[0.5] 1. Prove that 
$$
(-1)^1 + (-1)^2 + (-1)^3 + \cdots + (-1)^n = \frac{(-1)^n - 1}{2}
$$
, for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .  
\n- Base step:  $(-1)^1 = -1 = \frac{(-1)^1 - 1}{2}$   $\checkmark$   
\n- Induction step: assume that  $\sum_{j=1}^k (-1)^j = \frac{(-1)^k - 1}{2}$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then:  
\n
$$
\sum_{j=1}^k (-1)^j + (-1)^{k+1} = \frac{(-1)^k - 1}{2} + (-1)^{k+1}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{(-1)^k - 1 + 2(-1)^{k+1}}{2}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{(-1)^k - 1 + (-1)^{k+1} + (-1)^{k+1}}{2}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{(-1)^k - 1 - (-1)^k + (-1)^{k+1}}{2}
$$
\n
$$
= \frac{(-1)^{k+1} - 1}{2}
$$
\n- Conclusion: it follows from the principle of mathematical induction that  $(-1)^1 + (-1)^2 + (-1)^3 + \cdots + (-1)^n = \frac{(-1)^n - 1}{2}$ , for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

[0.5] 2. Find all complex numbers  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  that satisfy the equation  $z + \frac{1+i}{1}$  $1 - i$  $\vert$  =  $\vert$  $z-\frac{1+i}{1}$  $1 - i$  and plot them in the Argand plane.

First we see that:

$$
\frac{1+i}{1-i} = \frac{1+i}{1-i} \cdot \frac{1+i}{1+i} = i.
$$

Therefore:

$$
\left| z + \frac{1+i}{1-i} \right| = \left| z - \frac{1+i}{1-i} \right| \iff |z + i| = |z - i|
$$
  
\n
$$
|a + (b + 1)i| = |a + (b - 1)i|
$$
  
\n
$$
a^2 + (b + 1)^2 = a^2 + (b - 1)^2
$$
  
\n
$$
a^2 + b^2 + 2b + 1 = a^2 + b^2 - 2b + 1
$$
  
\n
$$
4b = 0
$$
  
\n
$$
b = 0.
$$

Therefore, the solution is  $z = a$ , with  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , or all real numbers. The plot is simply the real line.

[0.5] 3. Prove rigorously, using the  $(\varepsilon, \delta)$ -definition of limit, that  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x - 1}$  $\frac{2x+1}{x-1} = -1.$ 

> – Preliminary analysis: First we notice that, due to continuity and together with  $\lim_{x\to c} \frac{f(x)}{f(x)}$  $\frac{f(x)}{f(x)} = 1$  for arbitrary functions,  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x - 1}$  $\frac{-2x+1}{x-1} = -1 \iff \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x-1}$  $\frac{x-1}{x-1} = -1 \iff \lim_{x \to 0} (x-1) = -1.$  This means that it suffices to prove  $\lim_{x\to 0} (x-1) = -1$ . Now it is straightforward to choose  $\delta = \varepsilon$ . *Proof.* For all  $\varepsilon > 0$ , let  $\delta > 0$ . If  $0 < |x| < \delta$ , then  $|x - 1 + 1| = |x - 1 - (-1)| < \delta = \varepsilon$ . Therefore, from the  $(\varepsilon, \delta)$ -definition of limit it follows that  $\lim_{x\to 0} (x-1) = -1$  and therefore  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x - 1}$  $\frac{2x+1}{x-1} = -1.$

> > $\Box$

[0.75] 4. Evaluate the limit  $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x - 2 \cos x - x + 2}{x^2}$  $\frac{x^{3}}{x^{2}}$  without using L'Hospital's rule.

We know from the lectures that

$$
\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \cdots
$$

$$
\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots
$$

Therefore:

$$
\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x - 2 \cos x - x + 2}{x^2} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \dots) - 2(1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots) - x + 2}{x^2}
$$
\n
$$
= \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{2\frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots}{x^2}
$$
\n
$$
= 1.
$$

[0.75] 5. Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . Prove that for every  $k \geq 1$ , the equation

$$
x^{2k+1} + a_{2k}x^{2k} + a_{2k-1}x^{2k-1} + \cdots + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0 = 0,
$$

where all the coefficients  $a_i$ ,  $i = 0, 1, ..., 2k$ , are real numbers, has at least one real solution.

