

**Check-In 01/16.** (True/False) Given  $\int_0^\pi e^{\sin x} \cos x \, dx$ , the  $u$ -substitution  $u = \sin x$  transforms this integral into  $\int_0^\pi e^u \, du$ .

**Solution.** The statement is *false*. If  $u = \sin x$ , then  $du = \cos x \, dx$ . So indeed, this  $u$ -substitution would transform the integral  $\int e^{\sin x} \cos x \, dx$  into the integral  $\int e^u \, du$ . However with definite integrals, one needs to remember to transform the limits as well. If  $x = 0$ , then  $u = \sin(0) = 0$ . If  $x = \pi$ , then  $u = \sin(\pi) = 0$ . Therefore, the correct substitution is  $\int_0^\pi e^{\sin x} \cos x \, dx = \int_0^0 e^u \, du = 0$ .

**Check-In 01/21.** (True/False) To integrate  $\int \operatorname{arccot} \theta \, d\theta$ , one can use integration-by-parts by choosing  $u = \operatorname{arccot} \theta$  and  $dv = 1$ .

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. Using LIATE, it is likely that the choice of  $u = \operatorname{arccot} \theta$  will work. With ‘nothing left’ in the integrand, this means that  $dv = 1$ . We fill in our box as follows:

$\operatorname{arccot} \theta$	
	1

 $\Rightarrow$ 

$\operatorname{arccot} \theta$	$\theta$
$\frac{-1}{1 + \theta^2}$	1

Then using the ‘Rule of 7’, we find that...

$$\int \operatorname{arccot} \theta \, d\theta = \theta \operatorname{arccot} \theta - \int \frac{-\theta}{1 + \theta^2} \, d\theta = \theta \operatorname{arccot} \theta + \int \frac{\theta}{1 + \theta^2} \, d\theta$$

Using the  $u$ -substitution  $u = 1 + \theta^2$ , we see that  $\int \frac{\theta}{1 + \theta^2} \, d\theta = \frac{1}{2} \ln |1 + \theta^2| + C$ . Therefore, we have...

$$\int \operatorname{arccot} \theta \, d\theta = \theta \operatorname{arccot} \theta + \frac{1}{2} \ln |1 + \theta^2| + C$$

**Check-In 01/23.** (True/False) The integral  $\int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) \, dx$  is a ‘looping’ integral.

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. Recall that integrals whose integrand is the product of an exponential function with  $\sin x$  or  $\cos x$  ‘loop.’ We can see this directly: choose  $u = \sin(3x)$ . Using

the ‘box method’, we have...

$\sin(3x)$	$2e^{x/2}$
$3 \cos(3x)$	$e^{x/2}$

Therefore, we have...

$$\int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx = 2e^{x/2} \sin(3x) - \int 6e^{x/2} \cos(3x) dx$$

But this integral on the right also requires integration-by-parts: we choose  $u = \cos(3x)$  and then...

$\cos(3x)$	$12e^{x/2}$
$-3 \sin(3x)$	$6e^{x/2}$

So then we have...

$$\begin{aligned} \int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx &= 2e^{x/2} \sin(3x) - \int 6e^{x/2} \cos(3x) dx \\ &= 2e^{x/2} \sin(3x) - \left( 12e^{x/2} \cos(3x) - \int -36e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx \right) \\ &= 2e^{x/2} \sin(3x) - 12e^{x/2} \cos(3x) + \int -36e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx \\ &= 2e^{x/2} \sin(3x) - 12e^{x/2} \cos(3x) - 36 \int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx \end{aligned}$$

Observe that we have ‘looped’—obtaining a multiple of the original integral on the right. Adding  $36 \int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx$  to both sides, we have...

$$37 \int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx = 2e^{x/2} \sin(3x) - 12e^{x/2} \cos(3x)$$

Therefore, we have...

$$\int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx = \frac{2e^{x/2} \sin(3x) - 12e^{x/2} \cos(3x)}{37} + C$$

We can shortcut this work by adjusting tabular integration:

$u$	$dv$
$\sin(3x)$	$e^{x/2}$
$3 \cos(3x)$	$2e^{x/2}$
$-9 \sin(3x)$	$4e^{x/2}$

Therefore, we have...

$$\begin{aligned}\int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx &= 2e^{x/2} - 12e^{x/2} \cos(3x) - 36 \int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx \\ 37 \int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx &= 2e^{x/2} - 12e^{x/2} \cos(3x) \\ \int e^{x/2} \sin(3x) dx &= \frac{2e^{x/2} \sin(3x) - 12e^{x/2} \cos(3x)}{37} + C\end{aligned}$$

**Check-In 01/28.** (True/False) To integrate  $\int \cos^8 \theta \sin^5 \theta d\theta$ , one should choose  $u = \cos \theta$ .

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. Observe that if we choose  $u = \cos \theta$ , then  $\cos^8 \theta$  becomes  $u^8$ . We know  $du$  will then produce a  $\sin \theta$ —specifically  $-\sin \theta$ . This ‘uses’ one of the  $\sin \theta$ ’s in the integrand. This leaves  $\sin^4 \theta$  remaining in the integrand. But we can replace even powers of  $\sin \theta$  in terms of  $\cos \theta$ . So we can carry out this substitution. Observe that if  $u = \cos \theta$ , then  $du = -\sin \theta d\theta$ . But then using the fact that  $\sin^2 \theta = 1 - \cos^2 \theta$  (so that  $\sin^4 \theta = (\sin^2 \theta)^2 = (1 - \cos^2 \theta)^2$ ), we have...

$$\begin{aligned}\int \cos^8 \theta \sin^5 \theta d\theta &= \int \cos^8 \theta \sin^4 \theta \cdot \sin \theta d\theta \\ &= - \int \cos^8 \theta \sin^4 \theta \cdot -\sin \theta d\theta \\ &= - \int \cos^8 \theta (1 - \cos^2 \theta)^2 \cdot -\sin \theta d\theta \\ &= - \int u^8 (1 - u^2)^2 du \\ &= - \int u^8 (1 - 2u^2 + u^4) du \\ &= \int -u^8 + 2u^{10} - u^{12} du \\ &= -\frac{u^9}{9} + \frac{2u^{11}}{11} - \frac{u^{13}}{13} + C \\ &= -\frac{\cos^9 \theta}{9} + \frac{2 \cos^{11} \theta}{11} - \frac{\cos^{13} \theta}{13} + C\end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, observe that if we had chosen  $u = \sin \theta$ , then  $\sin^5 \theta$  becomes  $u^5$ . We know that  $du$  produces a  $\cos \theta$ . This ‘uses’ one of the  $\cos \theta$ ’s in the integrand. This leaves  $\cos^7 \theta$  remaining

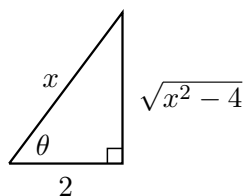
in the integrand. However, we can only replace even powers of  $\cos \theta$  in terms of  $\sin \theta$  using  $\cos^2 \theta = 1 - \sin^2 \theta$ . So without using other identities or using other techniques, we cannot ‘simply’ choose  $u = \sin \theta$  for this integral.

**Check-In 01/30.** (True/False) To compute  $\int \frac{x^3}{\sqrt{x^2 - 4}} dx$ , one can make the substitution  $x = 2 \sec \theta$ .

