

# Math 2213 Introduction to Analysis I

Homework 9 Due November 21 (Friday), 2025

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November 22, 2025

**Exercise 1** (15 points). Let  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  be a power series with radius of convergence  $R$ . Let  $S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k$  be the partial sums of  $\sum a_n$ . Denote the radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} S_n x^n$  by  $r$ .

- (a) Show that  $r \leq R$ .
- (b) Show that  $\min\{1, R\} \leq r$ . Hint: The power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} S_n x^n$  can be seen as the Cauchy product between  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  and a specific power series that you need to choose.

**Solution 1.**

- (a)
- (b) Let  $(b_n) = (1, 1, \dots)$  be a sequence of all ones. Then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} S_n x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=0}^n a_k \right) x^n = \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \right) * \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n \right),$$

where  $*$  denotes the Cauchy product. Since the radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$  is 1, we have  $r \geq \min\{1, R\}$ .

**Exercise 2** (30 points). For each real  $t$ , define

$$f_t(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x e^{xt}}{e^x - 1}, & x \in \mathbb{R}, x \neq 0, \\ 1, & x = 0. \end{cases}$$

- (a) Show that there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $f_t$  admits a power series expansion in  $x$  for all  $|x| < \delta$ .

*Hint.* Write

$$f_t(x) = e^{xt} g(x),$$

where

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{e^x - 1}, & x \neq 0, \\ 1, & x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Both  $e^{xt}$  and  $g(x)$  are analytic near 0. Also  $g(x) = \frac{1}{h(x)}$  where  $h(x) = \frac{e^x - 1}{x}$  for  $x \neq 0$  and we can express it as an power series in  $x$ . Then may use the fact that if  $\frac{x}{h}$  is analytic on  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $h(0) \neq 0$ , then  $1/h$  is analytic on a smaller interval  $(-\delta, \delta)$ .

- (b) Define  $P_0(t), P_1(t), P_2(t), \dots$  by the equation

$$f_t(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(t) \frac{x^n}{n!}, \quad x \in (-\delta, \delta),$$

and use the identity

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(t) \frac{x^n}{n!} = e^{tx} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(0) \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

to prove that

$$P_n(t) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} P_k(0) t^{n-k}.$$

(Hint:  $f_t(x) = e^{tx} f_0(x)$  and  $f_0(x) = g(x)$ .) This shows that each function  $P_n$  is a polynomial. These are the Bernoulli polynomials. The numbers  $B_n := P_n(0)$  ( $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ ) are called the Bernoulli numbers. Derive the following further properties:

(c)  $B_0 = 1, \quad B_1 = -\frac{1}{2}, \quad \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k} B_k = 0, \text{ if } n = 2, 3, \dots$

(d)  $P'_n(t) = n P_{n-1}(t), \quad \text{if } n = 1, 2, \dots$

(e)  $P_n(t+1) - P_n(t) = n t^{n-1}, \quad \text{if } n = 1, 2, \dots$

(f)  $P_n(1-t) = (-1)^n P_n(t)$

(g)  $B_{2n+1} = 0, \quad \text{if } n = 1, 2, \dots$

(h)

$$1^n + 2^n + \dots + (k-1)^n = \frac{P_{n+1}(k) - P_{n+1}(0)}{n+1}, \quad (n = 2, 3, \dots).$$

### Solution 2.

(a) Since both  $e^{xt}$  and  $g(t)$  are analytic near 0, we have  $h(x) = \frac{e^x - 1}{x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{(n+1)!}$ , which is convergent for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Note that  $h(0) = 1 \neq 0$ , thus there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $g(x) = \frac{1}{h(x)}$  is analytic on  $(-\delta, \delta)$ . Therefore,  $f_t(x) = e^{xt} g(x)$  is analytic on  $(-\delta, \delta)$ .

