$$

so $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ is equi-continuous.