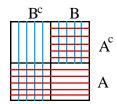
Illinois Page 1 of 2

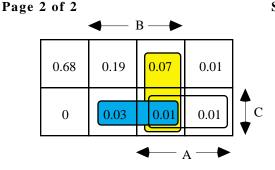
 $\textbf{1.(a)} \qquad \text{If } f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \ldots + a_0, \text{ then } f^{(n)}(x) = n! \\ a_n = \text{constant and all higher order derivatives are zero.}$

- (b)-(d) True. $\frac{d}{dx}(1+x)^n = f^{(1)}(x) = n \cdot (1+x)^{n-1}$. $\frac{d^2}{dx^2}(1+x)^n = f^{(2)}(x) = n(n-1) \cdot (1+x)^{n-2}$, and more generally, $f^{(k)}(x) = n(n-1)(n-2)...(n-k+1) \cdot (1+x)^{n-k}$ for 1 + n, while $f^{(k)}(x) = 0$ for k > n. Note that $f^{(n)}(x) = n!$ Hence, $f(x) = (1+x)^n = 1 + \frac{n}{1!} \cdot x + \frac{n(n-1)}{2!} \cdot x^2 + ... + \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)...(n-k+1)}{k!} \cdot x^k + ... + \frac{n!}{n!} \cdot x^n = \binom{n}{0} + \binom{n}{1} \cdot x + \binom{n}{2} \cdot x^2 + ... + \binom{n}{k} \cdot x^k + ... + \binom{n}{n} \cdot x^n$
- $(e) \qquad \text{False.} \qquad (f) \quad \frac{d}{dx}(1-x)^{-n} = f^{(1)}(x) = (-n) \bullet (1-x)^{-n-1} (-1) = n \bullet (1-x)^{-n-1}.$ $\frac{d^2}{dx^2}(1-x)^{-n} = f^{(2)}(x) = n(-n-1) \bullet (1-x)^{-n-2} (-1) = n(n+1) \bullet (1-x)^{-n-2}, \text{ and more generally,}$ $f^{(k)}(x) = n(n+1)(n+2)...(n+k-1) \bullet (1-x)^{-n-k} \text{ for all } k > 0. \text{ Notice the difference between this and part (b).}$ Hence, the MacLaurin series for $(1-x)^{-n}$ is $1 + \frac{n}{1!} \bullet x + \frac{n(n+1)}{2!} \bullet x^2 + ... + \frac{n(n+1)(n+2)...(n+k-1)}{k!} \bullet x^k + ...$ and does not terminate at degree n. The (n+1)-th term is $\frac{n(n+1)(n+2)...(2n)}{(n+1)!} \bullet x^{n+1} = \frac{(n+2)...(2n)}{(n-1)!} \bullet x^{n+1}$ (note the cancellation) while the (n+i)-th term is $\frac{n(n+1)...(2n+i-1)}{(n+i)!} \bullet x^{n+i} = \frac{(n+i+1)...(2n+i-1)}{(n-1)!} \bullet x^{n+i}$ where the numerator and denominator are each the product of n-1 consecutive integers.
- (g) Setting n = 1 and 2 respectively in the above results, we get $\frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots \qquad \text{and} \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} = 1 + 2x + 3x^2 + 4x^3 + \dots$
- (h) When the MacLaurin series has infinitely many terms, we need to worry about convergence. For any given n, the absolute value of the ratio of the (n+i+1)-th term to the (n+i)-th term is $\frac{2n+i}{n+i} |x|$ which converges to |x| as i. The ratio test then says that the Taylor series for $(1-x)^{-n}$ converges if |x| < 1.
- $2.(\mathbf{a}) \quad (1-\mathbf{x})^{\mathbf{n}} = 1 \frac{\mathbf{n}}{1!} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \frac{\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{n}-1)}{2!} \cdot \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + (-1)^k \cdot \frac{\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{n}-1)(\mathbf{n}-2)\dots(\mathbf{n}-\mathbf{k}+1)}{k!} \cdot \mathbf{x}^k + \dots + (-1)^n \cdot \frac{\mathbf{n}!}{\mathbf{n}!} \cdot \mathbf{x}^n$ $= \binom{\mathbf{n}}{0} \binom{\mathbf{n}}{1} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \binom{\mathbf{n}}{2} \cdot \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + (-1)^k \binom{\mathbf{n}}{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}^k + \dots + (-1)^n \binom{\mathbf{n}}{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{x}^n \text{ while }$ $(1+\mathbf{x})^{\mathbf{n}} = \binom{\mathbf{n}}{0} + \binom{\mathbf{n}}{1} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \binom{\mathbf{n}}{2} \cdot \mathbf{x}^2 + \dots + \binom{\mathbf{n}}{k} \cdot \mathbf{x}^k + \dots + \binom{\mathbf{n}}{\mathbf{n}} \cdot \mathbf{x}^n$
- (b) The absolute values of the coefficients are the same in both expansions, but the even powers of x have positive signs in both expansions while the odd powers of x have opposite signs in the two expansions.
- (c) The coefficient of x^{2k} in the series expansion of $(1+x)^n + (1-x)^n$ is $2\binom{n}{2k}$.
- $(\textbf{d}) \qquad (1+1)^n + (1-1)^n = 2^n = 2 \bullet \left[\begin{pmatrix} n \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} n \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} + \dots \right] = 2 \bullet \left| S_{even} \right| \text{ giving that } \left| S_{even} \right| = 2^{n-1}.$
- Since there are a total of 2^n subsets and each belongs to either S_{even} or to S_{odd} , we see that $2^n = |S_{even}| + |S_{odd}|$, and since $|S_{even}| = 2^{n-1}$, it must be that $|S_{odd}| = 2^{n-1}$ also, no? Else, consider $h(x) = (1+x)^n (1-x)^n$ and observe that $h(1) = 2^n = 2 \cdot \left\lceil \binom{n}{1} + \binom{n}{3} + \ldots \right\rceil = 2 \cdot \left| S_{odd} \right|$
- 3.(a) Since each specialty flavor must contain at least one essence, the question is asking for the number of non-empty subsets of a set of 5 essences. The answer is $2^5 1 = 31$.
- (b) In the diagram below, A B, the event that at least one of A and B occurred, has horizontal stripes while A^c B^c , the event that at least one of A and B did not occur, has vertical stripes. The union of these is obviously . The forever plaid region is A B = (A $B^c)$ $(A^c$ B), the event that *exactly one* of A and B did not occur. Thus, we have that $1 = P() = P((A^c B^c) (A B)) = P(A^c B^c) + P(A B) P((A^c B^c) (A B))$

