

## Another Example on L'Hospital's Rule:

$$a=b=1 \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e$$

Example. A basic Example on L'Hospital's Rule from 1st Semester Calculus is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)^{bx} = e^{ab} \quad (a, b \neq 0)$$

That is, we write

$$\left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)^{bx} = e^{bx \ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)},$$

so we need to evaluate

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} bx \ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)$$

which is an indeterminate product since as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $1 + \frac{a}{x} \rightarrow 1$  and

$$\text{Thus } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right) = \ln 1 = 0.$$

Thus  $b x \ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)$  is an indeterminate form  $\infty \cdot 0$ , as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ .

We can turn it into indeterminate form  $\frac{0}{0}$  by writing it as

$$b \cdot \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)}{\frac{1}{x}}$$

Thus we want to calculate

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{b \ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)}{\frac{1}{x}} \stackrel{\text{L'H. Rule}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{\frac{b}{1 + \frac{a}{x}} \cdot \left(-\frac{a}{x^2}\right)}{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{ab}{1 + \frac{a}{x}} = ab.$$

Hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} b x \ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right) = ab$ ,

$$\text{and thus } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)^{bx} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{bx \ln\left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)} = e^{ab}$$

We can use the preceding result to calculate limits of sequences:

Example: Evaluate

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{3}{5n} \right)^{\frac{7n}{2}}$$

Solution: 
$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{\frac{3}{5}}{n} \right)^{\frac{7}{2} n}$$

However

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{\frac{3}{5}}{x} \right)^{\frac{7}{2} x} = e^{\frac{3}{5} \cdot \frac{7}{2}}$$
$$= e^{\frac{21}{10}}$$

Hence by the theorem stated at the bottom of p. 392 of these Notes, we obtain

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{3}{5n} \right)^{\frac{7n}{2}} = e^{\frac{21}{10}}$$

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## The Squeeze Theorem for Sequences.

(For functions done in first semester, p. 105 in the Book.)

If  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$  for  $n \geq n_0$

(i.e. the inequality does not have to be true for all  $n$ , only for all sufficiently large  $n$ ) and both  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$

and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = L$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L.$$

Example. Evaluate  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin n}{\sqrt{n}}$

Solution.

$$-1 \leq \sin n \leq 1$$

$$\text{hence } -\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{\sin n}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$\text{Also } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} = 0,$$

hence by the Squeeze Thm.,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin n}{\sqrt{n}} = 0$$

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## The Subsequence Theorem.

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A subsequence is a sequence created from a given sequence by omitting some of the terms of the given sequence.

Example. Let  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ,  
i.e. the sequence is

$$1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \dots, \frac{1}{n}, \dots$$

We can obtain a subsequence by keeping only the terms corresponding to even  $n$ :

$$\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, \dots, \frac{1}{2n}, \dots$$

Hence the new sequence is

$$b_n = \frac{1}{2n}, \quad n \geq 1,$$

which is a subsequence of the original given sequence  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$ .

The Subsequence Theorem states

that:

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ , and  $b_n$  is a

subsequence of the sequence  $a_n$ ,

then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n = L$ .

I.e., every subsequence has the same limit as the original sequence, provided the original sequence has a limit.

An Important Application of the Subsequence Theorem is to proving that a given sequence is divergent:

Example, Determine whether the sequence

$$\cos n\pi + \frac{n}{2n+1}$$

is convergent or divergent.

Solution. For  $n$  odd,  $\cos n\pi = -1$ , for  $n$  even,  $\cos n\pi = 1$ .

Thus we can consider two subsequence of the original sequence, the subsequence with  $n$  odd, which is

$$(-1) + \frac{n}{2n+1}$$

and has limit  $(-1) + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n}{2n+1} =$   
 $= (-1) + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2 + \frac{1}{n}} = -1 + \frac{1}{2} = -\frac{1}{2}$

and the subsequence with  $n$  even, 414  
which is

$$1 + \frac{n}{2n+1}$$

and has limit

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

Thus the given sequence

$$\cos n\pi + \frac{n}{2n+1}$$

has subsequences that have different limits. Thus the given sequence cannot be convergent because if it were, all subsequences would have to have the same limit.



Section 11.2. SERIES.

(415)

Homework for sections 10.5 and 11.1  
will be due Thursday March 27  
and includes the Exercises listed  
on the syllabus.

