

Figure 1: Graph of damped cosine wave

## Solutions for the Texas A&M Freshman-Sophomore Contest 2017

First year student version

There are two pages, six problems. The first three problems are common to both versions.

- 1. Let  $f(x) = \cos(x)e^{-x^2/(4\pi^2)}$ .
  - (a) Sketch the graph of f(x) over the interval  $[-4\pi, 4\pi]$ .
  - (b) Find the derivative of f(x) at  $x = \pi$  and simplify fully. The product rule and the chain rule come into play because f is the product of  $\cos x$  and  $e^{-x^2/4\pi^2}$ . The derivative works out to  $(-x\cos x/(2\pi^2) \sin x)e^{-x^2/4\pi^2}$ . Setting  $x = \pi$  zeroes out the sine term and the answer is  $\frac{1}{2\pi}e^{-1/4}$ .
- 2. The identity  $\cos(2t) = 2\cos^2(t) 1$  has some curious consequences.
  - (a) Express  $\cos(4t)$  in terms of  $\cos t$ . It's  $8\cos^4(t) 8\cos^2 t + 1$ .
  - (b) Sketch the graph of  $y = x^4 x^2 + \frac{1}{8}$  on the interval  $-1 \le x \le 1$ , and find the minimum value of y and where it occurs. The minimum value is -1/8 because of the first two parts, which imply that this polynomial is  $(1/8) \cos(4 \cos^{-1} x)$ . The minimum value occurs at  $x = \pm 1/\sqrt{2}$  because the derivative is  $2x(2x^2 - 1)$  which is zero at those places and at zero. But at 0, the original polynomial evaluates to positive. Because of the tie-in with the cosine function, the graph runs back and forth between -1/8 and 1/8; the maximum occurs at 0 and at /pm1, while the minimum occurs at  $\pm 1/\sqrt{2}$ . Polynomials that agree on [-1,1] with  $\cos(n \cos^{-1} x)$  are called *Chebyshev* polynomials and have all sorts of interesting properties, not just the one that defines them.



Figure 2: Graph of Cheybshev-type polynomial

3. Take as given the power series expansion

$$e^z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^n}{n!}.$$

Find in closed form

$$A = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k}{(2k)!} \frac{(2k-1)!}{(k-1)! 2^{2k-1}}$$

The (2k-1)! in the numerator cancels all of the (2k)! in the denominator except for its final factor 2k. Putting the 2 here with the  $2^{2k-1}$  gives that

$$A = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^k 2^{-2k}}{k!} = e^{-1/4},$$

this last by the series expansion for  $e^z$  specialized to the case z = -1/4.

- 4. Let  $g(x) = x + x^2/2^2 + x^4/4^4 + x^8/8^8 + \cdots$ .
  - (a) Determine with proof the radius of convergence of the series defining g(x). The radius is infinity. That is, the series converges for all values of x. There are several ways to prove this. The ratio of the k + 1th nonzero term to the kth nonzero term is

$$r_k = \frac{x^{2^{k+1}}}{2^{(k+1)2^{k+1}}} \frac{2^{k2^k}}{x^{2^k}} = \frac{x^{2^k}}{2^{(k+2)2^k}} = \left(\frac{x}{2^{j+2}}\right)^{2^k}.$$

The last expression here is the  $2^k$  power of an expression which is going to zero for any fixed x, as k tends to infinity. So the limit of the ratio is zero, whatever the value of x, and thus by the ratio test for ordinary series, this series converges for all x and the radius of convergence is infinite.

The root test says, for the case at hand, that if the coefficient of  $x^n$  is  $a_n$  and  $|a_n|^{1/n}$  goes to 0, then the radius of convergence is infinite.

Here, when n is not a power of 2, the coefficient is exactly 0 which is more than sufficient. If  $n = 2^k$ , then the coefficient is

$$a_{2^k} = (2^k)^{-2^k} = 2^{k2^k}.$$

The  $2^k$ th root of this is  $2^{-k}$ . In other words, for the interesting values of n,  $a_n^{1/n} = 1/n$ . That of course goes to zero.

