

10  
Very good

1. Find the radius of convergence and interval of convergence for the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n!x^n$ .

By ratio test,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(n+1)! x^{n+1}}{n! x^n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |(n+1)x| = \infty > 1.$$

therefore, the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n!x^n$  diverges.

So the radius of convergence is 0. and there is no interval of convergence, we could say  $[0,0]$

2. Is it possible to find a power series whose interval of convergence is  $]0, \infty[$ ? Explain.

No, it is impossible.

Suppose there is a power series w/ interval of convergence  $]0, \infty[$ , and center  $a$ .

Since According to theorem 1,

$$a = \frac{0 + \infty}{2} = \infty.$$

then the radius of convergence

$$R = |0 - \infty| = \infty$$

but on the other hand,

$$R = |\infty - \infty| = 0.$$

and  $0 \neq \infty$ .

which is a contradiction.

Therefore,

It is impossible to have a power series with interval of convergence  $]0, \infty[$ .

3. Find the domain of the function  $f(x) = 1 + \frac{x^3}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{x^6}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6} + \frac{x^9}{2 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdot 6 \cdot 8 \cdot 9} + \dots$

Let  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$ , where  $a_0 = 1$ .

$$\text{and } a_{n+1} = a_n \cdot \frac{x^3}{(3n)(3n-1)}$$

Applying the ratio test.

when series  $\{a_n\}$  converges.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| < 1.$$

$$\text{Since } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^3}{9n^2 - 3n} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x|^3}{9n^2 - 3n}$$

$$= \frac{|x|^3}{\infty} < 1.$$

which is true  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

therefore,

the domain of  $f(x)$

is all real numbers.

4. Show that the function  $f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$  is a solution to the differential equation  $f''(x) = f(x)$ .

First, we find the interval of convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$  using ratio test:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^{2n+2}}{(2n+2)!} \cdot \frac{(2n)!}{x^{2n}} \right|$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^2}{(2n+1)(2n+2)} \right|$$

$$= \frac{x^2}{\infty} = 0 < 1, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

therefore,  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$  converges  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Then, according to thm 2,

$f(x)$  is differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2n \frac{1}{(2n)!} x^{2n-1}$ , which also converges  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Similarly,

$$f''(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n(2n-1)}{(2n)!} x^{2n-2}$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n-2}}{(2n-2)!}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} = f(x).$$

5. Prove that every group of even order contains an odd number of elements of order 2. (Yeah!!!)

Proof.

Let  $G$  be a group of even order,

let  $a \in G, a^2 = e$ . i.e.  $|a| = 2$ .  $\leftarrow$  Has  $a$  we know such an  $a$  exists?

therefore,  $H = \{e, a\} \subseteq G$ . as it is finite and closed (finite subgroup test)

According to Lagrange's thm, all cosets of  $H$  has the same number of elmts as  $H$ , namely 2.

$\forall b \in G, b \notin H$ . and  $|b| = 2$ .

~~then~~  $bH = \{b, ba\}$ .

Since  $b^2 = a^2 = e$ .  $(ba)^2 = b^2 a^2 = e$ .

therefore  $|b| = |ba| = 2 \quad \forall b \in G, b \notin H, |b| = 2$ .

Thus, there are always an even number of elements outside of  $H$  have order 2.

Since  $a$  is also of order 2, there is always in total an odd number of elements in  $G$  of order 2.  $\square$

1. Let  $f(x) = \cos(x^2)$ . Use a series approach to find  $f^{(8)}(0)$ .

$$f(x) = \cos(x^2) = 1 - \frac{x^4}{2!} + \frac{x^8}{4!} - + \dots$$

According to thrm 3,

$$\begin{aligned} f^{(8)}(0) &= 8! C_8 \\ &= 8! \cdot \frac{1}{4!} \\ &= 1680. \end{aligned}$$

2. Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \left( \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}} + \sqrt{\frac{2}{n}} + \dots + \sqrt{\frac{n}{n}} \right)$ .

Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  on  $[0, 1]$ .

$f$  has the lower Riemann Sum of

$$L_n = \frac{1}{n} \left( \sqrt{0} + \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}} + \sqrt{\frac{2}{n}} + \dots + \sqrt{\frac{n-1}{n}} \right)$$

and upper Riemann Sum of

$$U_n = \frac{1}{n} \left( \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}} + \sqrt{\frac{2}{n}} + \dots + \sqrt{\frac{n}{n}} \right).$$

and ~~since~~ <sup>therefore</sup>  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n$ .