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. Observe we have the term  $x^2 - 4$ , which resembles a term from the Pythagorean Theorem. For a right triangle, we know that  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$ . This implies that  $a^2 = c^2 - b^2$ , which is  $x^2 - 4$  if  $c^2 = x^2$  and  $b^2 = 4$ , i.e.  $c = x$  and  $b = 2$ . We construct a triangle with  $c = x$  and  $b = 2$ . This only gives two possibilities:



In the first, we would have  $\cos \theta = \frac{2}{x}$ , which implies that  $x = \frac{2}{\cos \theta} = 2 \sec \theta$ . This is the given substitution. In the second, we would have  $\sin \theta = \frac{2}{x}$ , which implies that  $x = \frac{2}{\sin \theta} = 2 \csc \theta$ . Choosing the former substitution, we would have  $x = 2 \sec \theta$ , so that  $dx = 2 \sec \theta \tan \theta$ . Calling the vertical side  $s$  and using the Pythagorean Theorem, we see that  $2^2 + s^2 = x^2$ , i.e.  $4 + s^2 = x^2$ . But then  $s = \sqrt{x^2 - 4}$ . This gives us the following triangle:



We need to find  $x^3$  and  $\sqrt{x^2 - 4}$ . Because  $x = 2 \sec \theta$ , we know that  $x^3 = (2 \sec \theta)^3 = 2^3 \sec^3 \theta$ . To find  $\sqrt{x^2 - 4}$ , observe that  $\tan \theta = \frac{\sqrt{x^2 - 4}}{2}$ , which implies that  $\sqrt{x^2 - 4} = 2 \tan \theta$ . Therefore, we have...

$$\int \frac{x^3}{\sqrt{x^2 - 4}} dx = \int \frac{2^3 \sec^3 \theta}{2 \tan \theta} \cdot 2 \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta = \int 8 \sec^4 \theta d\theta$$

Now using the fact that  $\tan^2 \theta + 1 = \sec^2 \theta$ , we know that

$$\sec^4 \theta = (\sec^2 \theta)^2 = (\tan^2 \theta + 1)^2 = \tan^4 \theta + 2 \tan^2 \theta + 1$$

But then...

$$\int 8 \sec^4 \theta d\theta = \int 8 \sec^2 \theta \sec^2 \theta d\theta = \int 8 \sec^2 \theta (\tan^2 \theta + 1) d\theta = \int 8 (\tan^2 \theta + 1) \cdot \sec^2 \theta d\theta$$

Now letting  $u = \tan \theta$ , we have  $du = \sec^2 \theta d\theta$ . But then...

$$\int 8 (\tan^2 \theta + 1) \cdot \sec^2 \theta d\theta = \int 8 (u^2 + 1) du = 8 \int (u^2 + 1) du = 8 \left( \frac{u^3}{3} + u \right) + C$$

Replacing  $u$ , we have...

$$8 \left( \frac{u^3}{3} + u \right) + C = 8 \left( \frac{\tan^3 \theta}{3} + \tan \theta \right) + C$$

But from the triangle, we know that  $\tan \theta = \frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{2}$ . Therefore, we have...

$$8 \left( \frac{\tan^3 \theta}{3} + \tan \theta \right) + C = 8 \left( \frac{1}{3} \cdot \left( \frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{2} \right)^3 + \frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{2} \right) + C$$

If we simplify this, we have...

$$\begin{aligned} & 8 \left( \frac{1}{3} \cdot \left( \frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{2} \right)^3 + \frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{2} \right) + C \\ & 8 \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{2} \left( \frac{1}{3} \cdot \left( \frac{\sqrt{x^2-4}}{2} \right)^2 + 1 \right) + C \\ & 4\sqrt{x^2-4} \left( \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{x^2-4}{4} + 1 \right) + C \\ & 4\sqrt{x^2-4} \left( \frac{x^2-4}{12} + 1 \right) + C \\ & 4\sqrt{x^2-4} \left( \frac{x^2-4}{12} + \frac{12}{12} \right) + C \\ & 4\sqrt{x^2-4} \left( \frac{x^2+8}{12} \right) + C \\ & \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{x^2-4} (x^2+8) + C \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have...

$$\int \frac{x^3}{\sqrt{x^2-4}} dx = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{x^2-4} (x^2+8) + C$$

**Check-In 02/04.** (True/False) The rational function  $\frac{x^6-4x}{(x-1)(x+2)(x^2+4)}$  can be decomposed as

$$\frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{x+2} + \frac{Cx+D}{x^2+4}.$$