(b) Using  $f_t(x) = e^{tx} f_0(x)$ , by the Cauchy product formula, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f_t(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(t) \frac{x^n}{n!} = e^{tx} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(0) \frac{x^n}{n!} \\ &= \left( \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(tx)^m}{m!} \right) \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P_n(0) \frac{x^n}{n!} \right) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=0}^n P_k(0) \frac{x^k}{k!} \frac{(tx)^{n-k}}{(n-k)!} \right) \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{x^n}{n!} \right) P_k(0) t^{n-k}. \end{aligned}$$

Comparing the coefficients of  $x^n$  in the sense of a formal power series, we have

$$P_n(t) = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} P_k(0) t^{n-k}.$$

(c) The Bernoulli numbers are given by

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

Compare this with the Taylor expansion, we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g^{(n)}(x) = B_n$ . The first few derivatives and their limits are

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &= \frac{x}{e^x - 1}, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) = 1, \\ g'(x) &= \frac{e^x(x-1) + 1}{(e^x - 1)^2}, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g'(x) = -\frac{1}{2}, \end{aligned}$$

and so on. Hence,  $B_0 = 1$  and  $B_1 = -\frac{1}{2}$ . Next, we will work in the ring of formal power series  $\mathbb{R}[[x]]$ . We have

$$e^x - 1 = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{m+1}}{(m+1)!},$$

thus, by the Cauchy product of power series,

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} B_n \frac{x^n}{n!} \right) \left( \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{m+1}}{(m+1)!} \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{j=0}^k B_j \frac{x^j}{j!} \frac{x^{k-j+1}}{(k-j+1)!} \right) \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \sum_{j=0}^k B_j \frac{(k+1)!}{j!(k-j+1)!} \frac{x^{k+1}}{(k+1)!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{j=0}^k \binom{k+1}{j} B_j \right) \frac{x^{k+1}}{(k+1)!} \end{aligned}$$

Reindex  $k = n - 1$  and  $j = k$ , then

$$x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k} B_k \right) \frac{x^n}{n!} \implies \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n}{k} B_k = 0, \quad n = 2, 3, \dots$$

(d) Differentiating both sides of (b) in  $\mathbb{R}[[t]]$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} P'_n(t) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} P_k(0) (n-k) t^{n-k-1} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k-1)!} t^{n-k-1} \\ &= n \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{k} P_k(0) t^{n-1-k} = n P_{n-1}(t). \end{aligned}$$

(e) By the formula in (b), we have

$$\begin{aligned} P_n(t+1) - P_n(t) &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} P_k(0) (t+1)^{n-k} - \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} P_k(0) t^{n-k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} P_k(0) ((t+1)^{n-k} - t^{n-k}) \end{aligned}$$

(f) Substitute  $1 - t$  into the generating function of Bernoulli polynomials, we have

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

(g) Consider the function  $\tilde{g}(x) = g(x) - P_1(0)x = g(x) - B_1x$ . We have

$$\tilde{g}(x) = \frac{x}{e^x - 1} + \frac{x}{2} = \frac{x(e^{x/2} + e^{-x/2})}{2(e^{x/2} - e^{-x/2})} = \frac{x}{2} \coth\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$$

is even, thus all odd derivatives of  $\tilde{g}$  at 0 are zero. Therefore, for  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$B_{2n+1} = g^{(2n+1)}(0) = \tilde{g}^{(2n+1)}(0) = 0.$$

(h) The first and third equalities follow from (e), and the second is due to the telescoping sum:

$$\sum_{j=1}^{k-1} j^n = \sum_{j=1}^{k-1} \frac{P_n(j+1) - P_n(j)}{n} = \frac{P_n(k) - P_n(1)}{n} = \frac{P_n(k) - P_n(0)}{n},$$

**Exercise 3** (Tao II Exercise 4.2.7., 15 points). Show that for every integer  $n \geq 3$ , we have

$$0 < \frac{1}{(n+1)!} + \frac{1}{(n+2)!} + \cdots < \frac{1}{n!}.$$

(Hint: first show that  $(n+k)! > 2^k n!$  for all  $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ )

Conclude that  $n!e$  is not an integer for every  $n \geq 3$ . Deduce from this that  $e$  is irrational. (Hint: prove by contradiction.)

