

$$1) \int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos(x)}{1+x} dx$$

let  $c \rightarrow 0$  and  $R > c$ . Then integration by parts yields

$$\int_c^R \frac{\cos(x)}{1+x} dx = \frac{\sin x}{x+1} \Big|_c^R + \int_c^R \frac{\sin x}{(x+1)^2} dx$$

Now clearly  $\frac{\sin x}{x+1} \Big|_c^R = \frac{\sin R}{R+1} - \frac{\sin c}{c+1} \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{\sin c}{c+1} \xrightarrow{c \rightarrow 0} 0 = 0$

now clearly  $\int_c^R \frac{1}{(x+1)^2} dx = -\frac{1}{(x+1)} \Big|_c^R = -\frac{1}{R+1} + \frac{1}{c+1} \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{c+1} \xrightarrow{c \rightarrow 0} 1$

$\therefore \int_0^R \frac{1}{(x+1)^2} dx$  exists. Since  $\left| \frac{\sin x}{(x+1)^2} \right| \leq \frac{1}{(x+1)^2} \quad \forall x > 0$

$\therefore$  by the comparison test shows that  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos(x)}{1+x} dx$  exists.

However  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{\cos(x)}{1+x} dx$  does not converge absolutely. Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

and then note

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{n\pi} \frac{|\cos(x)|}{1+x} dx &= \sum_{k=1}^n \int_{(k-1)\pi}^{k\pi} \frac{|\cos x|}{1+x} dx \\ &\geq \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{(k\pi+1)} \int_{(k-1)\pi}^{k\pi} |\cos x| dx \end{aligned}$$



$$\text{ie } \int_0^{n\pi} \frac{|\cos(x)|}{x+1} dx \geq \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{(k\pi+1)} \int_{(k-1)\pi}^{k\pi} |\cos(x)| dx = \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{2}{(k\pi+1)}$$

now let  $b_k = \frac{1}{k}$   $\therefore \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} b_k = \infty$   $a_k = \frac{2}{k\pi+1}$

Then  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_k}{b_k} = \frac{2 \cdot k}{k\pi+1} = \frac{2}{\pi+1/k} \xrightarrow{k \rightarrow \infty} \boxed{\frac{2}{\pi}} > 0$

$\therefore$  by limit comparison test  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$  diverges

$\therefore$  Since it diverges it follows that the improper integral  $\int_0^{\infty} \frac{|\cos(x)|}{x+1} dx$  does not exist.

**QED**

a)  $\phi \in UCR$ ,  $r, s \in \mathbb{N}_0$   $w \in \wedge^r(C^1(U))$   $\phi \in \wedge^s(C^1(U))$   
is closed.

By definition  $dw=0$  and  $d\phi=0$ . (from HW)

Then to show  $w \wedge \phi$  is closed.

Then by proposition 7.2.5  $d(w \wedge \phi) = dw \wedge \phi + (-1)^r w \wedge d\phi$   
 $= 0 \wedge \phi + (-1)^r w \wedge 0$   
 $= \underline{\underline{0}}$

$\therefore w \wedge \phi$  is closed too.

**QED**



$$2) \int_{-n}^n f(t) \cos(nt) dt = \begin{cases} -1 & t \in (-n, 0] \\ 2 & t \in (0, n] \end{cases}$$

Extending  $f$  to a function in  $P_{2n}(\mathbb{R})$  using definition 9.52(a)  
For  $n \in \mathbb{N}_0$  we obtain:

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-n}^n f(t) \cos(nt) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left( - \int_{-n}^0 \cos(nt) dt + 2 \int_0^n \cos(nt) dt \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left( - \int_0^n \cos(nt) dt + 2 \int_0^n \cos(nt) dt \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left( \int_0^n \cos(nt) dt \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sin nt \Big|_0^n \right) = \frac{1}{\pi} \left( \frac{\sin \pi}{n} \right) = 0$$

$$\therefore a_n = 0 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}_0 \text{ but } a_0 = 1 \text{ as } \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\pi dt = \frac{\pi}{\pi} = 1$$

