

# Calculus 1

## Final Exam – Solutions

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1) Prove using the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{3x^2 - 3}{x - 1} = 6$ .

**Solution.** Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be arbitrary and take  $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ . Then,  $0 < |x - 1| < \delta$  implies that

$$\left| \frac{3x^2 - 3}{x - 1} - 6 \right| = \left| \frac{3(x - 1)(x + 1)}{x - 1} - 6 \right| = |3(x + 1) - 6| = 3|x - 1| < 3\delta = \varepsilon.$$

Thus,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{3x^2 - 3}{x - 1} = 6$ .

2) Apply l'Hospital's Rule to find the following limit:  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 + h)^{1/h} - e}{h}$ .

**Solution.** This limit is an indeterminate form of type  $\frac{0}{0}$  since  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (1 + h)^{1/h} = e$ . To apply l'Hospital's Rule, we need to compute the derivative of the function  $(1 + h)^{1/h}$  which is of the form  $f(h)^{g(h)}$  suggesting that logarithmic differentiation may be of use. Indeed, we have

$$\ln [(1 + h)^{1/h}] = \frac{1}{h} \ln(1 + h)$$

(by a law of Logarithms) and differentiating both sides yields

$$\frac{[(1 + h)^{1/h}]'}{(1 + h)^{1/h}} = \frac{\frac{h}{1 + h} - \ln(1 + h)}{h^2}. \quad (1)$$

On the left-hand side, we used the Chain Rule and on the right-hand side we employed the Quotient Rule for  $\frac{\ln(1+h)}{h}$ , the Sum Rule for  $1 + h$  and the Basic Derivative  $(h)' = 1$ . We also used the derivative of  $\ln$  on both sides. Multiplying both sides of eq. (1) by  $(1 + h)^{1/h}$  yields

$$[(1 + h)^{1/h}]' = \frac{\frac{h}{1 + h} - \ln(1 + h)}{h^2} (1 + h)^{1/h}$$

and l'Hospital's Rule turns the limit in question into the following

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1 + h)^{1/h} - e}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{[(1 + h)^{1/h} - e]'}{[h]'} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{\frac{h}{1 + h} - \ln(1 + h)}{h^2} (1 + h)^{1/h} - 0}{1}. \quad (2)$$

We used the Difference Rule and the Basic Derivatives  $(\text{constant})' = 0$ ,  $(h)' = 1$ . Again, recall that  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (1 + h)^{1/h} = e$ , therefore finding the original limit is, due to the Product Law of Limits, equivalent to finding

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{h}{1 + h} - \ln(1 + h)}{h^2}. \quad (3)$$

This limit is an indeterminate form of type  $\frac{0}{0}$  so we may use l'Hospital's Rule to get

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{h}{1+h} - \ln(1+h)}{h^2} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\left[ \frac{h}{1+h} - \ln(1+h) \right]'}{[h^2]'} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{(1+h)^2} - \frac{1}{1+h}}{2h}.$$

Here we used the Quotient Rule for  $\frac{h}{1+h}$ , the derivative of  $\ln$  as well as the Sum, Difference and Chain Rules. Combining terms in the numerator of the last expression lets us evaluate limit (3) by Direct Substitution:

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{1}{(1+h)^2} - \frac{1}{1+h}}{2h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{-\frac{h}{(1+h)^2}}{2h} = -\frac{1}{2} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{(1+h)^2} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{(1+0)^2} = -\frac{1}{2}.$$

This limit together with eq. (2) shows that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(1+h)^{1/h} - e}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{h}{1+h} - \ln(1+h)}{h^2} \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (1+h)^{1/h} = -\frac{1}{2} \cdot e = -\frac{e}{2}.$$

3) We say that a function  $f$  has a *fixed point* at  $a \in \text{dom}(f)$  if  $f(a) = a$ . Prove the following statement. [Hint: Use the Mean Value Theorem.]

"If  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable everywhere and  $f'(x) \neq 1$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $f$  has at most one fixed point."

