## MTH 320 Section 004 Final Sample

1. (a) [4pts] State Mean Value Theorem.

(b) [6pts] Suppose that f is differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$  and f'(x) > 0 on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Prove that f is strictly increasing.

Solution. (a) If f is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable on (a, b), then there is  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}.$$

(b) Let  $x < y \in \mathbb{R}$ . By Mean Value Theorem, there is  $z \in (x, y)$  such that

$$\frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x} = f'(z)$$

By the assumption, f'(z) > 0. From y > x we get f(y) - f(x) = (y - x)f'(z) > 0. So f(y) > f(x). Thus, f is strictly increasing.

- 2. Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ .
  - (a) (4 pts) What does it mean for f to be differentiable at a?
  - (b) (6 pts) Let  $f(x) = x \sin(\frac{1}{x})$  when  $x \neq 0$  and f(0) = 0. Is f differentiable at x = 0? Justify your answer.

Solution. (a) We say that f is differentiable at a if the limit

$$\lim_{x \to a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

exists and is finite.

(b) We have

$$\frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0} = \frac{f(x)}{x} = \sin(\frac{1}{x}).$$

We know that  $\lim_{x\to 0} \sin(\frac{1}{x})$  does not exist. To see this, we may choose a sequence  $x_n = \frac{1}{n\pi + \pi/2}$ , which tends to 0. Then we have  $\sin(\frac{1}{x_n}) = \sin(n\pi + \pi/2) = (-1)^n$ . But the sequence  $((-1)^n)$  does not converge. So  $\lim_{x\to 0} \sin(\frac{1}{x})$  does not exist, which implies that f is not differentiable at 0.

3. (a) [5 pts] Prove that the exact interval of convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}$  in [-1, 1).

(b) [5 pts] What function does the power series above represent on (-1, 1)? Justify your answer.

Solution. (a) This is a power series with coefficients  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ . Since  $|\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}| = \frac{n}{n+1} \to 1$ , by ratio test, the radius of the series is 1. Thus, the power series converges at every point in (-1, 1), and diverges at every point in  $[-1, 1]^c$ . At x = 1, the series becomes  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ , which diverges by the *p*-test. At x = -1, the series becomes  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ , which converges by the alternative series test. So the exact interval of convergence is [-1, 1].

(b) Let  $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}$ ,  $x \in (-1, 1)$ . Differentiating the power series, we get

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

Thus, for some constant  $C \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = \log_e(\frac{1}{1-x}) + C = -\log_e(1-x) + C$ . Since the series has no constant term, f(0) = 0. Taking x = 0, we get  $0 = f(0) = -\log(1) + C = C$ . Thus,  $f(x) = -\log_e(1-x)$ .

- 4. (a) [4pts] Define  $\liminf s_n$ 
  - (b) [6pts] Prove that if  $\limsup s_n = \liminf s_n = s \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $(s_n)$  converges to s.

Solution. (a) Let  $u_n = \inf\{s_m : m \ge n\}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Either  $s_n = -\infty$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , or  $s_n \in \mathbb{R}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . In the first case, we define  $\liminf s_n = -\infty$ ; in the second case, we define  $\liminf s_n = \lim u_n$ . (b) Let  $v_n = \sup\{s_m : m \ge n\}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . The  $\limsup s_n$  is defined as  $\limsup v_n$  (if  $v_n = +\infty$  for all n, then  $\limsup s_n = +\infty$ . From  $\limsup s_n = \liminf s_n = s \in \mathbb{R}$  we know that  $\lim u_n = \lim v_n = s$ . Since for every n,  $u_n \le s_n \le v_n$ , by squeeze lemma we have  $\lim s_n = s$ .

5. (a) [4 pts.] State Weierstrass M-test.

(b) [6 pts.] Prove that the series of functions  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(nx)}{n^3}$  converges to a continuous function on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ , being careful to justify all of your steps.

Solution. (a) Suppose  $(f_n)$  is a sequence of functions defined on  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence of nonnegative real numbers such that  $\sum a_n$  converges. If  $|f_n(x)| \leq a_n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $x \in S$ . Then  $\sum f_n$  converges uniformly on S.

