Analysis 1 Colloquium of Week 14 Post-Midterm Review

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Abstract

Even though many of the questions in the exam could have been solved easily using smart "tricks", in what follows I attempt to present the most naive, straight forward solution that a student could have been expected to come up with during the exam.

1 Taylor Expansions

- In question 5 of the open section, you were asked to compute the Taylor expansion of a function at 0 up to order 4.
- The general recipe to do this is as follows:
- Suppose $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is given which is sufficiently many times differentiable.
- Then we have

$$f(x) \approx f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{1}{2}f''(0)x^2 + \frac{1}{6}f^{(3)}(0)x^3 + \frac{1}{24}f^{(4)}(0)x^4 + O(x^5)$$

- Thus the proble is reduced to computing derivatives of a function and evaluating those derivatives at 0.
- Let's take the particular example that was given on the exam:
- $f(x) = \sqrt{1 2x^2}$:

$$\begin{cases} f(x) &= \sqrt{1-2x^2} \\ f^{(1)}(x) &= \frac{1}{2} \left(1-2x^2\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left(-2\right) (2x) = \frac{-2x}{\sqrt{1-2x^2}} \\ f^{(2)}(x) &= -2 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-2x^2}} + x \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1-2x^2\right)^{-\frac{3}{2}} \left(-2\right) (2x)\right) = \frac{-2}{\sqrt{1-2x^2}} - \frac{4x^2}{\left(1-2x^2\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}} \\ f^{(3)}(x) &= -2 \left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1-2x^2\right)^{-\frac{3}{2}} \left(-2\right) (2x) - 4 \left(\frac{2x}{\left(1-2x^2\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}} + x^2 \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) \left(1-2x^2\right)^{-\frac{5}{2}} \left(-2\right) (2x)\right) = \frac{-12x}{\left(1-2x^2\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}} - \frac{24x^3}{\left(1-2x^2\right)^{\frac{5}{2}}} \\ f^{(4)}(x) &= -12 \left(\frac{1}{\left(1-2x^2\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}} + x \left(-\frac{3}{2}\right) \left(1-2x^2\right)^{-\frac{5}{2}} \left(-2\right) (2x)\right) - 24 \left(3x^2 \frac{1}{\left(1-2x^2\right)^{\frac{5}{2}}} + x^3 \left(-\frac{5}{3}\right) \left(1-2x^2\right)^{-\frac{7}{2}} \left(-2\right) (2x)\right) = \\ &= -\frac{12}{\left(1-2x^2\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}} - \frac{144x^2}{\left(1-2x^2\right)^{\frac{5}{2}}} - \frac{240x^4}{\left(1-2x^2\right)^{\frac{7}{2}}} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} f(0) &= 1 \\ f^{(1)}(0) &= 0 \\ f^{(2)}(0) &= -2 \\ f^{(3)}(0) &= 0 \\ f^{(4)}(0) &= -12 \end{cases}$$

- This was expected, because f is an even function, so its Taylor expansion should contain only even powers and if f were an odd function its Taylor expansion would have contained only odd powers.
- Thus we have

$$f(x) \approx f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{1}{2}f''(0)x^2 + \frac{1}{6}f^{(3)}(0)x^3 + \frac{1}{24}f^{(4)}(0)x^4 + O(x^5)$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2}(-2)x^2 + \frac{1}{24}(-12)x^4 + O(x^5)$$

$$= 1 - x^2 - \frac{1}{2}x^4 + O(x^5)$$

2 Integrals

2.1 Sinus Squared

• We would like to compute

$$I := \int_0^{\pi} \left[\sin \left(x \right) \right]^2 dx$$

- Write $[\sin(x)]^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}\cos(2x)$ using the formula $\cos(2x) = 1 2\left[\sin(x)\right]^2$.
- Thus we have

$$I = \int_0^{\pi} \left[\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cos(2x) \right] dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi} [1 - \cos(2x)] dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ \int_0^{\pi} dx - \int_0^{\pi} \cos(2x) dx \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ x \Big|_0^{\pi} - \int_0^{\pi} \cos(2x) dx \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ x \Big|_0^{\pi} - \int_0^{2\pi} \cos(u) \frac{1}{2} du \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ x \Big|_0^{\pi} - \frac{1}{2} \sin(u) \Big|_0^{2\pi} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \frac{1}{2} x - \frac{1}{4} \sin(2x) \right\} \Big|_0^{2\pi}$$