**Solution.** We will prove the statement by contradiction.

*Proof.* Assume  $f$  has at least two *distinct* fixed points, say at  $a$  and  $b$  ( $a \neq b$ ). Without loss of generality, we may assume that  $a < b$ . Then, since the function is differentiable everywhere, it is differentiable on the closed interval  $[a, b]$ . This implies that  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , and also differentiable on  $(a, b)$ . Then, by the Mean Value Theorem, there is a  $c \in (a, b)$  such that

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

But we also have  $f(a) = a$  and  $f(b) = b$  since  $a$  and  $b$  are fixed points. Thus we get

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} = \frac{b - a}{b - a} = 1.$$

This contradicts the condition that  $f'(x) \neq 1$  at every  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Therefore we conclude that our initial assumption of  $f$  having at least two distinct fixed points must have been false, i.e.  $f$  has at most one fixed point.  $\square$

(Any other correct attempt also gets full marks).

4) Use the Maclaurin series for  $f(x) = (1+x^2)\ln(1+x)$  to find  $f^{(2022)}(0)$ .

**Solution.** On the one hand,  $f^{(2022)}(0)$  appears in the coefficient  $c_{2022}$  of  $x^{2022}$  in the Maclaurin series for  $f$ . Namely, we have

$$c_{2022} = \frac{f^{(2022)}(0)}{2022!} \tag{4}$$

[see Theorem 5 in Section 11.10 of the Textbook]. On the other hand, the same coefficient of  $x^{2022}$  can be found by multiplying the Maclaurin series for  $\ln(1+x)$  [Table 1 in Section 11.10] by  $x^2$  to get

$$\begin{aligned}\ln(1+x) &= x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \cdots - \frac{x^{2020}}{2020} + \frac{x^{2021}}{2021} - \frac{x^{2022}}{2022} + \cdots \\ x^2 \ln(1+x) &= x^3 - \frac{x^4}{2} + \frac{x^5}{3} - \cdots - \frac{x^{2022}}{2020} + \frac{x^{2023}}{2021} - \frac{x^{2024}}{2022} + \cdots\end{aligned}$$

and then adding the two series [see “Taylor Series from Old” in Section 11.10] to find that the coefficient of  $x^{2022}$  is

$$c_{2022} = -\frac{1}{2022} - \frac{1}{2020} = -\frac{4042}{2022 \cdot 2020}. \quad (5)$$

Comparing eqs. (4) and (5), we obtain

$$f^{(2022)}(0) = -\frac{4042}{2022 \cdot 2020} 2022! = -2 \cdot 2021^2 \cdot 2019!.$$

5) Prove, via mathematical induction on  $N$ , that

$$\int_0^\infty x^N e^{-x} dx = N! \quad \text{for every integer } N \geq 0.$$

(Recall that  $0! = 1! = 1$  and  $n! = n \cdot (n-1) \cdots 2 \cdot 1$  for  $n = 2, 3, \dots$ )

**Solution.** As told, we use proof by induction.

*Proof. Base Case:* For  $N = 0$ , we find

$$\int_0^\infty x^0 e^{-x} dx = \int_0^\infty e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b e^{-x} dx = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [-e^{-x}]_0^b = \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (1 - e^{-b}) = 1 = 0!$$

Above we used the definition of improper integrals, the Difference Law and  $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} e^{-b} = 0$ .

**Induction Hypothesis:** Next, we assume that the statement holds for *some* integer  $n \geq 0$ , i.e. that we have

$$\int_0^\infty x^n e^{-x} dx = n!$$

**Induction Step:** Finally, we prove, using the induction hypothesis, that the statement also holds  $n+1$ . We start with the integral on the left-hand side and apply integration by parts:

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^\infty x^{n+1} e^{-x} dx &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b x^{n+1} e^{-x} dx \stackrel{(*)}{=} \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} [-x^{n+1} e^{-x}]_0^b - \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^b (n+1)x^n \cdot -e^{-x} dx \\ &= \lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (-b^{n+1} e^{-b}) + (n+1) \int_0^\infty x^n e^{-x} dx \stackrel{(**)}{=} (n+1) \cdot n! = (n+1)!\end{aligned}$$

