

1. – 24.15, 26.3 (ungraded).

2. – 24.16. Let

$$f_n(x) = \frac{nx}{1+nx^2} = \frac{x}{1/n+x^2}.$$

To find  $f(x) := \lim f_n(x)$  for  $x \in \mathbf{R}$ , we need to separate out  $x = 0$  and  $x \neq 0$ . First,  $f_n(0) = 0$  for all  $n$ , hence  $f(0) = 0$ . If  $x \neq 0$ , then we see from the above that  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2} = \frac{1}{x}$ . Clearly, each  $f_n$  is continuous on  $\mathbf{R}$ , so if  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $[0, 1]$  then  $f$  would have to be continuous, which it isn't, so the convergence is not uniform. Alternatively, we have that  $f_n(0) = f(0)$  for all  $n$ , and for  $x \neq 0$ ,

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = \left| \frac{nx}{1+nx^2} - \frac{1}{x} \right| = \left| \frac{-1}{x(1+nx^2)} \right| = \frac{1}{x(1+nx^2)}.$$

Thus, since we can ignore  $x = 0$  in taking the sup, but think about  $x \rightarrow 0^+$ ,

$$\sup\{|f_n(x) - f(x)| : x \in [0, 1]\} = \sup\left\{\frac{1}{x(1+nx^2)} : x \in (0, 1]\right\} = \infty,$$

and so the convergence is not uniform on  $[0, 1]$ . On the other hand, we see that

$$\sup\{|f_n(x) - f(x)| : x \in [1, \infty]\} = \sup\left\{\frac{1}{x(1+nx^2)} : x \in [1, \infty]\right\} = \frac{1}{1+n}.$$

Since  $\lim \frac{1}{1+n} = 0$ , it follows that the convergence is uniform on  $[1, \infty)$ . If you prefer the  $\epsilon/N$  approach, given  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $N = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ , then if  $n > N$  and  $x \in [1, \infty)$ , then  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| = \frac{1}{x(1+nx^2)} \leq \frac{1}{1+n} < \epsilon$ .

3. – 25.10. Consider

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{1+x^n}.$$

If  $0 \leq x < 1$ , then  $|1+x^n| \geq 1$ , hence  $|\frac{x^n}{1+x^n}| \leq |x|^n$ . Since  $\sum |x|^n$  converges as usual, it follows that the given series converges by the comparison test. Now suppose  $a$  is fixed in  $[0, 1)$ . For  $x \in [0, a]$ , it follows that  $|\frac{x^n}{1+x^n}| \leq a^n$ . Applying the Weierstrass M-Test with  $M_k = a^k$ , we see that the series converges uniformly on  $[0, a]$ . On the other hand, we have, for  $0 \leq x < 1$ ,  $\frac{x^n}{1+x^n} > \frac{x^n}{2}$ , and since all terms are positive,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{1+x^n} \geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{2(1-x)}.$$

If convergence were uniform on  $[0, 1)$ , then this limiting sum would be continuous, but it's clearly unbounded as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ . The sum is an interesting function in number theory. If you

expand it out, the coefficient of  $x^r$  in  $\sum \frac{x^n}{1+x^n}$  is the number of odd divisors of  $r$  minus the number of even divisors of  $r$ . So, since the divisors of 12 are 1,2,3,4,6 and 12, the coefficient of  $x^{12}$  is  $2 - 4 = -2$ .

4. - 26.2. I guess I did this in class. For all  $x \in (-1, 1)$ , we have the power series identity

$$\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + x^4 + \dots$$

We can differentiate this term by term to obtain

$$\frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nx^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^{n-1} = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3 + \dots$$

For each  $x \in (-1, 1)$ , this is a convergent series, and so we can multiply through by the constant  $x$  to obtain

$$\frac{x}{(1-x)^2} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^n = x + 2x^2 + 3x^3 + 4x^4 + \dots$$

It follows from putting  $x = \frac{1}{2}$  above that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{2^n} = \frac{1/2}{(1-1/2)^2} = 2$ , and from putting in  $x = \pm \frac{1}{3}$ , that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n}{3^n} = \frac{1/3}{(1-1/3)^2} = \frac{3}{4}$ , and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n n}{3^n} = \frac{-1/3}{(1+1/3)^2} = -\frac{3}{16}$ .

6. - 26.4. Well, I could just make the observation. What a weird question! Since the series for  $e^x$  converges for all  $x$ , by putting in  $-x^2$ , we also get a convergent series: for all  $x$ ,

$$e^{-x^2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-x^2)^n}{n!} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} x^{2n}.$$

We can integrate power series term by term, so that

$$F(x) = \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n!} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1}.$$

There is no obvious way I can think of to simplify  $(2n+1)n!$ .