Let  $p(x) = x^{2k+1} + a_{2k}x^{2k} + a_{2k-1}x^{2k-1} + \cdots + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0$ . Since  $p(x)$  is an odd polynomial, there exist  $\alpha < 0$  and  $\beta > 0$  such that  $p(\alpha) < 0$  and  $p(\beta) > 0$ .

It follows from the intermediate value theorem that there exists a  $c \in (\alpha, \beta)$  such that  $p(c) = 0$ .

[0.75] 6. Suppose that  $f(x)$  is continuous on a closed interval [a, b] and that  $f(x)$  is differentiable on the open interval  $(a, b)$ , with  $a < b$ . Prove that if  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ , then the function  $f(x)$  is strictly decreasing on the interval  $[a, b]$ .

We shall proceed by contradiction: assume there exist  $x_1, x_2 \in (a, b)$ , with  $x_1 < x_2$  and such that  $f(x_2)$  –  $f(x_1) \geq 0$ . On the other hand, we know from the mean value theorem that there exists a  $c \in (x_1, x_2)$  such that  $f'(c) = \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} \ge 0$ . But this is a contradiction of  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x \in (a, b)$ . Therefore, we conclude that for any  $x_1, x_2 \in (a, b)$ , with  $x_1 < x_2$  it holds that  $f(x_2) - f(x_1) < 0$  which is equivalent to  $f(x_1) > f(x_2)$ .

[0.5] 7. Let  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  be differentiable functions. Find the derivative of the function  $h(x) = f(x)^{g(x)}$ .

From now on we assume that the images of the functions are such that the following operations are welldefined.

$$
h(x) = f(x)^{g(x)} \iff \ln h(x) = g(x) \ln f(x)
$$

$$
\to \frac{h'(x)}{h(x)} = g'(x) \ln f(x) + \frac{g(x)f'(x)}{f(x)}
$$

$$
\to \boxed{h'(x) = h(x) \left( g'(x) \ln f(x) + \frac{g(x)f'(x)}{f(x)} \right)}
$$

[0.5] 8. Evaluate the limit  $\lim_{x \to \infty} (e^x + 2x)^{1/x}$ .

Let 
$$
y = (e^x + 2x)^{1/x}
$$
, then  $\ln y = \frac{1}{x} \ln(e^x + 2x)$ .  
\nSo:  
\n
$$
\lim_{x \to \infty} \ln y = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1}{x} \ln(e^x + 2x) \stackrel{\approx}{=} \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{e^x + 2}{e^x + 2x} \stackrel{\approx}{=} \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{e^x}{e^x + 2} \stackrel{\approx}{=} \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{e^x}{e^x} = 1.
$$
\nThis implies that  $\lim_{x \to \infty} (e^x + 2x)^{1/x} = e$ .

[0.5] 9. Let  $f(x)$ ,  $g(x)$  and  $h(x)$  be differentiable functions. Evaluate the integral

$$
\int_{a}^{b} (f'(x)g(x)h(x) + f(x)g'(x)h(x) + f(x)g(x)h'(x))dx.
$$

We notice that 
$$
f'(x)g(x)h(x) + f(x)g'(x)h(x) + f(x)g(x)h'(x) = (f(x)g(x)h(x))'
$$
. Therefore  
\n
$$
\int_a^b (f'(x)g(x)h(x) + f(x)g'(x)h(x) + f(x)g(x)h'(x))dx = \int_a^b (f(x)g(x)h(x))'dx = f(b)g(b)h(b) - f(a)g(a)h(a),
$$
\nwhere we have used the fundamental theorem of calculus.

where we have used the fundamental theorem of calculus.

[0.75] 10. Evaluate the following integral  $\int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}}$  $-\frac{\pi}{2}$  $(x^3 \cos x \sin^2 x + x \sin x) dx$ .