Another proof would be that the coefficients are either zero, or when they are not, they have the form  $n^{-n}$  which is less than or equal to 1/n! because  $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdots n \leq n \cdot n \cdots n$ . Since the series for  $e^x$  converges for all x, and since the coefficients are all positive and smaller in the case at hand, this series too converges everywhere.

(b) Find, to six decimal places accuracy, g'(1). The derivative of a power series can be taken term by term. Here, the derivative is  $1 + 2x/4 + 4x^3/256 + 8x^7/(8^8) + \cdots$  and the next term is just  $16^{-15} < 10^{-10}$  and all subsequent terms are less than half the one that came before so the total of what's not included in the initial arithmetic is less than  $2 \cdot 10^{-10}$ . Now

1 + 0.5 + 0.015625 +too little to matter = 1.515625.

- (c) Find the integer nearest g(6). The first few terms are 6, 9, and 81/16 = 5 + 1/16. The rest are collectively too small to matter. The first one not part of this arithmetic is  $(3/4)^4$  which is about 1/10, and the ones that follow are each less than half the previous so in total they add less than 1/5. Thus the nearest integer is 20.
- (d) Prove that there are infinitely many positive integers N so that  $g(N) > 2^{N/2}$ . If N is a power of 2, then the expression for g(N) includes the term  $N^{N/2}/(N/2)^{N/2}$  as the term right before the term  $N^N/N^N = 1$ . But  $N^{N/2}/((N/2)^{N/2}) = 2^{N/2}$ . The rest of the series makes the series total greater than  $2^{N/2}$ .
- (e) Prove that there is a constant C so that  $G(N) < 2^{CN}$  for all positive N. As noted earlier,  $g(x) < e^x$ . Thus  $g(x) < 2^{x/\ln(2)}$ . Take  $C = 1/\ln(2)$ .
- 5. Graph the curve  $y = (1 x)/\sqrt{1 x^2}$  on the interval [0, 1) and find the volume of the solid enclosed by rotating that curve about the x axis. The function can be simplified to  $\sqrt{(1 x)/(1 + x)}$  which makes it easier to see what is going on. When x = 0, the function is at 1, and it decreases until when x = 1, it's at 0.

The volume involved is  $\int_0^1 \pi(1-x)/(1+x) dx$  because the disk method involves  $\pi r^2$  and that squares the square root in the formula. Now with the substitution u = 1 + x, the numerator is 2 - u so the volume is  $\pi \int_1^2 (2-u)/u \, du = \pi (2\ln(2)-1)$ .



Figure 3: Graph of curve for problem 5

6. Define  $\zeta(s)$  by

$$\zeta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-s}.$$

Thus, for instance,  $\zeta(2) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-2}$ .

- (a) For which real numbers s does the series defining  $\zeta(s)$  converge? It converges for s > 1. Compare the series to the improper integral in the next part of the problem. If you cut that integral into pieces of length 1, each piece comes to a value comparable to the corresponding term in the series.
- (b) Let  $f(s) = \int_1^\infty x^{-s} dx$ . Find a closed-form expression for f(s) when the improper integral converges. The antiderivative of  $x^a$  is  $(1/(a + 1))x^{a+1}$  except when a = -1. Here, a = -s so that rule gives  $(1/(1 s))x^{1-s}$ . Evaluated at 1 and infinity that works out to 1/(s-1), which is the answer.
- (c) Prove that this chain of statements is true for  $n \ge 1$  and s > 0:

$$n^{-s} - \int_{x=n}^{n+1} x^{-s} \, dx < n^{-s} - (n+1)^{-s} = s \int_{x=n}^{n+1} x^{-s-1} \, dx < sn^{-s-1}$$

The first inequality holds because on the interval (n, n+1), x < n+1so  $x^{-s} > (n+1)^{-s}$  so subtracting  $x^{-s}$  leaves less than subtracting merely  $(n+1)^{-s}$ . The second claim is true because of the antiderivative rule noted already, multiplied by s. The final inequality is true because on the interval (n, n+1),  $x^{-s-1} < n^{-s-1}$  and the integral of that over [n, n+1] is just  $n^{-s-1}$ .