(b) Applying Weierstrass M-test to  $f_n(x) = \frac{\sin(nx)}{n^3}$  and  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^3}$ , and noting that  $|\frac{\sin(nx)}{n^3}| = \frac{|\sin(nx)|}{n^3} \leq \frac{1}{n^3}$  and  $\sum \frac{1}{n^3}$  converges, we conclude that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(nx)}{n^3}$  converges uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since each  $f_n$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , the uniform limit of the series is also continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

6. Suppose  $(s_n)$  is an increasing sequence of real numbers. Prove that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} s_n = \sup\{s_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ . You need to consider two cases: (i)  $\sup\{s_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} \in \mathbb{R}$ ; and (ii)  $\sup\{s_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = +\infty$ .

Solution. (a) Let  $f_n$  be a sequence of functions defined on  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $(a_n)$  be a sequence of nonnegative real numbers such that  $\sum a_n$  converges. Suppose  $|f_n(x)| \leq a_n$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $x \in S$ . Then  $\sum f_n$  converges uniformly on S.

(b) We have  $|\frac{\sin(nx)}{n^3}| \leq \frac{1}{n^3}$  for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $\sum \frac{1}{n^3}$  converges, by Weierstrass M-test,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\sin(nx)}{n^3}$  converges uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Since every  $\frac{\sin(nx)}{n^3}$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , the uniform limit of the series is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

- 7. (a) [4 pts] State L'Hospital's rule. Be sure to include all conditions.
  - (b) [6 pts] Find the following limits
    - $\lim_{y\to\infty}(1+\frac{2}{y})^y$
    - $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\cos x 1}{e^x 1 x}$

*Proof.* (a) Let s be one of  $a, a^+, a^-, +\infty, -\infty$ , where  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $L \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$ . Suppose in a neighborhood of s, f and g are differentiable and  $g' \neq 0$ . If

$$\lim_{x \to s} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$$

and either

$$\lim_{x \to s} f(x) = \lim_{x \to s} g(x) = 0,$$

or

$$\lim_{x\to s}|g(x)|=+\infty,$$

then

$$\lim_{x \to s} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L.$$

(b) For the first limit, we write  $(1 + \frac{2}{y})^y = e^{y \log_e(1 + \frac{2}{y})}$ . Since  $1/y \to 0$  as  $y \to \infty$ , we get

$$\lim_{y \to \infty} y \log_e(1 + \frac{2}{y}) = \lim_{y \to \infty} \frac{\log_e(1 + \frac{2}{y})}{\frac{1}{y}} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\log_e(1 + 2x)}{x},$$

if the latter limit exists. Since

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \log_e(1+2x) = \log_e(1) = 0 = \lim_{x \to 0} x_{x \to 0}$$

by L'Hospital's rule, we have

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\log_e(1+2x)}{x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}\log_e(1+2x)}{\frac{d}{dx}x},$$

if the latter limit exists. Direct calculation shows

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\frac{d}{dx} \log_e(1+2x)}{\frac{d}{dx}x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{2}{1+2x} = 2.$$

Thus,  $\lim_{y\to\infty} y \log_e(1+\frac{2}{y}) = 2$ , which implies that

$$\lim_{y \to \infty} (1 + \frac{2}{y})^y = e^{\lim_{y \to \infty} y \log_e (1 + \frac{2}{y})} = e^2.$$

For the second limit, we observe that

$$\lim_{x \to 0} (\cos x - 1) = \cos 0 - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0;$$
$$\lim_{x \to 0} (e^x - 1 - x) = e^0 - 1 = 1 - 1 = 0.$$

Thus, by L'Hospital's rule, we have

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\cos x - 1}{e^x - 1 - x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x - 1)}{\frac{d}{dx}(e^x - 1 - x)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{-\sin x}{e^x - 1},$$

if the latter limit exists. Since

$$\lim_{x \to 0} (-\sin x) = -\sin 0 = 0 = e^0 - 1 = \lim_{x \to 0} (e^x - 1)$$

by L'Hospital's rule, we have

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{-\sin x}{e^x - 1} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(-\sin x)}{\frac{d}{dx}(e^x - 1)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{-\cos x}{e^x},$$

if the latter limit exists. Using the continuity of  $\cos x$  and  $e^x$ , we get  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{-\cos x}{e^x} = \frac{-\cos 0}{e^0} = -1$ . Thus,  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\cos x - 1}{e^x - 1 - x} = -1$ .