A Series is obtained from  
a sequence, and yields a new  
sequence (related to the original  
one). Namely, if we start  
with a sequence  $a_n, n \geq 1,$   
the corresponding series is  
written as ( the sequence  $a_n$  is called  
the sequence of the terms of  
the series )  
 $a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n + \dots$  )

or, a shorter notation,

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

Examples.

Sequence:  $\frac{1}{n}, n \geq 1$

The corresponding Series:

$$\frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n} + \dots$$

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

Short Notation:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$

Sequence:  $\frac{1}{2^n}, n \geq 1$

The Corresp. Series:

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{2^3} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \dots$$

Short Notation:  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$

Sequence:  $\frac{1}{n+1}, n \geq 1$

Corresp. Series:

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n+1} + \dots$$

Short Notation:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n+1}$$


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Recall (page 383 in these Notes) that a sequence does not have to start with  $n=1$ . Thus for Example:

Sequence:  $\frac{1}{n+1}, n \geq 0$

Corresp. Series:

$$\frac{1}{0+1} + \frac{1}{1+1} + \frac{1}{2+1} + \dots + \frac{1}{n+1} + \dots$$

$$= 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \dots + \frac{1}{n+1} + \dots$$

Short Notation:  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n+1}$

You should compare the two Examples on p. 417 (top half of the page, bottom half of the page).

Normally, the series is specified without writing down the sequence  $a_n$  itself:

Examples:

$$\frac{1}{1 \cdot 2} + \frac{1}{2 \cdot 3} + \frac{1}{3 \cdot 4} + \dots + \frac{1}{n(n+1)} + \dots$$

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \frac{1}{3^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2} + \dots$$

or, using the short notation:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n(n+1)} \quad (\text{same as } \frac{1}{n(n+1)} + \dots)$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 3n + 5} \quad \text{etc.}$$

Then, we can, (if we wish) to write down the sequence that gave rise to the given series.

This sequence is called the sequence of the terms of the given series:

Thus, for example, for the series

see also p. 415

$$1 + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{n^2} + \dots$$

the sequence of the terms of the series is  $\frac{1}{n^2}, n \geq 1$ .

For the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+3n+5}$

the sequence of the terms is

$$\frac{1}{n^2+3n+5}, n \geq 0.$$

There is, however, another important sequence associated with a given series, called the sequence of partial sums:

So if the series is

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n + \dots$$

then the sequence of partial sums, denoted by  $s_n$ ,  $n \geq 1$ ,

is

$$s_1 = a_1$$

$$s_2 = a_1 + a_2$$

⋮

$$s_n = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n a_i$$

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Likewise if the series is

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$$

Then the sequence of partial sums  $s_n$  is exactly as on p. 420,

since  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  is just short notation for the series

$$a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_n + \dots$$

Example. Recall from college algebra

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

(where  $r \neq 1$ ),

and more generally,

$$a_1 + a_1 r + a_1 r^2 + \dots + a_1 r^n = a_1 \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

Thus if the series is

$$1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^n + \dots,$$

or 
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n,$$

then the sequence  $s_n, n \geq 0$ ,  
of partial sums is

$$s_0 = 1, s_1 = 1 + r, \dots, s_n = 1 + r + \dots + r^n = \frac{1 - r^{n+1}}{1 - r}$$

For Example, if  $r = \frac{1}{2}$ , we  
obtain the series

$$1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \dots,$$

i.e. 
$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n},$$

and the sequence of partial sums is

$$\begin{aligned} s_0 &= 1, s_1 = 1 + \frac{1}{2}, \dots, s_n = \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{n+1}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = \\ &= 2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}\right) = 2 - \frac{1}{2^n} \end{aligned}$$



Changing slightly the series (423) at the top of p. 422, we can have

$$r + r^2 + \dots + r^n + \dots$$

$$\text{or } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} r^n$$

The the partial sums are

$$s_1 = r, s_2 = r^2, \dots$$

$$s_n = r + r^2 + \dots + r^n = \sum_{i=1}^n r^i =$$

$$= r(1 + r + \dots + r^{n-1}) =$$

$$= r \frac{1 - r^n}{1 - r}$$

Thus if  $r = \frac{1}{2}$ , the series is

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$$

and the partial sums are

$$s_1 = \frac{1}{2}, s_2 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} = \frac{3}{4}, \dots$$

$$s_n = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2^i} =$$

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

A series is called convergent if its sequence of partial sums  $s_n$  is convergent, i.e. if

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n$  exists and is finite,

i.e.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s$  is a real number (not  $\infty$  or  $-\infty$ ).