Since  $x^3 \cos x \sin^2 x$  is an odd function, it immediately follows that

$$
\int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} (x^3 \cos x \sin^2 x + x \sin x) dx = \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} (x \sin x) dx.
$$

Integrating by parts we have that  $\int x \sin x dx = -x \cos x + \sin x$ . Therefore:

$$
\int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \left( x^3 \cos x \sin^2 x + x \sin x \right) dx = \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} (x \sin x) dx = (-x \cos x + \sin x)|_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} = 2.
$$

[0.75] 11. Find the average of the function  $f(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2-t}}$  on the interval [0, 2].

## By definition:  $f_{avg} = \frac{1}{2}$ 2  $\int_0^2$ 0  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2-t}}\mathrm{d}t,$ We notice that  $\int_1^2$ 0  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2-t}}$ dt is improper. Therefore:  $f_{avg} = \frac{1}{2}$  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\lim_{x\to 2^{-}}$  $\int_0^x$ 0  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2-t}}dt$  $=\frac{1}{2}$  $\frac{1}{2}$   $\lim_{x \to 2^{-}} (-2)$ √  $\left( \overline{2-t}\right)$ x 0  $=\lim_{x\to 2^{-}}$  $\left($ √  $2 - x +$ √  $\overline{2})$ = √ 2.

 $[0.75]$  12. Let a and b be positive numbers. Find the length of the shortest line segment that is cut off by the first quadrant and passes through the point  $(a, b)$ .



The line that passes through  $(a, b)$  is given by  $y = m(x - a) + b$ , where m is the slope of the line. From this we know that the length of the line segment is a function of  $m$ .

Of course there is an infinite number of lines that pass through  $(a, b)$  and that are cut-off by the first quadrant. However, from the sketch we observe that if the line is going to have finite length, then  $m < 0$ . Notice that if  $y = 0$ , then  $x = \frac{ma - b}{a}$  $\frac{x}{m}$ , while when  $x = 0$ , then  $y = b - ma$ . This means that the length of the line that is cut off by the first quadrant and passes through the point  $(a, b)$  is:

$$
l(m) = \sqrt{\left(\frac{ma - b}{m}\right)^2 + (b - ma)^2}.
$$

Minimizing  $l(m)$  is equivalent to minimizing  $L(m) = l(m)^2 = \left(\frac{ma - b}{m}\right)^2$ m  $\int_{0}^{2}+(b-ma)^{2}=(ma-b)^{2}\left(1+\frac{1}{2}\right)$  $m<sup>2</sup>$  $\bigg),$ so now we only focus on minimizing  $L(m)$ . So:

$$
L'(m) = 2a(ma - b)\left(1 + \frac{1}{m^2}\right) - \frac{2}{m^3}(ma - b)^2 = 2(ma - b)\left(a + \frac{a}{m^2} - \frac{a}{m^2} + \frac{b}{m^3}\right)
$$

$$
= 2(ma - b)\left(a + \frac{b}{m^3}\right) = \frac{2(ma - b)}{m^3}(am^3 + b).
$$

Notice at this point that since  $\frac{ma - b}{m^3} > 0$ . That implies that since  $m < 0$ , the only solution for  $L'(m) = 0$ is  $m = -\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)$ a  $\bigg)^{1/3}$ . Moreover, the sign of  $L'(m)$  is exclusively given by the sign of  $(am^3+b)$ .

Next, we notice that  $L'(m) < 0$  for  $m < -\left(\frac{b}{m}\right)$ a  $\int_{0}^{1/3}$  and  $L'(m) > 0$  for  $m > -\left(\frac{b}{m}\right)$ a  $\bigg\}^{1/3}$ , which means that the value of m that we have found corresponds to a minimum of  $L(m)$ .

