January 23, 2001

Consider the region below the curve $y = \cos x$ between $-\frac{\pi}{2}$ and $\frac{\pi}{2}$ and above the x-axis. Assume the density is constant, δ .

- a) Find the mass of this region.
- b) Write a definite integral whose value will be the moment about the y-axis of this region. Give a short reason why the moment about the y-axis of this region is 0 even though you do not yet know how to do the integral.
- c) Write a definite integral whose value will be the moment about the x-axis of this region. You should realize that we have talked about evaluating this integral, but don't do it today.
- d) Write a definite integral whose value will be the volume obtained by rotating this region about the x-axis. Use the disk method from last semester.

Remark for after the quiz. The proportionality relation between the moment about the x-axis and the volume of the solid obtained by rotation about the x-axis is true in general and goes back to Pappus of Alexandria around 300AD.

Solution

(a)
$$Mass = \delta \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos x \, dx = \delta(-\sin x) \Big|_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = \delta(1 - (-1)) = 2\delta$$

- (b) $Moment_y = \delta \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} x \cos x \ dx = 0$ since the region is symmetric about the y-axis.
- (c) $Moment_x = \delta \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi^2}{2}} \frac{1}{2} \cos^2 x \ dx$

The integral can be evaluated as follows: $\delta \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{1}{4} \left(1 + \cos(2x) \right) = \frac{\delta}{4} x - \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x \Big|_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} = \frac{\pi \delta}{4}$

(d) $Volume = \pi \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cos^2 x \ dx$

January 30, 2001

It is true that for positive integers 2, 3, 4, ... the following holds.

(*)
$$1/2 + 1/3 + \dots + 1/n < \ln n < 1 + 1/2 + 1/3 + \dots + 1/n$$

- 1. Explain why.
- 2. Given that $3^5 = 243$ and that $5.0 < 1/2 + 1/3 + \cdots + 1/243$ use (*) with $n = 3^5$ and the laws of logarithms to argue e < 3.

Solution

- 1. By definition $\ln n = \int_1^n \frac{dx}{x}$. Recall $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$ is the right-hand Riemann sum for the partition of [1,n] into n pieces of length 1: $f'(x) = \frac{-1}{x^2} < 0$. $1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n-1}$ is the left-hand Riemann sum for the partition of [1,n] into n pieces of length 1. The graph of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is decreasing since $f'(x) = \frac{-1}{x^2} < 0$, so the right-hand Riemann sum is less than the integral and the left hand Riemann sum is greater. Hence $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} < \ln n < 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n-1} < 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}$.
- 2. Using the facts given, we see $5.0 < \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{3^5} < \ln 3^5$. Hence $5.0 < \ln 3^5 = 5 \cdot \ln 3$ and therefore $1 < \ln 3$. Since $\ln e = 1$ we see $\ln e < \ln 3$ and since \ln is an increasing function $(\frac{d \ln x}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} > 0)$ e < 3.

February 6, 2001

- 1. Solve $6^{5k} = 4$. Leave your answer as a quotient involving numbers and natural logs
- of numbers, 2. Compute $\frac{dy}{dx}$ where $y = x^{e^x}$.

Solution

1.
$$\ln 6^{5k} = \ln 4$$
 so $5k \ln 6 = \ln 4$ or $k = \frac{\ln 4}{5 \ln 6}$

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$$\ln 6^{5k} = \ln 4$$
 so $5k \ln 6 = \ln 4$ or $k = \frac{\ln 4}{5 \ln 6}$
2. Rewrite $y = x^{e^x} = e^{e^x \ln x}$ so $\frac{dy}{dx} = (e^{e^x \ln x}) \frac{d e^x \ln x}{dx}$.

$$\frac{d e^x \ln x}{dx} = e^x \ln x + e^x \frac{1}{x}, \text{ so}$$
$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^{e^x} \left(e^x \ln x + \frac{e^x}{x} \right)$$

Math. 126 Quiz #4

February 13, 2001

Solve the initial value problem

$$x\frac{dy}{dx} = x^2 \cos x - y$$
$$y(\pi) = 1$$

First put it in standard form: $\frac{dy}{dx} + \frac{y}{x} = x \cos x$

Then $P = \frac{1}{x}$ and $Q = x \cos x$. Compute $\int P dx = \ln x + C$ so we may take $v = e^{\ln x} = x$.

