

Solutions to 2AAL practice exam. (You only need to answer 4 questions, one from each section. Below are all the solutions)

Q1/(a) let $z = x_1 + iy_1$ and $w = x_2 + iy_2$, where $x_1, x_2, y_1, y_2 \in \mathbb{R}$.

(i) TRUE. $\overline{(z+w)} = \overline{(x_1+x_2) + i(y_1+y_2)} = (x_1+x_2) - i(y_1+y_2) = (x_1-iy_1) + (x_2-iy_2) = \bar{z} + \bar{w}$.

(ii) TRUE. $\overline{(zw)} = \overline{(x_1x_2 - y_1y_2) + i(x_1y_2 + x_2y_1)} = (x_1x_2 - y_1y_2) - i(x_1y_2 + x_2y_1) = (x_1-iy_1)(x_2-iy_2) = \bar{z}\bar{w}$.

(iii) TRUE. $\frac{1}{\bar{w}}$ is a complex number, so $\overline{\left(\frac{z}{w}\right)} = \overline{z \cdot \frac{1}{w}} \stackrel{(\text{ii})}{=} \bar{z} \cdot \overline{\left(\frac{1}{w}\right)} = \bar{z} \cdot \frac{1}{\bar{w}} = \frac{\bar{z}}{\bar{w}}$.

(iv) FALSE. ~~If~~ ^{Pick $z=0$} $w = -z$, then $|z+w| = 0$ whereas $|z|+|w| = |z|+|-z| = 2|z| \neq 0$ since $z \neq 0$.

(v) TRUE. $|z|^2 = |(x_1^2 - y_1^2) + i(2x_1y_1)| = \sqrt{(x_1^2 - y_1^2)^2 + (2x_1y_1)^2} = \sqrt{x_1^4 - 2x_1^2y_1^2 + y_1^4 + 4x_1^2y_1^2} = \sqrt{(x_1^2 + y_1^2)^2} = x_1^2 + y_1^2 = |z|^2$.

(b) (i) let $X = \{1\} = Y$, then $X \cup Y = \{1\}$ and $X \cap Y = \{1\}$.

(ii) let $X = \{1\}$, $Y = \{2\}$, then $X \setminus Y = \{x \in X \mid x \notin Y\} = \{1\} = X$.

(iii) let $X = \{1\}$, $Y = \{2\}$. Then there is only one function from X to Y , namely $1 \mapsto 2$ (call this f). It is injective since $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ with $x_1, x_2 \in X$ implies, (since $X = \{1\}$ has only one element) that $x_1 = x_2 (=1)$.

(c) ($\Rightarrow$) Suppose that f is injective. Pick $x_0 \in X$, then define $g: Y \rightarrow X$ by $g(y) := \begin{cases} x_0 & \text{if } y \notin \text{image of } f \\ \text{the unique } x \in X \text{ such that } y = f(x) & \text{if } y \in \text{image of } f. \end{cases}$

Then $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = x \quad \forall x \in X$, so $g \circ f = \text{id}_X$.

($\Leftarrow$) Suppose that $g \circ f = \text{id}_X$. If $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, then $g(f(x_1)) = g(f(x_2))$ i.e. $g \circ f(x_1) = g \circ f(x_2)$. But $g \circ f = \text{id}_X$, so this implies that $x_1 = x_2$. Hence f is injective.

Q2/ (a) [this is the Week 7 assignment; see solution online]

(b) By prime factorisation, every ^{positive} integer which divides $2^2 \times 3^2 \times 11^4$ has the form $2^{a_1} \cdot 3^{a_2} \cdot 11^{a_3}$ where $0 \leq a_1 \leq 2$, $0 \leq a_2 \leq 2$ and $0 \leq a_3 \leq 4$. Hence there are $3 \times 3 \times 5 = 40$ options.

Repeating the analysis for negative integers, each has the form $-2^{a_1} \cdot 3^{a_2} \cdot 11^{a_3}$, so 40 options. Hence overall, there are 80 integers dividing $2^2 \times 3^2 \times 11^4$.

(c) If we pick $x \in X$, the equivalence class containing x is defined to be $\{y \in X \mid y R x\}$

Now let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then define equivalence relation on $\mathbb{Z}$ by the rule $x R y \Leftrightarrow n \mid (x-y)$.

The set of equiv classes for this are $\{\bar{0}, \bar{1}, \bar{2}, \dots, \overline{n-1}\}$ where $\bar{i}$ = equiv class containing i .

This is ^(isomorphic to) the set of integers mod n .

We define addition & multiplication by $\bar{i} + \bar{j} := \overline{i+j}$
& $\bar{i} \bar{j} := \overline{ij}$.

Q2(a) since $0^2 \equiv 0 \pmod{6}$

$1^2 \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$

$2^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{6}$

$3^2 \equiv 9 \equiv 3 \pmod{6}$

$4^2 \equiv 16 \equiv 4 \pmod{6}$

$5^2 \equiv 25 \equiv 1 \pmod{6}$

, if $x^2 \equiv 4 \pmod{6}$, then $x \equiv 2 \text{ or } 4 \pmod{6}$.

