Solutions to ECE250 Aptitude Test

1.
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n = \frac{1}{1-r}.$$

Solution: Let

$$S = 1 + r + r^2 + \cdots.$$

(The series converges since 0 < r < 1.) Then

$$rS = r + r^2 + r^3 + \cdots.$$

Taking the difference between two equations, we have S - rS = 1, or equivalently,

$$S = \frac{1}{1 - r}.$$

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

Solution: There are two ways to evaluate this. First, we can write

$$S = r + 2r^2 + 3r^3 + \cdots$$

Then

$$rS = r^2 + 2r^3 + 3r^4 + \cdots.$$

By taking the difference between S and rS, we can easily see that

$$(1-r)S = r + r^2 + r^3 + \dots = \frac{r}{1-r}.$$

Alternatively, we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nr^n = r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} nr^{n-1} = r \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dr} (r^n)$$
$$= r \frac{d}{dr} \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n \right) = r \frac{d}{dr} \left(\frac{1}{1-r} \right) = \frac{r}{(1-r)^2}.$$

(Note: The interchange of the differentiation and the summation can be justified. We already learned a similar and more general method in ECE109 with moment generating functions; the given identity is nothing but the mean of a geometric random variable.)

$$3. \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{r^n}{n!} = e^r.$$

Solution: This is one of famous Maclaurin series (a special form of Taylor series evaluated at 0). The Maclaurin series generated by a function f(r) is

$$f(r) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} r^n$$

where $f^{(n)}(0)$ denotes the *n*th derivative of f evaluated at 0.

Let $f(r) = e^r$. Since $f^{(n)}(r) = e^r$ for all nonnegative integer n, $f^{(n)}(0) = e^0 = 1$ for all n. Therefore,

$$e^r = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!} r^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{r^n}{n!}.$$

Alternatively, the probability mass function of a Poisson random variable X with mean r is given by

$$P\{X = n\} = e^{-r} \frac{r^n}{n!}$$

which sums to 1, as

$$e^{-r} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{r^n}{n!} = 1.$$

By multiplying e^r to both sides, we get

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{r^n}{n!} = e^r.$$

4.
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} {n \choose k} r^k (1-r)^{n-k} = 1.$$

Solution: This is just 1 since each term of the summation is the probability of k successes out of n independent trials, each with success probability r. In other words, each term is the probability mass function of a binomial random variable with parameter r which should sum to 1.

Alternatively, from the binomial expansion of $(p+q)^n$ which is

$$(p+q)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} p^k q^{n-k}.$$

Taking p = r and q = 1 - r, we get

$$1 = (r+1-r)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} r^k (1-r)^{n-k}.$$

5.
$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} k \binom{n}{k} r^k (1-r)^{n-k} = rn.$$

Solution: Since

$$k \binom{n}{k} = k \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} = \frac{n!}{(k-1)!(n-k)!} = n \binom{n-1}{k-1}$$

for $k \neq 0$, we have from the previous problem

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} k \binom{n}{k} r^k (1-r)^{n-k} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} n \binom{n-1}{k-1} r^k (1-r)^{n-k}$$
$$= rn \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \binom{n-1}{j} r^j (1-r)^{n-1-j}$$
$$= rn$$

Alternatively, we can note from ECE109 that the given summation is the mean of a binomial random variable with parameter r.

$$6. \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} = \infty.$$

Solution: This is a well-known divergent series. To see this, consider

$$\frac{1}{1} = \frac{1}{1}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} \ge \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\frac{1}{5} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{8} \ge \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{8} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\sum_{n=2^{k+1}}^{2^{k+1}} \frac{1}{n} \ge 2^k \cdot \frac{1}{2^{k+1}} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Clearly, the infinite sum of the RHS is unbounded, and so is the LHS.

7.
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6}.$$

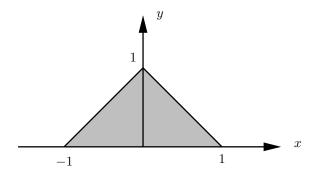
Solution: This is a famous identity that goes back to Euler. There are at least 15 different methods to derive it, and 14 of them are listed in an article by Robin Chapman.

8.
$$\int_{-1}^{1} 1 - |x| \, dx = 1.$$

Solution: We have

$$\int_{-1}^{1} 1 - |x| \, dx = \int_{-1}^{0} 1 + x \, dx + \int_{0}^{1} 1 - x \, dx$$
$$= x + \frac{x^{2}}{2} \Big|_{-1}^{0} + x - \frac{x^{2}}{2} \Big|_{0}^{1}$$
$$= (1 - 1/2) + (1 - 1/2) = 1.$$

Alternatively, we can easily see that the given integral is nothing but the area of the following triangle.



9.
$$\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = 1$$
.

Solution: We have

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx = -e^{-x}|_0^\infty = 0 - (-1) = 1.$$

$$10. \int_0^\infty x e^{-x} dx = 1.$$

Solution: Integration by parts. Since

$$(xe^{-x})' = e^{-x} - xe^{-x},$$

we have

$$0 = xe^{-x}|_0^{\infty} = \int e^{-x} - \int xe^{-x} = 1 - \int xe^{-x}.$$

11.
$$\int_0^\infty \int_x^\infty e^{-y} dy dx = 1.$$

Solution: There are two ways to evaluate this. Consider

$$\int_0^\infty \int_x^\infty e^{-y} dy dx = \int_0^\infty \left(-e^{-y}|_x^\infty \right) dx = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx = 1.$$

Here we used the answer of Problem 9.

Alternatively,

$$\int_0^\infty \int_x^\infty e^{-y} dy dx = \int_0^\infty \int_0^y e^{-y} dx dy$$
$$= \int_0^\infty e^{-y} \int_0^y dx dy$$
$$= \int_0^\infty y e^{-y} dy = 1.$$

Here we used the answer of Problem 10. (Or we could solve Problem 10 from Problem 11 without intergration by parts.)

$$12. \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}.$$

Solution: There are two ways to see this. The classical approach is to observe that

$$\left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx\right)^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} dy$$
$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x^2 + y^2)} dx dy$$
$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} r e^{-r^2} dr d\theta$$
$$= \int_{0}^{2\pi} \frac{1}{2} d\theta = \pi.$$

Here we used change of coordinate from the Cartesian (x, y) to the polar $(r \cos \theta, r \sin \theta)$ with $dxdy = rdrd\theta$.

Alternatively, we know from ECE109 that a Gaussian random variable with zero mean and variance σ^2 has the density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}},$$

which integrates to 1. Thus by taking $\sigma^2 = 1/2$, we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2} dx = 1.$$

$$13. \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xe^{-x^2} dx = 0.$$

Solution: Since the integrand $f(x) = xe^{-x^2}$ is odd, i.e., f(x) = -f(-x), the integral is zero. (Or consider the mean of the corresponding Gaussian distribution.)

14.
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & r \\ r & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{1 - r^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -r \\ -r & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Solution: This comes from the well-known 2×2 matrix inversion formula

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{ad - bc} \begin{pmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{pmatrix}.$$

(Note: There are many ways to find the inverse of the general $n \times n$ matrices. One of common methods is performing Gaussian elimination to the original matrix and the identity matrix.)

15.
$$\lim_{x \to 0} x \ln x = 0$$
.

Solution:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} x \ln x = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln x}{\frac{1}{x}}$$

$$\stackrel{(a)}{=} \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(\ln x)'}{(\frac{1}{x})'}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0} -x$$

$$= 0.$$

Here we applied the L'hopital's rule in (a).