So  $f$  is integrable on  $[0, 1]$

and  $\int_0^1 f(x) dx =$

$$= \left[ \frac{2}{3} x^{\frac{3}{2}} \right]_0^1$$

$$= \frac{2}{3}.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \left( \sqrt{\frac{1}{n}} + \sqrt{\frac{2}{n}} + \dots + \sqrt{\frac{n}{n}} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n = \frac{2}{3}.$$

3. Find  $\int_0^a x dx$  from first principles by taking the limit of a lower Riemann sum and the limit of an upper Riemann sum.

$$L_n = \frac{a}{n} \cdot 0 + \frac{a}{n} \cdot \left( \frac{a}{n} \right) + \dots + \frac{a}{n} \left( \frac{(n-1)a}{n} \right)$$

$$= \left( \frac{a}{n} \right)^2 (1 + 2 + \dots + (n-1))$$

$$= \frac{a^2}{n^2} \cdot \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = \frac{a^2(n-1)}{2n}$$

$$U_n = \frac{a}{n} \left( \frac{a}{n} \right) + \frac{a}{n} \left( \frac{2a}{n} \right) + \dots + \frac{a}{n} \left( \frac{na}{n} \right)$$

$$= \left( \frac{a}{n} \right)^2 (1 + 2 + \dots + n)$$

$$= \left( \frac{a}{n} \right)^2 \left( \frac{(1+n)n}{2} \right) = \frac{a^2(n+1)}{2n}.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n = \frac{a^2}{2} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_n.$$

so integral exists.

and

$$\int_0^a x dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} L_n$$

$$= \frac{a^2}{2}.$$

4. Find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{3n^2 + 2k^2}{n^3}$ .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{3n^2 + 2k^2}{n^3}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2 + 2k^2}{n^3}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 0$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{3}{n} + 2 \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{k^2}{n^3} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 3 + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{n^3} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 3 + \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{3n^3} \right)$$

$$= 3 + \frac{2}{3}$$

$$= \frac{11}{3}$$

5. Find  $\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x} dx$  and deduce that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n-1} \right) = \ln 2.$$

Use  $n = 100$  with the sum and seq functions of your calculator to estimate  $\ln 2$ . Why is your estimate too large?

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x} = [\ln(x+1)]_0^1$$

$$= \ln 2 - \ln 1 = \ln 2.$$

and since

$$u_n = \frac{1}{n} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{n}} + \frac{1}{1+\frac{2}{n}} + \dots + \frac{1}{1+\frac{n-1}{n}} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \left( 1 + \frac{n}{n+1} + \frac{n}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{n}{2n-1} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n-1}.$$

$$L_n u_n = \frac{1}{n} \left( \frac{n}{n+1} + \frac{n}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{n}{2n} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n+1} + \frac{1}{n+2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n}.$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \ln = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x}.$$

which means that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{2n-1} \right) = \ln 2.$$

The estimation using technology is 0.696!

while  $\ln 2$  is about 0.693.

The estimation is too large because  $n=100 < \infty$

$$\text{So } \frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{100} > \frac{1}{\infty} = 0.$$

$$u_{100} > \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x} dx$$

$$u_{100} > \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x} dx \Big| \frac{1}{2}$$

3!

8<sup>1</sup>/<sub>10</sub> good

1. Find  $\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^{x^2} \cos t \, dt$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \int_0^{x^2} \cos t \, dt &= \cos x^2 \cdot (2x) \\ &= 2x \cos x^2 \end{aligned}$$

2. Find  $\frac{d}{dx} \int_x^{x^2} \cos t \, dt$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \int_x^{x^2} \cos t \, dt &= \frac{d}{dx} \left( \int_0^{x^2} \cos t \, dt - \int_0^x \cos t \, dt \right) \\ &= 2x \cos x^2 - \cos x \end{aligned}$$

3. For each of the following either explain why the graph cannot exist or draw a graph with the given property.

(a) A bipartite graph which contains  $K_4$ .

It cannot exist.

$K_4$  is a complete graph w/ all degree equal to 3, so it is impossible to partition the vertices as all are connected to each other, or neighbours. Therefore, there can't be any bipartite graph containing  $K_4$ .

(b) A simple planar bipartite graph with 7 vertices and 11 edges.

For a planar graph,

$$v - e + f = 2,$$

in this case, there is only 1 face as no cycle can be created in a bipartite graph, so

~~7~~ created in a bipartite graph, so

$$7 - 11 + 1 = -3 \neq 2, \text{ which means it's not planar}$$

So there does not exist a simple, planar graph w/

7 vertices and 11 edges.



$$\begin{aligned} 7 &= 1 + 6 = 2 + 5 = 3 + 4 \\ K_2 \downarrow &= C_4 \downarrow \\ 6 \text{ edges} & \quad 10 \text{ edges} \quad 12 \text{ edges} \end{aligned}$$

