

1. (a) Define what it means for a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ to be continuous at a point a . 3
 - (b) Prove from the definition of a limit that $f(x) = x^3 + 2$ is continuous at $x = 2$. 3
 - (c) Prove that the left hand and right hand limit of $f(x)$ at $x = a$ both exist and are equal, if the limit of $f(x)$ at $x = a$ exists. Is the converse true? 3
 - (d) Let $f(x) = |x - 2|$, find $f'(2)$ or show that it does not exist. 3
 - (e) Prove that the limit of a function is unique. 4
2. (a) Explain the quadratic approximation formula

$$f(x+h) \sim f(x) + f'(x)h + \frac{1}{2}f''(x)h^2. \quad 2$$

- (b) Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$ if

i. $y = e^{\sin(\sqrt{x^3+2})}$ 2

ii. $xy^2 + e^{x^2y} = \sin(xy)$ 2

iii. $y = e^{x^2}(\sin x)(\ln x)(\cos x)$ 2

- (c) Let $f(x) = \frac{(x+1)^2}{x^2+1}$. Find where $f(x)$ is increasing, decreasing, concave up, concave down, has local extrema, has points of inflection, and find any asymptotes. Use this information to sketch the function. 4

3. (a) State and prove Rolle's Theorem. 4

- (b) Use the Mean Value Theorem to prove that if $f'(x) = g'(x)$, for all x , then $f(x) = g(x) + \text{constant}$ 3

- (c) A right angled triangle whose hypotenuse is $\sqrt{3}$ metres long is revolved about one of its legs to generate a circular cone. Find the radius, height, and volume of the largest cone that can be generated in this way. 8

4. (a) Give an example of a function on $[0,1]$ that has no Riemann Integral. And show clearly why it hasn't. 2

(b) Integrate the following.

i. $\int x^2 e^x dx$ 3

ii. $\int x e^{x^2} dx$ 3

iii. $\int (\sin^2 x)(\cos^2 x) dx$ 3

iv. $\int \frac{x^3 + x + 1}{x^2 + x + 1} dx$ 3

v. $\int \frac{x}{(x^2 + 2)(x + 2)(x - 2)} dx$ 3

5. (a) Find the area of the region bounded by $y = x$, $y = -x + 2\pi$ and $y = \sin x$. 4

(b) What is an improper integral? 2

(c) Find the volume of the solid of revolution gotten by revolving the region bounded by $y = x^2$, $y = 0$, $x = -1$ and $x = 1$ about the x -axis, first by the method of disks, and then by the method of cylindrical shells. 6

6. (a) Define $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$, and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = S$. 2

(b) Do the following series converge or diverge? Give reasons.

i. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + n + 1}{n^3 + 2}$ 2

ii. $\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n}{\ln n}$ 2

iii. $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n!}$ 2

(c) Prove that if $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = S$ then $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$. 4

(d) Find for what values of x the following power series converges absolutely, conditionally, or diverges:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(x-2)^n}{n3^n}$$
5

MA 1123 - April 2014

Solutions

Q 1 (a) $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous at $x=a$

means (i) $f(a)$ is defined

(ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists

(iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$

(b) Claim $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^3 + 2 = 2^3 + 2 = 10$.

i.e. $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$ s.t.

$$0 \leq |x-2| < \delta \Rightarrow |x^3 + 2 - 10| < \epsilon.$$

$$\text{ie } |x^3 - 8| < \epsilon$$

$$|x^3 - 8| = |x-2| |x^2 + 2x + 4|$$

If $|x-2| < 1$, then $1 < x < 3$

$$\text{and } |x^2 + 2x + 4| \leq 9 + 6 + 4 = 19.$$

So if $|x-2| < 1$ then $|x^3 - 8| < 19|x-2|$

Let $\delta = \min(1, \epsilon/19)$, then

$$0 \leq |x-2| < \delta \Rightarrow |x^3 - 8| < \epsilon$$

(c) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ exists, then

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \text{ s.t.}$$

$$0 < |x-a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

i.e. $a - \delta < x < a + \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$
in particular

$$0 < a - x < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

$$\text{i.e. } \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$$

and

$$0 < x - a < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

$$\text{i.e. } \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L.$$

Yes the converse is true, if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L \quad \& \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$$

$$\text{then } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L.$$

$$(d) \quad f(x) = |x-2|$$

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

$$f'(2) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} |x-2+h|$$

$$f'(2) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|2-2+h| - |2-2|}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{|h|}{h}$$

$$\text{If } h > 0 \quad \frac{|h|}{h} = 1 \quad \text{So } \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} = 1$$

$$\text{+ if } h < 0 \quad \frac{|h|}{h} = -1 \quad \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^-} = -1$$

Hence $f'(2)$ does not exist.