**Solution.** The statement is *false*. We know that given a rational function has a partial fraction decomposition given in the ‘traditional’ way so long as the degree of the numerator is *less* than the degree of the denominator. Observe that the degree of the numerator in the original function is 6 while the degree of the denominator is  $1 + 1 + 2 = 4$ . So, this cannot be broken down in the ‘traditional’ way. Alternatively, find the common denominator of  $(x-1)(x+2)(x^2+4)$  for the given decomposition, observe that the numerator will have at most degree 4, which could not possibly yield the numerator of  $x^6-4x$  with degree 6. One would first need to long divide  $x^6-4x$  by

$(x-1)(x+2)(x^2+4)$  to find the quotient and remainder before trying to give a partial fraction decomposition. Observe...

$$(x-1)(x+2)(x^2+4) = (x^2+x-2)(x^2+4) = x^4+x^3+2x^2+4x-8$$

But then...

$$\begin{array}{r} x^4+x^3+2x^2+4x-8 \overline{) \begin{array}{r} x^6 \phantom{-x^5-2x^4-4x^3+8x^2} -4x \\ -x^6-x^5-2x^4-4x^3+8x^2 \\ \hline -x^5-2x^4-4x^3+8x^2-4x \\ x^5+x^4+2x^3+4x^2-8x \\ \hline -x^4-2x^3+12x^2-12x \\ x^4+x^3+2x^2+4x-8 \\ \hline -x^3+14x^2-8x-8 \end{array}} \end{array}$$

Therefore, we have...

$$\frac{x^6-4x}{(x-1)(x+2)(x^2+4)} = x^2-x-1 + \frac{-x^3+14x^2-8x-8}{x^4+x^3+2x^2+4x-8} = x^2-x-1 + \frac{-x^3+14x^2-8x-8}{(x-1)(x+2)(x^2+4)}$$

We can then find the 'traditional' partial fraction decomposition of the resulting rational function above because the degree of the numerator, which is 3, is *less* than the degree of the denominator, which is 4. We would have...

$$\frac{-x^3+14x^2-8x-8}{(x-1)(x+2)(x^2+4)} = \frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{x+2} + \frac{Cx+D}{x^2+4}$$

Using Heaviside's Method/Cover-Up Method, we can find  $A$  and  $B$  'instantly':

$$\begin{aligned} A &= \frac{-1^3+14(1^2)-8(1)-8}{(1+2)(1^2+4)} = -\frac{3}{15} = -\frac{1}{5} \\ B &= \frac{-(-2^3)+14(-2)^2-8(-2)-8}{(-2-1)((-2)^2+4)} = \frac{72}{-24} = -3 \end{aligned}$$

To find  $C, D$ , we can get a common denominator:

$$\frac{A}{x-1} + \frac{B}{x+2} + \frac{Cx+D}{x^2+4} = \frac{A(x+2)(x^2+4) + B(x-1)(x^2+4) + (Cx+D)(x-1)(x+2)}{(x-1)(x+2)(x^2+4)}$$

Using the fact that the rational functions now have equal denominators, we can equate their numerators:

$$\begin{aligned} -x^3+14x^2-8x-8 &= A(x+2)(x^2+4) + B(x-1)(x^2+4) + (Cx+D)(x-1)(x+2) \\ -x^3+14x^2-8x-8 &= -\frac{1}{5}(x+2)(x^2+4) - 3(x-1)(x^2+4) + (Cx+D)(x-1)(x+2) \end{aligned}$$

We multiply the last equation by 5 to clear fractions:

$$5(-x^3+14x^2-8x-8) = -(x+2)(x^2+4) - 15(x-1)(x^2+4) + 5(Cx+D)(x-1)(x+2)$$

Rather than expand this and relate coefficients to obtain a system of equations, we will simply substitute two  $x$ -values (ones not used in Heaviside's Method): using  $x = 0$ , we have...

