

### Single-Variable Calculus

1. Using a substitution with  $u = 2x$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} e^{-2x} dx = -\frac{1}{2}e^{-2x} \Big|_0^{\infty} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

2. Using parts with  $u = x$  and  $dv = e^{-2x} dx$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} xe^{-2x} dx = -\frac{1}{2}xe^{-2x} \Big|_0^{\infty} + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-2x} dx = 0 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

3. Using parts with  $u = x^2$  and  $dv = e^{-2x} dx$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-2x} dx = -\frac{1}{2}x^2 e^{-2x} \Big|_0^{\infty} + \int_0^{\infty} xe^{-2x} dx = 0 + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

4. Using parts with  $u = x^3$  and  $dv = e^{-2x} dx$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^3 e^{-2x} dx = -\frac{1}{2}x^3 e^{-2x} \Big|_0^{\infty} + \frac{3}{2} \int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-2x} dx = 0 + \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{4} = \frac{3}{8}.$$

5. Using a substitution with  $u = x^{1/3}$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^{-2/3} e^{-x^{1/3}} dx = \int_0^{\infty} 3e^{-u} du = -3e^{-u} \Big|_0^{\infty} = 3.$$

6. Using a substitution with  $u = x^{1/a}$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^{1/a-1} e^{-x^{1/a}} dx = \int_0^{\infty} ae^{-u} du = -ae^{-u} \Big|_0^{\infty} = a.$$

7. Using a substitution with  $u = x^{1/3}$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^{1/3} e^{-2x^{1/3}} dx = \int_0^{\infty} 3u^3 e^{-2u} du = 3 \cdot \frac{3}{8} = \frac{9}{8}.$$

8. Using a substitution with  $u = x^2$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} xe^{-x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} du = -\frac{1}{2}e^{-u} \Big|_0^{\infty} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

9. Using a substitution with  $u = ax^2$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} xe^{-ax^2} dx = \frac{1}{2a} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-u} du = -\frac{1}{2a}e^{-u} \Big|_0^{\infty} = \frac{1}{2a}.$$

10. Using a substitution with  $u = 1 - x$  gives

$$\int_0^1 x(1-x)^3 dx = - \int_1^0 (1-u)u^3 du = \int_0^1 u^3(1-u) du = \int_0^1 u^3 - u^4 du = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{5} = \frac{1}{20}.$$

11. Using a substitution with  $u = 1 - x$  gives

$$\int_0^1 x^2(1-x)^3 dx = - \int_1^0 (1-u)^2 u^3 du = \int_0^1 u^3(1-u)^2 du = \int_0^1 u^3 - 2u^4 + u^5 du = \frac{1}{4} - \frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{1}{60}.$$

12. Recognizing the antiderivative directly gives

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \arctan(x) \Big|_{-\infty}^{\infty} = \frac{\pi}{2} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \pi.$$

13. Using a substitution with  $u = x^2 + 1$  gives

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{x}{x^2+1} dx = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{1}{2u} du = \frac{1}{2} \log|u| \Big|_1^{\infty} = \infty.$$

Thus, the value of this integral does not exist as a real number.

14. By writing

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{x}{x^2+1} dx = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x}{x^2+1} dx + \int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{x}{x^2+1} dx = \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x}{x^2+1} dx - \int_0^{\infty} \frac{x}{x^2+1} dx = \infty - \infty,$$

we see that the value of this integral does not exist. (Recall that  $\infty - \infty$  is a so-called *indeterminant form*). Note that the integrand is an odd function, and so we might be tempted to say that the integral of an odd function over a symmetric interval is 0. While this fact is true for symmetric *finite* intervals  $(-a, a)$ , we need to be careful when the symmetric interval is  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . With this particular integral there is an infinite area above the axis to the right of 0 as well as an infinite area below the axis to the left of 0. Again, we might be tempted to say that these areas are *equal* and so they cancel out giving a value of 0 to the integral. But  $\infty$  is not a real number and cannot be manipulated like that. We cannot say that  $\infty - \infty = 0$ . Thus, we must conclude that the value of this integral does not exist.

15. Recognizing the antiderivative directly gives

$$\int_a^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^3} dx = -\frac{1}{2}x^{-2} \Big|_a^{\infty} = \frac{1}{2a^2}.$$

16. Recognizing the antiderivative directly gives

$$\int_a^{\infty} \frac{1}{x^b} dx = -\frac{1}{b-1}x^{-(b-1)} \Big|_a^{\infty} = \frac{a^{1-b}}{b-1}.$$

## Multi-Variable Calculus

1. If  $f(x, y) = x^2$  and  $R = \{0 < x < y < 1\}$ , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \int_x^1 x^2 \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 x^2 \left( \int_x^1 1 \, dy \right) \, dx = \int_0^1 x^2(1-x) \, dx = \frac{1}{12}.$$