(e) Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_1$ + $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_2$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_1 \rightarrow \forall \epsilon > 0 \text{ s.t.}$$

$$0 < |x-a| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x) - L_1| < \epsilon$$

$$\text{* Let } \epsilon = \frac{|L_1 - L_2|}{3} > 0 \text{ + if } L_1 \neq L_2$$

$$\text{then } \exists \delta_1 \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x-a| < \delta_1$$

$$\rightarrow |f(x) - L_1| < \frac{|L_1 - L_2|}{3}$$

$$\text{+ } \exists \delta_2 \text{ s.t. } 0 < |x-a| < \delta_2$$

$$\rightarrow |f(x) - L_2| < \frac{|L_1 - L_2|}{3}$$

But then if $|x - a| < \min(\delta_1, \delta_2)$

$$\text{then } |f(x) - L_1| < \frac{|L_1 - L_2|}{3}$$

$$+ |f(x) - L_2| < \frac{|L_1 - L_2|}{3}$$

$$\text{Then } |L_1 - L_2| = |L_1 - f(x) + f(x) - L_2|$$

$$\leq |L_1 - f(x)| + |f(x) - L_2|$$

$$< \frac{|L_1 - L_2|}{3} + \frac{|L_1 - L_2|}{3}$$

$$\text{So } |L_1 - L_2| < \frac{2}{3} |L_1 - L_2|$$

This is a contradiction, so,

$$L_1 = L_2 \text{ from } *.$$

2 (a). The quadratic approximation formula $f(x_0 + h) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)h + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2}h^2$ approximates $f(x)$ at $x+h$ by a quadratic at $x+h$ which equals $f(x)$ at $x=x_0$ and has the same first and second derivatives at $x=x_0$.

2

$$(b) (i) y = e^{\sin \sqrt{x^3+2}}$$

$$u = x^3 + 2 \quad v = \sqrt{u}$$

$$w = \sin v \quad y = e^w$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{dw} \cdot \frac{dw}{dv} \cdot \frac{dv}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$$

[Write it out!]

$$= e^w \cdot \cos v \cdot \frac{1}{2} u^{-1/2} \cdot 3x^2$$

$$= e^{\sin \sqrt{x^3+2}} \cdot \cos \sqrt{x^3+2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^3+2}} \cdot 3x^2$$

$$(ii) \underbrace{xy^2 + e^{x^2y}}_{} = \sin(xy)$$

$$y^2 + x \cdot 2y \frac{dy}{dx} + e^{x^2y} (2xy + x^2 \frac{dy}{dx}) = \cos xy (y + x \frac{dy}{dx})$$

$$(2xy + x^2 e^{x^2y} - x \cos xy) \frac{dy}{dx} = - (y^2 + e^{x^2y} 2xy - y \cos xy)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = - \frac{(y^2 + e^{x^2y} 2xy - y \cos xy)}{2xy + x^2 e^{x^2y} - x \cos xy}$$

$$(iii) y = e^{x^2} \sin x \ln x \cos x$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x e^{x^2} \sin x \ln x \cos x + e^{x^2} \cos x \ln x \cos x + e^{x^2} \sin x \cdot \frac{1}{x} \cdot \cos x + e^{x^2} \sin x \cos x (-\sin x)$$

$$(c) f(x) = \frac{(x+1)^2}{x^2+1}$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{2(x+1)}{x^2+1} - \frac{(x+1)^2 \cdot 2x}{(x^2+1)^2}$$

$$= \frac{2(x+1)(x^2+1) - (x+1)^2 \cdot 2x}{(x^2+1)^2}$$

$$= \frac{2(-x^2+1)}{(x^2+1)^2} = 0.$$

$$-x^2+1 = 0 \rightarrow x = \pm 1.$$

$$f''(x) = \frac{2(-2x)}{(x^2+1)^2} - \frac{4(-x^2+1) \cdot 2x}{(x^2+1)^3}$$

$$= \frac{-4x(x^2+1) - 4(-2x^3+2x)}{(x^2+1)^3} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow 4x^3 - 12x = 0.$$

$$x = 0, \pm \sqrt{3}.$$

$$f''(1) = < 0$$

loc max.