$$\text{now } b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-n}^n f(t) \sin(nt) dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left( - \int_{-n}^0 \sin(nt) dt + 2 \int_0^n \sin(nt) dt \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi} \left( - \frac{1}{n} \cos(nt) \Big|_{-n}^0 + \frac{2}{n} \int_0^\pi \sin(nt) dt \right)$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \frac{1}{\pi n} \left( \cos t \Big|_{-\pi n}^0 - 2 \cos t \Big|_{-\pi n}^{\pi n} \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\pi n} \left( 1 - \cos(\pi n) - 2 \cos(\pi n) + 2 \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\pi n} (3 - 3 \cos(\pi n)) \\
 &= \begin{cases} 0 & n \text{ even} \\ \frac{6}{\pi n} & n \text{ is odd} \end{cases}
 \end{aligned}$$

It follows that  $f(x) \sim \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\pi(2n+1)} \sin((2n+1)x) + \frac{1}{2}$

~~Now from theorem 9.1.3 and~~

~~let us assume that  $f(x)$~~

now note that for integer multiples of  $\pi$   $f(k\pi) = \frac{1}{2}$

By theorem 9.3.13 then  $f(x)$  converges pointwise  $\forall x$  that are not integer multiples of  $\pi$ .

It converges pointwise to  $\frac{1}{2}$

$$\text{let } g(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & x \neq k\pi \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z} \\ \frac{1}{2} & x = k\pi \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z} \end{cases}$$

and  $g(x)$  is clearly discontinuous.

~~Now assume that~~ let  $S_n = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{\pi(2k+1)} \sin((2k+1)x)$

and since each  $S_n$  is continuous. let us assume that  $S_n \rightarrow g$  uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then by theorem 9.1.3

we get  $g$  is continuous which is a contradiction.

The Fourier series of  $f$  does not converge uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ . (M.F.D)



$$4) U := \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x > 0\} \quad f = (P, Q) : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$$

$$P(x, y) = \frac{\ln^{-1}(y)}{x} \quad Q(x, y) = \frac{\log x}{1+y^2} \quad \forall (x, y) \in U$$

$$Y = Y_1 \oplus Y_2 \quad Y_1 = [(1, 7), (13, 11)] \quad Y_2 = [(13, 11), (e, 1)]$$

$$\text{To find } \int_Y P dx + Q dy$$

$$\text{First to find } \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} \quad \text{and } \frac{\partial Q}{\partial y}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(1+y^2) \cdot x} = \frac{1}{x \cdot (1+y^2)}$$

by proposition 6.2.11 we have a conservative vector field.

Now to find the potential function

Let  $F: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a potential function for  $f$ .

$$\text{Then } F(x, y) = \int \frac{\ln^{-1}(y)}{x} dx$$

$$= \ln^{-1}(y) \int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln^{-1}(y) \log(x) + G(y)$$

$$\text{Then } \frac{\partial F}{\partial y}(x, y) = \frac{\partial G}{\partial y} + \frac{1}{1+y^2} \log(x)$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{\partial G}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{1+y^2} \log(x) - \left( \frac{\log x}{1+y^2} \right) = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{\partial G}{\partial y} = 0 \text{ and } G \text{ is a constant}$$

$$F(x, y) = \ln^{-1}(y) \log(x) + C$$



Now  $\gamma = \gamma_1 \oplus \gamma_2$

$$\gamma = \begin{cases} \gamma_1(t) & t \in [(1,7), (13, \pi)] \\ \gamma_2(t) & t \in [(13, \pi), (e, 1)] \end{cases}$$

now clearly  $\gamma(a) = (1, 7)$   
 $\gamma(b) = (e, 1)$

and  $\gamma$  is clearly a piecewise  $C^1$ -curve.  
 $\therefore$  by Fundamental theorem for curve integrals

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\gamma} p dx + q dy &= \int_{\gamma} f \cdot dx = F(\gamma(b)) - F(\gamma(a)) \\ &= (\tan^{-1}(7) \log(1) + C) - (\tan^{-1}(1) \log(e) + C) \\ &= -\left(0 - \frac{\pi}{4}\right) \left(\tan^{-1}(1) = \frac{\pi}{4}\right) \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{\pi}{4} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \int_{\gamma} p dx + q dy = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

