1. Let  $g(x) = \int_{2021}^{x} (e^t - 2t) dt$ . Compute g'(2021).

Answer: 
$$e^{2021} - 4042$$

**Solution:** By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,  $g'(x) = e^x - 2x$ . So, the answer is  $e^{2021} - 4042$ .

2. Let f(x) = (x+3)(2x+5)(3x+7)(x+1). Compute  $f^{(4)}(5)$ . (Note that  $f^{(4)}(5) = f'''(5)$ .)

## Answer: 144

**Solution:** Note that f(x) is a quartic, so taking the fourth derivative gives us a constant, and we only need to care about the  $x^4$  term. This term ends up being  $6x^4$ , and its fourth derivative is  $6 \cdot 4! = 144$ , our answer.

3. A quadratic function in the form  $x^2 + cx + d$  has vertex (a, b). If this function and its derivative are graphed on the coordinate plane, then they intersect at exactly one point. Compute b.

#### Answer: 1

**Solution:** The quadratic function with vertex (a, b) is  $(x-a)^2 + b$ , and its derivative is 2(x-a). When we set them equal, we expect the resulting equation  $(x-a)^2 + b = 2(x-a)$  to have exactly one solution. Moving all terms to the left side,  $(x-a)^2 - 2(x-a) + b = 0$ , and now we can complete the square:  $((x-a)-1)^2 - 1 + b = 0$ . So  $(x-a-1)^2 = -b+1$ , and for this equation to have exactly one solution, we must have -b+1 = 0, or  $b = \boxed{1}$ .

4. Compute the area of the region of points satisfying the inequalities  $y \leq 4 - \frac{x^2}{9}$ ,  $y \geq \frac{x^2}{9} - 4$ ,  $x \leq 4 - \frac{y^2}{9}$ , and  $x \geq \frac{y^2}{9} - 4$ .

#### Answer: 52

**Solution:** The region enclosed by these parabolas is a square with extra parabola lumps of equal size, with vertices at the intersections of the parabolas at  $(\pm 3, \pm 3)$ . The area of a parabola lump is  $\int_{-3}^{3} ((4 - \frac{x^2}{9}) - 3) dx = 4$ , and the area of the square is  $6^2 = 36$ , so the area of the region is  $36 + 4 \cdot 4 = 52$ .

5. Suppose the following equality holds, where a, b, c are integers and K is the constant of integration:

$$\int \frac{\sin^a(x) - \cos^a(x)}{\sin^b(x)\cos^b(x)} \,\mathrm{d}x = \frac{\csc^c(x)}{c} + \frac{\sec^c(x)}{c} + K$$

If a = 2021, compute a + b + c.

#### Answer: 6060

Solution: We see that

$$\int \frac{\sin^a(x) - \cos^a(x)}{\sin^b(x) \cos^b(x)} \, \mathrm{d}x = \int \left( \frac{\sin^{a-b} x}{\cos^b x} - \frac{\cos^{a-b} x}{\sin^b x} \right) \, \mathrm{d}x \,,$$

and

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \left[ \frac{\csc^c x}{c} + \frac{\sec^c x}{c} \right] = -\csc^c x \cot x + \sec^c x \tan x = -\frac{\cos x}{\sin^{c+1} x} + \frac{\sin x}{\cos^{c+1} x},$$
$$-\frac{\cos x}{\sin^{c+1} x} + \frac{\sin x}{\cos^{c+1} x} = \frac{\sin^{a-b} x}{\cos^b x} - \frac{\cos^{a-b} x}{\sin^b x}.$$

 $\mathbf{so}$ 

This gives us a system of equations

$$\begin{cases} a-b=1, \\ c+1=b. \end{cases}$$

By plugging in a = 2021, we get b = 2020 and c = 2019, so a + b + c = 6060.

6. Let  $x_1 = -4$ , and for  $n \ge 1$ , define  $x_{n+1} = -4^{x_n}$ . Similarly, let  $f_1(x) = \sin(\arccos x)$ , and for  $n \ge 1$ , define  $f_{n+1}(x) = f_1(f_n(x))$ . Compute

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(2^{x_n}).$$

You may assume that this limit exists.

Answer:  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ 

**Solution:** We start by finding  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x_n$ . Say that this limit evaluates to x. We are given that

$$x_{n+1} = -4^{x_n}.$$

Taking the limit of both sides as  $n \to \infty$ ,

 $x = -4^x$ .

Drawing the graphs for these functions, we observe that they intersect only once. Hence, there is only one solution for x. After some guess and check, we find that  $x = -\frac{1}{2}$  works and must be the unique solution.

We now evaluate the desired limit:

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(2^{x_n}) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(2^x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

Note that  $f_1\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ , so it can be shown through induction that  $f_n\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$  for all integers n.