$$f''(-1) = > 0$$

loc min.

$$x = -2 \quad -\sqrt{3} \quad -1 \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad \sqrt{3} \quad 2$$

$$f'(x) < 0 \quad 0 > 0 \quad 0 < 0$$

$$f(x) \downarrow \uparrow \downarrow$$

$$f''(x) < 0 \quad 0 > 0 \quad 0 < 0 \quad 0 > 0$$

$$f'(x) \downarrow \uparrow \downarrow \uparrow$$

$$f(x) \text{ concave down concave up concave down concave up}$$

$$f(x) \quad \frac{1}{5} \quad 1 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \quad 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 1 + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \quad \frac{9}{5}$$

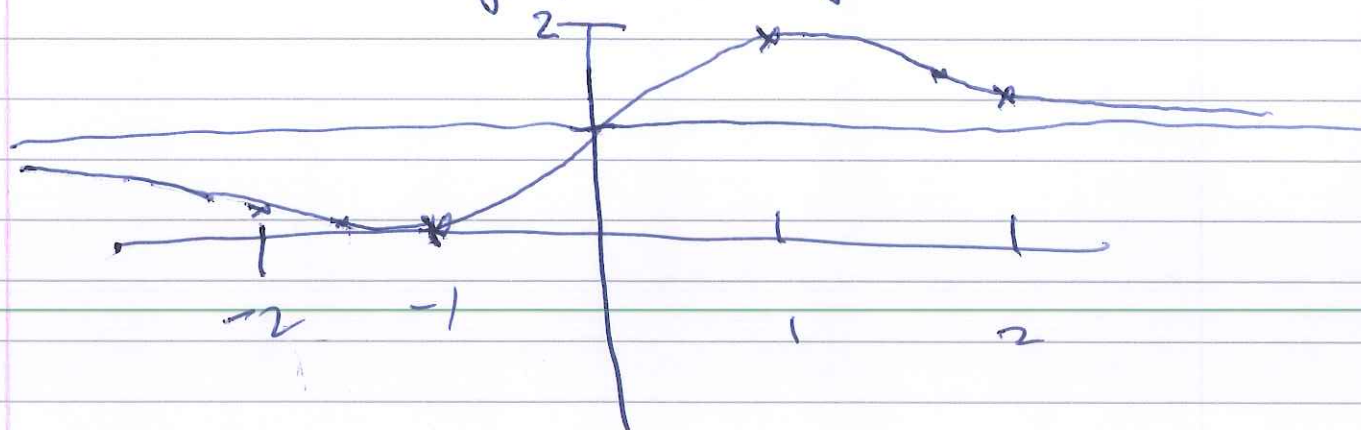
$\begin{matrix} \text{''} \\ .134 \end{matrix}$
 $\begin{matrix} \text{''} \\ 1.886 \end{matrix}$

Note as $x \rightarrow -\infty$

$f(x) \rightarrow 1$ from below

as $x \rightarrow +\infty$

$f(x) \rightarrow 1$ from above



3 (a) Rolle's Theorem, If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and differentiable on (a, b) and if $f(a) = f(b) = 0$ then there exists c , $a < c < b$ s.t. $f'(c) = 0$.

Proof: If $f(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$, then $f'(c) = 0 \quad \forall a < c < b$

If $f(x_1) > 0$ some $a < x_1 < b$, we know from the extreme value theorem that $f(x)$ has an absolute maximum on $[a, b]$. Since $f(x_1) > 0$, this absolute max. cannot be at a or b , the endpoints. By an earlier theorem it must be at a critical point, but $f'(x)$ exists all $a < x < b$, so it must be at a stationary point c with $f'(c) = 0$.

If no x_1 has $f(x_1) > 0$, then some x_2 has $f(x_2) < 0$ and a similar argument using the absolute minimum gives $f'(c) = 0$.

(b) If $f'(x) = g'(x) \forall x$, let $F(x) = f(x) - g(x)$, then $F'(x) = 0 \forall x$.