$$\begin{aligned} 5(-x^3 + 14x^2 - 8x - 8) &= -(x+2)(x^2+4) - 15(x-1)(x^2+4) + 5(Cx+D)(x-1)(x+2) \\ -40 &= 52 - 10D \\ -92 &= -10D \\ \frac{46}{5} &= D \end{aligned}$$

and using  $x = -1$  and the value for  $D$  above, we have...

$$\begin{aligned} 5(-x^3 + 14x^2 - 8x - 8) &= -(x+2)(x^2+4) + 15(x-1)(x^2+4) + 5(Cx+D)(x-1)(x+2) \\ 75 &= 145 - 10(-C+D) \\ -70 &= 10C - 10D \\ -70 &= 10C - 10 \cdot \frac{46}{5} \\ -70 &= 10C - 92 \\ 22 &= 10C \\ \frac{11}{5} &= C \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have...

$$\frac{x^6 - 4x}{(x-1)(x+2)(x^2+4)} = x^2 - x - 1 + \frac{-1/5}{x-1} + \frac{-3}{x+2} + \frac{\frac{11}{5}x + \frac{46}{5}}{x^2+4} = x^2 - x - 1 - \frac{1}{5(x-1)} - \frac{3}{x+2} + \frac{11x+46}{5(x^2+4)}$$

**Check-In 02/06.** (True/False)

$$\int \frac{5}{x+1} - \frac{1}{(x+1)^2} - \frac{x+1}{x^2+1} dx = 5 \ln(x+1) - \frac{1}{x+1} - \frac{1}{2} \ln|x^2+1| + \arctan x + K$$

**Solution.** The statement is *false*. First, we know that...

$$\int \frac{5}{x+1} dx = 5 \ln|x+1| + K$$

The integral of the second term is also incorrect:

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

Moreover, the third term is also incorrect as the negative has been improperly distributed:

$$-\int \frac{x+1}{x^2+1} dx = -\int \frac{x}{x^2+1} + \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = -\left(\frac{1}{2} \ln|x^2+1| + \arctan x\right) + K = -\frac{1}{2} \ln|x^2+1| - \arctan x + K$$

**Check-In 02/11.** (True/False) The integral  $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{\sqrt[5]{x^{12}}}$  converges.

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. Recall that  $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{x^p}$  converges if  $p > 1$  and diverges otherwise. Observe that  $\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{\sqrt[5]{x^{12}}} = \int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{x^{12/5}}$ . Because the power of  $x$ ,  $\frac{12}{5}$ , is greater than 1, we know that this integral converges. We can see this directly:

$$\int_1^\infty \frac{dx}{\sqrt[5]{x^{12}}} := \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \int_1^N \frac{dx}{x^{12/5}} = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{5}{7x^{7/5}} \Big|_1^N = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} -\frac{5}{7N^{7/5}} - \frac{-5}{7(1^{7/5})} = 0 + \frac{5}{7} = \frac{5}{7}$$

Therefore, the integral converges to  $\frac{5}{7}$ .

**Check-In 02/20.** (True/False) Considering the infinite series  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{n-1}{n^3}$  using the Divergence Test, because  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n-1}{n^3} = 0$ , the series converges.

**Solution.** The statement is *false*. The Divergence Test can *never* determine that a series converges; otherwise, they would have called it the Convergence Test. The Divergence Test states that for a series  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty a_n$ , the series diverges if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \neq 0$ . If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ , we know zero information about whether the series converges or diverges. Because  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n-1}{n^3} = 0$ , we cannot yet determine whether the series  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{n-1}{n^3}$  converges or diverges. In fact, Because for 'large'  $n$ ,  $\frac{n-1}{n^3} \approx \frac{n}{n^3} = \frac{1}{n^2}$  and the fact that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges, we suspect that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{n-1}{n^3}$  converges.

**Check-In 02/25.** (True/False) The series  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty 5 \left( \frac{2^{2n+1}}{3^n} \right)$  diverges.