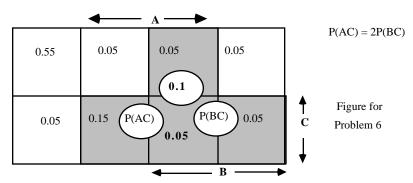
$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= P(\quad) &= P((A^c \quad B^c) \quad (A \quad B)) = P(A^c \quad B^c) + P(A \quad B) - P((A^c \quad B^c) \quad (A \quad B)) \\ &= P(A^c \quad B^c) + P(A \quad B) - P((A \quad B^c) \quad (A^c \quad B) = P(A^c \quad B^c) + P(A \quad B) - P(A \quad B). \\ &\text{Hence, } P(A \quad B) &= P(A^c \quad B^c) + P(A \quad B) - 1 = 0.4. \end{aligned}$$

Spring 2003





- This problem is best solved with a Venn diagram or more preferably a Karnaugh map as shown above . From the given values of P(ABC) = 0.01, P(AB) = 0.08, P(BC) = 0.04, and P(AC) = 0.02, it is easy to find $P(ABC^c) = 0.08 0.01 = 0.07$, $P(A^cBC) = 0.04 0.01 = 0.03$, and $P(AB^cC) = 0.02 0.01 = 0.01$. Next, since $P(A) = 0.1 = P(ABC) + P(ABC^c) + P(AB^cC) + P(AB^cC^c)$, we get $P(AB^cC^c) = 0.01$. Similarly, we can show that $P(A^cBC^c) = 0.19$ and $P(A^cB^cC) = 0.68$. Finally, we can get $P(A = B = C) = P(ABC) + P(ABC^c) + P(A^cBC) + P(AB^cC) + P(A^cBC^c) +$
- (a) $P(\text{only 1}) = P(AB^{c}C^{c}) + P(A^{c}BC^{c}) + P(A^{c}B^{c}C) = 0.01 + 0.19 + 0 = 0.2,$
- (b) $P(\text{at least 2}) = P(AB \quad BC \quad AC) = P(ABC) + P(ABC^c) + P(A^cBC) + P(AB^cC)$ = 0.01 + 0.07 + 0.03 + 0.01 = 0.12. Crosscheck: $P(AB \quad BC \quad AC) = P(AB) + P(BC) + P(AC) - 2P(ABC)$
- (c) P(B and at least one other) P(B (A C)) = P(AB) + P(BC) P(ABC) = 0.08 + 0.04 0.01 = 0.11,
- (d) $P(\text{no papers}) P(A^{c}B^{c}C^{c}) = 1 P(A \quad B \quad C) = 0.68.$
- **5.(a)** A = (ddddddddd1: d = don't care if it is 0 or 1) giving $|A| = 2^9 = 512$; $P(A) = 2^9/2^{10} = 1/2$.
- (b) The shift register contains 4 1's which can be chosen from the 10 positions in $\binom{10}{4} = \frac{10 \times 9 \times 8 \times 7}{1 \times 2 \times 3 \times 4} = 210$ ways (the remaining 6 positions have 0's in them.) Hence, B contains 210 outcomes and P(B) = $210/2^{10}$.
- (c) AB is the set of shift register contents with 4 1's, one of which is in the least significant bit position. The remaining 3 1's can be in any of $\binom{9}{3} = \frac{9 \times 8 \times 7}{1 \times 2 \times 3} = 84$ positions. Hence, P(A B) = $84/2^{10}$; P(A B) = P(A) + P(B) P(A B) = $(512+210-84)/2^{10} = 638/2^{10}$; P(A B) = P(A) + P(B) 2P(A B) = $(512+210-168)/2^{10} = 554/2^{10}$.



6. We use the Venn diagram/Karnaugh map shown above. $P(A \ B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(AB) = 0.4, \text{ and hence } P(A^{C}B^{C}) = 1 - P(A \ B) = 0.6$ $P(AB \ AC \ BC) = 0.3 = P(AB) + P(AC) + P(BC) - 2 \times P(ABC) = 0.1 + 3 \times P(BC) - 2 \times 0.05. \text{ Hence, } P(BC) = 0.1,$ $P(AC) = 0.2, P(AC \ BC) = 0.2 + 0.1 - 0.05 = 0.25. \text{ Thus, } P(A^{C}B^{C}C) = P(\text{snaps and crackles only})$ $= P(C) - P(AC \ BC) = 0.05, \text{ and } P(A^{C}B^{C}C^{C}) = P(\text{Rice Krispies}) = P(A^{C}B^{C}) - P(A^{C}B^{C}C) = 0.55.$ $P(AB^{C}C^{C}) = P(AC) - P(AB \ AC) = 0.2 - 0.1 - 0.1 + 0.05 = 0.05.$ Similarly, $P(A^{C}BC^{C}) = P(B) - P(AB \ BC) = 0.3 - 0.1 - 0.2 + 0.05 = 0.05.$