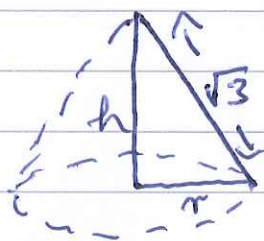
Then $\forall a, b$ by the Mean Value Theorem, there exists c with

$$F'(c) = \frac{F(b) - F(a)}{b - a}.$$

Hence $F(b) - F(a) = 0$ so $F(x) = \text{const}$

$$\therefore f(x) = g(x) + \text{constant}$$

(c)



$$V = \frac{1}{3} \pi r^2 h.$$

$$r^2 + h^2 = 3.$$

$$h = \sqrt{3 - r^2}$$

$$V = \frac{1}{3} \pi r^2 \sqrt{3 - r^2}$$

$$\frac{dV}{dr} = \frac{1}{3} \pi \cdot 2r \cdot \sqrt{3-r^2} + \frac{1}{3} \pi r^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{-2r}{\sqrt{3-r^2}} - 2r$$

$$= 0$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{1}{3} \pi 2r(3-r^2) + \frac{1}{3} \pi r^2 \cdot (-r) = 0$$

$$6r - 2r^3 - r^3 = 0$$

$$6r = 3r^3$$

$$r=0 \quad \frac{6}{3} = r^2 \quad r = \pm \sqrt{2}$$

$$r = +\sqrt{2} \quad \rightarrow h = \sqrt{3-2} = 1$$

$$V = \frac{1}{3} \pi \cdot 2 \cdot 1 = \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

$$r = -\sqrt{2} \quad \text{is not physical}$$

$$r = 0 \quad \rightarrow V = 0 \quad \text{not a maximum,}$$

4. (c) If $f(x)$ is unbounded on (a, b) then when we go to form any Riemann sum $\sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i^*) \Delta x_i$, on at least one of the intervals in the partition we can choose $f(x_i^*)$ to be arbitrarily large & hence no limit of these can exist.

(b) (i) $\int x^2 e^x dx$. Integrate by Parts

$$u = x^2 \quad \frac{dv}{dx} = e^x$$

$$\frac{du}{dx} = 2x \quad v = e^x$$

$$x^2 e^x = \int x^2 e^x dx + \int 2x e^x dx.$$

Consider $\int x e^x dx$

$$u = x \quad \frac{dv}{dx} = e^x$$

$$\frac{du}{dx} = 1 \quad v = e^x.$$

$$x e^x = \int x e^x dx + \int e^x dx$$

$$\therefore \int 2x e^x dx = 2x e^x - e^x$$

$$\therefore \int x^2 e^x dx = x^2 e^x - 2x e^x + e^x + C$$

(ii) $\int x e^{x^2} dx$ Let $u = x^2$

$$\frac{du}{dx} = 2x.$$

$$\int x e^{x^2} dx = \int \frac{1}{2} \frac{du}{dx} \cdot e^u \cdot dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int e^u du = \frac{1}{2} e^u + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} e^{x^2} + C.$$

$$(iii) \int \sin^2 x \cos^2 x \, dx$$

$$= \int \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos 2x) \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos 2x) \, dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \int 1 - \cos^2 2x \, dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \int 1 - \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos 4x) \, dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \int \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \cos 4x \, dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{1}{2} x - \frac{1}{8} \sin 4x \right) + C$$

$$= \frac{1}{8} x - \frac{1}{32} \sin 4x + C$$

$$(iv) \int \frac{x^3 + x + 1}{x^2 + x + 1} \, dx, \quad \text{In } \int \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \, dx$$

if degree $P(x) \geq$ degree $Q(x)$ we must divide,

$$x^2 + x + 1 \overline{) x^3 + x + 1}$$

$$\underline{x^3 + x^2 + x}$$

$$-x^2 + 1$$

$$\underline{-x^2 - x - 1}$$

$$x + 2$$

$$\frac{x^3 + x + 1}{x^2 + x + 1} = x - 1 + \frac{x + 2}{x^2 + x + 1}$$

$$\int x-1 \, dx = \frac{x^2}{2} - x.$$

$$\int \frac{x+2}{x^2+x+1} dx = \int \frac{x+1/2}{x^2+x+1} dx + \int \frac{3/2}{x^2+x+1} dx.$$