At (\*), we integrate  $e^{-x}$  and differentiate  $x^{n+1}$  and use the Difference Law of Limits. At (\*\*), we use the induction hypothesis and the limit  $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} (-b^{n+1} e^{-b}) = 0$  that can be shown via l'Hospital's Rule (applied  $(n+1)$ -times). Thus the induction step is done and the proof is complete.  $\square$

To conclude, we have shown by mathematical induction on  $N$ , that

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^N e^{-x} dx = N! \quad \text{for every integer } N \geq 0.$$

**6)** Determine the surface area of the solid obtained by rotating the curve  $C = \{(x, \cosh x) \mid 0 \leq x \leq 1\}$  about the  $x$ -axis. Include all sides!

**Solution.** The surface in question can be divided up into three pieces.  $S_1$ :  $y = \cosh x$  rotated about the  $x$ -axis,  $S_2$ : the disk on the left-hand side at  $x = 0$ , and  $S_3$ : the disk on the right-hand side at  $x = 1$ . First, we calculate the area of  $y = \cosh x$  rotated about the  $x$ -axis using  $2\pi \int_a^b y(x) \sqrt{1 + (dy/dx)^2} dx$  [see the lecture notes or Equation 4 in Section 8.2]. We find

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= 2\pi \int_0^1 \cosh x \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{d \cosh x}{dx}\right)^2} dx = 2\pi \int_0^1 \cosh x \sqrt{1 + (\sinh x)^2} dx \\ &= 2\pi \int_0^1 \cosh x \sqrt{(\cosh x)^2} dx = 2\pi \int_0^1 (\cosh x)^2 dx. \end{aligned}$$

There are multiple ways to evaluate this integral. One possibility is to use the (exponential) definition of the hyperbolic cosine. Recall  $\cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$ . Hence  $(\cosh x)^2 = \left(\frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{e^{2x} + 2 + e^{-2x}}{4}$ . Substituting this in the integral yields

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= 2\pi \int_0^1 (\cosh x)^2 dx = 2\pi \int_0^1 \frac{e^{2x} + 2 + e^{-2x}}{4} dx \\ &= \frac{\pi}{2} \left[ \frac{e^{2x}}{2} + 2x - \frac{e^{-2x}}{2} \right]_0^1 = \pi \left( \frac{e^2}{4} + 1 - \frac{e^{-2}}{4} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Next, we calculate the surface areas of the circles that 'cap off' the surface rotated about the  $x$ -axis. These circles have radii  $\cosh 0 = 1$  and  $\cosh 1 = \frac{e^1 + e^{-1}}{2}$ , respectively. Thus we get  $S_2 = \pi$  and  $S_3 = \pi(\cosh 1)^2 = \pi\left(\frac{e^2}{4} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{e^{-2}}{4}\right)$ . Now the total surface area is given by the sum of  $S_1$ ,  $S_2$  and  $S_3$ :

$$S = S_1 + S_2 + S_3 = \pi \left( \frac{e^2}{4} + 1 - \frac{e^{-2}}{4} + 1 + \frac{e^2}{4} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{e^{-2}}{4} \right) = \pi \frac{5 + e^2}{2}.$$

Note: if your answer looked nothing like this, fear not.