**Solution 3.** First, we show that  $(n+k)! > 2^k n!$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $n \geq 3$  by induction. For  $k = 1$ , we have  $(n+1)! = (n+1)n! > 2n!$ . Assume it holds for  $k$ , then for  $k+1$ , we have  $(n+k+1)! = (n+k+1) \cdots (n+1)n! > 2^{k+1}n!$ . Thus, the inequality holds for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then,

$$0 < \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(n+k)!} < \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k n!} = \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^k} = \frac{1}{n!}.$$

Suppose there exists some  $n \geq 3$  such that  $n!e$  is an integer. Then,

$$n!e = n! \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^n (n-k)! + n! \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!}$$

is an integer, and hence

$$0 < n! \sum_{k=n+1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} < \frac{n!}{n!} = 1$$

is an integer, a contradiction. Therefore,  $n!e$  is not an integer for any  $n \geq 3$ . If  $e$  were rational, then  $q!e$  is an integer, where  $q \in \mathbb{N}$  is the denominator of  $e$ , contradicting the previous result. Thus,  $e$  is irrational.

**Exercise 4** (Tao II Exercise 4.5.6, 10 points). Prove that the natural logarithm function  $\ln x$  is real analytic on  $(0, +\infty)$ . Hint: For any  $a > 0$ , consider the change of variable  $y = x - a$ .

**Solution 4.** To show  $\ln$  is real analytic on  $(0, \infty)$ , it suffices to show that for every  $a > 0$ , there is a power series centered at  $a$  that equals  $\ln x$  on some interval around  $a$ . From Tao II Theorem 4.5.6 (e), we have  $\ln(1+x)$  is real analytic at  $x = 0$ , such that

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} x^n, \quad x \in (-1, 1),$$

with radius of convergence 1. For any  $a > 0$ , let  $y = x - a$ , then

$$\ln x = \ln(a+y) = \ln a + \ln\left(1 + \frac{y}{a}\right) = \ln a + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} \left(\frac{y}{a}\right)^n, \quad y \in (-a, a),$$

with radius of convergence  $a$ . Switch back to  $x = a + y$ , we have

$$\ln x = \ln a + \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n} \left(\frac{x-a}{a}\right)^n, \quad |x-a| < a.$$

Since  $a$  is arbitrary, for each  $a \in (0, \infty)$ , there is a neighborhood of  $x$  such that  $\ln x$  is represented by a convergent power series. Hence,  $\ln x$  is real analytic on  $(0, \infty)$ .

**Exercise 5** (Tao II Exercise 4.5.7, 10 points). Let  $f : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a positive, real analytic function such that  $f'(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Show that  $f(x) = Ce^x$  for some positive constant  $C$ ; justify your reasoning. (*Hint: there are basically three different proofs available. One proof uses the logarithm function, another proof uses the function  $e^{-x}$ , and a third proof uses power series. Of course, you only need to supply one proof.*)

**Solution 5.** Since  $f(x)$  is analytic, it is infinitely differentiable and given exactly by its Taylor series at any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $f'(x) = f(x)$ , by induction  $f^{(n)}(x) = f(x)$  for any  $n \geq 1$ . Fix some  $a > 0$ , then

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!} x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f(a)}{n!} x^n = f(a)e^x, \quad f(a) \in \mathbb{R}_{>0} \text{ is a constant.}$$

**Exercise 6** (Tao II Exercise 4.5.8, 10 points). Let  $m > 0$  be an integer. Prove

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{e^x}{x^m} = +\infty.$$

without using the L'Hopital's rule. Hint:  $e^x \geq \sum_{k=0}^{m+1} \frac{x^k}{k!}$  for  $x > 0$ .

**Solution 6.** Since  $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  and each term in the series is nonnegative when  $x > 0$ , we have  $e^x \geq \sum_{n=0}^{m+1} \frac{x^n}{n!}$  for  $x > 0$ . Then, for any  $N > 0$

$$\frac{e^x}{x^m} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n-m}}{n!} \geq \sum_{n=0}^{m+1} \frac{x^{n-m}}{n!} > \frac{x}{(m+1)!} > \frac{N}{(m+1)!}$$

whenever  $x > N$ . Therefore,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{e^x}{x^m} = +\infty$ .

**Exercise 7** (Tao II Exercise 4.5.9, 10 points). Let  $P(x)$  be a polynomial, and let  $c > 0$ . Show that there exists a real number  $N > 0$  such that  $e^x > |P(x)|$  for all  $x > N$ ; thus an exponentially growing function, no matter how small the growth rate  $c$ , will eventually overtake any given polynomial  $P(x)$ , no matter how large. Hint: use Exercise 4.5.8.

