

**Mathematics 1101Y – Calculus I: functions and calculus of one variable**  
TRENT UNIVERSITY, 2010–2011

**Solutions to the Quizzes**

**Quiz #1.** ~~Friday, 24~~ Monday, 27 September, 2010. (10 minutes)

1. Find the location of the tip of the parabola  $y = 2x^2 + 2x - 12$ , as well as its  $x$ - and  $y$ -intercepts. [5]

SOLUTION. Note that since  $x^2$  has a positive coefficient, this parabola opens upwards.

To find the location of the tip of the parabola, we complete the square in the quadratic expression defining the parabola:

$$\begin{aligned}y &= 2x^2 + 2x - 12 \\&= 2(x^2 + x) - 12 \\&= 2\left[x^2 + 2\frac{1}{2}x + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2\right] - 12 \\&= 2\left[x^2 + 2\frac{1}{2}x + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2\right] - 2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - 12 \\&= 2\left(x + \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{1}{2} - 12 \\&= 2\left(x + \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 - \frac{25}{2}\end{aligned}$$

It follows that the tip of the parabola occurs when  $x + \frac{1}{2} = 0$ , *i.e.* when  $x = -\frac{1}{2}$ , at which point  $y = -\frac{25}{2}$ . Thus the tip of the parabola is at the point  $(-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{25}{2})$ .

To find the  $y$ -intercept of the parabola, we simply plug  $x = 0$  into the quadratic expression defining the parabola:

$$y = 2 \cdot 0^2 + 2 \cdot 0 - 12 = 0 + 0 - 12 = -12$$

Thus the  $y$ -intercept of the parabola is the point  $(0, -12)$ .

To find the  $x$ -intercept(s) of the parabola, we apply the quadratic formula to find the roots of the quadratic expression defining the parabola:  $2x^2 + 2x - 12 = 0$  exactly when

$$\begin{aligned}x &= \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{2^2 - 4 \cdot 2 \cdot (-12)}}{2 \cdot 2} = \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{4 - (-96)}}{4} \\&= \frac{-2 \pm \sqrt{100}}{4} = \frac{-2 \pm 10}{4} = \frac{-1 \pm 5}{2},\end{aligned}$$

*i.e.* exactly when  $x = \frac{4}{2} = 2$  or  $x = -\frac{6}{2} = -3$ . It follows that the parabola has its  $x$ -intercepts at  $x = 2$  and  $x = -3$ , *i.e.* at the points  $(-3, 0)$  and  $(2, 0)$ . ■

**Quiz #2.** Friday, 1 October, 2010. (6 minutes)

1. Solve the equation  $e^{2x} - 2e^x + 1 = 0$  for  $x$ .

*Hint:* Solve for  $e^x$  first ...

SOLUTION. Recall that  $e^{2x} = (e^x)^2$ , so we can rewrite the given equation as  $(e^x)^2 - 2e^x + 1 = 0$ . Following the hint, we solve for  $e^x$  using the quadratic equation:

$$e^x = \frac{-(-2) \pm \sqrt{(-2)^2 - 4 \cdot 1 \cdot 1}}{2 \cdot 1} = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 4}}{2} = \frac{2 \pm 0}{2} = 1$$

Thus  $x = \ln(e^x) = \ln(1) = 0$ . ■

**Quiz #3.** Friday, 8 October, 2010. (10 minutes)

1. Evaluate the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 + x - 2}{x - 1}$ , if it exists. [5]

SOLUTION. We factor the numerator and simplify:

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

In case of problems factoring this by sight, one could always apply the quadratic formula. The roots of  $x^2 + x - 2$  are:

$$\frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1^2 - 4 \cdot 1 \cdot (-2)}}{2 \cdot 1} = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{9}}{2} = \frac{-1 \pm 3}{2} = +1 \text{ or } -2$$