- 8. (a) [4 pts] For  $a, L \in \mathbb{R}$ , define the expressions  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = L$ ,  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L$ , and  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ .
  - (b) [6 pts] Prove that if  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L$ , then  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ .

Solution. (a) We first give definitions using sequences. By saying that  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = L$  we mean that there is r > 0 such that f is defined on (a - r, a), and for any sequence  $(s_n)$  in (a - r, a) with  $s_n \to a$ , we have  $f(s_n) \to L$ . By saying that  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L$  we mean that there is r > 0 such that f is defined on (a, a + r), and for any sequence  $(s_n)$  in (a, a + r) with  $s_n \to a$ , we have  $f(s_n) \to L$ . By saying that  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$  we mean that there is r > 0 such that f is defined on  $(a - r, a) \cup (a, a + r)$ , and for any sequence  $(s_n)$  in  $(a - r, a) \cup (a, a + r)$  with  $s_n \to a$ , we have  $f(s_n) \to L$ . By saying that  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$  we mean that there is r > 0 such that f is defined on  $(a - r, a) \cup (a, a + r)$ , and for any sequence  $(s_n)$  in  $(a - r, a) \cup (a, a + r)$  with  $s_n \to a$ , we have  $f(s_n) \to L$ .

We then give definitions using the " $\varepsilon - \delta$ " language. We say that  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = L$ if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $\delta > 0$  such for any  $x \in (a - \delta, a)$ , f(x) is defined and  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . We say that  $\lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L$  if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $\delta > 0$  such that for any  $x \in (a, a + \delta)$ , f(x) is defined and  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . We say that  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there is  $\delta > 0$  such for any  $x \in (a - \delta, a) \cup (a, a + \delta)$ , f(x) is defined and  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . (b) We give two proofs. The first is easier, and based on " $\varepsilon - \delta$ " definitions. Suppose that  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then there exist  $\delta_+, \delta_- > 0$  such that for any  $x \in (a - \delta_-, a)$ , f(x) is defined and  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ , and for any  $x \in (a, a + \delta)$ , f(x) is defined and  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_+, \delta_-\} > 0$ . Since  $(a - \delta_-, a) \cup (a, a + \delta_+)$ , we find that for any  $x \in (a - \delta_-, a) \cup (a, a + \delta_+)$ , we find that for any  $x \in (a - \delta_-, a) \cup (a, a + \delta_+)$ , f(x) is defined and  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ . Thus,  $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = L$ .

The second proof is longer, and based on the sequential definitions. Suppose that  $\lim_{x\to a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x\to a^+} f(x) = L$ . Then there are  $r_+, r_- > 0$  such that f is defined on  $(a - r_-, a)$  and  $(a, a + r_+)$ , and for any sequence  $(s_n)$  in  $(a - r_-, a)$  or  $(a, a + r_+)$  with  $s_n \to a$ , we have  $f(s_n) \to L$ . Let  $r = \min\{r_+, r_-\} > 0$ . Then f is defined on  $(a - r, a) \cup (a, a + r)$ . Let  $(s_n)$  be a sequence in  $(a - r, a) \cup (a, a + r)$  with  $s_n \to a$ . We need to show that  $f(s_n) \to L$ . For this purpose, it suffices to show that L is the only subsequential limit of  $(f(s_n))$ . If this is not true, then  $(s_n)$  contains a subsequence  $(s_{n_k})$  such that  $f(s_{n_k}) \to L' \neq L$ . Here L' could be  $+\infty$  or  $-\infty$ . One of the following two cases must happen: 1) there are infinitely many k such that  $s_{n_k} > a$ ; 2) there are infinitely many k such that  $s_{n_k} < a$ . In the first case, we get a subsequence  $(s_{n_{k_l}})$ , which lies in  $(a - r, a) \subset (a - r_-, a)$ . In either case, we have  $s_{n_{k_l}} \to a$ , but  $f(s_{n_k}) \to L' \neq L$ , which contradicts the assumption. Thus,  $f(s_n) \to L$ .