We choose $x+1/2$ because with

$$u = x^2+x+1 \quad \frac{du}{dx} = 2x+1 = 2(x+1/2).$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So } \int \frac{x+1/2}{x^2+x+1} dx &= \int \frac{1/2 \frac{du}{dx} \cdot dx}{u} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{1}{u} du = \frac{1}{2} \ln u \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2+x+1). \end{aligned}$$

For $\int \frac{dx}{x^2+x+1}$ we complete the

$$\text{square } \frac{1}{x^2+x+1} = \frac{1}{x^2+x+\frac{1}{4}+\frac{3}{4}} = \frac{1}{(x+\frac{1}{2})^2+\frac{3}{4}}$$

$$u = x+\frac{1}{2} \quad \frac{du}{dx} = 1$$

$$\int \frac{1}{u^2+\frac{3}{4}} du = \int \frac{1}{u^2+(\sqrt{3}/2)^2} du$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}/2} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{u}{\sqrt{3}/2}\right)$$

$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{2x+1}{\sqrt{3}}\right)$$

✓ $\int \frac{x}{(x^2+2)(x+2)(x-2)} dx$ Partial Fractions

$$\frac{x}{(x^2+2)(x+2)(x-2)} = \frac{Ax+B}{x^2+2} + \frac{C}{x+2} + \frac{D}{x-2}$$

$$x = (Ax+B)(x+2)(x-2) + C(x^2+2)(x-2) + D(x^2+2)(x+2)$$

$$x=2$$

$$2 = D \cdot 24$$

$$D = 1/12$$

$$x=-2$$

$$-2 = C \cdot -24$$

$$C = 1/12$$

$$x=0$$

$$0 = -4B - 4C + 4D$$

$$\text{But } C=D \rightarrow B=0$$

$$\text{Coeff of } x^3: 0 = A + C + D$$

$$C=D=1/12 \rightarrow A = -1/6$$

So

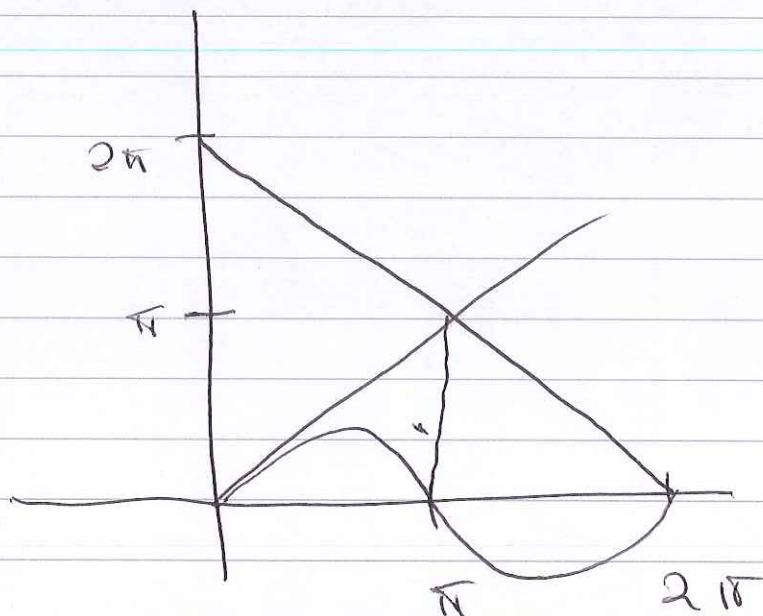
$$\int \frac{x}{(x^2+2)(x+2)(x-2)} dx = \int \frac{-1/6}{x^2+2} dx$$

$$+ \int \frac{1/12}{x+2} dx + \int \frac{1/12}{x-2} dx$$

$$= -\frac{1}{6} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{2}}\right) + \frac{1}{12} \ln|x+2| + \frac{1}{12} \ln|x-2|$$

5 (a).