It follows that  $x^2 + x - 2 = (x - 1)(x - (-2)) = (x - 1)(x + 2)$ . ■

**Quiz #4.** Friday, 15 October, 2010. (10 minutes)

1. Use the limit definition of the derivative to compute  $f'(2)$  if  $f(x) = x^2 + 3x + 1$ . [5]

SOLUTION. Here goes!

$$\begin{aligned} f'(2) &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(2+h) - f(2)}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{[(2+h)^2 + 3(2+h) + 1] - [2^2 + 3 \cdot 2 + 1]}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{[4 + 4h + h^2 + 6 + 3h + 1] - [4 + 6 + 1]}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h^2 + 7h}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (h + 7) = 0 + 7 = 7 \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #5.** ~~Friday, 22 October~~ Monday, 1 November, 2010. (10 minutes)

1. Find  $f'(x)$  if  $f(x) = \frac{x^2+2x}{x^2+2x+1}$ . Simplify your answer as much as you reasonably can. [5]

SOLUTION. The Quotient Rule followed by algebra:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(x^2+2x) \cdot (x^2+2x+1) - (x^2+2x) \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^2+2x+1)}{(x^2+2x+1)^2} \\ &= \frac{(2x+2)(x^2+2x+1) - (x^2+2x)(2x+2)}{(x^2+2x+1)^2} \\ &= \frac{2(x+1)(x+1)^2 - (x^2+2x)2(x+1)}{((x+1)^2)^2} \\ &= \frac{2(x+1)^3 - (x^2+2x)2(x+1)}{(x+1)^4} \\ &= \frac{2(x+1)^2 - 2(x^2+2x)}{(x+1)^3} \\ &= \frac{2(x^2+2x+1) - 2(x^2+2x)}{(x+1)^3} \\ &= \frac{2}{(x+1)^3} \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #6.** Friday, 5 November, 2010. (10 minutes)

1. Find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  if  $y = \sqrt{x + \arctan(x)}$ . [5]

SOLUTION. This is a job for the Chain Rule. Note first that, using the Power Rule,  $\frac{d}{dt}\sqrt{t} = \frac{d}{dt}t^{1/2} = \frac{1}{2}t^{-1/2} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}}$ . Letting  $t = x + \arctan(x)$  and applying the Chain Rule gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{dy}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{dx} = \left( \frac{d}{dt}\sqrt{t} \right) \cdot \frac{dt}{dx} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{t}} \cdot \frac{dt}{dx} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x + \arctan(x)}} \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x + \arctan(x)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x + \arctan(x)}} \cdot \left( \frac{dx}{dx} + \frac{d}{dx}\arctan(x) \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x + \arctan(x)}} \cdot \left( 1 + \frac{1}{1+x^2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

There's not much one can do to meaningfully simplify this. A little algebra could give you something like  $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{2+x^2}{2(1+x^2)\sqrt{x+\arctan(x)}}$ , but it's not clear that's an improvement. ■

**Quiz #7.** Friday, 12 November, 2010. (10 minutes)

1. Find the maximum and minimum of  $f(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2}$  on the interval  $[-2, 2]$ . [5]

SOLUTION. We compute  $f'(x)$  using the Quotient Rule:

$$f'(x) = \frac{\left(\frac{d}{dx}x\right)(1+x^2) - x\frac{d}{dx}(1+x^2)}{(1+x^2)^2} = \frac{1(1+x^2) - x \cdot 2x}{(1+x^2)^2} = \frac{1-x^2}{(1+x^2)^2}$$

Note that the denominator of  $f'(x)$  is never 0 because  $1+x^2 \geq 1$  for all  $x$ , so  $f'(x)$  is defined for all  $x$  in the interval  $[-2, 2]$ .  $f'(x) = \frac{1-x^2}{(1+x^2)^2} = 0$  exactly when  $1-x^2 = 0$ . It follows that the critical points of  $f(x)$  are  $x = \pm 1$ , both of which in the interval  $[-2, 2]$ .

