

MATH 121A HW2

Lecture 8/28

Great

①  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  defined as  $\{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \mid x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0\}$

a) Find a basis for  $V$  ( $e_1, \dots, e_n$ )

$x_3$  is dependent on  $x_1$  and  $x_2$

$$x_3 = -x_1 - x_2$$

thus, there are 2 deg of freedom ( $n = 2$ )

$\Rightarrow$  2 basis vectors  $e_1, e_2$

$e_1$ : let  $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0$

$$\Rightarrow x_3 = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow e_1 = (1, 0, -1)$$

$e_2$ : let  $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1$

$$\Rightarrow x_3 = -1$$

$$\Rightarrow e_2 = (0, 1, -1)$$

linearly independent +  
since  $e_1 \neq c e_2$  for  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\therefore \boxed{\begin{matrix} e_1 = (1, 0, -1) \\ e_2 = (0, 1, -1) \end{matrix}}$$

b)  $(2, -1, -1) = a e_1 + b e_2 = a(1, 0, -1) + b(0, 1, -1)$

let  $a = 2$ , solve for  $b$ :

$$\text{then } (2, -1, -1) = (2, 0, -2) + b(0, 1, -1)$$

$$(0, -1, 1) = b(0, 1, -1)$$

$$\Rightarrow b = -1$$

$$\therefore \boxed{(2, -1, -1) = 2e_1 - e_2}$$

2. Let  $W = \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $V \rightarrow W$  the map of forgetting coordinate  $x_3$   
(Assume  $V$  is still as defined previously)

i.e. for  $\underline{v} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$  in  $V \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ , then  
 $f: V \rightarrow W$  maps to  $\underline{w} = (x_1, x_2)$  in  $W = \mathbb{R}^2$

1. Check if  $f: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear map

$$\text{let } \underline{v}_1 = (x_1, y_1, -x_1 - y_1) \in V$$

$$\underline{v}_2 = (x_2, y_2, -x_2 - y_2) \in V$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{then } f(\underline{v}_1 + \underline{v}_2) &= f(x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2, -x_1 - y_1 - x_2 - y_2) \\ &= (x_1 + x_2, y_1 + y_2) \\ &= (x_1, y_1) + (x_2, y_2) \\ &= f(\underline{v}_1) + f(\underline{v}_2) \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow f$  preserves vector addition

$$\text{let } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{then } f(c\underline{v}_1) &= f(cx_1, cy_1, -cx_1 - cy_1) \\ &= (cx_1, cy_1) \\ &= c(x_1, y_1) = cf(\underline{v}_1) \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow f$  preserves scalar multiplication

thus,  $f: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear map

2. Check if  $f: V \rightarrow W$  is injective

Injective  $\Rightarrow$  different vectors in  $V$  map to different vectors in  $W$  (one-to-one)

- Since  $V = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \mid x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0\}$ ,  $x_3$  is always dependent on  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  ( $x_3 = -x_1 - x_2$ )

- Thus, for all  $\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2 \in V$ ,  $\underline{v}_1 \neq \underline{v}_2$  iff  
 $x_1 \neq x_2$  or  $y_1 \neq y_2$

2.  
cont.

- Consequently,  $f(v_1) = f(v_2) \iff v_1 = v_2$   
because the  $x_3$  value that is dropped in the transformation is fully constrained by  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  and cannot take on different values for the same  $x_1$  and  $x_2$

- Thus, different vectors in  $V$  will always map to different vectors in  $W \Rightarrow f: V \rightarrow W$  is injective

3. Check if  $f: V \rightarrow W$  is surjective

Surjective  $\Rightarrow$  the range of  $V$  covers all possible values in  $W$  (onto)

$v = (x_1, x_2, x_3) \in V$ , where  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$

and  $x_3 = -x_1 - x_2$

• thus, when  $x_3$  is dropped, the remaining  $(x_1, x_2)$  can take on any value in  $\mathbb{R}^2$

• so  $f: V \rightarrow W$

$(x_1, x_2, x_3) \mapsto (x_1, x_2)$  maps to all  $\mathbb{R}^2$

$\Rightarrow f: V \rightarrow W$  is surjective

$\therefore f: V \rightarrow W$  must be an isomorphism given that it is linear, injective, and surjective

What is the inverse?