**Solution 7.** Let  $P(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k x^k \in \mathbb{R}[x]$  be a polynomial of degree  $n$ . Then, for any  $x > 0$ , we have

$$|P(x)| \leq \sum_{k=0}^n |a_k| x^k \leq Mx^n,$$

where  $M = |a_n| + |a_{n-1}| + \cdots + |a_0|$ . From Exercise 4.5.8, we know that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{e^{cx}}{x^n} = +\infty$ . Therefore, there exists some  $N > 0$  such that for all  $x > N$ , we have

$$\frac{e^{cx}}{x^n} > M \implies e^{cx} > Mx^n \geq |P(x)|.$$

Thus, we conclude that there exists some real number  $N > 0$  such that  $e^{cx} > |P(x)|$  for all  $x > N$ .

You can do the following problems to practice.  
You don't have to submit the following problems.

**Exercise 8** (Tao II Exercise 4.5.4, Optional). Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the function defined by setting  $f(x) := \exp(-1/x)$  when  $x > 0$ , and  $f(x) := 0$  when  $x \leq 0$ . Prove that  $f$  is infinitely differentiable, and  $f^{(k)}(0) = 0$  for every integer  $k \geq 0$ , but that  $f$  is not real analytic at 0.

**Solution 8.** Since both 0 and  $e^{-1/x}$  are compositions of elementary functions, they are infinitely differentiable on their respective domains. We only need to show that  $f$  is infinitely differentiable at  $x = 0$  and  $f^{(k)}(0) = 0$  for all  $k \geq 0$ .

**Claim.** For  $x > 0$ , the  $n$ -th derivative of  $e^{-1/x}$  is

$$f^{(n)}(x) = e^{-1/x} (-1)^n \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n+k}{n-k} \binom{n+k-1}{n-k} (n-k)! (-1)^k x^{-(n+k)}.$$

*Proof.* For  $n = 1$ ,  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x^2} e^{-1/x}$ , so the base case is satisfied. Suppose the formula holds for  $n$ , then for  $n + 1$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} f^{(n+1)}(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} f^{(n)}(x) \\ &= \frac{d}{dx} \left( e^{-1/x} (-1)^n \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n+k}{n-k} \binom{n+k-1}{n-k} (n-k)! (-1)^k x^{-(n+k)} \right) \\ &= e^{-1/x} (-1)^{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(n+k)!}{(n-k)!(2k)!} \frac{(n+k-1)!}{(n-k)!(2k-1)!} (n-k)! (n+k) (-1)^k x^{-(n+1+k)} \\ &= e^{-1/x} (-1)^{n+1} \sum_{k=1}^{n+1} \binom{n+1+k}{n+1-k} \binom{n+k}{n+1-k} (n+1-k)! (-1)^k x^{-(n+1+k)}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the formula holds for all  $n \geq 1$  by induction.  $\square$

By our claim, for any  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f^{(n)}(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} e^{-1/x} (-1)^n \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n+k}{n-k} \binom{n+k-1}{n-k} (n-k)! (-1)^k x^{-(n+k)} \\ &= \lim_{u \rightarrow +\infty} e^{-u} (-1)^n \sum_{k=1}^n \binom{n+k}{n-k} \binom{n+k-1}{n-k} (n-k)! (-1)^k u^{n+k} \\ &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

by Exercise 4.5.8, while  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f^{(n)} = 0$ . Therefore,  $f^{(n)}(0) = 0$  for all  $n \geq 0$  and  $f$  is differentiable. Since the Taylor series of  $f$  at 0 is identically zero, but  $f(x) > 0$  for all  $x > 0$ ,  $f$  is not real analytic at 0.

**Exercise 9** (Optional). In class, we proved that the function  $f(x) = a^x$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{Q}$  for  $a > 1$ . Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Prove that  $f$  is uniformly continuous on the rational interval

$$[-n, n] \cap \mathbb{Q}.$$

**Remark.** If this is true, then  $f(x) = a^x$  admits a unique continuous extension to all real numbers  $x \in [-n, n]$ .