Then
$$\int vQdx = \int \cos x \, dx = \sin x + C$$
.

Hence $y = \frac{1}{v} \int vQdx = \frac{\sin x}{x} + \frac{C}{x}$ so $y(\pi) = \frac{\sin \pi}{\pi} + \frac{C}{\pi} = \frac{C}{\pi} = 1$. Hence $C = \pi$ and

$$y = \frac{\sin x}{x} + \frac{\pi}{x}$$

February 27, 2001

Evaluate the integral

$$\int \sin(\sqrt{x}\,)\,dx\;.$$

Hint: First do a substitution and then an integration by parts.

Substitute
$$w = \sqrt{x}$$
: then $dw = \frac{dx}{2\sqrt{x}}$, so $2\sqrt{x} \ dw = dx$ and $2wdw = dx$. Hence
$$\int \sin(\sqrt{x}) \ dx = 2 \int w \sin(w) \ dw$$
Parts: $u = w \qquad du = dw$

$$dv = \sin(w) dw \quad v = -\cos(w)$$

$$2 \int w \sin(w) \ dw = -2w \cos w + 2 \int \cos w \ dw$$

$$= -2w \cos w + 2 \sin w + C$$

Finally

$$\int \sin(\sqrt{x}) dx = -2\sqrt{x}\cos\sqrt{x} + 2\sin\sqrt{x} + C.$$

March 6, 2001

Expand

$$\frac{2x^3 - 2x^2 + 3x + 1}{(x^2 - x - 2)(x^2 + 1)}$$

as a sum of partial fractions.

Solution

$$\frac{2x^3 - 2x^2 + 3x + 1}{(x^2 - x - 2)(x^2 + 1)} = \frac{A}{(x - 2)} + \frac{B}{(x + 1)} + \frac{Cx + D}{(x^2 + 1)}$$
$$2x^3 - 2x^2 + 3x + 1 = A(x + 1)(x^2 + 1) + B(x - 2)(x^2 + 1) + (Cx + D)(x + 1)(x - 2)$$

Equate coefficients:

$$x^{3}:2 = A + B + C$$

 $x^{2}:-2 = A - 2B + D - C$
 $x^{1}:3 = A + B - 2C - D$
 $x^{0}:1 = A - 2B - 2D$

From x^3 : A = 2 - B - C so the other equations become

$$x^{2}: -2 = 2 - B - C - 2B + D - C$$

$$-4 = -3B - 2C + D$$

$$x^{1}: 3 = 2 - B - C + B - 2C - D$$

$$1 = -3C - D$$

$$x^{0}: 1 = 2 - B - C - 2B - 2D$$

$$-1 = -3B - 2D$$

From
$$x^1$$
: $D = -3C - 1$ so
$$x^2: -4 = -3B - 2C + -3C - 1$$
$$-3 = -3B - 5C$$
$$x^0: -1 = -3B - 2(-3C - 1)$$
$$-3 = -3B + 6C$$

It follows that C=0 and B=1, whence D=-1 and A=1.

Plug in:

$$x=2:16-8+6+1=A(3)(5) \text{ or } 15=15A \text{ or } A=1\ .$$

$$x=-1:-2-2-3+1=B(-3)(2) \text{ or } -6=(-6)B \text{ or } B=1\ .$$

$$x=0:1=A+(-2)B+(-2)D \text{ or } 1=-1+(-2)D \text{ or } D=-1\ .$$

$$x=1:2-2+3+1=A(2)(2)+B(-1)(2)+(C+D)(2)(-1) \text{ or } 4=4-2-2(C-1) \text{ or } 2=2-2C \text{ or } C=0\ .$$

Math 126, Quiz #7 March 27, 2001

Which improper integrals below converge and which diverge? A brief indication of your reasoning should be given.

a)
$$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^3} dx$$

b)
$$\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{x^2 + 1}} dx$$

Solution

a) $\int_0^\infty e^{-x^3} dx$ converges if and only if $\int_1^\infty e^{-x^3} dx$ converges.