We compare the values of  $f(x)$  at the critical points and the endpoints of the interval:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} x & f(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2} & \\ -2 & \frac{-2}{1+(-2)^2} = -\frac{2}{5} & \\ -1 & \frac{-1}{1+(-1)^2} = -\frac{1}{2} & \\ 1 & \frac{1}{1+1^2} = \frac{1}{2} & \\ 2 & \frac{2}{1+2^2} = \frac{2}{5} & \end{array}$$

Since  $-\frac{1}{2} < -\frac{2}{5} < \frac{2}{5} < \frac{1}{2}$ , it follows that the maximum of  $f(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2}$  on the interval  $[-2, 2]$  is  $f(1) = \frac{1}{2}$  and the minimum is  $f(-1) = -\frac{1}{2}$ . ■

**Quiz #8.** Friday, 26 November, 2010. (10 minutes)

1. Find an antiderivative of  $f(x) = 4x^3 - 3\cos(x) + \frac{1}{x}$ . [5]

SOLUTION. This is mainly an exercise in memorizing basic rules about antiderivatives and the antiderivatives of standard functions. Using the indefinite integral notation for antiderivatives we get:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \left(4x^3 - 3\cos(x) + \frac{1}{x}\right) dx &= 4 \int x^3 dx - 3 \int \cos(x) dx + \int \frac{1}{x} dx \\ &= 4 \cdot \frac{x^{3+1}}{3+1} - 3\sin(x) + \ln(x) + C \\ &= x^4 - 3\sin(x) + \ln(x) + C \end{aligned}$$

Since we just asked for *an* antiderivative, any value of  $C$  – including 0 – is fine here. ■

**Quiz #9.** Friday, 3 December, 2010. (10 minutes)

1. Compute the definite integral  $\int_0^1 (2x + 1) dx$  using the Right-hand Rule. [5]

*Hint:* You may assume that  $\sum_{k=1}^n k = 1 + 2 + 3 + \cdots + n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$ .

SOLUTION. Recall that the Right-hand Rule formula is:

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{b-a}{n} f\left(a + k \frac{b-a}{n}\right)$$

We plug  $a = 0$ ,  $b = 1$ , and  $f(x) = 2x + 1$  into this formula and grind away:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 (2x + 1) dx &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1-0}{n} f\left(0 + k \frac{1-0}{n}\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f\left(\frac{k}{n}\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(2 \frac{k}{n} + 1\right) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \left[ \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{2k}{n}\right) + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1\right) \right] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \left[ \left(\frac{2}{n} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k\right) + \left(\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1\right) \right] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \left[ \frac{2}{n} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + n \right] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} [(n+1) + n] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} [2n + 1] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \frac{2n}{n} + \frac{1}{n} \right] \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ 2 + \frac{1}{n} \right] = 2 + 0 = 2 \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #10.** Friday, 10 December, 2010. (10 minutes)

1. Find the area between the graphs of  $f(x) = \sin(x)$  and  $g(x) = \frac{2x}{\pi}$  for  $0 \leq x \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ . [5]

SOLUTION. Note that  $f(0) = 0 = g(0)$  and  $f(\frac{\pi}{2}) = g(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 1$ . Between these points  $f(x) \geq g(x)$  – sketch the graphs to convince yourself, if necessary – so the area between them is:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/2} (f(x) - g(x)) dx &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \left( \sin(x) - \frac{2x}{\pi} \right) dx \\ &= \left( -\cos(x) - \frac{2}{\pi} \cdot \frac{x^2}{2} \right) \Big|_0^{\pi/2} \\ &= \left( -\cos(\pi/2) - \frac{(\pi/2)^2}{\pi} \right) - \left( -\cos(0) - \frac{0^2}{\pi} \right) \\ &= \left( -0 - \frac{\pi}{4} \right) - (-1 - 0) \\ &= -\frac{\pi}{4} + 1 = 1 - \frac{\pi}{4} \end{aligned}$$