**Solution 9.** Since  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{Q}$ , for any  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $x \in [-n, n] \cap \mathbb{Q}$ , there exists some  $\delta_x > 0$  such that for any  $y \in \mathbb{Q}$  with  $|x - y| < \delta_x$ , we have  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon$ . The collection of open intervals  $\{(x - \delta_x/2, x + \delta_x/2) : x \in [-n, n] \cap \mathbb{Q}\}$  forms an open cover of the compact set  $[-n, n]$ . Thus, there exists a finite subcover  $\{(x_i - \delta_{x_i}/2, x_i + \delta_{x_i}/2) : i = 1, 2, \dots, m\}$ . Let  $\delta = \min_{1 \leq i \leq m} \delta_{x_i}/2 > 0$ . Then, for any  $x, y \in [-n, n] \cap \mathbb{Q}$  with  $|x - y| < \delta$ , there exists some  $i$  such that  $x \in (x_i - \delta_{x_i}/2, x_i + \delta_{x_i}/2)$ . Therefore,

$$|y - x_i| \leq |y - x| + |x - x_i| < \delta + \frac{\delta_{x_i}}{2} \leq \delta_{x_i}.$$

Hence, by the triangle inequality, we have

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq |f(x) - f(x_i)| + |f(x_i) - f(y)| < \epsilon + \epsilon = 2\epsilon,$$

and  $f$  is uniformly continuous on  $[-n, n] \cap \mathbb{Q}$ .

**Exercise 10 (Optional).** Define the sequence

$$\forall n \geq 1, \quad S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n \ln k.$$

(a) Show that for every  $k \geq 2$ , we have

$$\int_{k-1}^k \ln t \, dt \leq \ln k \leq \int_k^{k+1} \ln t \, dt.$$

Deduce that

$$S_n = n \ln n - n + o(n).$$

(b) By considering the sequence  $(A_n)_{n \geq 1}$ , defined by

$$\forall n \geq 1, \quad A_n = S_n - n \ln n + n,$$

show that  $A_n - A_{n-1} \sim \frac{1}{2n}$  and deduce that

$$A_n \sim \frac{1}{2} \ln n.$$

(c) Let

$$D_n := S_n - n \ln n + n - \frac{1}{2} \ln n \quad \text{for } n \geq 1.$$

Show that

$$D_n - D_{n-1} \sim -\frac{1}{12n^2}.$$

(d) Show that  $D_n$  converges to some  $D_\infty$  when  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Deduce that there exists some constant  $C > 0$  such that

$$n! \sim C \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \sqrt{n}.$$

(e) Using the expression of  $I_{2n} = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{2n} x \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{2^{2n}(n!)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4n}} (1 + o(1))$  (proved in the following), show that

$$C = \sqrt{2\pi}.$$

(f) Show that

$$n! \sim \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \left(1 + \frac{1}{12n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right).$$

**Solution 10.**

(a) For  $k \geq 2$ , since  $\ln t$  is increasing on  $(0, \infty)$ , we have

$$\int_{k-1}^k dt \ln t \leq \int_{k-1}^k dt \ln k = \ln k \leq \int_k^{k+1} dt \ln t.$$

Summing over  $k = 2, 3, \dots, n$ , we have

$$\int_1^n dt \ln t \leq S_n \leq \int_2^{n+1} dt \ln t$$

and hence

$$n \ln n - n + 1 \leq S_n \leq (n+1) \ln(n+1) - (n+1) + 1 \implies S_n = n \ln n - n + o(n).$$

(b) We have

$$\begin{aligned} A_n - A_{n-1} &= S_n - S_{n-1} - n \ln n + n + (n-1) \ln(n-1) - (n-1) \\ &= \ln n - n \ln n + (n-1) \ln(n-1) + 1 \\ &= 1 + (n-1) \ln \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \\ &= 1 + (n-1) \left(-\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{2n^2} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)\right) = \frac{1}{2n} + R(n), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{R(n)}{\frac{1}{n^3}} = 0$ . Then we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{A_n - A_{n-1}}{\frac{1}{2n}} = 1 + 2nR(n) = 1 \implies A_n - A_{n-1} \sim \frac{1}{2n}.$$