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. This series is geometric, i.e. the series can be put in the form  $\sum ar^n$ . Observe that...

$$\sum_{n=1}^\infty 5 \left( \frac{2^{2n+1}}{3^n} \right) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty 5 \left( \frac{2^{2n} \cdot 2}{3^n} \right) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty 10 \left( \frac{(2^2)^n}{3^n} \right) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty 10 \left( \frac{2^2}{3} \right)^n = \sum_{n=1}^\infty 10 \left( \frac{4}{3} \right)^n$$

Observe that this series is geometric with  $a = 10$  and  $r = \frac{4}{3}$ . Because  $|r| = \frac{4}{3} \geq 1$ , the series diverges by the Geometric Series Test.



**Check-In 02/27.** (True/False) The series  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n^3-5}}$  diverges.

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. Observe that for 'large'  $n$ ,  $\frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n^3-5}} \approx \frac{n^2}{\sqrt{n^3}} = \frac{n^2}{n^{3/2}} = n^{1/2}$ . Because the series  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \sqrt{n}$  diverges (by the Divergence Test), we suspect that the series  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n^3-5}}$  diverges. We can prove this with the Direct Comparison Test:

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n^3-5}} > \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{\sqrt{n^3}} = \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \sqrt{n}$$

Because  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{n} = \infty \neq 0$ , the series  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \sqrt{n}$  diverges by the Divergence Test. Therefore,

$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n^3-5}}$  diverges by the Direct Comparison Test. Alternatively, we know that because

$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{n} = \infty \neq 0$ , the series  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \sqrt{n}$  diverges by the Divergence Test. But then because...

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n^3-5}}}{\sqrt{n}} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n} \cdot \sqrt{n^3-5}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n^4-5n}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n^4-5n}} \cdot \frac{1/n^2}{1/n^2} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}}{\frac{\sqrt{n^4-5n}}{n^2}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}}{\frac{\sqrt{n^4-5n}}{\sqrt{n^4}}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}}{\sqrt{\frac{n^4-5n}{n^4}}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + \frac{1}{n^2}}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{5}{n^3}}} \\ &= \frac{1+0}{\sqrt{1-0}} \\ &= 1 < \infty \end{aligned}$$

Because this limit is not also 0, by the Limit Comparison Test, the series  $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+1}{\sqrt{n^3-5}}$  also diverges.

**Check-In 03/04.** (True/False) The series  $\sum_{n=-5}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6}$  converges.

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. Because for ‘large’  $n$ ,  $\frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6} \approx \frac{n^2}{2^n}$  and the fact that  $2^n$  grows much faster than  $n^2$ , we suspect that  $\sum_{n=-5}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n}$  converges. Hence, we suspect  $\sum_{n=-5}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6}$  converges. Because the series  $\sum_{n=-5}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6}$  converges if and only if the series  $\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6}$  (whose terms are all positive),<sup>1</sup> it suffices to show that  $\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6}$  converges. We know...

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

Therefore, by the Ratio Test, the series  $\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n}$  converges absolutely. Alternatively, we have...

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{n^2}{2^n} \right|^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{(\sqrt[n]{n})^2}{2} = \frac{1^2}{2} = \frac{1}{2} < 1$$

Therefore, by the Root Test, the series  $\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n}$  converges absolutely. But then...

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6}}{\frac{n^2}{2^n}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n(n^2+5)}{n^2(2^n-6)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2^n}{2^n-6} \cdot \frac{n^2+5}{n^2} = 1 \cdot 1 = 1 < \infty$$

Because this limit is also not 0, the series  $\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6}$  converges by the Limit Comparison Test. Alternatively, using the fact that  $2^{n-1} > 6$  for  $n \geq 4$ , we have...

$$\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6} < \sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+5n^2}{2^n-2^{n-1}} = \sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{6n^2}{2^{n-1}} = 12 \sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n^2}{2^n}$$

Therefore, the series  $\sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \frac{n^2+5}{2^n-6}$  converges by the Direct Comparison Test.

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<sup>1</sup>We only need  $n \geq 3$  for the Limit Comparison Test. However, we need  $n \geq 4$  for our Limit Comparison Test.

