# AP Calculus 2009 BC (Form B) FRQ Solutions 

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## 1 Problem 1

### 1.1 Part a

The area of the discarded cardboard is

$$
\begin{align*}
600+20 \int_{0}^{30} \sin \frac{\pi x}{30} d x & =600-\left.\frac{600}{\pi} \cos \frac{\pi x}{30}\right|_{0} ^{30}=600-\frac{600}{\pi} \cos \pi+\frac{600}{\pi} \cos 0  \tag{1}\\
& =600-\frac{1200}{\pi} \text { square centimeters. } \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

### 1.2 Part b

The radius of the semicircle at $x=x_{0}$ is $10 \sin \left(\pi x_{0} / 30\right)$, so the area of that semicircle is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\pi}{2} r^{2}=\frac{\pi}{2} \cdot 100 \sin ^{2} \frac{\pi x_{0}}{30} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

and the volume of the cake is

$$
\begin{align*}
50 \pi \int_{0}^{30} \sin ^{2} \frac{\pi x}{30} d x & =25 \pi \int_{0}^{30}\left(1-\cos \frac{\pi x}{15}\right) d x  \tag{4}\\
& =\left.25 \pi\left[x-\frac{15}{\pi} \sin \frac{\pi x}{15}\right]\right|_{0} ^{30}=750 \pi \text { cubic centimeters. } \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

At $1 / 20$ grams of unsweetened chocolate per cubic centimeter, there must be $75 \pi / 2$ grams of unsweetened chocolate in the cake.

### 1.3 Part c

The perimeter of the base is

$$
\begin{equation*}
20+\int_{0}^{30} \sqrt{1+\frac{4 \pi^{2}}{9} \cos ^{2} \frac{\pi x}{30}} d x \sim 81.80370 \text { centimeters, } \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we have had no choice but to carry out the integration numerically.

## 2 Problem 2

### 2.1 Part a

Let $D(t)$ denote the distance, in meters, from the road to the edge of the water at time $t$ hours after the beginning of the storm. We are given $D(0)=35, D^{\prime}(t)=\sqrt{t}+\cos t-3$. By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$
\begin{align*}
D(t) & =35+\int_{0}^{t} D^{\prime}(\tau) d \tau  \tag{7}\\
& =35+\int_{0}^{t}(\sqrt{\tau}+\cos \tau-3) d \tau  \tag{8}\\
& =35+\left.\left[\frac{2}{3} \tau^{3 / 2}+\sin \tau-3 \tau\right]\right|_{0} ^{t}  \tag{9}\\
& =35-3 t+\frac{2}{3} t^{3 / 2}+\sin t \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

Substituting 5 for $t$, we obtain $D(5) \sim 26.49464$. Thus, at the end of the five-hour storm, the distance from road to water is about 26.49464 meters.

### 2.2 Part b

If $f^{\prime}(4)=1.007$, then $D^{\prime \prime}(4)=1.007$, so after four hours of the storm, the rate at which distance from road to water is changing is increasing at 1.007 meters per hour per hour.

Note: This is something of a misstatement: Very few texts give any definition for the phrase "increasing at a point."

### 2.3 Part c

We are to find the absolute minimum of $f(t)$ on the interval $[0,5]$. Such a minimum lies at either a critical point or an endpoint. The critical points for $f$ are the zeros of

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime}(t)=\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{t}}-\sin t \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

We solve numerically and find these critical points are $t \sim 0.66186$ and $t \sim 2.84038$. We find

$$
\begin{align*}
f(0) & =-2,  \tag{12}\\
f(0.66186) & \sim-1.39760,  \tag{13}\\
f(2.84038) & \sim-2.26963,  \tag{14}\\
f(5) & \sim-0.48027 . \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

The smallest of these is $f(2.84038)$, so the distance from water to road was decreasing most rapidly about 2.84038 hours after the storm began.

### 2.4 Part d

If sand is restored to the beach in such a way that the rate of change of the distance from water to road is $g(p)$ meters per day, where $p$ is the number of days since pumping began, then, by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus the number of days, $P$, of pumping required to restore the original disance between road and water, satisfies the equation

$$
\begin{equation*}
35=D(5)+\int_{0}^{P} g(p) d p \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 3 Problem 3

We don't appear to have been given quite enough information to solve this problem. We must assume that the line segment and the curved portion of the curve meet at the point $(0,2)$. In what follows, we make this assumption.