4. Show that for small  $x$ ,  $x \csc x \approx [1 - (x^2/6 - x^4/120)]^{-1}$ . Expand the RHS by the binomial expansion and conclude that

$$\csc x \approx \frac{1}{x} + \frac{x}{6} + \frac{7x^3}{360}.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sin x &\approx x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} \\ x \csc x &\approx \frac{x}{\sin x} \approx \frac{1}{1 - \frac{x^2}{6} + \frac{x^4}{120}} \\ &\approx \frac{1}{1 - \frac{x^2}{6} + \frac{x^4}{120}} \\ &= [1 - (\frac{x^2}{6} - \frac{x^4}{120})]^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \csc x &\approx \frac{1}{x} + \frac{x}{6} + \frac{7x^3}{360}. \end{aligned}$$

Using the binomial expansion,

$$\begin{aligned} x \csc x &= 1 - 1 \cdot [\frac{x^2}{6} - \frac{x^4}{120}] + [\frac{x^2}{6} - \frac{x^4}{120}]^2 + \dots \\ &= 1 + \frac{x^2}{6} - \frac{x^4}{120} + \frac{x^4}{36} + O(x^6). \end{aligned}$$

5. Let  $f: G \rightarrow H$  be a group homomorphism with  $K = \ker(f)$ .

- (a) Show that  $gkg^{-1} \in K$  for all  $g \in G$  and  $k \in K$ .

$$\begin{aligned} &f(gkg^{-1}) \\ &= f(g) \cdot f(k) \cdot f(g^{-1}) \\ &= f(g) \cdot f(g)^{-1} \\ &= e'. \\ &\Rightarrow gkg^{-1} \in K. \end{aligned}$$

- (b) Deduce that each left coset of  $K$  in  $G$  is also a right coset.

~~Let  $a \in G$ ,  $a \notin K$ :~~

Since  $gkg^{-1} \in K$ .

$gk_1g^{-1} = k_2$  for some  $k_2 \in K$ .

$gk_1g^{-1} \cdot g = k_2g$ .

$\{gk_1 \mid k_1 \in K\}$

$gk_1 = k_2g, \quad \forall k_1 \in K. \quad \{k_2g \mid k_2 \in K\}.$

and  $gk_1$  is a left coset.

$k_2g$  is a right coset.

i.e. each left coset is also a right coset.

element  
not set

$\frac{1k}{3k}$

rather  $gK = \{gk \mid k \in K\}$  is a left set.

1. The linear transformation that maps  $(x, y)$  to  $(x + ky, y)$  is called a horizontal shear with shear factor  $k$ . If  $M$  is the matrix for a horizontal shear with shear factor 1, find  $M^{2019}$ .

~~$M(x, y) = (x + y, y)$~~  Sheared for 2019 times.  
 $M \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x+y \\ y \end{pmatrix}$  so  $(x, y)$  is mapped to  $(x+2019y, y)$   
 $M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  so  $M^{2019} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x+2019y \\ y \end{pmatrix}$   
 $M^{2019}$  means that  $(x, y)$  is horizontally: so  $M^{2019} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2019 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$  ✓

2. Find  $T^{-1}$  for the linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$  defined by  $T(x, y) = (x + 3y, 2x + 5y)$ .

$T \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x+3y \\ 2x+5y \end{pmatrix}$  let the matrix be  $M$ .  
 $M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$  so  $T^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -5x+3y \\ 2x-y \end{pmatrix}$  ✓  
 $M^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}^{-1}$   
 $= -1 \begin{pmatrix} 5 & -3 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$   
 $= \begin{pmatrix} -5 & 3 \\ 2 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$   
 $T^{-1}(x, y) = (-5x+3y, 2x-y)$  ✓

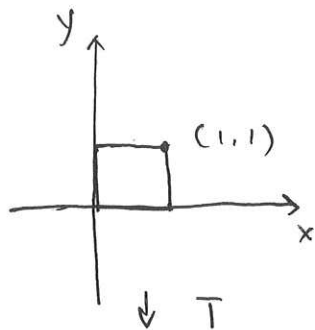
3. Find the matrix for projection onto the line  $y = (\tan \theta)x$ . Describe the kernel of this transformation.

let the transformation be  $T$ , ~~and~~ with Matrix  $M$ .