Find  $f^{-1}: W \rightarrow V$

given  $w = (x_1, x_2) \in W = \mathbb{R}^2$

map to  $v = (x_1, x_2, x_3) \in V \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ ,

where  $x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0 \Rightarrow x_3 = -x_1 - x_2$

( $x_1$  and  $x_2$  are preserved in either direction)

2. Thus, inverse is

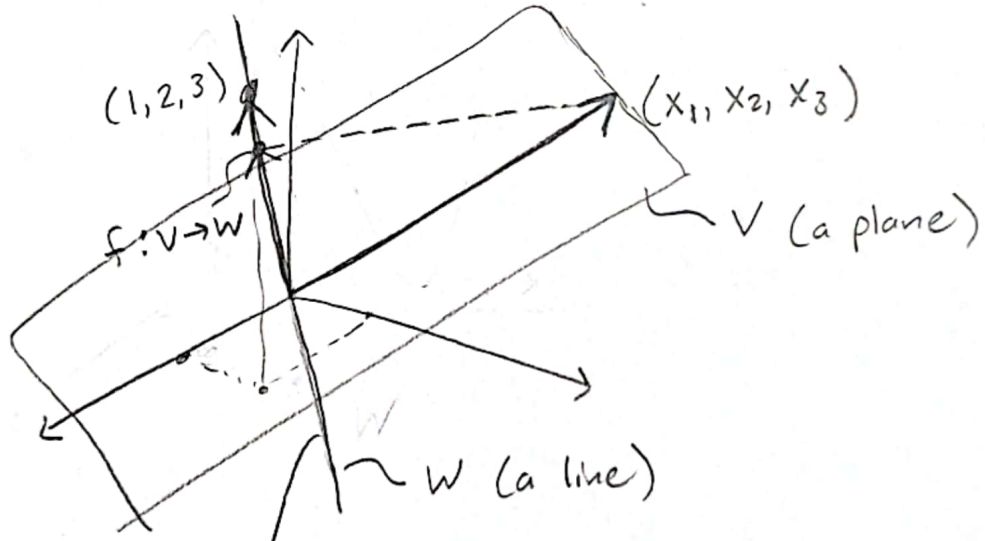
$$f^{-1}: W \rightarrow V$$
$$(x_1, x_2) \longmapsto (x_1, x_2, -x_1 - x_2)$$

3.  $V = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \mid x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0\}$  (same as before)

Let  $W$  be the line generated by the vector  $(1, 2, 3)$

$$\Rightarrow W = \{c(1, 2, 3)\} \text{ for } c \in \mathbb{R}$$

$f: V \rightarrow W$  is orthogonal projection  
maps  $\underline{v} \in V$  to closest point on  $W$   
Is  $f$  a linear map?



- In this case,  $\underline{w} = (1, 2, 3) \in W$  is a basis for the subspace  $W$  (which is a line)
- Then the orthogonal projection of some vector  $\underline{v} \in V$  onto the line  $W$  is given by:

$$\hat{\underline{v}} = \text{proj}_W \underline{v} = \frac{\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w}}{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{w}} \underline{w}$$

3.  
cont.

Hence, the transformation is  $f(\underline{v}) = \frac{\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w}}{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{w}} \underline{w}$

where  $\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w} = \langle (x_1, x_2, x_3), (1, 2, 3) \rangle$  is the standard inner product

a) Show that this is a linear map:

1. Preserves vector addition?

let  $\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2 \in V$

$$f(\underline{v}_1 + \underline{v}_2) = \frac{(\underline{v}_1 + \underline{v}_2) \cdot \underline{w}}{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{w}} \underline{w} = \frac{\underline{v}_1 \cdot \underline{w}}{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{w}} \underline{w} + \frac{\underline{v}_2 \cdot \underline{w}}{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{w}} \underline{w} = f(\underline{v}_1) + f(\underline{v}_2)$$

(since standard inner product distributes across addition)  
 $\Rightarrow$  yes, preserves vector addition

2. Preserves scalar multiplication?

let  $c \in \mathbb{R}, \underline{v} \in V$

$$f(c\underline{v}) = \frac{(c\underline{v}) \cdot \underline{w}}{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{w}} \underline{w} = c \left( \frac{\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w}}{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{w}} \underline{w} \right) = cf(\underline{v})$$

Again using properties of standard inner product

$\Rightarrow$  yes, preserves scalar multiplication

$\therefore$  The orthogonal projection  $f: V \rightarrow W$  is a linear map

b) What is the kernel of  $f$ ?

$$\ker(f) = \underline{v} \text{ in } V \text{ s.t. } f(\underline{v}) = \frac{\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w}}{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{w}} \underline{w} = \underline{0} \text{ in } W$$

$$\text{where } \text{proj}_W \underline{v} = \frac{\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w}}{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{w}} \underline{w} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w}) \underline{w} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \underline{v} \cdot \underline{w} = \underline{0}$$

$$\Rightarrow (x_1, x_2, x_3) \cdot (1, 2, 3) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0$$

3.  
cont.

b) Thus,  $\text{ker}(f) = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3)\}$  s.t.