$$= \frac{\pi}{2}$$

2.2 Logs

• We want to evaluate

$$I := \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{1 - x^2} dx$$

- The first step is to perform partial fraction decomposition. We know that $(1-x^2) = (1-x)(1+x)$, so we expect $\frac{1}{1-x^2}$ to decompose as $\frac{A}{1-x} + \frac{B}{1+x}$ where A and B are unknown.
- To find A and B, we find the common denominator and get

$$\frac{1}{1-x^2} \stackrel{!}{=} \frac{A}{1-x} + \frac{B}{1+x}$$

$$= \frac{A(1+x) + B(1-x)}{1-x^2}$$

$$= \frac{(A-B)x + A + B}{1-x^2}$$

from which it must follow that $\begin{cases} A - B & \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \\ A + B & \stackrel{!}{=} 1 \end{cases}$ so that $A = \frac{1}{2}$ and $B = \frac{1}{2}$:

$$\frac{1}{1-x^2} = \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1-x} + \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1+x}$$

• Thus we have

$$I = \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1-x} + \frac{\frac{1}{2}}{1+x} \right] dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\frac{1}{1-x} + \frac{1}{1+x} \right] dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{1-x} dx + \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{1+x} dx \right]$$

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$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[-\log(|u|)|_{1}^{\frac{1}{2}} + \log(|v|)|_{1}^{\frac{3}{2}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[-\log(|1-x|)|_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} + \log(|1+x|)|_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}} \right]$$

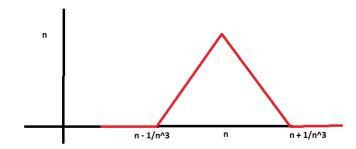
$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\log\left(\frac{|1+x|}{|1-x|}\right) \right]_{0}^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left[\log\left(\frac{3}{\frac{2}{1}}\right) - \log(1) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \log(3)$$

2.3 Some Facts

• Define a function by this graph (at every $n \in \mathbb{N}$):



- This function is then continuous on $[0, \infty)$, and is unbounded!
- Yet the integral of this function must exist, because the area of the triangle is bounded by $n \times \frac{2}{n^3} = \frac{2}{n^2}$ and $\sum \frac{2}{n^2} < \infty$.
- $\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{x+1} dx$ is an integral of a continuous function, which converges to zero at infinity, yet the integral does not exist.
- There are differentiable functions whose derivative is not integrable! The best recipe to reach non-integrability is to look at unbounded functions, because we define Riemann integrability exactly on bounded functions. Note that this wouldn't work for improper integrals, but only for integrals on a closed interval. For example: $f(x) := \begin{cases} x^2 \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$ is differentiable on [-1, 1], yet f' is not bounded on [-1, 1]: $f'(x) = 2x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \frac{2\cos\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right)}{x}$.
- The last statement is exactly Theorem 6.20 in Rudin.

3 The Continuum Hypothesis

- The continuum hypothesis says that there is no cardinality strictly between $|\mathbb{N}|$ and $|\mathbb{R}|$.
- An uncountable subset must have cardinality bigger than $|\mathbb{N}|$.
- A subset of \mathbb{R} must have cardinality smaller than or equal to $|\mathbb{R}|$.
- Thus necessarily the continuum hypothesis leads to the fact that every uncountable subset of \mathbb{R} has cardinality $|\mathbb{R}|$.
- Thus the third choice must be correct.
- Even though it *is* true that $|\mathbb{R}| = |2^{\mathbb{N}}|$, this is not the hypothesis (it is a simple result of the binary expansion of real numbers!)
- The fourth option is exactly the converse of the statement.

4 Infinite Series

4.1 Question About Series in General.

(aside: series is an English word which is the same in both singular and plural form)

• The first option cannot be true because we know

$$\sum_{n\in \mathbb{N}\setminus\{0\}}\frac{(-1)^n}{n}$$

converges.

• The second option cannot hold because we know that

$$\sum_{n\in \mathbb{N}}\frac{1}{n}$$

diverges.

- False again by penultimate example.
- The last option must hold then, which indeed it does.

4.2 Question about $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$

- Absolute convergence is when $\sum |a_n|$ converges, which, this one doesn't. But it does converge, and thus, not absolutely.
- It *is* true that if we re-arrange the order of the series, it could be made to converge to any other number (Theorem 3.54 in Rudin). However, written as $\sum_{n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$ this series has only *one* limit.

5 Intermediate Value Theorem

Let $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then if u is a number between f(a) and f(b) then $\exists c\in(a,b):f(c)=u$.

6 Continuity

• Sequential continuity must hold for every sequence. (Theorem 4.2 in Rudin).