Quick sanity check:  $\pi < 4$ , so  $\frac{\pi}{4} < 1$ , so  $1 - \frac{\pi}{4}$  is positive, as an area should be. ■

**Quiz #11.** Friday, 14 January, 2011. (10 minutes)

1. Compute  $\int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^3(x) dx$ . [5]

SOLUTION. This can be done pretty quickly using the appropriate reduction formula or integration by parts, but it's also easy to do by a combination of the trig identity  $\cos^2(x) = 1 - \sin^2(x)$  and substitution:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^3(x) dx &= \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2(x) \cos(x) dx \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/2} (1 - \sin^2(x)) \cos(x) dx \\ &\quad \text{Substitute } u = \sin(x), \text{ so } du = \cos(x) dx, \text{ and} \\ &\quad \text{change the limits: } \begin{array}{ccc} x & 0 & \pi/2 \\ u & 0 & 1 \end{array} . \\ &= \int_0^1 (1 - u^2) du \\ &= \left( u - \frac{u^3}{3} \right) \Big|_0^1 \\ &= \left( 1 - \frac{1^3}{3} \right) - \left( 0 - \frac{0^3}{3} \right) \\ &= \frac{2}{3} - 0 = \frac{2}{3} \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #12.** Friday, 21 January, 2011. (10 minutes)

1. Compute  $\int \tan^3(x) \sec(x) dx$ . [5]

SOLUTION. There are other ways to pull this off, but the following use of the identity  $\tan^2(x) = \sec^2(x) - 1$  and substitution is pretty quick:

$$\begin{aligned} \int \tan^3(x) \sec(x) dx &= \int \tan^2(x) \tan(x) \sec(x) dx \\ &= \int (\sec^2(x) - 1) \sec(x) \tan(x) dx \\ &\quad \text{Substitute } u = \sec(x), \text{ so } du = \sec(x) \tan(x) dx. \\ &= \int (u^2 - 1) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{3}u^3 - u + C \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \sec^3(x) - \sec(x) + C \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #13.** Friday, 28 January, 2011. (10 minutes)

1. Compute  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{4+x^2}} dx$ . [5]

SOLUTION. We'll use the trigonometric substitution  $x = 2 \tan(\theta)$ , so  $dx = 2 \sec^2(\theta) d\theta$ , and also  $\tan(\theta) = \frac{x}{2}$  and  $\sec(\theta) = \sqrt{\sec^2(\theta)} = \sqrt{1 + \tan^2(\theta)} = \sqrt{1 + \frac{x^2}{4}}$ . (We'll need these last when substituting back.)

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{4+x^2}} dx &= \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{4+(2 \tan(\theta))^2}} 2 \sec^2(\theta) d\theta \\ &= \int \frac{2 \sec^2(\theta)}{\sqrt{4+4 \tan^2(\theta)}} d\theta = \int \frac{2 \sec^2(\theta)}{\sqrt{4(1+\tan^2(\theta))}} d\theta \\ &= \frac{2}{\sqrt{4}} \int \frac{\sec^2(\theta)}{\sqrt{1+\tan^2(\theta)}} d\theta = \frac{2}{2} \int \frac{\sec^2(\theta)}{\sqrt{\sec^2(\theta)}} d\theta \\ &= \int \frac{\sec^2(\theta)}{\sec(\theta)} d\theta = \int \sec(\theta) d\theta \\ &= \ln(\sec(\theta) + \tan(\theta)) + C \\ &= \ln\left(\sqrt{1+\frac{x^2}{4}} + \frac{x}{2}\right) + C \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #14.** Friday, 4 February, 2011. (15 minutes)

1. Compute  $\int \frac{4x^2 + 3x}{(x+2)(x^2+1)} dx$ . [5]

SOLUTION. This is a job for partial fractions. Note that the denominator of the integrand,  $(x+2)(x^2+1)$ , come pre-factored into linear factor and irreducible quadratic factors. ( $x^2+1$  doesn't factor any further because it has no roots, since  $x^2+1 \geq 1 > 0$  for all  $x$ .) It follows that

$$\frac{4x^2 + 3x}{(x+2)(x^2+1)} = \frac{A}{x+2} + \frac{Bx+C}{x^2+1}$$

for some constants  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ . To determine these constants we put the right-hand side of the above equation over the common denominator