QED

5)  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}$   ~~$\phi$~~

a) Radius of convergence

Using the ratio test let  $R = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|a_n|}{|a_{n+1}|}$   $x_0 = 0$

then  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$   $\therefore R = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/n}{1/(n+1)} = \frac{n+1}{n} \Rightarrow 1 + \frac{1}{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} 1$

$\therefore$  Radius of convergence is 1.

b) Since by definition 9.2.3  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}$  has a radius of

convergence 1 and converges uniformly on  $[-r, r]$   $\forall r \in [0, 1)$

and diverges  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $|x| > 1$ . At  $x=1$  we clearly get  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$  which diverges,  $x=-1$  we get  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  which converges.

c). Now by corollary 9.2.4 we have  $f: (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \cdot \frac{1}{n} (x)^{n-1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x^{n-1} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$$

Now since we already know by (b) it converges uniformly on  $[-r, r]$   $\forall r \in [0, 1)$  we can use the geometric series theorem to get

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad |x| < 1$$

$$\therefore f'(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$$



$$\text{now } f'(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

$$\text{then } \int f'(x) dx = \int \frac{1}{1-x} dx \\ = -\ln(1-x) + C$$

$$\therefore \int f'(x) dx = \int \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int x^n dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n}$$

$$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n} = -\ln(1-x) + C$$

$$\text{let } x=0 \Rightarrow C=0$$

$$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n} = -\ln(1-x) = -\ln(1-x) \text{ as } |x| < 1$$

$$\forall x \in [-1, 1] \quad \forall n \in [0, 1]$$

At  $x=-1$  we get ~~by~~ by example in 9.3

$$\text{we have } \log(x+1) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n-1} x^n}{n}$$

$$\text{Then } -\log(x+1) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^n}{n}$$

$$\text{Then at } x=1 \text{ we get } -\log(2) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = \int(-1)$$

$$\therefore \text{at } x=-1 \text{ we get } -\log(2) \\ \text{as } \int(-1) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{n} = \underline{\underline{-\log(2)}}.$$

[QED]



6)  $C$  is the counterclockwise oriented circle  $x^2 - 2x + y^2 = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow (x-1)^2 + y^2 = 1$

$$\int_C 2xy dx + (x+1)^2 dy$$

Now  $(x-1)^2 + y^2 = 1$  is clearly a normal domain. ~~circle~~  
 Let  $D$  be the ~~circle~~ region enclosed in  $C$ .

Then by green theorem we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_C 2xy dx + (x+1)^2 dy &= \iint_D \left( \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dA \\ &= \iint_D (2(x+1) - 2x) dA \\ &= 2 \iint_D dA \\ &= 2 \cdot \pi \cdot 1^2 \quad (r=1) \text{ [from Note]} \\ &= 2\pi \rightarrow \text{area of circle} \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \int_C 2xy dx + (x+1)^2 dy = 2\pi$$

Note  $\iint_D dA$  By polar coordinate conversion we get

$$\begin{aligned} \iint_D dA &= \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 r dr d\theta = \int_0^{2\pi} \left[ \frac{r^2}{2} \right]_0^1 d\theta \\ &= 2\pi \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \pi \end{aligned}$$

QED



7)  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$   $f, g: [a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$   
 $f, g$  are Riemann integrable on  $[a, c]$   $\forall c \in [a, b)$   
 Since  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  converges absolutely  $\Rightarrow \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$  exists  
 and  $g$  is bounded  $\exists C > 0$  s.t.  $|g(x)| < C \forall x \in [a, c]$   
 $\forall c \in [a, b)$

Then  $|f(x)g(x)| \leq \cancel{|f(x)|} |f(x)| C$

Then note that  $\int_a^b C |f(x)| dx = C \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$  exists as

$\int_a^b |f(x)| dx$  exists as  $\int_a^b f(x) dx$  converges absolutely.

By comparison test  $\int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx$  converges absolutely.  
 (8.2.6)



and  $\tan^{-1}(x)$  is defined on all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Counterexample:

Let  $f = \frac{\sin x}{x}$  then by example 1 in theorem 8.2.6:  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$

we know it converges but not absolutely convergent.

Let  $g = \sin x$  which is clearly bounded by 1 above.