$M = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$   
 $= \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$   
 $= \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta & \sin \theta \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \cos \theta & \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}$  ✓

kernel  $(T) = \{ (x, y) \mid T(x, y) = (0, 0) \}$   
 $= \{ (x, y) \mid y = (-\cot \theta)x \}$   
 $= \{ (x, -(\cot \theta)x) \}$  ✓

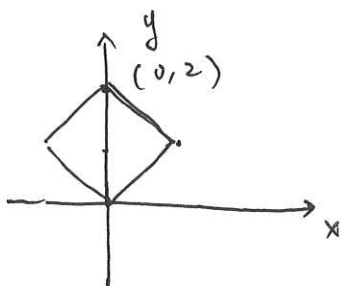
4. Draw the image of the unit square under the transformation with matrix  $M = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ . Hence write  $M$  as the product of a dilation (enlargement) matrix and a rotation matrix.



$$M \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

the linear transformation enlarges the square by 2 and rotates it ~~for~~ anticlockwise for  $45^\circ$ .

$$\text{So } M = \begin{pmatrix} \cos(45^\circ) & -\sin(45^\circ) \\ \sin(45^\circ) & \cos(45^\circ) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$$



5. Prove that a group cannot be the union of two of its proper subgroups.

Proof (by contradiction)

Suppose  $H_1, H_2 < G$ . and  $H_1 \cup H_2 = G$ .

We claim ~~that~~  $\exists a \in G$ , s.t.  $a \in H_1$ ,  $a \notin H_2$ .

because otherwise,  $H_1 \leq H_2$ ,  $H_1 \cup H_2 = H_2 = G$ , which is impossible as  $H_2 < G$ .

Similarly  $\exists b \in G$ , s.t.  $b \in H_2$ ,  $b \notin H_1$ .

Because of closure,  $ab \in G$ .

~~If  $ab \in H_1$~~  WLOG, let  $ab \in H_1$ .

Then  $\exists a^{-1} \in H_1$ , and because of closure,

$a^{-1}(ab) = b \in H_1$ . which is a contradiction.

Therefore,  $H_1 \cup H_2 \neq G$ . where  $H_1, H_2 < G$ .  $\square$ .

4



1. Must a linear transformation of the plane that preserves areas also preserve lengths?

No.

Because the scale factor for change in area for a linear transformation of a plane is the determinant of its matrix.

and since  $f: M \rightarrow \det(M)$  is not an injection, the determinants for two different matrices can be the same.

An example would be the linear transformation w/ matrix  $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$  w/

2. Denote the area and circumcircle radius of  $\triangle ABC$  by  $[ABC]$  and  $R$  respectively. Prove that  $[ABC] = abc/4R$ .  $\det = 1$ .

proof.

Recall that  $[ABC] = \frac{1}{2}ab\sin C$ .

Since according to the law of sine,

$$\frac{a}{\sin A} = 2R, \quad \frac{c}{\sin C} = 2R$$

$$\text{So } \sin C = \frac{c}{2R}.$$

$$\text{therefore, } [ABC] = \frac{1}{2}ab \cdot \frac{c}{2R} = \frac{abc}{4R}. \quad \square$$

3. The smiley face on the right is transformed. Match the matrices with the transformed smiley faces.



A-F	image	A-F	image	A-F	image
D		C		E	
A		B		F	

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad E = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad F = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

4. Give a non-identity matrix with the property that  $A^T = A^{-1}$ . Show that if  $A^T = A^{-1}$  then  $\det A = \pm 1$ . Does the converse hold?

$$\det(A) = \det(A^T)$$

$$\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)}$$

$$\text{If } A^T = A^{-1}$$

ex:

$$\det(A^{-1}) = \det(A^T) = \det(A^{-1}) = \pm 1$$

$$= \det(A)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\det(A)}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^T = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{d}{\det(A)} & \frac{-c}{\det(A)} \\ \frac{-b}{\det(A)} & \frac{a}{\det(A)} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\det(A) = \pm 1$$

$$\text{If } \det(A) = \pm 1$$

$$\text{the } \det(A^T) = \det(A) = \pm 1$$

$$\det(A^{-1}) = \frac{1}{\det(A)} = \pm 1$$

$$\text{So } \det(A^T) = \det(A^{-1}) = \pm 1$$

However, we cannot determine whether  $A^T = A^{-1}$ .

A counterexample would be  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ .

$$\text{then } A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad A^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

So converse not true.

5. Find the interval of convergence for the power series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2x)^n}{\ln(n+1)}$ .

$$\text{when } x = -\frac{1}{2}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2x)^n}{\ln(n+1)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n}{\ln(n+1)}$$

$$\text{since } 0 < \frac{1}{\ln(n)} < \frac{1}{\ln(n+1)}$$

and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\ln(n)} = 0$ , by alternating series test, it is convergent.

$$\text{when } x = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2x)^n}{\ln(n+1)} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ln(n+1)}$$

Since  $\frac{1}{\ln(n+1)}$  is positive, continuous, decreasing  $\neq 0$

Apply integral test,

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{\ln(n+1)} = [\ln(\ln(n+1))]_1^{\infty} = \infty$$

which means the series diverges,

Comparison test with  $\sum \frac{1}{n}$

therefore, the interval of convergence is  $[-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}]$ .