### 3.1 Part a

The line segment that gives the portion of the curve that lies to the left of the $y$-axis has slope $2 / 3$, so

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0^{-}} \frac{f(h)-f(0)}{h}=\frac{2}{3} . \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, it is apparent that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{f(h)-f(0)}{h}<0 . \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

The left- and right-hand limits of the difference quotient for $f$ at zero being different, $f^{\prime}(0)$ cannot exist, and $f$ is not differentiable at $x=0$.

### 3.2 Part b

The average rate of change of $f$ over the interval $[a, 6]$ is $\frac{f(6)-f(a)}{6-a}$. This can be zero only if $f(a)=f(6)=1$ while $a \neq 6$. The horizontal line through $(5, f(1))=(6,1)$ intersects the curve in just two other points, so there are just two values of $a$ for which the average rate of change of $f$ over $[a, 6]$ is zero.

### 3.3 Part c

We note that $f$ is continuous on $[3,6]$ and differentiable on $(3,6)$, so the hypotheses of the Mean Value Theorem are satisfied. Hence there is a number $c \in[3,6]$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{f(6)-f(3)}{6-3}=\frac{1}{3} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, we may take $a=3$.

### 3.4 Part d

If

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=\int_{0}^{x} f(t) d t, \tag{20}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $g^{\prime}(x)=f(x)$ and $g^{\prime \prime}(x)=f^{\prime}(x)$. Thus, $g$ is concave upward on intervals where $f^{\prime}(x)>0$ or, more generally, on intervals where $f^{\prime}$ is increasing. We conclude that $g$ is concave upward on $(-4,0)$ and on $(3,6)$. Whether or not we may conclude that $g$ is concave upward on the closures of these intervals depends upon which of several definitions of concavity we choose. In the past, the readers have paid no attention to this subtlety.

## 4 Problem 4

### 4.1 Part a

The arc that forms the lower boundary of the region $S$ is traced out when $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi / 3$. (To see why this is so, simply note that $r=1-2 \cos \theta<0$ precisely when $0<\theta<\pi / 3$.) The required integral is thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{\pi / 3}(1-2 \cos \theta)^{2} d \theta=\frac{1}{2}\left(\pi-\frac{3 \sqrt{3}}{2}\right) . \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note: Evaluation of the integral is not required. However, it is an elementary-though somewhat tedious-integral, and we include its value for the sake of completeness.

### 4.2 Part b

We have

$$
\begin{align*}
x & =r \cos \theta=(1-2 \cos \theta) \cos \theta \text { and }  \tag{22}\\
y & =r \sin \theta=(1-2 \cos \theta) \sin \theta . \tag{23}
\end{align*}
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{d x}{d \theta}=-\sin \theta+4 \cos \theta \sin \theta \text { and }  \tag{24}\\
& \frac{d y}{d \theta}=\cos \theta+2 \sin ^{2} \theta-2 \cos ^{2} \theta . \tag{25}
\end{align*}
$$

### 4.3 Part c

We have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d y}{d x}=\frac{d y}{d \theta} / \frac{d x}{d \theta}=\frac{\cos \theta+2 \sin ^{2} \theta-2 \cos ^{2}}{4 \cos \theta \sin \theta-\sin \theta} \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

When $\theta=\pi / 2$, this reduces to -2 , and we have $x=0, y=1$. The required equation is therefore $y=1-2(x-0)$, or $2 x+y=1$.