2. If  $f(x, y) = x^2$  and  $R = \{0 < y < x < 1\}$ , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^x x^2 \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 x^2 \left( \int_0^x 1 \, dy \right) \, dx = \int_0^1 x^2 \cdot x \, dx = \frac{1}{4}.$$

3. If  $f(x, y) = y^2$  and  $R = \{0 < x < y < 1\}$ , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^y y^2 \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 y^2 \left( \int_0^y 1 \, dx \right) \, dy = \int_0^1 y^2 \cdot y \, dy = \frac{1}{4}.$$

4. If  $f(x, y) = xy$  and  $R = \{0 < y < x < 1\}$ , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^x xy \, dy \, dx = \int_0^1 x \left( \int_0^x y \, dy \right) \, dx = \int_0^1 x \cdot \frac{1}{2}x^2 \, dx = \frac{1}{8}.$$

5. If  $f(x, y) = x + y$  and  $R = \{0 < x < y < 1\}$ , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^y (x + y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \left( \frac{1}{2}x^2 + xy \right) \Big|_{x=0}^{x=y} \, dy = \int_0^1 \frac{1}{2}y^2 + y^2 \, dy = \frac{1}{2}.$$

6. If  $f(x, y) = e^{-2y}$  and  $R = \{0 < x < 2y\}$ , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^\infty \int_0^{2y} e^{-2y} \, dx \, dy = \int_0^\infty 2ye^{-2y} \, dy = \frac{1}{2}.$$

7. If  $f(x, y) = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$  and  $R = \{x^2 + y^2 \leq 1\}$ , then making the change-of-variables to polar coordinates via  $x = r \cos \theta$ ,  $y = r \sin \theta$ ,  $dx \, dy = r \, dr \, d\theta$  gives

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^1 r \cdot r \, dr \, d\theta = 2\pi \int_0^1 r^2 \, dr = \frac{2}{3}\pi.$$

Note that  $R$  describes the region inside the circle of radius 1 centred at the origin. Thus, the limits for  $r$  and  $\theta$  are  $0 \leq r \leq 1$  and  $0 \leq \theta < 2\pi$ . Furthermore, in polar coordinates,  $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} = \sqrt{r^2} = r$ .

8. If  $f(x, y) = xy$  and  $R = \{x^2 + y^2 \leq 1, x > 0, y > 0\}$ , then

$$\iint_R f(x, y) \, dx \, dy = \int_0^1 \int_0^{\pi/2} r \cos \theta \cdot r \sin \theta \cdot r \, dr \, d\theta = \left( \int_0^1 r^3 \, dr \right) \cdot \left( \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1}{2} \sin(2\theta) \, d\theta \right) = \frac{1}{8}.$$

Note that  $R$  describes the region inside the first quadrant of the circle of radius 1 centred at the origin. Thus, the limits for  $r$  and  $\theta$  are  $0 \leq r \leq 1$  and  $0 < \theta < \pi/2$ . Furthermore, in polar coordinates,  $xy = r \cos \theta \cdot r \sin \theta = \frac{r^2}{2} \sin(2\theta)$ .

## Some Sums

1. Recall that if  $r$  satisfies  $-1 < r < 1$ , then

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} r^j = \frac{1}{1-r}$$

gives the value of the geometric series. Thus,

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} 3^{-j} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} (1/3)^j = \frac{1}{1-1/3} = \frac{3}{2}.$$

2. It is a fact that if  $r$  satisfies  $-1 < r < 1$ , then

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} jr^j = \frac{r}{(1-r)^2}.$$

Here is how you prove this fact. Observe that

$$\frac{d}{dr} r^j = jr^{j-1}.$$

Therefore,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} jr^j = r \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} jr^{j-1} = r \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dr} r^j.$$

If we now interchange the derivative and the summation, then we get

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dr} r^j = \frac{d}{dr} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} r^j.$$

However, if we notice that

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} r^j = r^0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} r^j = 1 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} r^j,$$

then we conclude that

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} r^j = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} r^j - 1 = \frac{1}{1-r} - 1 = \frac{r}{1-r}.$$

Putting this back in to the earlier expressions gives

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} jr^j = r \cdot \frac{d}{dr} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} r^j = r \cdot \frac{d}{dr} \left( \frac{r}{1-r} \right) = r \cdot \frac{1}{(1-r)^2} = \frac{r}{(1-r)^2}.$$

Hence, we find

$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j3^{-j} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j(1/3)^j = \frac{1/3}{(1-1/3)^2} = \frac{3}{4}.$$

3. Recall that if  $-\infty < x < \infty$ , then the power series (i.e., Taylor series at 0 or Maclaurin series) for  $e^x$  is

$$e^x = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^j}{j!}.$$

Thus,

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{3^{-j}}{j!} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(1/3)^j}{j!} = e^{1/3}.$$