COMPARE with the DEFINITION at the top of p. 399.

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Thus for Example, the series

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2^2} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$$

is convergent, since by the calculation at the top of p. 424 we have obtained

$$s_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2^i} = 1 - \frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^n}\right) = 1$$

We then also write

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} = 1$$

$$\text{or in general } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = s$$

$$\text{if } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = s.$$

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This is similar to what we have done with improper integrals:

If the improper integral

$$\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

is convergent, i.e. if

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t f(x) dx \text{ exists, is}$$

finite, and equals a real

number  $L$ , then we define

the value of the improper

integral  $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx$  to be  $L$ ,

and write  $\int_1^{\infty} f(x) dx = L$

\*

Returning to the Examples  
on pages 422, 423,

the series of the form

$$a_1 + a_1 r + a_1 r^2 + \dots + a_1 r^n + \dots,$$

or using short notation,

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_1 r^n,$$

such series are called geometric series, with common ratio  $r$ .

Assuming  $a_1 \neq 0$ ,  
the geom. series above is  
convergent for  $r$  such that  
 $|r| < 1$ , i.e.  $-1 < r < 1$

and has sum

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

Thus for Example, the series 428

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2 \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^n \text{ is convergent and}$$

has sum

$$s = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{2}{3}} = 2 \cdot \frac{1}{\frac{1}{3}} = 6$$

Note that the same series can also be written as

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} 2 \left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{n-1}$$

since if we write out the first few terms of each series we see that they are identical:

$$2 + 2\left(\frac{2}{3}\right) + 2\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^2 + \dots$$

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Example. Express the repeating decimal expansion as an ordinary fraction:

$$0.23747474\dots$$
$$= 0.23\overline{74}$$

Solution.

$$0.23\overline{74} =$$

$$= 0.23 + \frac{74}{100000} + \frac{74}{10000000} + \dots + \frac{74}{100000} \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^n + \dots$$

$$= \frac{123}{1000} + \frac{74}{100000} \cdot \frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{100}} =$$

$$= \frac{123}{1000} + \frac{74}{100000} \cdot \frac{100}{99} =$$

$$= \frac{123}{1000} + \frac{74}{100000} \cdot \frac{100}{99} =$$

$$= \frac{123}{1000} + \frac{74}{99} \cdot \frac{1}{1000} =$$

$$= \frac{1}{1000} \left( \frac{123(99) + 74}{99} \right) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{1000} \cdot \frac{12251}{99} = \frac{12251}{99000}$$



## Telescoping Series.

Example. Determine whether the series

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+3n}$  is convergent or divergent and if convergent, find its sum.

Solution.

We find a partial fraction decomposition of  $\frac{1}{n^2+3n}$  exactly like for  $\frac{1}{x^2+3x}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \frac{1}{n^2+3n} &= \frac{1}{n(n+3)} = \frac{A}{n} + \frac{B}{n+3} \\ &= \frac{An+3A+Bn}{n(n+3)} = \frac{(A+B)n+3A}{n(n+3)} \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $A+B=0$ ,  $3A=1$ ,

hence  $A = \frac{1}{3}$ ,  $B = -\frac{1}{3}$

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



We write out a few of the partial sums:

$$s_1 = a_1 = \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{4} \right)$$

$$s_2 = a_1 + a_2 = \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{4} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5} \right)$$

$$s_3 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 = \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{4} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6} \right)$$

$$s_4 = a_1 + a_2 + a_3 + a_4 =$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{4} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{7} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{1} + \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6} \right) - \frac{1}{7} \right].$$

$$s_5 = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_5 =$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{4} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{7} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{8} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6} \right) - \frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{8} \right]$$

$$S_6 = a_1 + a_2 + \dots + a_5 + a_6$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{4} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{7} \right)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{8} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{9} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{8} - \frac{1}{9} \right]$$

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$$S_{10} = \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{4} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{5} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{6} \right) +$$

$$+ \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{7} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{8} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{6} - \frac{1}{9} \right)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{7} - \frac{1}{10} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{8} - \frac{1}{11} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{12} \right)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{1}{10} - \frac{1}{13} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{11} - \frac{1}{12} - \frac{1}{13} \right]$$

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$$S_n = \frac{1}{3} \left[ \frac{1}{1} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{n+1} - \frac{1}{n+2} - \frac{1}{n+3} \right]$$

$$\text{Hence } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = \frac{1}{3} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \right) = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{11}{6} = \frac{11}{18}$$

Thus the series

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

Converges and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2+3n} = \frac{11}{18}$



An Important Method for Proving Divergence of a Series:

Theorem. If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges, then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ .

Example. Determine whether

the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{3n^2-n-2}{5n^2+4n+1}$

converges or diverges.

Solution. It is shown on p. 386

that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3n^2-n-2}{5n^2+4n+1} = \frac{3}{5}$

Hence by the Theorem in the Box above, the given series must diverge.



## Midterm 2 Solutions

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1. (6 pts) Write out the form of the partial fraction decomposition. Do not evaluate the coefficients:

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

$$= \frac{A}{x+1} + \frac{B}{(x+1)^2} + \frac{C}{(x+1)^3} + \frac{D}{x+2} + \frac{Ex+F}{x^2+2x+2}$$

$$(x^2+2x+1)(x^2+2x+2)(x^2+3x+2)$$

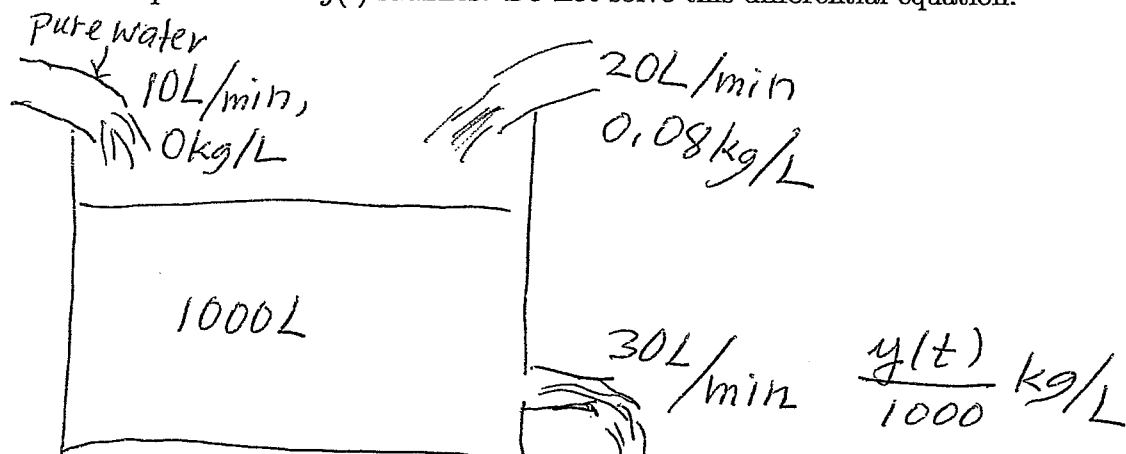
$$= (x+1)^2 (x+1)(x+2)(x^2+2x+2)$$

$$= (x+1)^3 (x+2)(x^2+2x+2)$$

No Real Roots

2. (6 pts) A tank contains 1000L of brine with 25 kg of dissolved salt. Pure water enters the tank at the rate of 10L/min. Brine that contains 0.08 kg of salt per liter enters the tank at the rate of 20L/min. The solution is kept thoroughly mixed and drains from the tank at a rate of 30L/min.

Let  $y(t)$  denote the amount of salt (in kgs) in the tank at time  $t$ . Write down the differential equation that  $y(t)$  satisfies. Do not solve this differential equation.



$$\frac{dy}{dt} = (\text{rate in}) - (\text{rate out})$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = (0 \text{ kg/L})(10 \text{ L/min}) + (0.08 \text{ kg/L})(20 \text{ L/min}) - \left(\frac{y(t)}{1000} \text{ kg/L}\right)(30 \text{ L/min})$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = 1.6 - \frac{3}{100} y$$

3. (6 pts) Let  $\mathcal{R}$  be a region in the  $x, y$ -plane bounded above by the graph  $y = f(x)$ , below by the graph  $y = g(x)$ , on the left by the line  $x = a$  and on the right by the line  $x = b$ . Also suppose that the area of the region  $\mathcal{R}$  equals 2. Then the coordinates of the centroid of  $\mathcal{R}$  are

(a)  $\bar{x} = \int_a^b x(f(x) - g(x)) dx, \bar{y} = \int_a^b [(f(x))^2 - (g(x))^2] dx$