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{A}{x+2} + \frac{Bx+C}{x^2+1} &= \frac{A(x^2+1) + (Bx+C)(x+2)}{(x+2)(x^2+1)} \\ &= \frac{Ax^2 + A + Bx^2 + 2Bx + Cx + 2C}{(x+2)(x^2+1)} \\ &= \frac{(A+B)x^2 + (2B+C)x + (A+2C)}{(x+2)(x^2+1)}, \end{aligned}$$

and then equate numerators

$$4x^2 + 3x = (A+B)x^2 + (2B+C)x + (A+2C)$$

to obtain a set of three linear equations in  $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ :

$$\begin{array}{rclcl} A & + & B & & = & 4 \\ & & 2B & + & C & = & 3 \\ A & & & + & 2C & = & 0 \end{array}$$

These equations can be solved in a variety of ways; we will do so using substitution. Solving the third equation for  $A$  gives  $A = -2C$ . Substituting this into the first equation gives  $B - 2C = 4$ ; solving this for  $B$  now gives  $B = 4 + 2C$ . Substituting the last into the second equation now gives  $2(4 + 2C) + C = 3$ , *i.e.*  $8 + 5C = 3$ , so  $5C = 3 - 8 = -5$ , so  $C = -5/5 = -1$ . It follows that  $B = 4 + 2C = 4 + 2(-1) = 2$  and  $A = -2C = -2(-1) = 2$ .

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{4x^2 + 3x}{(x+2)(x^2+1)} dx &= \int \left( \frac{2}{x+2} + \frac{2x-1}{x^2+1} \right) dx \\ &= \int \frac{2}{x+2} dx + \int \frac{2x-1}{x^2+1} dx \\ &= \int \frac{2}{x+2} dx + \int \frac{2x}{x^2+1} dx - \int \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx \end{aligned}$$



We handle the three parts separately. In the first, we use the substitution  $u = x + 2$ , so  $du = dx$ . In the second, we use the substitution  $w = x^2 + 1$ , so  $dw = 2x dx$ . In the third, we recollect that  $\frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$  is the derivative of  $\arctan(x)$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{4x^2 + 3x}{(x + 2)(x^2 + 1)} dx &= \int \frac{2}{x + 2} dx + \int \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} dx - \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 1} dx \\ &= 2 \int \frac{1}{u} du + \int \frac{1}{w} dw + \arctan(x) \\ &= 2\ln(u) + \ln(w) + \arctan(x) + C \end{aligned}$$

Since the last integral sign has disappeared, the generic constant must now show up. Substituting back gives:

$$= 2\ln(x + 2) + \ln(x^2 + 1) + \arctan(x) + C$$

Whew! ■

**Quiz #15.** Friday, 18 February, 2011. (15 minutes)

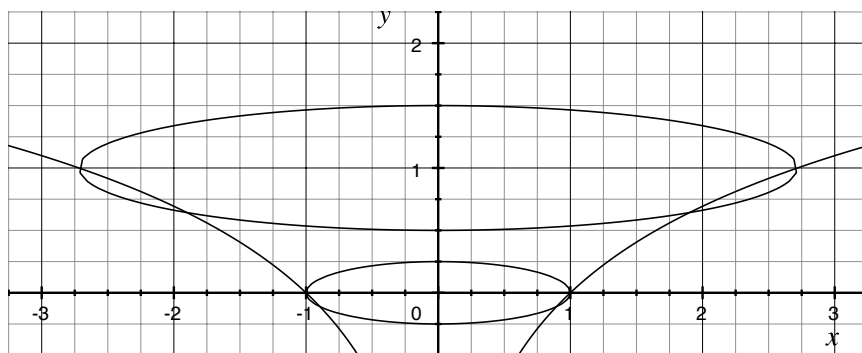
1. Sketch the surface obtained by revolving the curve  $y = \ln(x)$ ,  $1 \leq x \leq e$ , about the  $y$ -axis, and find its area. [5]