Then  $\int_1^{\infty} g(x) dx$

Now set  $c > 1$  then  $\int_1^c \sin x dx = -\cos x \Big|_1^c = \cos 1 - \cos c < \infty$

which exists.

Both  $f$  and  $g$  are also Riemann integrable on  $[a, c]$   $\forall c \in [a, b]$

Now 
$$\int_1^{\infty} fg dx = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x} dx$$

Integration by parts yield

$g(x)$  is continuous and  $[1, c]$  is a closed interval so Riemann integrable.



$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x} dx \quad \text{Now fix } R > 0$$

$$\text{Then } \int_1^R \frac{\sin^2 x}{x} = -\frac{1}{x} \left( \frac{\sin 2x + 2x}{4} \right) \Big|_1^R + \int_1^R \frac{\sin 2x + 2x}{4 \cdot x^2} dx$$

$$= -\frac{\sin 2x}{x \cdot 4} \Big|_1^R - \frac{1}{4} \Big|_1^R + \int_1^R \frac{\sin 2x}{4x^2} dx + \int_1^R \frac{2x}{4x^2} dx$$

$$= \frac{\sin 2R}{4R} \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} 0$$

$$-\frac{1}{x} \left( \frac{\sin 2x + 2x}{4} \right) \Big|_1^R = -\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\sin 2}{2}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{-1 - \sin 2}} \quad (\text{constants})$$

$$\text{now } \int_1^R \frac{1}{2x} dx = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x) \Big|_1^R = \frac{1}{2} \ln R \xrightarrow{R \rightarrow \infty} \infty$$

diverges

$$\therefore \int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x} dx \text{ does not exist.}$$

QED It is necessary for  $\int_0^b f(x) dx$  to be absolutely convergent too.



2)  $\emptyset \neq K \subset \mathbb{R}^N$   $\emptyset \neq L \subset \mathbb{R}^M$   $F: K \times L \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous  
 $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence in  $L$ .  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$f_n: K \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad x \mapsto F(x, y_n)$$

To show  $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  has a subsequence that converges uniformly to  $K$ .

we know that clearly  $K \times L \subset \mathbb{R}^{N+M}$  is compact as proved in the HW of 21F. Then and since  $F$  is continuous by Theorem 2.3.4 we get  $F(K \times L)$  is compact and by Corollary 2.3.5 we get  $F(K \times L)$  is bounded. Then since  $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is defined in  $L$  by Theorem 2.1.2 we get

that  $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  has a subsequence that converges to a point in  $L$ . — (2)

Let this subsequence be  $(y_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  of  $(y_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$ , that

converges to  $y \in L$ . Now by Theorem 2.4.2 we also  $F$  is uniformly continuous. — (1)

Now to show that  $(f_{n_k})_{k=1}^{\infty}$  subsequence of  $(f_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$

converges uniformly to  $F(x, y)$  on  $K$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $\delta > 0$ . Then by (1)  $\forall (x, y_{n_k}) \in K \times L$

let  $f_k(x) = F(x, y_{n_k})$

we get  $\|(x, y_{n_k}) - (x, y)\| < \delta \Rightarrow |f_{n_k}(x) - f(x)|$

$$= |F(x, y_{n_k}) - F(x, y)| < \epsilon$$

$\hookrightarrow$  (3)



~~def~~

$$\text{Now } \|(x, y_{n_k}) - (x, y)\| = \|y_{n_k} - y\| < \delta$$

Then by ② we get

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} y_{n_k} = y$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N} \text{ s.t. } \|y_{n_k} - y\| < \delta \quad \forall n_k \geq n_\varepsilon.$$

$\therefore$  Then by choosing  $n_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $\|y_{n_k} - y\| < \delta \quad \forall n_k \geq n_\varepsilon$

$$\text{and hence } \|(x, y_{n_k}) - (x, y)\| = \|y_{n_k} - y\| < \delta \quad \forall x \in K$$

and hence from ③ we get

$$|\int_{n_k}(x) - \int_y(x)| = |F(x, y_{n_k}) - F(x, y)| < \varepsilon.$$

All in all  $(\int_{n_k})_{k=1}^\infty$  uniformly converges also to  $\int_y$  on  $K$  which is a subsequence of  $(\int_n)_{n=1}^\infty$

$\int_y$   
TOEN