4



$$\text{Area} = \int_0^{\pi} x - \sin x \, dx + \int_{\pi}^{2\pi} x + 2\pi - \sin x \, dx$$

$$= \left[\frac{x^2}{2} + \cos x \right]_0^{\pi} + \left[-\frac{x^2}{2} + 2\pi x + \cos x \right]_{\pi}^{2\pi}$$

$$= \left[\frac{\pi^2}{2} - 1 - (1) \right] + \left[-2\pi^2 + 4\pi^2 + 1 \right]$$

$$- \left[-\frac{\pi^2}{2} + 2\pi^2 - 1 \right]$$

$$= \frac{\pi^2}{2} - 2 + 2\pi^2 + 1 - 3\frac{\pi^2}{2} + 1$$

$$= \pi^2$$

(b) If an integral is over an infinite interval say $[a, \infty)$, then the Riemann integral does not exist. But it may exist as an improper integral

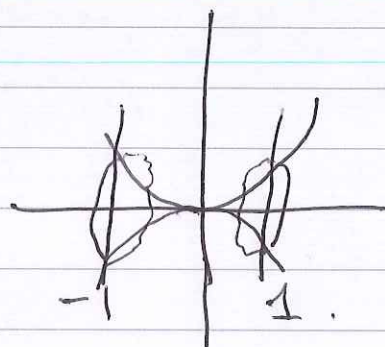
$$\int_a^{\infty} f(x) dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

or if $f(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow a$,

then $\int_a^b f(x) dx$ does not exist as a Riemann integral, but it may exist as an improper integral

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{c \rightarrow a^+} \int_c^b f(x) dx.$$

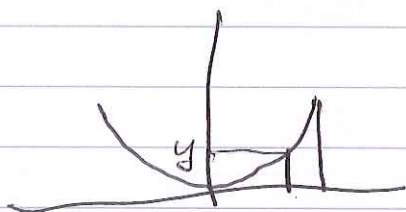
(c)



$$y = x^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Volume} &= \int_{-1}^1 \pi r^2 dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 \pi \cdot x^2 dx \\ &= \frac{\pi}{3} x^3 \bigg|_{-1}^1 = \frac{2\pi}{3} \end{aligned}$$

By cylindrical shells
Take top half.



$$\begin{aligned} &\int_0^1 2\pi y(1-\sqrt{y}) dy \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^1 y - y^{3/2} dy \\ &= 2\pi \left[\frac{y^2}{2} - \frac{y^{5/2}}{5/2} \right]_0^1 \\ &= 2\pi \left[\frac{1}{2} - \frac{2}{5} \right] = 2\pi \cdot \frac{1}{10} \\ &= \frac{\pi}{5} \end{aligned}$$

$$+ \text{Bottom half} = \frac{2\pi}{5}$$

6 (a) $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$ means $\forall \epsilon > 0$

$\exists N$ p.t. $n \geq N \rightarrow |a_n - L| < \epsilon$.

$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = S$ means $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = L$

where $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$

(b) (i) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{n^2 + n + 1}{n^3 + 2}$ this goes to 0

like $\frac{1}{n}$, so we

use the limit comparison test

$$a_n = \frac{n^2 + n + 1}{n^3 + 2}$$

$$b_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\frac{a_n}{b_n} = \frac{n^3 + n^2 + n}{n^3 + 2}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n} = 1$$

$\sum b_n$ diverges $\rightarrow \sum a_n$ diverges

$$(ii) \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{n}{\ln n}$$

$$a_n = \frac{n}{\ln n} \rightarrow \infty \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Hence $\sum \frac{n}{\ln n}$ diverges.

(iii) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2^n}{n!}$ - Try the Ratio Test

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{\frac{2^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{2^n}{n!}} = \frac{2}{n+1} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

Hence by the Ratio Test

$\sum \frac{2^n}{n!}$ converges

(c) $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = S$ means $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = S$

where $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k$

then $a_n = S_n - S_{n-1}$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_{n-1}$$

$$= S - S = 0$$

(d) $\sum \frac{(x-2)^n}{n \cdot 3^n}$ Ratio Test $\frac{|a_{n+1}|}{|a_n|}$

$$= \frac{\frac{|x-2|^{n+1}}{(n+1) \cdot 3^{n+1}}}{\frac{|x-2|^n}{n \cdot 3^n}} = \frac{|x-2|}{3} \cdot \frac{n}{n+1} \rightarrow \frac{|x-2|}{3}$$

Converges absolutely if $\frac{|x-2|}{3} < 1$, $|x-2| < 3$
 $\rightarrow -3 < x-2 < 3$

$$-1 < x < 5$$

Diverges outside this

At $x = -1$

$$\sum \frac{(-3)^n}{n \cdot 3^n} = \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$$

converges conditionally

at $x = 5$

$$\sum \frac{3^n}{n \cdot 3^n} = \sum \frac{1}{n}$$

diverges.