Finally, let us define  $m^* = -\left(\frac{b}{m}\right)$ a  $\int_{1/3}^{1/3}$ . Thus, the length of the shortest line segment that is cut off by the first quadrant and passes through the point  $(a, b)$  is  $l(m^*)$ , that is:

$$
l(m^*) = \sqrt{\left(\frac{m^*a - b}{m^*}\right)^2 + (b - m^*a)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{(m^*a - b)^2 + (m^*)^2(b - m^*a)^2}{(m^*)^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{(m^*a - b)^2(1 + (m^*)^2)}{(m^*)^2}}
$$
  
= 
$$
\frac{m^*a - b}{m^*} \sqrt{1 + (m^*)^2} = \frac{b^{1/3}a^{2/3} + b}{b^{1/3}a^{-1/3}} \sqrt{1 + \frac{b^{2/3}}{a^{2/3}}} = \frac{b^{1/3}a^{2/3} + b}{b^{1/3}} \sqrt{a^{2/3} + b^{2/3}}
$$
  
= 
$$
(a^{2/3} + b^{2/3})\sqrt{a^{2/3} + b^{2/3}} = \boxed{(a^{2/3} + b^{2/3})^{3/2}}
$$

[0.5] 13. Find the length of the curve  $y = 1 + e^{-x}$  for  $0 \le x \le 1$ .

$$
y' = -e^{-x} \to 1 + (y')^2 = 1 + e^{-2x}, \text{ so:}
$$
\n
$$
L = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + e^{-2x}} \, dx
$$
\nUsing  $u = e^{-x}$  we have:\n
$$
L = -\int_1^{e^{-1}} \frac{\sqrt{1 + u^2}}{u} \, du
$$
\nWe can now use the formula\n
$$
\int \frac{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}{a} \, dx = \sqrt{a^2 + x^2} - a \ln \left| \frac{a + \sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}{x} \right|, \text{ which appears in the back of the book (you of course could have solved this integral by trigonometric substitution as well), to obtain:\n
$$
L = \left( \ln \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + u^2}}{u} - \sqrt{1 + u^2} \right) \Big|_1^{e^{-1}}
$$
\n
$$
= \ln \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}}}{e^{-1}} - \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}} - \ln(1 + \sqrt{2}) + \sqrt{2}
$$
\n
$$
= \ln(1 + \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}}) - \ln(e^{-1}) - \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}} - \ln(1 + \sqrt{2}) + \sqrt{2}
$$
\n
$$
= \ln(1 + \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}}) + 1 - \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}} - \ln(1 + \sqrt{2}) + \sqrt{2}.
$$
$$

[0.5] 14. Solve the initial value problem  $y' = \frac{2x(y^3 + 1)}{2}$  $\frac{y^{1+1}}{y^2}$ ,  $y(1) = 1$ .

$$
\frac{y^2}{y^3 + 1} dy = 2x dx
$$
\nsubstitution:  $u = y^3 + 1$ 

\n
$$
\frac{1}{3} \int \frac{du}{u} = 2 \int x dx
$$
\n
$$
\frac{1}{3} \ln|u| = x^2 + C
$$
\n
$$
\ln|u| = 3x^2 + D
$$
\n
$$
u = Ae^{3x^2}
$$
\n
$$
y^3 = Ae^{3x^2} - 1
$$
\n
$$
y = \left( Ae^{3x^2} - 1\right)^{1/3}
$$

where  $A \neq 0$ . However, we notice that if  $A = 0$ , then  $y = -1$ , which satisfies the differential equation. So, we have that the general solution to the given differential equation is  $y(x) = (Ae^{3x^2} - 1)^{1/3}$  with  $A \in \mathbb{R}$ . We now look for the solution of the initial value problem:  $y(1) = (Ae^3 - 1)^{1/3} = 1$ , which implies  $A = 2e^{-3}$ . Therefore, the solution of the given initial value problem is  $y(x) = (2e^{-3}e^{3x^2} - 1)^{1/3}$ .

,

[0.5] 15. Solve the differential equation  $xy' + 2y = x^2 - x + 2$ , and state for which values of x is the solution well-defined. (That is, state the domain of the solution)

First we write the given equation as a linear first order differential equation:

$$
y'+\frac{2}{x}y=x-1+\frac{2}{x},
$$

and compute that the integrating factor is

$$
I(x) = x^2.
$$

Then

$$
(x2y)' = x3 - x2 + 2x
$$
  

$$
x2y = \frac{x4}{4} - \frac{x3}{3} + x2 + C
$$
  

$$
y = \frac{x2}{4} - \frac{x}{3} + 1 + \frac{C}{x2}.
$$

For arbitrary constant C, we notice that the solution is well defined for all  $x \neq 0$ . Only in the particular case where  $C = 0$  is the solution defined for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