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 = 0 & \textcircled{1} \\ x_1 + x_2 + x_3 = 0 & \textcircled{2} \end{cases}$$

1 deg of freedom

↓  
should only depend on 1 variable

Subtract  $\textcircled{1} - \textcircled{2} \Rightarrow x_2 + 2x_3 = 0$

$$x_2 = -2x_3$$

and  $x_1 = -x_2 - x_3 = 2x_3 - x_3 = x_3$

$$\Rightarrow \text{ker}(f) = \{(x_3, -2x_3, x_3)\}$$

Or in a more general sense!

$$\boxed{\text{ker}(f) = \{(x, -2x, x) \in V\}}$$

c) Let  $g: W \rightarrow V$  be the orthogonal projection in the other direction

let  $\underline{w} \in W$  (can be any vector in  $W$  this time)

and let  $\{\underline{u}_1, \underline{u}_2\} \in V$  be an orthogonal basis for vector space  $V$

Then the orthogonal projection of  $\underline{w}$  onto plane  $V$  is given by:

$$\hat{\underline{w}} = \text{proj}_V \underline{w} = \frac{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{u}_1}{\underline{u}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_1} \underline{u}_1 + \frac{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{u}_2}{\underline{u}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_2} \underline{u}_2 = g(\underline{w})$$

• Check if  $g(\underline{w}) = \text{proj}_V \underline{w}$  preserves vector addition and scalar multiplication!

let  $\underline{w}_1, \underline{w}_2 \in W$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\text{then } g(c\underline{w}_1 + c\underline{w}_2) = \frac{(c\underline{w}_1 + c\underline{w}_2) \cdot \underline{u}_1}{\underline{u}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_1} \underline{u}_1 + \frac{(c\underline{w}_1 + c\underline{w}_2) \cdot \underline{u}_2}{\underline{u}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_2} \underline{u}_2$$

3. cont.

$$\begin{aligned} c) &= \frac{c\underline{w}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_1}{\underline{u}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_1} \underline{u}_1 + \frac{c\underline{w}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_1}{\underline{u}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_1} \underline{u}_1 + \frac{c\underline{w}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_2}{\underline{u}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_2} \underline{u}_2 + \frac{c\underline{w}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_2}{\underline{u}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_2} \underline{u}_2 \\ &= c \left( \frac{\underline{w}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_1}{\underline{u}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_1} \underline{u}_1 + \frac{\underline{w}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_1}{\underline{u}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_1} \underline{u}_1 \right) + c \left( \frac{\underline{w}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_2}{\underline{u}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_2} \underline{u}_2 + \frac{\underline{w}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_2}{\underline{u}_2 \cdot \underline{u}_2} \underline{u}_2 \right) \\ &= cg(\underline{w}_1) + cg(\underline{w}_2) \end{aligned}$$