On the interval $[1, \infty)$, $x \ge 1$ so $x^2 \ge 1$ and $x^3 \ge x$ so $e^x \le e^{x^3}$ so $e^{-x^3} \le e^{-x}$. Now $\int_1^\infty e^{-x} dx$ converges since $\lim_{t \to \infty} \int_1^t e^{-x} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} -e^{-x} \Big|_1^t = e^{-1} - \lim_{t \to \infty} e^{-t} = e^{-1} - 0$. By the first comparison test for improper integrals, $\int_1^\infty e^{-x^3} dx$ converges and hence so does $\int_1^\infty -x^3 dx$

$$\int_0^\infty e^{-x^3} \ dx.$$

b) Roughly speaking $\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{x^2+1}}$ behaves near ∞ like $x^{-2/3}$. More precisely,

 $\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{x^2 + 1}}}{x^{-2/3}} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{x^{2/3}}{\sqrt[3]{x^2 + 1}} = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}}} = 1. \text{ Since } 0 < 1 < \infty \text{ we would like to}$

use the limit comparison test, comparing the integral for $\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{x^2+1}}$ with the one for $x^{-2/3}$.

Annoyingly, $x^{-2/3}$ has an additional singularity at 0 so we proceed as follows.

 $\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{x^2+1}} dx \text{ converges if and only if } \int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{x^2+1}} dx \text{ converges and by the}$

limit comparison test for improper integrals, $\int_1^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{x^2+1}} dx$ converges if and only if

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} x^{-2/3} dx \text{ converges.}$$

But $\int_{1}^{\infty} x^{-2/3} dx = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{x^{1/3}}{1/3} \Big|_{1}^{t} \lim_{t \to \infty} 3 - 3t^{1/3} = 3 - \infty$ so $\int_{1}^{\infty} x^{-2/3} dx$ diverges and

hence so does $\int_0^\infty \frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{x^2 + 1}} \ dx.$

April 3, 2001

For each of the series below, do two things. First compute $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n$ and then use this calculation to say if you are **certain** that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$ diverges or if the limit calculation does not suffice to say if the series converges or diverges. Just circle **diverges** or **can not tell** after the series for the second part of each question

A.
$$a_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$
:

a.
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n =$$

b.
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$
 diverges can not tell

B. $a_1 = 0$ and $a_n = a_{n-1} + 1$ for all $n \ge 2$:

Solution

- A. $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = \sqrt{\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{n}} = \sqrt{0} = 0$. Since the terms go to 0, we can not tell if the series diverges or converges. We know from our later work that this is a p-series with $p = \frac{1}{2} \le 1$ so it does diverge, but not because of this calculation.
- B. Since $a_n > a_{n-1}$ the series is increasing so either $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \infty$ or it exists. In either case, $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_{n+1} = \lim_{n \to \infty} a_n + 1$, which implies $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \infty$. A second way to do this calcualtion is to observe that $a_n = n 1$ and hence $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = \infty$. In any case $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n \neq 0$ so we are sure that this series diverges.

Math. 126 Quiz #9 April 10, 2001

Show that $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n^2+1}}$ converges by *checking* the hypotheses of the Alternating Series Test.

Then show the calculations needed to find an m such that

$$0 < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}} - \sum_{n=1}^{m} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}} < 0.01$$

For the Alternating Series Test, $a_n = \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n^2+1}} = (-1)^{n+1}u_n$ with $u_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2+1}} > 0$, so the series is alternating. The limit $\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n^2+1}} = 0$ so the terms go to 0. Finally we check that $u_{n+1} < u_n$: let $f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}$ so $u_n = f(n)$. Compute $f'(x) = -\frac{3}{2}(x^2+1)^{-3/2}(2x)$ and f'(x) > 0 for x > 0. Hence f is decreasing on the interval $[0, \infty)$ so $u_{n+1} = f(n+1) > 0$ $f(n) = u_n$.