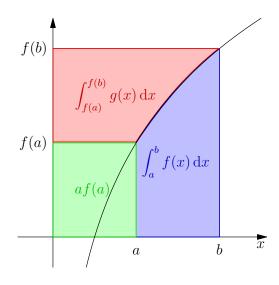
Therefore, we have  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(2^{x_n}) = \left\lfloor \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right\rfloor$ .

7. Let  $c(x) = \frac{e^x + e^{-2x}}{2}$ , defined on the interval  $1 \le x \le 2$ . Let  $c^{-1}(x)$  be the inverse of c(x). Compute

$$\int_{c(1)}^{c(2)} c^{-1}(x) \, \mathrm{d}x \, .$$

Answer:  $\frac{1}{2}e^2 + \frac{5}{4}e^{-4} - \frac{3}{4}e^{-2}$ 

**Solution:** We consider the following identity, which can be derived from a graphical view of the problem below:



Thinking of the integral as an area under the curve, we have:

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) \, \mathrm{d}x + \int_{f(a)}^{f(b)} g(y) \, \mathrm{d}y + af(a) = bf(b),$$

where g and f are inverse functions. Thus,

$$\int_{c(1)}^{c(2)} c^{-1}(x) \, \mathrm{d}x = 2c(2) - c(1) - \int_{1}^{2} c(x) \, \mathrm{d}x$$
$$= e^{2} + e^{-4} - \frac{e + e^{-2}}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \int_{1}^{2} e^{x} + e^{-2x} \, \mathrm{d}x$$
$$= e^{2} + e^{-4} - \frac{e}{2} - \frac{e^{-2}}{2} - \frac{e^{2}}{2} + \frac{e}{2} + \frac{e^{-4}}{4} - \frac{e^{-2}}{4}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2}e^{2} + \frac{5}{4}e^{-4} - \frac{3}{4}e^{-2}.$$

Thus our answer is  $\frac{1}{2}e^2 + \frac{5}{4}e^{-4} - \frac{3}{4}e^{-2}$ .

8. Define

$$f_n(x) = \int_0^x \frac{t^{6n-1}}{1+t^3} \,\mathrm{d}t$$

for positive integers n and real numbers  $0 \le x \le 1$ . We can write  $f_n(x) = c \cdot \log(p(x)) + h_n(x)$ , where p(x) and  $h_n(x)$  are polynomials with real coefficients with p(x) monic (coefficient of the highest degree term is 1), and c is a real number. Compute

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} h_n(1).$$

Answer:  $\frac{\ln 2}{3}$ 

**Solution:** Note that the base of the log does not matter, as value of c changes as the base of the log changes by change of base. We consider the log to be base e.

First, note that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{t^{6n-1}}{t^3+1} = 0$  for  $0 \le t < 1$ , and  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{t^{6n-1}}{t^3+1} = \frac{1}{2}$  for t = 1. Taking the integral to be the area under the curve, we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 \frac{t^{6n-1}}{t^3 + 1} \, \mathrm{d}t = 0.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} h_n(x) = -\lim_{n \to \infty} c \ln(p(x)).$$

Next, we classify the possible polynomials p(x) could be. Taking the derivative of both sides of  $f_n(x) = c \cdot \ln(p(x)) + h_n(x)$  gives

$$\frac{x^{6n-1}}{1+x^3} = f'_n(x) = \frac{cp'(x)}{p(x)} + h'_n(x),$$

or

$$x^{6n-1}p(x) = (1+x^3)(cp'(x) + h'_n(x)p(x)).$$

Then  $1 + x^3$  must divide  $x^{6n-1}p(x)$ , but  $x^{6n-1}$  and  $1 + x^3$  do not share any complex roots, so  $1 + x^3$  must divide p(x). Let  $p(x) = (1 + x^3)q(x)$ , where q(x) is a real (monic) polynomial. Plugging in, we have that

$$x^{6n-1}(1+x^3)q(x) = (1+x^3)(c((1+x^3)q'(x)+3x^2q(x))+h'_n(x)(1+x^3)q(x),$$

 $\mathbf{SO}$ 

$$(x^{6n-1} - 3cx^2 - h'_n(x))q(x) = c(1+x^3)q'(x).$$

Suppose q(x) shares no complex roots with  $1 + x^3$  and has degree  $\geq 1$ . Then  $q(x) \mid q'(x)$ , which is not possible, as the degree of q(x) is larger than the degree of q'(x). Thus, q(x)must either be 1 or share a root with  $1 + x^3$ . Since q(x) is a real polynomial, q(x) must be of the form  $(1+x)^a(1-x+x^2)^b$ , where a and b are natural numbers. Equivalently, p(x) = $(1+x)^{a+1}(1-x+x^2)^{b+1}$  for natural numbers a and b.

