

① $e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$, so $e^{x^2} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x^2)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2k}}{k!}$. Integrating gives

$$\int e^{x^2} dx = C + \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)k!}. \text{ So, } \int_0^1 e^{x^2} dx = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)k!} \Big|_0^1$$

$$= \left(\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)k!} - 0 \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(2k+1)k!}.$$

② $\sin(x) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m+1}}{(2m+1)!}$, so $\cos(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \sin(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left(\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m+1}}{(2m+1)!} \right)$

$$= \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{(-1)^m x^{2m+1}}{(2m+1)!} \right) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m \cdot (2m+1) x^{2m}}{(2m+1)!} = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^m x^{2m}}{(2m)!}$$

③ We know that in a power series $f(x) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} C_m (x-a)^m$, it must be true that $C_m = \frac{f^{(m)}(a)}{m!}$. In this case, $C_m = \frac{m}{m^2+1}$ and $a=3$, so Taking $m=10$,

$$\frac{10}{10^2+1} = C_{10} = \frac{f^{(10)}(3)}{10!}, \text{ and } f^{(10)}(3) = 10! \cdot \frac{10}{10^2+1} = \underline{\underline{\frac{10 \cdot 10!}{101}}}$$

④ $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-1)^k}{2^k k^m}$: $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} \right| = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{(x-1)^{k+1} \cdot 2^k k^m}{2^{k+1} (k+1)^m \cdot (x-1)^k} \right|$

$$= \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x-1}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{k}{k+1} \right)^m \right| = \frac{|x-1|}{2} \cdot \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{k}{k+1} \right)^m = \frac{|x-1|}{2} \cdot 1 = \frac{|x-1|}{2}.$$

So, the series converges for $\frac{|x-1|}{2} < 1$, that is for $|x-1| < 2$, and it diverges for $|x-1| > 2$. This means that the radius of convergence is 2.

⑤ The series in the preceding problem converges for $|x-1| < 2$, i.e. for $-1 < x < 3$, and it diverges for $|x-1| > 2$. The behavior at the endpoints, -1 and 3, depends on the value of m .

a) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-1)^k}{2^k}$ has interval of convergence $(-1, 3)$. [Using $m=0$]

At $x=-1$, the series becomes $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-2)^k}{2^k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (-1)^k$.

At $x=3$, it becomes $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} 1$. Both of these series diverge.

b) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-1)^k}{2^k \cdot k^2}$ has interval of convergence $[-1, 3]$. At $x = -1, 3$ the series becomes $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k^2}$, $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$, both of which converge.

c) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-1)^k}{2^k \cdot k}$ has interval of convergence $[-1, 3)$. At $x = -1$, the series is $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{k}$, which converges. For $x = 3$, we get $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k}$, which diverges.

d) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k (x-1)^k}{2^k \cdot k}$ has interval of convergence $(-1, 3]$. The $(-1)^k$ reverses the series at the endpoints, compared to part c).

⑥ $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ and $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{a_k}$ cannot both converge. Suppose $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ converges.

Then $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} a_k = 0$, but then $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{a_k} = \infty$, so $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{a_k}$ diverges

by the divergence test. Similarly, if $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{a_k}$ converges then

$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k$ diverges. It is possible for both to diverge.

For example, if $a_k = k$ for all k , then $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k$

and $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{a_k} = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k}$. Both of the series diverge in this case.

⑦ a) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^4+1}$ converges: $\frac{n^2}{n^4+1} < \frac{1}{n^2}$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$ converges.

b) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{n^3+1}$ diverges: $\frac{n^2}{n^3+1} \geq \frac{n^2}{n^3+n^3} = \frac{1}{2n}$, and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2n}$ diverges.

c) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^3}{n^3+1}$ diverges: $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3}{n^3+1} = 1 \neq 0$

d) $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{\sqrt{k}}$ converges by the Alternating Series Test, since $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} = 0$ and $\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}} \right\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is decreasing.

$$8) \frac{d}{dx} \int_0^{2x^3} e^{t^2} dt = e^{(2x^3)^2} \cdot \frac{d}{dx} 2x^3 = 6x^2 e^{4x^6}$$

$$9) \Delta x = \frac{1}{2}. \text{ The left Riemann sum is } f(1)\Delta x + f(1.5)\Delta x + \dots + f(4.5)\Delta x \\ = \frac{1}{2} [1.3 + 1.6 + 1.85 + 2.12 + 2.4 + 2.6 + 2.77 + 3.0]$$

(A right Riemann sum would be

$$\frac{1}{2} [1.6 + 1.85 + 2.12 + 2.4 + 2.6 + 2.77 + 3.0 + 3.1].)$$

$$10) a) \int \frac{x^2+1}{x^3+3x} dx = \frac{1}{3} \int \frac{1}{w} dw = \frac{1}{3} \ln|w| + C = \frac{1}{3} \ln|x^3+3x| + C$$