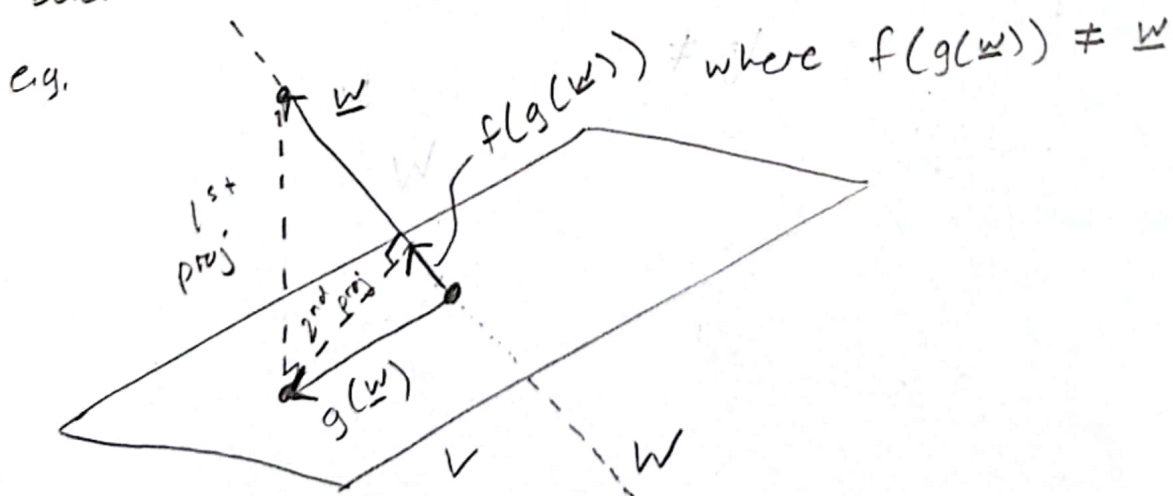
$\Rightarrow$  preserves both vec. addition and scalar mult.

$\therefore$   $g: W \rightarrow V$  is a linear map

d)  $f$  is related to  $g$  in the sense that

$f(g(\underline{w}))$  maps  $W \rightarrow V \rightarrow W$  and  
 $g(f(\underline{v}))$  maps  $V \rightarrow W \rightarrow V$

However, they aren't necessarily perfect inverses (i.e.  $f(g(\underline{w})) \neq \underline{w}$  and  $g(f(\underline{v})) \neq \underline{v}$ ) because the original vector will not be preserved when you do an orthogonal projection back to the original subspace!

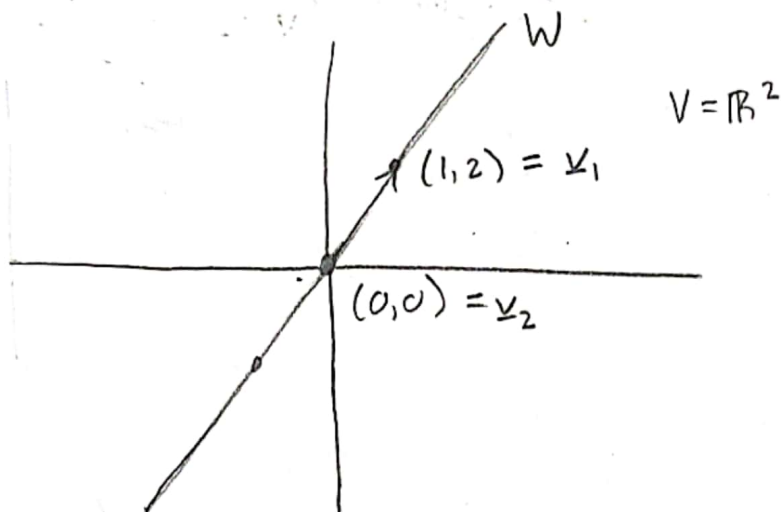


# Lecture 8/30

4.  $V = \mathbb{R}^2$ ,  $W = \text{subspace generated by } \text{span}\{(1,2)\}$