Here $x = 2 + 6k$ for some $k \in \mathbb{Z}$
or $x = 4 + 6l$ for some $l \in \mathbb{Z}$.

SECTION 2

Q3(a) A sequence is a function $\mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. We usually denote $a_i := f(i)$, and write $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ as the collection of its values. We say that $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to a limit $l \in \mathbb{R}$ if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ st $|a_n - l| < \varepsilon \forall n \geq N$.

(b) (i) $a_n := \frac{1}{n}$ converges to 0.

Proof: let $\varepsilon > 0$, then pick $N \in \mathbb{N}$ st $N > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$. Then $\forall n \geq N$,
 $|a_n - 0| = \frac{1}{n} \leq \frac{1}{N} < \varepsilon$.

(ii) $a_n := \frac{n^3 - n^2}{n} = n^2 - n$. This sequence does not converge, since it is unbounded.

(iii) We first claim that $b_n := (0.7)^n$ converges to 0.

Proof: let $\varepsilon > 0$, then pick $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $N > \frac{\log \varepsilon}{\log 0.7}$. Then since
 $(0.7)^n < \varepsilon \iff \log(0.7)^n < \log \varepsilon \iff n \log 0.7 < \log \varepsilon \iff n > \frac{\log \varepsilon}{\log 0.7}$,
we see that $|b_n - 0| < \varepsilon \forall n \geq N$.

Now both $\frac{1}{n}$ and $(0.7)^n$ are sequences with limits, so by theorem in lectures limit of $(\frac{1}{n} + (0.7)^n) = \text{limit of } \frac{1}{n} + \text{limit of } (0.7)^n = 0 + 0 = 0$.

(iv) $a_n := \frac{\sqrt{n^2 - 1}}{n}$ converges to 1.

Proof: let $\varepsilon > 0$, choose $N \in \mathbb{N}$ st $N > \frac{1}{\varepsilon^2}$, then $\forall n \geq N$

$$|a_n - 1| = \left| \frac{\sqrt{n^2 - 1}}{n} - 1 \right| = \left| \frac{1 - \frac{1}{n^2} - 1}{\frac{\sqrt{n^2 - 1}}{n} + 1} \right| \leq \frac{1/n^2}{1} \leq \frac{1}{n^2} < \varepsilon.$$

(c) (i) The harmonic series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ is such an example. $\frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by (b)(i). But $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ does not converge, since

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}}_{> \frac{1}{2}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8}}_{> 4 \cdot \frac{1}{8} = \frac{1}{2}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{9} + \dots + \frac{1}{16}}_{> 8 \cdot \frac{1}{16} = \frac{1}{2}} + \dots \quad \text{we keep adding } \frac{1}{2}, \text{ so it cannot converge.}$$

(ii) The series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n := 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$. Clearly this sequence converges to 0. Further $s_n := \sum_{i=1}^n a_i = 0 \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, so $s_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, so the ~~series~~ ^{series} converges to 0.

A series is an infinite sum $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$.

Q4/ (a) Consider $s_n := \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$. We say that the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ converges to a limit $L \in \mathbb{R}$ if the sequence $(s_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to the limit L (in the sense of Q3(a)), that is $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ st $|s_n - L| < \epsilon \forall n \geq N$.

(b) (i) Here $s_n := \sum_{k=1}^n 1 = n$. Then the sequence $(s_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is unbounded, hence it cannot converge. Hence the series does not converge.

(ii) Here $s_n := \sum_{k=1}^n a = an$. Unless $a=0$, the sequence $(s_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is unbounded, hence it cannot converge. If $a=0$, $s_n = 0 \forall n$ so $s_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. In this case, the series converges to 0.

(iii) Here $s_n = \sum_{k=1}^n k = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$. The sequence $(s_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is unbounded, hence it cannot converge. Hence the series does not converge.

(iv) This is the harmonic series. It does not converge since

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \dots$$

$\underbrace{\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4}}_{> 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}} \quad \underbrace{\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8}}_{> 4 \cdot \frac{1}{8} = \frac{1}{2}} \quad \underbrace{\frac{1}{9} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{12} + \frac{1}{13} + \frac{1}{14} + \frac{1}{15}}_{> 8 \cdot \frac{1}{16} = \frac{1}{2}} + \dots$

we keep adding $\frac{1}{2}$, so it cannot converge.

(c) The Taylor series of f around a is defined to be $\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(i)}(a)}{i!} (x-a)^i$.