Substitution: $w = x^3 + 3x, dw = 3x^2 + 3 dx = 3(x^2 + 1) dx$

$$b) \int_0^2 2z \sqrt{z^2+1} dz = \int_1^5 w^{1/2} dw = \frac{2}{3} w^{3/2} \Big|_1^5 = \frac{2}{3} (5^{3/2} - 1).$$

Substitution: $w = z^2 + 1, dw = 2z dz, x=0 \Rightarrow z=1, x=2 \Rightarrow z=5$

$$c) \int x^2 + x e^{2x} dx = \int x^2 dx + \int x e^{2x} dx \quad \text{For } \int x e^{2x} dx \text{ : by parts}$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} + \left[x \cdot \frac{1}{2} e^{2x} - \int \frac{1}{2} e^{2x} dx \right] \quad \begin{matrix} w = x & dv = e^{2x} dx \\ dw = dx & v = \frac{1}{2} e^{2x} \end{matrix}$$

$$= \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{1}{2} x e^{2x} - \frac{1}{4} e^{2x} + C$$

$$d) \int \sin^2(x) \cos^3(x) dx = \int \sin^2(x) \cos^2(x) \cos(x) dx = \int \sin^2(x) (1 - \sin^2(x)) \cos(x) dx \\ = \int w^2 (1 - w^2) dw = \int w^2 - w^4 dw = \frac{w^3}{3} - \frac{w^5}{5} + C = \frac{\sin^3(x)}{3} + \frac{\sin^5(x)}{5} + C$$

Substitute: $w = \sin(x), dw = \cos(x) dx$

$$e) \frac{5x-3}{2x(x-1)} = \frac{A}{2x} + \frac{B}{x-1} \Rightarrow 5x-3 = A(x-1) + B(2x)$$

$$x=1 \Rightarrow 2 = 2B \Rightarrow B=1$$

$$x=0 \Rightarrow -3 = -A \Rightarrow A=3$$

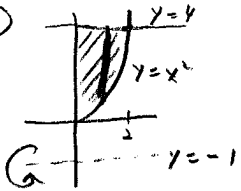
$$\text{So } \int \frac{5x-3}{2x(x-1)} dx = \int \frac{3}{2x} + \frac{1}{x-1} dx = \frac{3}{2} \ln|x| + \ln|x-1| + C$$

f) $\int \ln(x^2+1) dx$ By parts: $w = \ln(x^2+1)$ $dv = dx$
 $dw = \frac{2x}{x^2+1} dx$ $v = x$

$$= x \ln(x^2+1) - \int x \cdot \frac{2x}{x^2+1} dx = x \ln(x^2+1) - 2 \int \frac{x^2}{x^2+1} dx$$

$$= x \ln(x^2+1) - 2 \int \frac{(x^2+1)-1}{x^2+1} dx = x \ln(x^2+1) - 2 \left[\int 1 dx - \int \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx \right]$$

$$= x \ln(x^2+1) - 2(x - \tan^{-1}(x)) + C$$

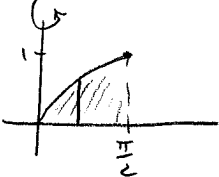
11)  Disk method: $\int_a^b \pi R_1^2 - \pi R_2^2 dx$

$$\int_0^2 \pi (4+1)^2 - \pi (x^2+1)^2 dx = \int_0^2 25\pi - \pi(x^4 + 2x^2 + 1) dx$$

$$= \pi \int_0^2 -x^4 - 2x^2 + 24 dx = \pi \left[-\frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{2x^3}{3} + 24x \right]_0^2$$

$$= \pi \left[-\frac{32}{5} - \frac{16}{3} + 48 \right] = \frac{544}{15} \pi$$

[By shells: $\int_c^d 2\pi rh dy = \int_0^4 2\pi(y+1)(\sqrt{y}) dy$]

12)  $\int_a^b 2\pi rh dx = \int_0^{\pi/2} 2\pi x \sin(x) dx = 2\pi \int_0^{\pi/2} x \sin(x) dx$

$$= 2\pi \left[\sin(x) - x \cos(x) \right]_0^{\pi/2}$$

↑ can be done by parts!

$$= 2\pi \left[\left(\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) - \frac{\pi}{2} \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) \right) - \left(\sin(0) - 0 \cos(0) \right) \right]$$

$$= 2\pi \left[\left(1 - \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot 0 \right) - (0 - 0 \cdot 1) \right] = \underline{\underline{2\pi}}$$

13) $\frac{dy}{dx} = x \sqrt{1-y^2}$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y^2}} dy = x dx$$

$$\sin^{-1}(y) = \frac{x^2}{2} + C$$

$$y = \sin\left(\frac{x^2}{2} + C\right)$$

plugging in $x=0, y=1$ gives
 $1 = \sin(0+C) = \sin(C)$
 So we can take $C = \frac{\pi}{2}$ and
 $y = \sin\left(\frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$