7. - 26.6. (In (b), use (a), but don't try to square the series term by term.) Let

$$s(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots$$

$$c(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$$

Then differentiating term by term gives

$$s'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{(2n+1)x^{2n}}{(2n+1)!} = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$$

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

Since  $\frac{2n+1}{(2n+1)!} = \frac{1}{(2n)!}$  and  $\frac{2n}{(2n)!} = \frac{1}{(2n-1)!}$ , we see that  $s'(x) = c(x)$  and  $c'(x) = -s(x)$ , and it then follows from the Chain Rule that  $(c^2 + s^2)' = 2cc' + 2ss' = 2c(-s) + 2sc = 0$ . Thus,  $c^2 + s^2$  is a constant function. Putting  $x = 0$  into the definition of  $c$  and  $s$ , we see that  $c(0) = 1$  and  $s(0) = 0$ , hence this constant is  $1^2 + 0^2 = 1$ .

8. - 28.2 a. Let  $f(x) = x^3$ ; to compute the derivative at 2, we observe that

$$\frac{f(x) - f(2)}{x - 2} = \frac{x^3 - 2^3}{x - 2} = x^2 + 2x + 2^2,$$

if  $x \neq 2$ , and of course is undefined if  $x = 2$ . Thus,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{f(x) - f(2)}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + 2x + 2^2 = 12,$$

and this is the derivative  $f'(2)$ . For 28.2d, let  $r(x) = \frac{3x+4}{2x-1}$  and we compute the derivative at 1. We have, with some algebraic simplification, for  $x \neq 1, \frac{1}{2}$  (where  $r$  is undefined),

$$\frac{r(x) - r(1)}{x - 1} = \frac{\frac{3x+4}{2x-1} - 7}{x - 1} = \frac{\frac{11-11x}{2x-1}}{x - 1} = -\frac{11}{2x - 1}.$$

It follows that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{r(x) - r(1)}{x - 1} = -11 = r'(1).$$

9. - 26.8. Some similarity to #5. We have

$$|y| < 1 \implies \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} y^n = \frac{1}{1 - y}$$

Putting in  $y = -x^2$  and noting that  $|x| < 1$  implies  $|-x^2| < 1$ , we get

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x^2)^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n x^{2n} = \frac{1}{1 + x^2}.$$

Applying 26.4, that is to say, integrating term by term from 0 to  $x$ , we find

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{2n+1} = \arctan x.$$

When  $x = 1$ , the series on the left is an alternating series of terms which decrease to zero. Thus it is convergent, and by Abel's theorem, we obtain

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2n+1} = \arctan 1 = \frac{\pi}{4} \implies \pi = 4 \left( 1 - \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \dots \right).$$

As  $x \rightarrow -1$ , contrary to what you might think, the same thing occurs:  $(-1)^n(-1)^{2n+1} = (-1)^{n+1}$ , and the series at the left is just the negative of what we had before. Of course  $\arctan(-1) = -\frac{\pi}{4}$ , so there's nothing very interesting.

10. – Find a family of polynomials  $p_n(x)$  so that

$$f_n(x) = 1 + 3x + 5x^2 + \dots + (2n+1)x^n = \sum_{k=0}^n (2k+1)x^k = \frac{p_n(x)}{(1-x)^2}.$$

[Hints omitted.] You may want to prove the formula you can guess by induction, or any other correct method. I'll guess that

$$p_n(x) = 1 + x - (2n+3)x^{n+1} + (2n+1)x^{n+2}.$$

This is evidently valid for  $n = 0$  (note that  $1 + x - 3x + x^2 = (1-x)^2$ ), and so to verify by induction we need evaluate

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n+1} (2k+1)x^k = \frac{1 + x - (2n+3)x^{n+1} + (2n+1)x^{n+2}}{(1-x)^2} + (2n+3)x^{n+1} = \frac{p_{n+1}(x)}{(1-x)^2}$$

Multiplying through by  $(1-x)^2$  gives

$$\begin{aligned} p_{n+1}(x) &= 1 + x - (2n+3)x^{n+1} + (2n+1)x^{n+2} + (2n+3)x^{n+1}(1-x)^2 = \\ &= 1 + x - (2n+3)x^{n+1} + (2n+1)x^{n+2} + (2n+3)x^{n+1} - (4n+6)x^{n+2} + (2n+3)x^{n+3} \\ &= 1 + x - (2n+5)x^{n+2} + (2n+3)x^{n+3}, \end{aligned}$$

which verifies the inductive step for  $n \rightarrow n+1$ .

It follows that if  $x \in (-1, 1)$  is fixed, then since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} nx^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+1)x^{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (n+2)x^{n+2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n = 0,$$

we have that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + x - 2(n+1)x^{n+1} - x^{n+1} + 2(n+2)x^{n+2} - x^{n+2}) = 1 + x.$$

Thus, for  $x \in (-1, 1)$ ,

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

The point of this problem is that we could also get the answer more simply by manipulating power series, but perhaps we wouldn't believe it:

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