For  $v \in V$ , let  $[v] = v + W \in V/W$

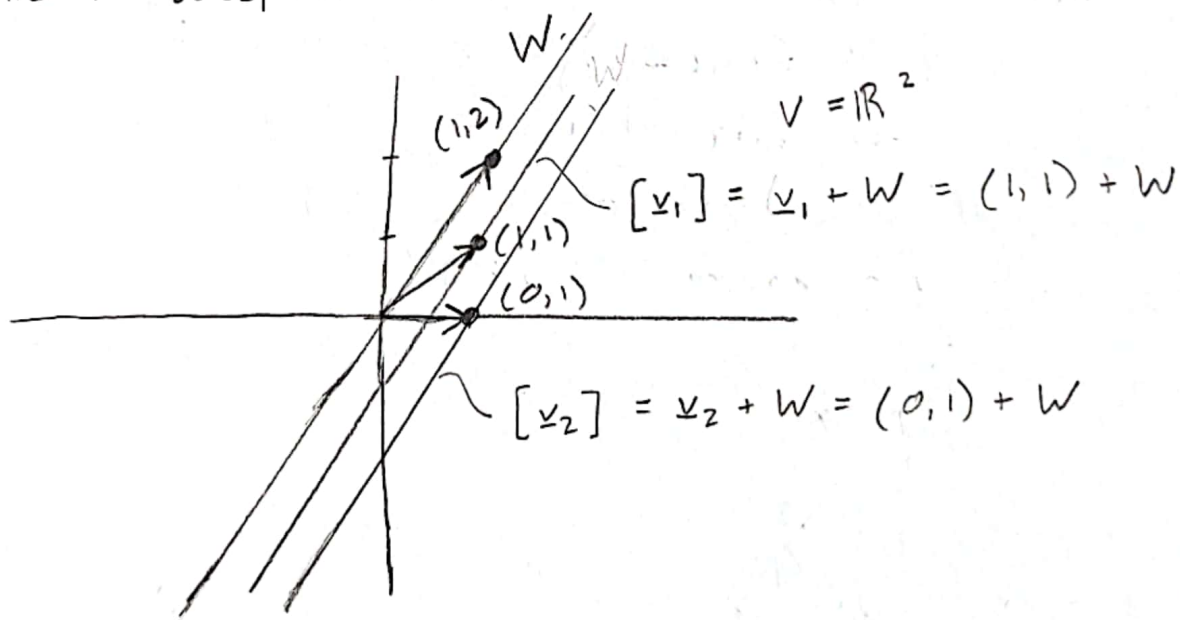
a)



for  $v_1, v_2 \in V$   
 $v_1 - v_2 \in W$   
 $\Rightarrow [v_1] = [v_2]$

Yes,  $[(0,0)] = [(1,2)]$  because  
 $(1,2) - (0,0) = (1,2) \in W$ , which means they both  
lie in subspace  $W$  and must be equivalent.

b)



No,  $[(1,1)] \neq [(0,1)]$  because

$(1,1) - (0,1) = (1,0) \notin W$ . As shown,  $[(1,1)]$  and  
 $[(0,1)]$  result in 2 separate affine lines, so have  
different equivalence classes



5.

Dual vector space  $V^* = \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$

Let  $V = \{ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$

(polynomials with degree  $\leq 3$ )

a) The coefficients  $a, b, c,$  and  $d$  are all unconstrained and not dependent on each other.

$\Rightarrow$  4 deg of freedom

$$\therefore \boxed{\dim(V) = 4}$$

b)  $V^* = \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$

maps every element in  $V$  to some scalar in  $\mathbb{R}$

e.g. if  $V = \mathbb{R}^4$

then  $V^* = \{ax_1 + bx_2 + cx_3 + dx_4 \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$

In order to be a homomorphism where every element is mapped to  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $V^*$  must have the same number of deg of freedom as  $V$ , which implies

$$\dim(V) = \dim(V^*)$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\dim(V^*) = 4}$$

c) Basis for  $V = \{ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d \mid a, b, c, d \in \mathbb{R}\}$

$$\text{let } f_1(x) = 1$$

$$f_2(x) = x$$

$$f_3(x) = x^2$$

$$f_4(x) = x^3$$

then  $\{f_1(x), f_2(x), f_3(x), f_4(x)\}$  span all possible 3<sup>rd</sup> deg polynomials in  $V$

And  $c_3x^3 + c_2x^2 + c_1x + c_0 = 0$  for all  $x$  iff

$$c_3 = c_2 = c_1 = c_0 = 0$$

thus,  $f_1(x), f_2(x), f_3(x),$  and  $f_4(x)$  are linearly independent

5.  
cont

$\therefore$  basis for  $V = \{x^3, x^2, x, 1\}$

d) Find a basis for  $V^* = \text{Hom}(V, \mathbb{R})$

$$\text{let } F(x) = a_3 f_4(x) + a_2 f_3(x) + a_1 f_2(x) + a_0 f_1(x) \\ = a_3 x^3 + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$$

(encompasses all polynomials in  $V$ )

- In order to map  $V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , want a function  $g(F(x)) \in V$  which extracts just the scalar coefficient terms  $a_3, a_2, a_1$ , and  $a_0$  in  $F(x) \in V$
- Since  $\dim(V^*) = 4$ , need 4 such functions  $g_1(F(x)), \dots, g_4(F(x))$  in order to form a basis for  $V^*$  (one for each coefficient)

thus, define:

1.  $g_1: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $g_1(F(x)) = a_0$

2.  $g_2: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $g_2(F(x)) = a_1$

3.  $g_3: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $g_3(F(x)) = a_2$

4.  $g_4: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $g_4(F(x)) = a_3$

for all  $F(x) = a_3 x^3 + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0 \in V$

$\{g_1, \dots, g_4\}$  are linearly independent and span all  $V^*$

$\therefore$  basis for  $V^* = \{g_1, g_2, g_3, g_4\}$

# CALCULUS REVIEW (Lectures 8/30, 9/1)

1.

