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

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

First we see that:

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

Therefore:

$$\begin{vmatrix} z + \frac{1+i}{1-i} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} z - \frac{1+i}{1-i} \end{vmatrix} \iff |z+i| = |z-i|$$
$$|a + (b+1)i| = |a + (b-1)i|$$
$$a^2 + (b+1)^2 = a^2 + (b-1)^2$$
$$a^2 + b^2 + 2b + 1 = a^2 + b^2 - 2b + 1$$
$$4b = 0$$
$$b = 0.$$

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 (ε, δ) -definition of limit, that $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x - 1} = -1$.

- Preliminary analysis: First we notice that, due to continuity and together with $\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{f(x)} = 1$ for arbitrary functions, $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x - 1} = -1 \iff \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(x - 1)^2}{x - 1} = -1 \iff \lim_{x \to 0} (x - 1) = -1$. 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 (ε, δ) -definition of limit it follows that $\lim_{x \to 0} (x - 1) = -1$ and therefore $\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x - 1} = -1$.

[0.75] 4. Evaluate the limit $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin x - 2\cos x - x + 2}{x^2}$ 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:

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

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

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

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

Let $p(x) = x^{2k+1} + a_{2k}x^{2k} + a_{2k-1}x^{2k-1} + \dots + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0$. 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 $f(x_2) - f(x_1) \ge 0$. 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.

$$h(x) = f(x)^{g(x)} \iff \ln h(x) = g(x) \ln f(x)$$
$$\rightarrow \frac{h'(x)}{h(x)} = g'(x) \ln f(x) + \frac{g(x)f'(x)}{f(x)}$$
$$\rightarrow h'(x) = h(x) \left(g'(x) \ln f(x) + \frac{g(x)f'(x)}{f(x)}\right)$$

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

Let
$$y = (e^x + 2x)^{1/x}$$
, then $\ln y = \frac{1}{x} \ln(e^x + 2x)$.
So:
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \ln y = \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{1}{x} \ln(e^x + 2x) \stackrel{\infty}{=} \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{e^x + 2}{e^x + 2x} \stackrel{\infty}{=} \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{e^x}{e^x + 2} \stackrel{\infty}{=} \lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{e^x}{e^x} = 1.$$
This 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

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

where we have used the fundamental theorem of calculus.

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

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

$$\int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \left(x^3 \cos x \sin^2 x + x \sin x \right) \mathrm{d}x = \int_{-\frac{\pi}{2}}^{\frac{\pi}{2}} \left(x \sin x \right) \mathrm{d}x$$

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

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

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

By definition:

$$f_{avg} = \frac{1}{2} \int_{0}^{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2-t}} dt,$$
We notice that $\int_{0}^{2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2-t}} dt$ is improper. Therefore:

$$f_{avg} = \frac{1}{2} \lim_{x \to 2^{-}} \int_{0}^{x} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2-t}} dt$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \lim_{x \to 2^{-}} \left(-2\sqrt{2-t}\right) \Big|_{0}^{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 2^{-}} \left(-\sqrt{2-x} + \sqrt{2}\right)$$

$$= \sqrt{2}.$$

[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 $x = \frac{ma - b}{m}$, 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 $L(m) = l(m)^2 = \left(\frac{ma-b}{m}\right)^2 + (b-ma)^2 = (ma-b)^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{m^2}\right)$, 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 $m = -\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{1/3}$. Moreover, the sign of L'(m) is exclusively given by the sign of $(am^3 + b)$.

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

Finally, let us define $m^* = -\left(\frac{b}{a}\right)^{1/3}$. 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:

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

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

$$y' = -e^{-x} \to 1 + (y')^2 = 1 + e^{-2x}$$
, so:

Using $u = e^{-x}$ we have:

$$L = -\int_1^{e^{-1}} \frac{\sqrt{1+u^2}}{u} \mathrm{d}u$$

 $L = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + e^{-2x}} \mathrm{d}x$

We can now use the formula $\int \frac{\sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}{a} dx = \sqrt{a^2 + x^2} - a \ln \left| \frac{a + \sqrt{a^2 + x^2}}{x} \right|$, which appears in the back of the book (you of course could have solved this integral by trigonometric substitution as well), to obtain:

$$L = \left(\ln \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + u^2}}{u} - \sqrt{1 + u^2} \right) \Big|_1^{e^{-1}}$$

= $\ln \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}}}{e^{-1}} - \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}} - \ln(1 + \sqrt{2}) + \sqrt{2}$
= $\ln(1 + \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}}) - \ln(e^{-1}) - \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}} - \ln(1 + \sqrt{2}) + \sqrt{2}$
= $\ln(1 + \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}}) + 1 - \sqrt{1 + e^{-2}} - \ln(1 + \sqrt{2}) + \sqrt{2}.$

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

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

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

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

$$(x^{2}y)' = x^{3} - x^{2} + 2x$$
$$x^{2}y = \frac{x^{4}}{4} - \frac{x^{3}}{3} + x^{2} + C$$
$$y = \frac{x^{2}}{4} - \frac{x}{3} + 1 + \frac{C}{x^{2}}.$$

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:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}S}{\mathrm{d}t} = -\frac{\beta}{N}SI + \gamma I$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}I}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\beta}{N}SI - \gamma I,$$
(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) = Nholds 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:

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

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

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}I}{\mathrm{d}t} = aI - bI^2$$
$$= (a - bI)I$$
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}I}{I(a - bI)} = \mathrm{d}t.$$

Using partial fractions we find that

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

Integrating:

$$\int \frac{\mathrm{d}I}{I(a-bI)} = \int \mathrm{d}t$$
$$\frac{1}{a} \int \frac{\mathrm{d}I}{I} + \frac{b}{a} \int \frac{\mathrm{d}I}{a-bI} = t + C$$
$$\frac{1}{a} \ln|I| - \frac{1}{a} \ln|a-bI| = t + C$$
$$\ln\left|\frac{I}{a-bI}\right| = at + D$$
$$\frac{I}{a-bI} = Ae^{at},$$

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

- 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 $\lim_{t \to \infty} I(t) = \frac{a}{b} = \frac{N(\beta \gamma)}{\beta}$. The interpretation is that if $\frac{\beta}{\gamma} > 1$, then the number of infections tends, in the long run, to a fixed value of $\frac{N(\beta \gamma)}{\beta}$.