**Check-In 03/06.** (True/False) The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5n-2}{n^3+1}$  converges absolutely.

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. For large  $n$ , we have  $\frac{5n-2}{n^3+1} \approx \frac{5n}{n^3} = \frac{5}{n^2}$ . Because the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges, we suspect this series converges. First, observe that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2}$  converges by the  $p$ -test with  $p = 2 > 1$ . But then...

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{5n-2}{n^3+1}}{\frac{1}{n^2}} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2(5n-2)}{n^3+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5n^3-2n^2}{n^3+1} = \frac{5}{1} = \underbrace{5}_{\neq 0} < \infty$$

Therefore, by the Limit Comparison Test, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5n-2}{n^3+1}$  converges. Alternatively, observe that...

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

Therefore, by the Direct Comparison Test, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5n-2}{n^3+1}$  converges.

But all the terms of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5n-2}{n^3+1}$  are positive. [Observe that  $n^3+1 > 0$  for  $n \geq 1$  and  $5n-2 > 0$  so long as  $n > \frac{2}{5}$ .] Therefore,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{5n-2}{n^3+1}$  converges absolutely.

**Check-In 03/18.** (True/False) The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \frac{n+1}{2n+3} \right)^n$  converges.

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. Observe that...

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \left( \frac{n+1}{2n+3} \right)^n \right|^{1/n} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n+1}{2n+3} = \frac{1}{2} < 1$$

Therefore, by the Root Test, the series converges absolutely. Alternatively, we can use the Ratio Test:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left( \frac{(n+1)+1}{2(n+1)+3} \right)^{n+1}}{\left( \frac{n+1}{2n+3} \right)^n} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left( \frac{n+2}{2n+5} \right)^{n+1}}{\left( \frac{n+1}{2n+3} \right)^n} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left( \frac{n+2}{2n+5} \right)^n \left( \frac{n+2}{2n+5} \right)}{\left( \frac{n+1}{2n+3} \right)^n} \\
 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left( \frac{n+2}{2n+5} \right)^n}{\left( \frac{n+1}{2n+3} \right)^n} \cdot \frac{n+2}{2n+5} \\
 &= \left( \frac{\frac{n+2}{2n+5}}{\frac{n+1}{2n+3}} \right)^n \cdot \frac{n+2}{2n+5} \\
 &= \left( \frac{(n+2)(2n+3)}{(2n+5)(n+1)} \right)^n \cdot \frac{n+2}{2n+5} \\
 &= 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2} < 1
 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, the series converges absolutely.<sup>2</sup>

**Check-In 03/27.** (True/False) If a power series has an interval of convergence of  $(-1, 3]$ , then the center is  $x = 1$  and the radius of convergence is  $R = 2$ .

**Solution.** The statement is *true*. We know that the center of the interval must be  $c = \frac{3 + (-1)}{2} = \frac{2}{2} = 1$ . Therefore, the center is  $x = 1$ . The radius of convergence is half the width of the interval.

But then the radius of convergence is  $R = \frac{3 - (-1)}{2} = \frac{3 + 1}{2} = \frac{4}{2} = 2$ .

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<sup>2</sup>Note. To show that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{(n+2)(2n+3)}{(2n+5)(n+1)} \right)^n = 1$ , let  $L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{(n+2)(2n+3)}{(2n+5)(n+1)} \right)^n$ . But then  $\ln L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \ln \left( \frac{(n+2)(2n+3)}{(2n+5)(n+1)} \right)^n =$   
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \ln \left( \frac{(n+2)(2n+3)}{(2n+5)(n+1)} \right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln \left( \frac{(n+2)(2n+3)}{(2n+5)(n+1)} \right)}{1/n} \stackrel{\text{L.H.}}{=} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^2(4n+7)}{4n^4 + 28n^3 + 71n^2 + 77n + 30} = 0$ . But then  $\ln L = 0$ , so that  $L = e^0 = 1$ .