(c) We have

$$\begin{aligned} D_n - D_{n-1} &= \left(S_n - n \ln n + n - \frac{1}{2} \ln n\right) - \left(S_{n-1} - (n-1) \ln(n-1) + (n-1) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(n-1)\right) \\ &= \ln n - \ln(n-1) + n \ln \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) + 1 + \frac{1}{2} \ln \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \\ &= 1 + \left(n - \frac{1}{2}\right) \ln \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \\ &= 1 + \left(n - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left[-\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{2n^2} - \frac{1}{3n^3} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^3}\right)\right] = -\frac{1}{12n^2} + R(n), \end{aligned}$$

where  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{R(n)}{\frac{1}{n^4}} = 0$ . Then we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{D_n - D_{n-1}}{\frac{1}{12n^2}} = 1 - 12n^2 R(n) = 1 \implies D_n - D_{n-1} \sim -\frac{1}{12n^2}$$

(d) Let  $G_n = D_n - D_{n-1}$ . Since  $D_n - D_{n-1} \sim -\frac{1}{12n^2}$ , for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|12n^2 G_n + 1| < \varepsilon$  whenever  $n > N$ . Then,

$$|G_n| < \left|G_n + \frac{1}{12n^2}\right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{12n^2} < \varepsilon, \quad \text{whenever } n > N.$$

Hence,  $\{D_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  is a Cauchy sequence, and by completeness of the reals there is a unique limit  $D_\infty$  in  $\mathbb{R}$ . By definition of  $D_n$ , we have

$$S_n = \ln n! = n \ln n - n + \frac{1}{2} \ln n + D_n.$$

Exponentiating both sides gives  $n! = e^{D_n} \sqrt{n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n$ , and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{\sqrt{n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} e^{D_n} = e^{D_\infty} \equiv C > 0 \implies n! \sim C \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \sqrt{n}.$$



(e) From the expression of  $I_{2n}$ , we have

$$I_{2n} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{2^{2n}(n!)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4n}}(1 + o(1)).$$

Using the identity from part (d), we have

$$I_{2n} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{2^{2n}(n!)^2} \sim \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{C \left(\frac{2n}{e}\right)^{2n} \sqrt{2n}}{2^{2n} C^2 \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^{2n} n} = \frac{\pi}{2C} \sqrt{\frac{2}{n}}.$$

Therefore, we have  $\frac{\pi}{2C} \sqrt{\frac{2}{n}} = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4n}}$ , and hence  $C = \sqrt{2\pi}$ .

(f) From part (e), we have  $D_\infty = \log C = \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi)$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} D_n - D_\infty &= S_n - n \ln n + n - \frac{1}{2} \ln n - D_\infty \\ &= \ln n! - n \ln n + n - \frac{1}{2} \ln n - \frac{1}{2} \ln(2\pi) \\ &= \ln \left( \frac{n!}{\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n} \right). \end{aligned}$$

From part (c), we have

$$D_n - D_\infty \sim -\frac{1}{12n^2} \implies \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{D_n - D_\infty}{-\frac{1}{12n^2}} = 1.$$

Therefore, for any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\left| \frac{D_n - D_\infty}{-\frac{1}{12n^2}} - 1 \right| < \varepsilon \implies \left| D_n - D_\infty + \frac{1}{12n^2} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{12n^2}$$

whenever  $n > N$ . Hence, we have

$$\left| \ln \left( \frac{n!}{\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n} \right) + \frac{1}{12n^2} \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{12n^2} \implies \left| \frac{n!}{\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n} - e^{-\frac{1}{12n^2}} \right| < e^{-\frac{1}{12n^2}} \left( e^{\frac{\varepsilon}{12n^2}} - 1 \right)$$

whenever  $n > N$ . Since  $e^x = 1 + x + o(x)$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ , we have

$$\frac{n!}{\sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n} = e^{-\frac{1}{12n^2}} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right) = 1 - \frac{1}{12n^2} + o\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right).$$

Exponentiating both sides gives

$$n! = \sqrt{2\pi n} \left(\frac{n}{e}\right)^n \left(1 + \frac{1}{12n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right).$$

**Exercise 11** (Optional). Let  $\mathcal{P}$  be the set of all the primes. In this exercise, we will prove that  $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p}$  is divergent.