Plugging this in gives

$$\begin{aligned} x^{6n-1}(1+x)^{a+1}(1-x+x^2)^{b+1} \\ = &(1+x^3)(c(1+x)^a(1-x+x^2)^b\left((a+1)(1-x+x^2)+(b+1)(-1+2x)(1+x)\right) \\ &+ h'_n(x)(1+x)^{a+1}(1-x+x^2)^{b+1}), \end{aligned}$$

and simplifying gives

$$\begin{aligned} x^{6n-1} &= \left(c\left((a-b) + (b-a)x + (a+2b+3)x^2\right) + h'_n(x)(1+x^3) \right) \\ &\implies h'_n(x) = \frac{x^{6n-1} - \left(c\left((a-b) + (b-a)x + (a+2b+3)x^2\right)\right)}{1+x^3} \\ &\implies h'_n(x) = \frac{x^{6n-1} + x^2}{1+x^3} + \frac{-x^2 - \left(c\left((a-b) + (b-a)x + (a+2b+3)x^2\right)\right)}{1+x^3}. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $h_n$  is a polynomial,  $h'_n$  must also be a polynomial. Since  $\frac{x^{6n-1}+x^2}{1+x^3}$  is a polynomial, we need  $\frac{-x^2 - (c((a-b)+(b-a)x+(a+2b+3)x^2))}{1+x^3}$  to be a polynomial; thus, we need the numerator to be 0. Setting all the coefficients to 0, we get that a = b and -1 - c(a + 2b + 3) = 0, and thus  $c = -\frac{1}{3(a+1)}$ .

Plugging back into our original expression, we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} h_n(1) = -\lim_{n \to \infty} c \ln(p(1))$$
$$= -\lim_{n \to \infty} -\frac{1}{3(a+1)} \cdot \ln\left((1+1)^{a+1}(1-1+1^2)^{b+1}\right)$$
$$= \boxed{\frac{\ln 2}{3}}.$$

9. Emily plays a game on the real line. Emily starts at the number 1 and starts with 0 points. When she is at the real number a, she chooses a real number b such that  $a < b \le 100$ . She then moves to b and gains  $\frac{4(b-a)}{(a+b)^2}$  points. She repeats this process until she reaches the number 100. Compute the smallest possible value of c such that Emily's score is always less than c.

# Answer: $\frac{99}{100}$

**Solution:** Note that we can express  $\frac{4(b-a)}{(a+b)^2} = \frac{b-a}{\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)^2}$ . Let the sequence of points that Emily lands on be  $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n$  where  $x_0 = 1$  and  $x_n = 100$ . Then, Emily's score can be written as

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{x_i - x_{i-1}}{\left(\frac{x_i + x_{i-1}}{2}\right)^2},$$

which is exactly the midpoint Riemann sum approximation for the integral

$$\int_{1}^{100} \frac{1}{x^2} \, \mathrm{d}x \, .$$

Moreover, since the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$  is a concave up function, the midpoint Riemann sum approximation will always be less than the integral, and as  $n \to \infty$ , the Riemann sum can get infinitely close to the integral, by the definition of the integral. Thus, the smallest possible value for c is

$$\int_{1}^{100} \frac{1}{x^2} \, \mathrm{d}x = \left[-\frac{1}{x}\right]_{1}^{100} = \boxed{\frac{99}{100}}.$$

10. Compute

$$\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\pi \arctan(n)}{2 \arctan(2n) \arctan(2n-1)}$$

## Answer: $\sqrt[\pi]{4}$

**Solution:** Let  $P_N := \prod_{n=1}^N \frac{\pi \arctan(n)}{2 \arctan(2n) \arctan(2n-1)}$  be the *N*th partial product. Notice that by taking a logarithm and telescoping,

$$\ln P_N = N \ln \left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) - \sum_{n=N+1}^{2N} \ln(\arctan(n)).$$

We compute this summation by approximating using Taylor series. Observe that if N is very large, then 1/n is close to 0 for  $n \ge N$ . Also observe that

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z}\arctan\left(\frac{1}{z}\right) = \frac{-1}{z^2+1} = -1 + O(z^2)$$

and  $\lim_{z\to 0^+} \arctan(1/z) = \pi/2$ , so we have for large n,

$$\arctan(n) = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^3}\right).$$

This gives for large n

$$\ln(\arctan(n)) = \ln\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{1}{n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)\right)$$
$$= \ln\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \ln\left(1 - \frac{2}{\pi n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)\right)$$
$$= \ln\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) - \frac{2}{\pi n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)$$

using the Taylor series for  $\ln(1+x)$ . Thus we compute

$$\ln P_N = \sum_{n=N+1}^{2N} \left(\frac{2}{\pi n} + O\left(\frac{1}{n^2}\right)\right)$$
$$\ln P = \lim_{N \to \infty} \int_N^{2N} \frac{2}{\pi x} \, \mathrm{d}x = \frac{2\ln 2}{\pi}$$

by noting that the summation may be approximated by an integral with the approximation error vanishing in the limit  $N \to \infty$ . This gives us our answer of  $P = 4^{1/\pi} = \sqrt[\pi]{4}$ .