## 5 Problem 5

### 5.1 Part a

If

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=e^{f(x)} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime}(x)=f^{\prime}(x) e^{f(x)} \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$

so

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime}(1)=f^{\prime}(1) e^{f(1)}=-4 e^{2} . \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Hence, an equation for the line tangent to the curve $y=g(x)$ at the point corresponding to $x=1$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=g(1)+g^{\prime}(1)(x-1) \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

or

$$
\begin{equation*}
y=e^{2}-4 e^{2}(x-1) \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 5.2 Part b

By the First Derivative Test, $g$ has a local maximum at any point where $g^{\prime}(x)$ changes sign from positive to negative. But $g^{\prime}(x)=f^{\prime}(x) e^{f(x)}$, and $e^{f(x)}$ is always positive. Therefore the local maxima of $g$ are to be found at points where $f^{\prime}(x)$ changes sign from positive to negative. From the graph given, we see that there is just one such point in the interval $(-1.2,3.2): x=-1$. The function $g$ therefore has a local maximum only at $x=1.1$ in the interval ( $-1.2,3.2$ ).

### 5.3 Part c

Because

$$
\begin{equation*}
g^{\prime \prime}(x)=e^{f(x)}\left(\left[f^{\prime}(x)\right]^{2}+f^{\prime \prime}(x)\right) \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

and $e^{f(x)}>0$, the sign of $g^{\prime \prime}(x)$ is the same as the sign of $\left(\left[f^{\prime}(x)\right]^{2}+f^{\prime \prime}(x)\right)$. Now, as is given, $\left(f^{\prime}(-1)\right)^{2}=0$, and we see from the graph that, $f^{\prime}$ being a decreasing function in a neighborhood of $x=-1$, it must be the case that $f^{\prime \prime}(-1)<0$. So $g^{\prime \prime}(-1)<0$.

### 5.4 Part d

The average rate of change of $g^{\prime}$ over the interval $[1,3]$ is $\left[g^{\prime}(3)-g^{\prime}(1)\right] /[3-1]$. But, as we saw in Part a of this problem, above, $g^{\prime}(1)=-4 e^{2}$. We also have $g^{\prime}(3)=f^{\prime}(3) e^{f(3)}=0$, $f^{\prime}(30)=0$ being given. The desired average rate of change is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{0-\left(-4 e^{2}\right)}{2}=2 e^{2} . \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 6 Problem 6

### 6.1 Part a

The given series is a geometric series with common ratio $x+1$; it converges when $|x+1|<$ 1 and diverges otherwise. The interval of convergence is therefore $-2<x<0$.

### 6.2 Part b

The sum of the geometric series $1+r+r^{2}+\cdots$ is $\frac{1}{1-r}$ when $|r|<1$. Consequently,

$$
\begin{equation*}
1+(1+x)+(1+x)^{2}+\cdots=\frac{1}{1-(1+x)}=-\frac{1}{x} . \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

throughout the interval $-2<x<0$.

### 6.3 Part c

Because $f(x)=-1 / x$ when $-2, x, 0$, we may write

$$
\begin{align*}
g\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) & =\int_{-1}^{-1 / 2} f(t) d t  \tag{35}\\
& =-\int_{-1}^{-1 / 2} \frac{d t}{t}  \tag{36}\\
& =-\left.\ln |t|\right|_{-1} ^{-1 / 2}  \tag{37}\\
& =-\ln \frac{1}{2}+\ln 1=\ln 2 . \tag{38}
\end{align*}
$$

### 6.4 Part d

When $-2<x^{2}-1<0$, or, equivalently, when $-1<x<1$, we may replace each instance of the variable $x$ in the given power series with $x^{2}-1$. Noting that $(x+1)$ becomes $\left[\left(x^{2}-1\right)+1\right]=x^{2}$ under this substitution, we find that

$$
\begin{align*}
h(x) & =f\left(x^{2}-1\right)=1+x^{2}+x^{4}+\cdots+x^{2 n}+\cdots  \tag{39}\\
& =\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^{2 n} \tag{40}
\end{align*}
$$

Because $x=1 / 2$ lies in the interval $(-1,1)$, we may write

$$
\begin{equation*}
h\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)=f\left[\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2}-1\right]=f\left(-\frac{3}{4}\right)=-\frac{1}{-3 / 4}=\frac{4}{3} . \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

Alternate Solution: We may write $h(x)=f\left(x^{2}-1\right)=1 /\left(1-x^{2}\right)$, and, appealing once more to our knowledge of the geometric series, conclude that

$$
\begin{equation*}
h(x)=1+x^{2}+x^{4}+x^{6}+\cdots+x^{2 n}+\cdots, \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

as long as $-1<x<1$.