(a) Show that for  $s > 1$ , we have

$$-\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \log \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right) = \log \zeta(s).$$

(b) Deduce that there exists  $M > 0$  such that for any  $s > 1$ , we have

$$\left| \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p^s} - \log \zeta(s) \right| < M.$$

- (c) Show that as  $s \rightarrow 1^+$ , we have  $\zeta(s) \rightarrow +\infty$ .  
 (d) Conclude that

$$\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p}$$

is divergent.

**Solution 11.**

- (a) The Riemann zeta function is defined as

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s}.$$

Fix  $s > 1$  and  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ . Consider the finite product

$$P_N \equiv \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}, p \leq N} \frac{1}{1 - p^{-s}} = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}, p \leq N} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{p^s} + \frac{1}{p^{2s}} + \cdots \right) = \sum_{n \in A} \frac{1}{n^s},$$

where  $A$  is the set of numbers all of whose prime factors are less than  $N$ . Let  $S_N$  be the  $N$ -th partial sum of  $\zeta(s)$ , then since  $P_N$  contains all terms of the form  $\frac{1}{n^s}$  for  $n \leq N$  by the Fundamental Theorem of Arithmetic,  $S_N \leq P_N$ . On the other hand,  $P_N \leq \zeta(s)$  since it is a sum of a subsequence of terms in  $\zeta(s)$ , which are all positive. Therefore, we have  $S_N \leq P_N \leq \zeta(s)$  for all  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ .  $S_N \rightarrow \zeta(s)$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$  by definition, and  $P_N$  is an increasing sequence in  $N$ , so by the Squeeze Theorem  $P_N \rightarrow \zeta(s)$  as  $N \rightarrow \infty$ . Hence, we have

$$\zeta(s) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} P_N = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{1 - p^{-s}} \implies -\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \log \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right) = \log \zeta(s).$$

- (b) Using the Taylor expansion of  $\log(1 - x)$ , we have

$$-\log \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right) = \frac{1}{p^s} + \frac{1}{2p^{2s}} + \frac{1}{3p^{3s}} + \cdots.$$

Since  $p > 1$ ,  $p^{-ms} < 1$  for all  $m > 0$ , so the Taylor series always converges. Therefore,

$$\log \zeta(s) = -\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \log \left( 1 - \frac{1}{p^s} \right) = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p^s} + \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{kp^{ks}},$$

and hence

$$\left| \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p^s} - \log \zeta(s) \right| = \left| \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{kp^{ks}} \right| \leq \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{p^{ks}} = \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p^{2s}(1 - p^{-s})}.$$

Since  $s > 1$ ,  $1 - p^{-s} \leq 1 - 2^{-s} < \frac{1}{2}$ , so

$$\left| \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p^s} - \log \zeta(s) \right| \leq 2 \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p^{2s}} < 2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \equiv M < \infty.$$

The series converges by comparison test with the convergent p-series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ .

- (c) Near  $s = 1$ , uniform convergence fails so we cannot switch the order of limit and summation. For  $s > 1$ , consider  $f(x) = x^{-s}$ , which is positive decreasing on  $[1, \infty]$ . Then, by the integral test, we have

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^s} \geq \int_1^{\infty} dx x^{-s} = \frac{1}{s-1}.$$

Therefore, as  $s \rightarrow 1^+$ ,  $\zeta(s) \rightarrow +\infty$ .

(d) Suppose  $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p}$  converges, then  $\lim_{s \rightarrow 1^+} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p^s}$  is bounded. Then, by (b),

$$\lim_{s \rightarrow 1^+} \log \zeta(s) \text{ is bounded} \implies \lim_{s \rightarrow 1^+} \zeta(s) \text{ is bounded,}$$

a contradiction to (c). Therefore,  $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p}$  diverges.