Claim:  $1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \dots = -1/12$

$$\text{let } a_n = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\} = \{N\}$$

$$\text{then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \infty$$

thus,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges by the

divergence test (an infinite series  $a_n$  can only converge to a finite number iff  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ )

$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = 1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + \dots \neq -1/12$  since it must diverge

2.

a)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges

because form of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p}$ , which always converges for  $p > 1$  (by the Integral test)

b)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$

Apply the ratio test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = L \begin{cases} L < 1 \Rightarrow \text{abs. converge} \\ L > 1 \Rightarrow \text{diverge} \\ L = 1 \Rightarrow \text{inconclusive} \end{cases}$$

$$\text{let } a_n = \frac{1}{n!} \Rightarrow \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \left| \frac{\frac{1}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{1}{n!}} \right| = \left| \frac{n!}{(n+1)!} \right| = \left| \frac{1}{n+1} \right|$$

$$\text{then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{1}{n+1} \right| = 0 < 1$$

Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = 0$  which is less than 1, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!}$  converges absolutely by the ratio test (which implies regular convergence)

2.

cont.

$$c) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n!}$$

Apply the Ratio Test again!

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = L \quad \text{where} \quad \begin{cases} L < 1 \Rightarrow \text{absolute convergence} \\ L > 1 \Rightarrow \text{divergence} \\ L = 1 \Rightarrow \text{inconclusive} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{(n+1)^2}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{n^2}{n!}} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^2 n!}{(n+1)! n^2} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)^2}{(n+1) n^2} \right| \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n+1}{n^2} \right| \xrightarrow{1/\infty} = 0 < 1 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n!}$  converges absolutely by the ratio test (and thus converges in general)

3.

Let  $a_n =$  sequence of  $\pm 1$ , i.e.  $a_n = (-1)^n$

Show  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{2^n} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{2^n}$  is convergent

let  $b_n = (-1)^n / 2^n$

From the ratio test,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{\frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{2^{n+1}}}{\frac{(-1)^n}{2^n}} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^{n+1} 2^n}{(-1)^n 2^{n+1}} \right| \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| (-1)^{n+1-n} 2^{n-(n+1)} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| (-1)(2^{-1}) \right| \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| -\frac{1}{2} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{2} \right) = \frac{1}{2} = L \end{aligned}$$

Ratio test says that if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n} \right| = L < 1$ , then the series  $b_n$  converges absolutely

3.  
cont.

If the absolute value of a series converges, the original series must also converge. That is,

$$\text{Since } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{a_n}{2^n} \right| = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} \text{ converges, then}$$

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{a_n}{2^n}$  must also converge by the ratio test.

(where  $a_n = \{-1, 1, -1, 1, \dots\} = (-1)^n \Rightarrow |a_n| = \{1, 1, \dots\}$ )

4. a) What is radius of convergence?

Define a function of the form

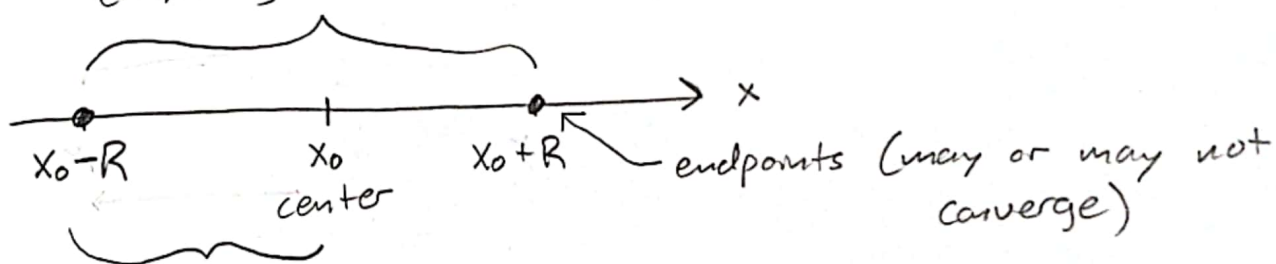
$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n (x-a)^n = C_0 + C_1(x-a) + C_2(x-a)^2 + \dots$$

(aka a Taylor Series)

• Then the interval of convergence is the range of specific  $x$  values for which the series converges, centered about a point

• The radius of convergence is the width of this interval:

Interval of convergence  
(anything within absolutely converges)



Radius of convergence is  $R$  s.t.  $f(x)$

converges on the interval  $x_0 \pm R$

b) Does  $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$  hold for all  $x \neq 1$ ?