*Hint:* You may find it convenient to just use the fact that

$$\int \sec^3(\theta) d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \tan(\theta) \sec(\theta) + \frac{1}{2} \ln(\tan(\theta) + \sec(\theta)) + C,$$

instead of having to work it out from scratch.

SOLUTION. Here's a sketch of the surface, albeit I cheated a little by starting with a graph of  $y = \ln(x)$  drawn by a computer.



Note that we only want the part that come from revolving the part of  $y = \ln(x)$  for  $1 \leq x \leq e$ .

To find the area of this surface, we use the usual formula for the area of a surface of revolution obtained by revolving a curve about the  $y$ -axis:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^e 2\pi x \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx &= 2\pi \int_1^e x \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{d}{dx} \ln(x)\right)^2} dx = 2\pi \int_1^e x \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^2} dx \\ &= 2\pi \int_1^e x \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} dx = 2\pi \int_1^e \sqrt{x^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{x^2}\right)} dx \\ &= 2\pi \int_1^e \sqrt{x^2 + 1} dx \end{aligned}$$

Substitute  $x = \tan(\theta)$ , so  $dx = \sec^2(\theta) d\theta$ ,

keep the old limits and substitute back.

$$\begin{aligned} &= 2\pi \int_{x=1}^{x=e} \sqrt{\tan^2(\theta) + 1} \sec^2(\theta) d\theta \\ &= 2\pi \int_{x=1}^{x=e} \sqrt{\sec^2(\theta)} \sec^2(\theta) d\theta = 2\pi \int_{x=1}^{x=e} \sec^3(\theta) d\theta \end{aligned}$$

Use the hint! Note that  $\sec(\theta) = \sqrt{\tan^2(\theta) + 1} = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} &= 2\pi \left[ \frac{1}{2} \tan(\theta) \sec(\theta) + \frac{1}{2} \ln(\tan(\theta) + \sec(\theta)) \right] \Big|_{x=1}^{x=e} \\ &= \pi \left[ x \sqrt{x^2 + 1} + \ln(x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}) \right] \Big|_{x=1}^{x=e} \\ &= \pi \left[ e \sqrt{e^2 + 1} + \ln(e + \sqrt{e^2 + 1}) - \sqrt{2} - \ln(1 + \sqrt{2}) \right] \end{aligned}$$

This doesn't seem to simplify nicely ... ■

**Quiz #15.** Some time or other, 2011. (15 minutes)

1. Find the area of the surface obtained by revolving the curve  $y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ , where  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ , about the  $y$ -axis. [5]

SOLUTION. In this case

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \sqrt{1 - x^2} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} (1 - x^2) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{1 - x^2}} \cdot (-2x) = \frac{-x}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}.$$

We plug this into the surface area formula  $\int_a^b 2\pi x \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)^2} dx$ , giving:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area} &= \int_0^1 2\pi x \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{-x}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}\right)^2} dx = \int_0^1 2\pi x \sqrt{1 + \frac{x^2}{1 - x^2}} dx \\ &= \int_0^1 2\pi x \sqrt{\frac{1 - x^2 + x^2}{1 - x^2}} dx = \int_0^1 2\pi x \sqrt{\frac{1 - x^2 + x^2}{1 - x^2}} dx \\ &= \int_0^1 2\pi x \sqrt{\frac{1}{1 - x^2}} dx = \int_0^1 2\pi x \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}} dx \end{aligned}$$