(b)  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b [(f(x))^2 - (g(x))^2] dx, \bar{y} = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b x(f(x) - g(x)) dx$

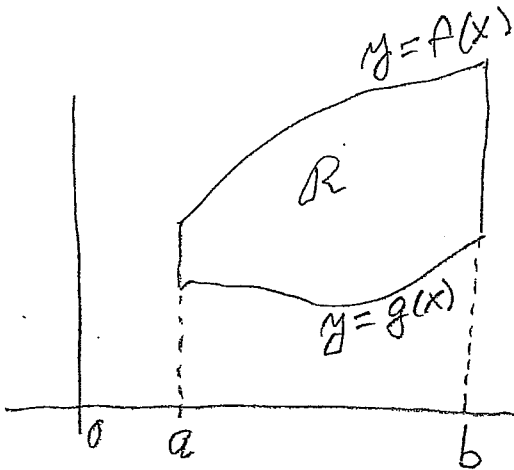
(c)  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{4} \int_a^b [(f(x))^2 - (g(x))^2] dx, \bar{y} = \frac{1}{4} \int_a^b x(f(x) - g(x)) dx$

(d)  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{2} \int_a^b x(f(x) - g(x)) dx, \bar{y} = \frac{1}{4} \int_a^b [(f(x))^2 - (g(x))^2] dx$

(e)  $\bar{x} = 2 \int_a^b x[(f(x))^2 - (g(x))^2] dx, \bar{y} = 2 \int_a^b (f(x) - g(x)) dx$

(f)  $\bar{x} = 2 \int_a^b x(f(x) - g(x)) dx, \bar{y} = 2 \int_a^b [(f(x))^2 - (g(x))^2] dx$

Choose the one correct answer above. No work has to be shown.



(Area of  $\mathcal{R}$ ) = 2

4. (8 pts) Write down the integral for the length of the curve

$$y = \frac{1}{2} \ln x - \frac{1}{4} x^2, \quad 1 \leq x \leq 2$$

and simplify this integral as much as possible, but do not evaluate it.

$$1 + \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 = 1 + \left( \frac{1}{2x} - \frac{1}{2} x \right)^2 = 1 + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{1}{x^2} - 2 + x^2 \right) =$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{4} x^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \frac{1}{x^2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} x^2 = \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{1}{x^2} + 2 + x^2 \right) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{1}{x} + x \right)^2$$

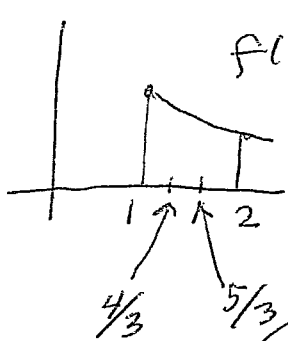
$$L = \int_1^2 \sqrt{1 + \left( \frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2} dx = \int_1^2 \sqrt{\frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{1}{x} + x \right)^2} dx$$

$$= \int_1^2 \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{x} + x \right) dx$$

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5. (14 pts) (a) Find the exact value of the Trapezoidal Rule approximation  $T_3$  for  $\int_1^2 \frac{1}{x} dx$ . Do not use decimal notation, except (if you wish to use it) in the final answer, and provided your final answer has the form of one number expressed in decimal notation.



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{3} = \frac{2-1}{3} = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$T_3 = \frac{\Delta x}{2} \left( f(1) + 2f\left(\frac{4}{3}\right) + 2f\left(\frac{5}{3}\right) + f(2) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \left( 1 + 2 \cdot \frac{3}{4} + 2 \cdot \frac{3}{5} + \frac{1}{2} \right) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \left( 1 + \frac{3}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{6}{5} \right) = \frac{1}{6} \left( 3 + \frac{6}{5} \right) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \cdot \frac{21}{5} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{7}{5} = \frac{7}{10} = 0.7$$

(b) Is the approximation  $T_3$  in part (a) accurate to within  $\frac{1}{50}$ ?

COMMENT. All required calculations in both part (a) and part (b) can be readily performed without the use of a calculator.

$$f'(x) = -\frac{1}{x^2}, \quad f''(x) = \frac{2}{x^3}$$

$\max |f''(x)|$  on  $[1, 2]$  occurs at  $x=1$ , and  $= 2$   
Hence  $K=2$

$$|E_T| \leq \frac{K(b-a)^3}{12n^2} = \frac{2(2-1)^3}{12(3^2)} = \frac{1}{6(9)} = \frac{1}{54}$$

Hence  $|E_T| \leq \frac{1}{54}$ , thus  $|E_T| \leq \frac{1}{50}$

Thus the approximation  $T_3$  is accurate to within  $\frac{1}{50}$ .