**Exercise 12** (Optional).

**Theorem 1** (Wallis Integrals — Factorial Version). For each integer  $n \geq 0$ , define

$$I_n := \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx.$$

Then:

(a)

$$I_0 = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad I_1 = 1.$$

(b) For all  $n \geq 2$ ,

$$nI_n = (n-1)I_{n-2}.$$

(c) For each  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$I_{2m-1} = \frac{2^{2m-1}(m-1)!m!}{(2m)!}, \quad I_{2m} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{(2m)!}{2^{2m}(m!)^2}.$$

(d) For all  $n \geq 1$ ,

$$I_n I_{n-1} = \frac{\pi}{2n}.$$

(e) As  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,

$$I_n = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2n}} (1 + o(1)).$$

(f) In particular,

$$I_{2n} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}.$$

**Solution 12.** Here we provide a proof for Theorem 1.

(a) By directly computing the integrals, we have

$$I_0 = \int_0^{\pi/2} 1 \, dx = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad I_1 = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin x \, dx = [-\cos x]_0^{\pi/2} = 1.$$

(b) For  $n \geq 2$ , we have

$$I_n = \int_0^{\pi/2} dx \sin^n x = \int_0^{\pi/2} dx \sin^{n-1} x \sin x.$$

Do integration by parts with  $u = \sin^{n-1} x$  and  $dv = \sin x \, dx$ , we have  $v = -\cos x$ ,  $du = (n-1)\sin^{n-2} x \cos x \, dx$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} I_n &= [-\sin^{n-1} x \cos x]_0^{\pi/2} + (n-1) \int_0^{\pi/2} dx \sin^{n-2} x \cos^2 x \\ &= (n-1) \int_0^{\pi/2} dx \sin^{n-2} x (1 - \sin^2 x) = (n-1)I_{n-2}. \end{aligned}$$

- (c) We should discuss the two cases where  $n$  is an odd or even integer, with  $I_0$  and  $I_1$  from part (a) as the base cases. For  $n = 2m - 1$ , where  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$I_{2m-1} = \frac{2m-2}{2m-1} \cdot \frac{2m-4}{2m-3} \cdots \frac{2}{3} \cdot I_1 = \frac{2^{2m-1}(m-1)!m!}{(2m)!}.$$

On the other hand, for  $n = 2m$ , we have

$$I_{2m} = \frac{2m-1}{2m} \cdot \frac{2m-3}{2m-2} \cdots \frac{1}{2} \cdot I_0 = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{(2m)!}{2^{2m}(m!)^2}.$$

- (d) Again, we discuss the cases when  $n$  is an even or an odd number. For  $n = 2m + 1$ ,

$$I_{2m+1}I_{2m} = \frac{\pi}{2(2m+1)} = \frac{\pi}{2n}.$$

Thus,

$$I_n I_{n-1} = \frac{\pi}{2n}.$$

For  $n = 2m$ , a similar calculation gives

$$I_{2m}I_{2m-1} = \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{(2m)!}{2^{2m}(m!)^2} \right) \left( \frac{2^{2m-1}(m-1)!m!}{(2m)!} \right) = \frac{\pi}{2(2m)} = \frac{\pi}{2n}.$$

Hence,  $I_n I_{n-1} = \frac{\pi}{2n}$ , for all  $n \geq 1$ .

- (e) Notice that since  $\sin x \in [0, 1]$  for all  $x \in [0, \pi/2]$ ,

$$I_n = \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^n x \, dx \leq \int_0^{\pi/2} \sin^{n-1} x \, dx = I_{n-1},$$

and hence  $\{I_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$  is a positive, decreasing sequence. From the product identity in part (d) and  $I_{n-1} \leq I_n \leq I_{n+1}$ , we have

$$\frac{\pi}{2(n+1)} = I_{n+1}I_n \leq I_n^2 \leq I_n I_{n-1} = \frac{\pi}{2n}.$$

Everything is positive, so, multiplying by  $\frac{2n}{\pi}$  and taking square roots, we get

$$\sqrt{\frac{n}{n+1}} \leq \sqrt{\frac{2n}{\pi}} I_n \leq 1 \implies I_n \sim \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2n}},$$

or, equivalently, using the little- $o$  notation gives

$$I_n = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2n}} (1 + o(1))$$

- (f) Directly from part (c), we have

$$I_{2n} = \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{2^{2n}(n!)^2}.$$