[1 bonus] 16. Consider a fixed population of  $N > 0$  individuals. In epidemiology, the so-called SIS model is given by the equations:

$$
\frac{\text{d}S}{\text{d}t} = -\frac{\beta}{N}SI + \gamma I
$$
\n
$$
\frac{\text{d}I}{\text{d}t} = \frac{\beta}{N}SI - \gamma I,
$$
\n(1)

where  $S = S(t)$  denotes the number of Susceptible individuals at time t, and  $I = I(t)$  denotes the number of Infected individuals at time t. Because the total population N is fixed, the conservation law  $S(t) + I(t) = N$ holds for all t. Moreover, for the model one considers  $\beta > 0$  and  $\gamma > 0$ .

- a) Using the conservation law and (1), obtain a single differential equation that models the evolution of the Infected individuals over time. [**Hint:** this equation should be of the form  $\frac{dI}{dt} = f(I, N, \beta, \gamma)$ ]
- b) Solve the equation obtained in item a). That is, find the function  $I(t)$  that satisfies the differential equation of item a).
- c) Prove, using the solution obtained in b) that: if  $\frac{\beta}{\gamma} < 1$ , then  $\lim_{t \to \infty} I(t) = 0$ . Give an interpretation of this result.
- d) Assuming  $\frac{\beta}{\gamma} > 1$ , what is  $\lim_{t \to \infty} I(t)$ ? Give an interpretation of this result.
	- a) We substitute  $S = N I$  in (1) and obtain:

$$
\frac{dI}{dt} = \frac{\beta}{N}(N - I)I - \gamma I
$$

$$
= (\beta - \gamma)I - \frac{\beta}{N}I^2
$$

b) To simplify notation, let  $a = \beta - \gamma$  and  $b = \frac{\beta}{\gamma}$  $\frac{\beta}{N}$ . Then we have:

$$
\frac{dI}{dt} = aI - bI^2
$$

$$
= (a - bI)I
$$

$$
\frac{dI}{I(a - bI)} = dt.
$$

Using partial fractions we find that

$$
\frac{1}{I(a-bI)} = \frac{1}{aI} + \frac{b}{a(a-bI)}.
$$

Integrating:

$$
\int \frac{dI}{I(a - bI)} = \int dt
$$

$$
\frac{1}{a} \int \frac{dI}{I} + \frac{b}{a} \int \frac{dI}{a - bI} = t + C
$$

$$
\frac{1}{a} \ln|I| - \frac{1}{a} \ln|a - bI| = t + C
$$

$$
\ln\left|\frac{I}{a - bI}\right| = at + D
$$

$$
\frac{I}{a - bI} = Ae^{at},
$$

where  $A \in \mathbb{R}$ . This solution can be written in explicit form as:

$$
I(t) = \frac{Aae^{at}}{1 + Abe^{at}}.
$$

Notice that (this will be used later):

\* if 
$$
a < 0
$$
, then  $\lim_{t \to \infty} I(t) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{Aae^{at}}{1 + Abe^{at}} = 0$   
\n\* if  $a > 0$ , then  $\lim_{t \to \infty} I(t) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{Aae^{at}}{1 + Abe^{at}} \stackrel{\cong}{=} \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{Aa^2e^{at}}{Aabe^{at}} = \frac{a}{b}$ 

- c) If  $\frac{\beta}{\gamma}$  < 1 then  $a = \beta \gamma$  < 0 and the proof follows from the first of the above limits. The interpretation is that if  $\frac{\beta}{\gamma} < 1$  then the infection disappears.
- d) If  $\frac{\beta}{\gamma} > 1$  then  $a = \beta \gamma > 0$  and from the second of the above limits we have that  $\lim_{t \to \infty} I(t) = \frac{a}{b}$  $N(\beta - \gamma)$  $\frac{\beta-\gamma}{\beta}$ . The interpretation is that if  $\frac{\beta}{\gamma} > 1$ , then the number of infections tends, in the long run, to a fixed value of  $\frac{N(\beta - \gamma)}{\beta}$ .