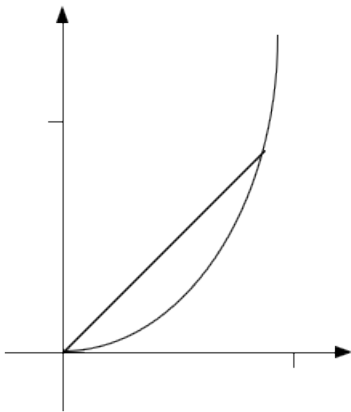
We will compute the last integral using the substitution  $u = 1 - x^2$ , so  $du = -2x dx$  and  $(-1) du = 2x dx$ , changing the limits as we go along:  $\begin{matrix} x & 0 & 1 \\ u & 1 & 0 \end{matrix}$ . Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area} &= \int_0^1 2\pi x \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \int_1^0 \pi \frac{1}{\sqrt{u}} (-1) du = \pi \int_0^1 u^{1/2} du \\ &= \pi \frac{u^{3/2}}{3/2} \Big|_0^1 = \pi \frac{2}{3} u^{3/2} \Big|_0^1 = \pi \frac{2}{3} 1^{3/2} - \pi \frac{2}{3} 0^{3/2} = \frac{2}{3} \pi \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #16.** Some time or other, 2011. (12 minutes)

1. Sketch the region bounded by  $r = \tan(\theta)$ ,  $\theta = 0$ , and  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$  in polar coordinates and find its area. [5]

SOLUTION. Note that when  $\theta = 0$ ,  $r = \tan(0) = 0$ , and when  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{4}$ ,  $r = \tan(\pi/4) = \frac{\sin(\pi/4)}{\cos(\pi/4)} = \frac{1/\sqrt{2}}{1/\sqrt{2}} = 1$ . In between,  $\sin(\theta)$  is increasing and  $\cos(\theta)$  is decreasing as  $\theta$  is increasing, so  $r = \tan(\theta) = \frac{\sin(\theta)}{\cos(\theta)}$  is increasing. The region therefore looks something like this:



To find its area, we need to plug  $r = \tan(\theta)$  into the polar area formula for  $0 \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{4}$  and integrate away:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area} &= \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \frac{1}{2} r^2 d\theta = \int_0^{\pi/4} \frac{1}{2} \tan^2(\theta) d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\pi/4} (\sec^2(\theta) - 1) d\theta = \frac{1}{2} (\tan(\theta) - \theta) \Big|_0^{\pi/4} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) - \frac{\pi}{4} \right) - \frac{1}{2} (\tan(0) - 0) = \frac{1}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{\pi}{4} \right) - \frac{1}{2} 0 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{\pi}{8} \quad \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #17.** Friday, 11 March, 2011. (12 minutes)

1. Find the arc-length of the parametric curve  $x = \sec(t)$ ,  $y = \ln(\sec(t) + \tan(t))$ , where  $0 \leq t \leq \frac{\pi}{4}$ .

SOLUTION. We're going to need to know  $\frac{dx}{dt}$  and  $\frac{dy}{dt}$ , so we'll compute them first:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dx}{dt} &= \frac{d}{dt} \sec(t) = \sec(t) \tan(t) \\ \frac{dy}{dt} &= \frac{d}{dt} \ln(\sec(t) + \tan(t)) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sec(t) + \tan(t)} \cdot \frac{d}{dt} (\sec(t) + \tan(t)) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sec(t) + \tan(t)} \cdot (\sec(t) \tan(t) + \sec^2(t)) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sec(t) + \tan(t)} \cdot \sec(t) (\tan(t) + \sec(t)) = \sec(t)\end{aligned}$$

We can now compute the arc-length of the given curve:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{arc-length} &= \int_C ds = \int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{\left(\frac{dx}{dt}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2} dt \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{(\sec(t) \tan(t))^2 + (\sec(t))^2} dt \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{\sec^2(t) [\tan^2(t) + 1]} dt = \int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{\sec^2(t) \sec^2(t)} dt \\ &= \int_0^{\pi/4} \sqrt{(\sec^2(t))^2} dt = \int_0^{\pi/4} \sec^2(t) dt = \tan(t) \Big|_0^{\pi/4} \\ &= \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right) - \tan(0) = 1 - 0 = 1 \quad \blacksquare\end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #18.** Friday, 18 March, 2011. (10 minutes)