6.(14 pts) Consider the improper integral

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^3 + 2x^2 + 5} dx$$

(a) State the definition of what it means that the integral above is convergent.

It means that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^t \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^3 + 2x^2 + 5} dx$  exists and is finite.

(b) Determine whether the integral above is convergent or divergent. State carefully the two main results (or theorems) that you will use.

The Comparison Test: If  $f(x), g(x)$  are continuous on  $[a, \infty)$ , and both  $f(x), g(x) \geq 0$  on  $[a, \infty)$  and  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  on  $[a, \infty)$  and  $\int_a^{\infty} g(x) dx$  is convergent, then  $\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx$  is convergent.

The p-test:  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^p} dx$  is convergent if  $p < 1$ , divergent if  $p \geq 1$ .

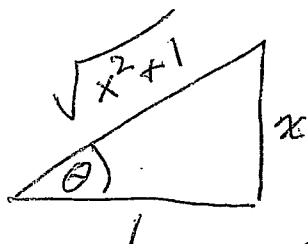
$\frac{\sin^2 x}{x^3 + 2x^2 + 5}$  is conti,  $\geq 0$  on  $[1, \infty)$ .

$\frac{\sin^2 x}{x^3 + 2x^2 + 5} \leq \frac{1}{x^3 + 2x^2 + 5} \leq \frac{1}{x^3}$ ,  $\frac{1}{x^3}$  is conti, on  $[1, \infty), \geq 0$ .  
since  $\sin^2 x \leq 1$ , and  $\geq 0$

$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3} dx$  is conv. by p-Test. Hence the given integral is conv. by the Comparison Test.

7. (14 pts) Evaluate

$$\int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2+1}}$$



$$x = \tan \theta$$

$$\sqrt{x^2+1} = \sec \theta$$

$$dx = \sec^2 \theta d\theta$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{\tan \theta \sec \theta} \sec^2 \theta d\theta = \int \frac{\sec \theta}{\tan \theta} d\theta$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{\tan \theta} \sec \theta d\theta = \int \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta} \cdot \frac{1}{\cos \theta} d\theta$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{\sin \theta} d\theta = \int \csc \theta d\theta = \ln |\csc \theta - \cot \theta| + C$$

$$= \ln \left| \frac{\sqrt{x^2+1}}{x} - \frac{1}{x} \right| + C$$


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8. (15 pts) Solve the initial value problem

$$\frac{3}{x \ln x} \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{y^2}, y(2) = 1$$

$$3y^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = x \ln x$$

$$3y^2 dy = x \ln x dx$$

$$\int 3y^2 dy = \int x \ln x dx$$

$$y^3 = \frac{1}{2} x^2 \ln x - \int \frac{1}{2} x^2 \cdot \frac{1}{x} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} x^2 \ln x - \frac{1}{2} \int x dx =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} x^2 \ln x - \frac{1}{4} x^2 + C$$

$$y = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2} x^2 \ln x - \frac{1}{4} x^2 + C}$$

$$1 = y(2) = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2} \cdot 2^2 \ln 2 - \frac{1}{4} \cdot 2^2 + C}$$

$$= \sqrt[3]{2 \ln 2 - 1 + C}$$

$$1^3 = 2 \ln 2 - 1 + C \Rightarrow C = 2 - 2 \ln 2$$

$$y = \sqrt[3]{\frac{1}{2} x^2 \ln x - \frac{1}{4} x^2 + 2 - 2 \ln 2}$$

**SOME FORMULAS**

$$\sin(A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B$$

$$\cos(A + B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B$$

$$\sin^2(A/2) = (1 - \cos A)/2$$

$$\cos^2(A/2) = (1 + \cos A)/2$$

$$\sin A \cos B = \frac{1}{2}[\sin(A - B) + \sin(A + B)]$$

$$\sin A \sin B = \frac{1}{2}[\cos(A - B) - \cos(A + B)]$$

$$\cos A \cos B = \frac{1}{2}[\cos(A - B) + \cos(A + B)]$$

$$\sec^2 x = \tan^2 x + 1$$

$$|E_T| \leq \frac{K(b-a)^3}{12n^2}$$