Since the difference indicated is positive, m must be odd and for odd m

$$0 < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}} - \sum_{n=1}^{m} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{\sqrt{n^2 + 1}} < u_{m+1}$$

Hence any m odd such that $u_{m+1} \le 0.01 = \frac{1}{100}$ will suffice: $\frac{1}{\sqrt{m^2+1}} \le \frac{1}{100}$ or $\frac{1}{m^2+1} \le \frac{1}{10^4}$, or $10^4 \le m^2 + 1$. The smallest integer satisfying this inequality is m = 100 so m = 101 is the smallest integer satisfying both our requirements.

Math. 126 Quiz #10 April 17, 2001

Compute the interval of convergence of each of the following power series. For each series, indicate where the convergence is conditional and where it is absolute.

a.
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{7^n}$$

b.
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(n+1)7^n}$$

Solution

First compute the radii of convergence. For a. we calculate $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{\frac{x^{2n}}{7^n}} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{x^2}{7}$ so $\frac{R^2}{7} = 1$ or $R = \sqrt{7}$. For b. we calculate $\lim_{n\to\infty} \sqrt[n]{\frac{x^{2n}}{(n+1)7^n}} = \lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt[n]{n+1}} \cdot \frac{x^2}{7} = \frac{x^2}{7}$ so $\operatorname{again} R = \sqrt{7}$.

At the endpoints in a. the series to consider are $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\pm\sqrt{7}^{2n})}{7^n} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 1$ and both of these series diverge. At the endpoints in part b. the series to consider are $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\pm\sqrt{7}^{2n})}{(n+1)7^n} = \frac{(\pm\sqrt{7}^{2n})}{(n+1)7^n}$

 $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n+1}$. Both of these series are the harmonic series and thus diverge. Therefore, in both cases, the interval of convergence is $(-\sqrt{7}, \sqrt{7})$.

By our theory, the convergence is absolute on the open interval (always the case for a power series) so in both cases the convergence is absolute on $(-\sqrt{7}, \sqrt{7})$ and divergent elsewhere. Neither series conditionally converges anywhere.

May 1, 2001

The MacLaurin series for $\sin x$ is

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

- a. What is the radius of convergence of this series?(Just an answer is sufficient no reason need be given.)
- b. Write down the MacLaurin series for $\frac{\sin x}{x}$. Give a reason why it is the MacLaurin series.
- c. Write down the MacLaurin series for the function $\int_0^x \frac{\sin t^2}{t^2} dt$.

Solution

a. The radius of convergence of the MacLaurin series for $\sin x$ is ∞ . If you want to check this:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\frac{x^{2(n+1)+1}}{(2(n+1)+1)!}}{\frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\frac{x^{2n+3}}{(2n+3)!}}{\frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}} = \lim_{n \to \infty} x^2 \cdot \frac{(2n+1)!}{(2n+3)!}$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{x^2}{(2n+3)(2n+2)} = 0$$

b. $\frac{\sin x}{x} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n+1)!}$ is a valid equation since we are just dividing an equality (the

MacLaurin series for $\sin x$) by x. Hence we have a power series centered at 0 for $\frac{\sin x}{x}$ and this *must* be the MacLaurin series because a power series is its own Taylor series.

Remark: To be completely precise, we should have written the function $\frac{\sin x}{x}$ as

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin x}{x} & x \neq 0\\ 1 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

We know from 125 that f(x) is continuous at 0. The power series certainly represents f(x) if $x \neq 0$ and equality at x = 0 follows by evaluating the power series at 0. Hence the power series represents f(x) everywhere and is therefore its MacLaurin series. Notice that as a side benefit we have shown that f(x) is infinitely differentiable (this being obvious except at x = 0).

c. We are actually using the function f(x) from the remark but we will write it as $\frac{\sin x}{x}$. Using term-for-term integration,

$$\int_0^x \frac{\sin t^2}{t^2} dt = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1) \cdot (2n+1)!}$$

is a valid equation and hence the series on the right is the MacLaurin series for the function on the left.