1. Compute  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{e^n}$ . [5]

SOLUTION. Observe that  $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{e^x}$  is defined and differentiable (and hence continuous) on  $[0, \infty)$ , and such that  $f(n) = \frac{n^2}{e^n}$ . It follows that:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2}{e^n} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2}{e^x} && \text{Since } x^2 \rightarrow \infty \text{ and } e^x \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty, \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{d}{dx} x^2}{\frac{d}{dx} e^x} && \text{we apply L'Hôpital's Rule.} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{e^x} && \text{Since } 2x \rightarrow \infty \text{ and } e^x \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty, \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{d}{dx} 2x}{\frac{d}{dx} e^x} && \text{we apply L'Hôpital's Rule again.} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{e^x} \\ &= 0 && \dots \text{ because } 2 \text{ is constant and } e^x \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty. \blacksquare \end{aligned}$$

**Quiz #19.** Friday, 25 March, 2011. (10 minutes)

1. Determine whether the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 2^n}$  converges or diverges. [5]

SOLUTION. Note that  $0 < \frac{1}{n^2 + 2^n} \leq \frac{1}{2^n} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$  for all  $n \geq 0$ , and that the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n}$  converges, because it is a geometric series with common ratio  $\frac{1}{2} < 1$ . It follows that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2 + 2^n}$  converges by the Comparison Test. ■

NOTE: One could also compare the given series to the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ , which converges by the  $p$ -Test.

**Quiz #20.** Friday, 1 April, 2011. (15 minutes)

1. Determine whether the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \ln(n)}{n}$  converges absolutely, converges conditionally, or diverges.

**SOLUTION.** This series converges conditionally.

First, we check if the given series converges absolutely. The corresponding series of positive terms is  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n \ln(n)}{n} \right| = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\ln(n)}{n}$ . Since  $f(x) = \frac{\ln(x)}{x}$  is defined, continuous, and positive for  $x \geq 2$ , we can use the Integral Test. Since the improper integral

$$\begin{aligned} \int_2^{\infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{x} dx &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_2^t \frac{\ln(x)}{x} dx && \text{(Substitute } u = \ln(x), \text{ so } du = \frac{1}{x} dx, \\ &&& \text{and change limits accordingly.)} \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_{\ln(2)}^{\ln(t)} u du = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} u^2 \Big|_{\ln(2)}^{\ln(t)} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} [(\ln(t))^2 - (\ln(2))^2] \\ &= \infty && \text{(Since } \ln(t) \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } t \rightarrow \infty \text{.)} \end{aligned}$$

does not converge, it follows by the Integral Test that neither does  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{\ln(n)}{n}$ . (One could also do this part very quickly by comparison with the series  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n}$ .) Thus the given series does not converge absolutely.

Second, to check that the given series converges, we will apply the Alternating Series Test.

- The series is indeed alternating: once  $n > 1$ ,  $\frac{\ln(n)}{n}$  is always positive, so the  $(-1)^n$  forces successive terms to switch sign.
- $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(-1)^n \ln(n)}{n} \right| = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(n)}{n} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/x}{1} = 0$ , as required. (Note the use of l'Hôpital's Rule at the key step.)
- Successive terms decrease in absolute value once  $n > 1$  since the function  $f(x) = \frac{\ln(x)}{x}$  is decreasing for  $x > e$  because (Quotient Rule!)  $f'(x) = \frac{\frac{1}{x}x - \ln(x)1}{x^2} = \frac{1 - \ln(x)}{x^2} < 0$  as soon as  $\ln(x) > 1$ .

It follows that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n \ln(n)}{n}$  converges by the Alternating Series Test. Since it does converge, but not absolutely, the series converges conditionally. ■