↳ Check radius of convergence

4.

Apply ratio test:

cont.

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \Rightarrow \text{let } a_n = x^n$$

$$\text{then } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^{n+1}}{x^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |x|$$

$$\text{For convergence, } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1$$

$$\text{thus, } \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n \text{ converges only for } |x| < 1$$

$$\Rightarrow -1 < x < 1$$

$\Rightarrow$  The radius of convergence is  $R = 1$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots \text{ is not true for all } x \neq 1, \text{ but rather only holds true on the interval } -1 < x < 1$$

(we can see in this case that the endpoints are non-inclusive b/c  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n = 0 \neq \frac{1}{1-(-1)} = \frac{1}{2}$ , and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1^n$  clearly diverges)

5.

Given:  $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  diverges

[Harmonic series]

Does  $1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n}$  converge?

Yes, because it is an alternating series of the form  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n$  (where  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ ) that satisfies the following conditions:

next page  $\rightarrow$

5.

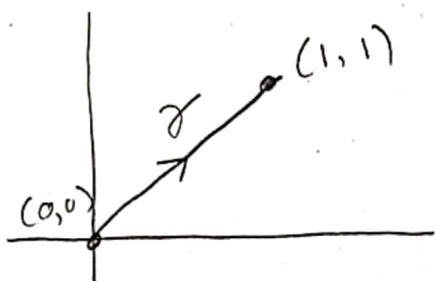
cont.

1.  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$  is decreasing for all  $n > 0$

2.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$  (passes the divergence test)

Thus,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n}$  must converge by the alternating series test

6.) a) Given:  $\gamma$  = straight line from  $(0,0)$  to  $(1,1)$



Compute  $\int_{\gamma} 2dx + 3dy$

• Parametrize the line segment: let  $\begin{cases} x(t) = t \\ y(t) = t \end{cases}$   
for  $0 \leq t \leq 1$

then  $dx = dt$  and  $dy = dt$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{thus, } \int_{\gamma} 2dx + 3dy &= \int_0^1 2dt + 3dt = \int_0^1 5dt = 5t \Big|_0^1 \\ &= \boxed{5} \end{aligned}$$

b) What if  $\gamma$  is replaced by a curved line from  $(0,0)$  to  $(1,1)$ ?

→ No, the previous result would not change, because the vector field  $E(x,y) = (2,3)$  is conservative and thus path independent (all that matters is the endpoints of the curve)

6.  
cont.

We can verify that the field which the curve  $\gamma$  travels through is conservative by looking at its partial derivatives:

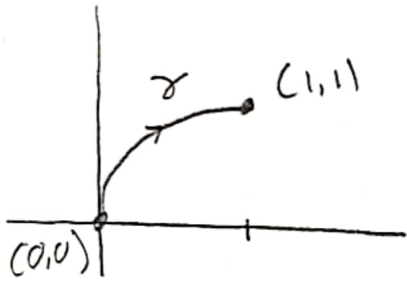
$$F = P\hat{i} + Q\hat{j} = 2\hat{i} + 3\hat{j}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = 0 = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x}$$

(Continuous, first-order on a domain  $D$ ).

Consequently,  $\text{curl}(F) = \underline{0}$

To check, try solving line integral using a curved, quarter-circle path:



Parametrize:

$$x(t) = 1 - \cos t \Rightarrow dx = \sin t dt$$

$$y(t) = \sin t \quad dy = \cos t dt$$

$$\text{for } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

then

$$\int_{\gamma} 2dx + 3dy = \int_0^{\pi/2} (2\sin t dt + 3\cos t dt)$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/2} (2\sin t + 3\cos t) dt$$

$$= (-2\cos t + 3\sin t) \Big|_0^{\pi/2}$$

$$= -2\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + 3\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + 2\cos(0) - 3\sin(0)$$

$$= \boxed{5} \quad \checkmark \text{ same result as before}$$