(d) (i) $f(x) = \ln(1+x)$ $f(0) = 0$

$f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}$ as $f'(0) = 1$

$f^{(2)}(x) = \frac{-1}{(1+x)^2}$ $f^{(2)}(0) = -1$

$f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{2}{(1+x)^3}$ $f^{(3)}(0) = 2$

$f^{(4)}(x) = \frac{-2 \cdot 3}{(1+x)^4}$ $f^{(4)}(0) = -2 \cdot 3$

$\vdots$

Here Maclaurin series = $0 + \frac{1}{1!}x + \frac{(-1)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{2}{3!}x^3 + \frac{(-2 \cdot 3)}{4!}x^4 + \dots$
 $= x - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 - \frac{1}{4}x^4 + \dots$

(ii) By (i) $f(1) = \ln(2)$

$f'(1) = \frac{1}{2}$

$f^{(2)}(1) = -\frac{1}{2^2}$

$f^{(3)}(1) = \frac{2}{2^3}$

$f^{(4)}(1) = \frac{-2 \cdot 3}{2^4}$

$\vdots$

Here Taylor series around $a=1$ is = $\ln(2) + \frac{(\frac{1}{2})}{1!}(x-1) + \frac{(\frac{-1}{2^2})}{2!}(x-1)^2 + \frac{(\frac{2}{2^3})}{3!}(x-1)^3 + \frac{(\frac{-2 \cdot 3}{2^4})}{4!}(x-1)^4 + \dots$

= $\ln(2) + \frac{1}{2}(x-1) - \frac{1}{2^3}(x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 2^3}(x-1)^3 - \frac{1}{4 \cdot 2^4}(x-1)^4 + \dots$

SECTION 3

Q5/ (a) (i) FALSE. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ has trace 0, but is not invertible.

(ii) FALSE. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ has determinant 0, but is not invertible.

(iii) TRUE. If $AB=BA$ then $(AB)^{-1} = (BA)^{-1} = A^{-1}B^{-1}$ uses $(CD)^{-1} = D^{-1}C^{-1}$

$\uparrow$
 $AB=BA$

(iv) FALSE. $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ satisfies $A^2=0$, but $A \neq 0$.

(v) TRUE. $A \cdot A^4 = I = A^4 \cdot A$, hence A^4 is the inverse matrix of A (so A is invertible).

(b) (i) The characteristic polynomial is $\det(A - tI)$.

We say that a non-zero vector v is an eigenvector of A if $Av = \lambda v$ for some λ scalar λ .
 λ is called the eigenvalue.

(Note $Av = \lambda v \Leftrightarrow (A - \lambda I)v = 0 \Leftrightarrow \det(A - \lambda I) = 0$, so could also define eigenvalues as roots of the characteristic polynomial)

(ii) ~~Let~~ let $A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \det(A - tI) &= \det \begin{pmatrix} a-t & b \\ c & d-t \end{pmatrix} = (a-t)(d-t) - bc = ad - at - dt + t^2 - bc \\ &= t^2 - (a+d)t + (ad-bc) \\ &= t^2 - \text{Tr}(A)t + \det(A). \end{aligned}$$

(c) let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$.

then $\det(A - tI) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 1-t & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2-t & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4-t \end{pmatrix} = (1-t)(2-t)(4-t)$ so eigenvalues are 1, 2 and 4.

for $\lambda = 1$: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} v_1 - v_3 = v_1 \\ 2v_2 = v_2 \\ 3v_2 + 4v_3 = v_3 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} v_2 = 0 \\ v_3 = 0 \end{cases}$ so $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1.

for $\lambda = 2$: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = 2 \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} v_1 - v_3 = 2v_1 \\ 2v_2 = 2v_2 \\ 3v_2 + 4v_3 = 2v_3 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} v_1 = -v_3 \\ v_2 = -2v_3 \end{cases}$ so $\begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 2.

for $\lambda = 4$: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = 4 \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} v_1 - v_3 = 4v_1 \\ 2v_2 = 4v_2 \\ 3v_2 + 4v_3 = 4v_3 \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} v_2 = 0 \\ v_3 = -3v_1 \end{cases}$ so $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$ is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 4.

Q6/(a) (i) for any $n \times n$ matrices X and Y , by lectures $\det(XY) = \det X \cdot \det Y$. — (*)

$$\text{Hence } \det(P^{-1}AP) = \det \left(\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} P^{-1} & A \end{pmatrix}}_{\substack{\vec{x} \quad \vec{y} \\ \uparrow \\ \text{by above}}} \right) = \det \left(\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} P^{-1} & A \end{pmatrix}}_{\substack{\vec{x} \quad \vec{y} \\ \uparrow \\ \text{by above}}} \right) \det(P) = \det(P^{-1}) \det(A) \det(P). \quad \text{--- (+)}$$

Now $P^{-1}P = I$, so $\det(P^{-1}P) = 1$. By (*) this implies that $\det(P^{-1}) \det(P) = 1$

$$\text{Thus } \det(P^{-1}AP) \underset{(+)}{=} \det(P^{-1}) \det(A) \det(P) \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{these are all just numbers,} \\ \text{so commute}}}{=} \det(A) \det(P^{-1}) \det(P) = \det(A), \text{ as required.}$$

(ii) Solution 1: from lectures, a matrix is invertible if and only if its determinant is non-zero.

Hence by (i), ~~det~~ since $\det A = \det(P^{-1}AP)$, certainly A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow \det(P^{-1}AP) \neq 0 \Leftrightarrow P^{-1}AP$ is invertible.