Another way to solve the problem is by evaluating the integral  $S_1$  and the radius in  $S_3$  in terms of hyperbolic functions via the hyperbolic identities  $\cosh^2 x - \sinh^2 x = 1$  and  $\cosh 2x = \cosh^2 x + \sinh^2 x$ . This way we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} S_1 &= 2\pi \int_0^1 \cosh^2 x dx = 2\pi \int_0^1 \frac{1 + \cosh 2x}{2} dx = \pi \int_0^1 (1 + \cosh 2x) dx = \pi \left[ x + \frac{\sinh 2x}{2} \right]_0^1 \\ &= \pi \left( 1 + \frac{\sinh 2}{2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

and

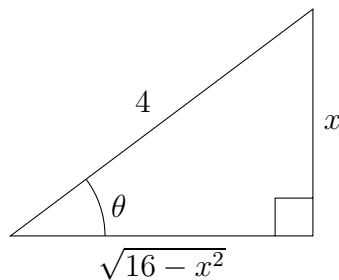
$$S_3 = \pi \cosh^2 1 = \pi \frac{1 + \cosh 2}{2}.$$

Thus the total surface area can be written as

$$S = S_1 + S_2 + S_3 = \pi \left( 1 + \frac{\sinh 2}{2} + 1 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\cosh 2}{2} \right) = \pi \frac{5 + \cosh 2 + \sinh 2}{2} = \frac{5 + e^2}{2}.$$

7) Evaluate the definite integral  $\int_2^{2\sqrt{3}} \frac{x+1}{x\sqrt{16-x^2}} dx$ .

**Solution.** The factor  $\sqrt{16-x^2}$  in the integrand suggests that a trigonometric substitution should be used. Such a square root appears as the length of one of the legs in a right triangle with the other leg being of length  $x$  and the hypotenuse of length 4.



If  $\theta$  denotes the angle opposite the leg of length  $x$ , then we can express  $x$  using  $\theta$  by simply using the (right triangle) definition of the sine function:

$$\sin \theta = \frac{x}{4} \Rightarrow \boxed{x = 4 \sin \theta} \Rightarrow dx = 4 \cos \theta d\theta.$$

Of course, we can also express the length of the other leg in terms of  $\theta$  as  $\sqrt{16-x^2} = 4 \cos \theta$ . Finally, we look at the limits of integration and see that  $x = 2$  means  $\sin \theta = \frac{1}{2}$ , i.e.  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{6}$  and  $x = 2\sqrt{3}$  implies  $\sin \theta = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ , i.e.  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{3}$ . Thus the substitution  $x = 4 \sin \theta$  results in the following

$$\int_2^{2\sqrt{3}} \frac{x+1}{x\sqrt{16-x^2}} dx = \int_{\pi/6}^{\pi/3} \frac{4 \sin \theta + 1}{4 \sin \theta \cdot 4 \cos \theta} 4 \cos \theta d\theta = \int_{\pi/6}^{\pi/3} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{4 \sin \theta} \right) d\theta.$$

Integrating term by term, we see that the first term is a basic integral that yields

$$\int_{\pi/6}^{\pi/3} 1 d\theta = [\theta]_{\pi/6}^{\pi/3} = \left[ \frac{\pi}{3} - \frac{\pi}{6} \right] = \frac{\pi}{6},$$

whereas the second term is a trigonometric integral that can be evaluated via the Weierstrass substitution  $u = \tan(\theta/2)$ , which recall means that  $\sin \theta = 2u/(1+u^2)$  and  $d\theta = 2 du/(1+u^2)$ . As for the limits of integration, we have  $\theta = \pi/6$  giving  $u = \tan(\pi/12)$  and  $\theta = \pi/3$  giving  $u = \tan(\pi/6)$ . One may express these values more explicitly using trigonometric identities, although it's not strictly necessary. We get

$$\int_{\pi/6}^{\pi/3} \frac{1}{4 \sin \theta} d\theta = \int_{\tan(\pi/12)}^{\tan(\pi/6)} \frac{1+u^2}{4 \cdot 2u \cdot 1+u^2} du = \int_{\tan(\pi/12)}^{\tan(\pi/6)} \frac{1}{4u} du = \left[ \frac{\ln u}{4} \right]_{\tan(\pi/12)}^{\tan(\pi/6)}.$$

Therefore the integral in question evaluates to

$$\int_2^{2\sqrt{3}} \frac{x+1}{x\sqrt{16-x^2}} dx = \frac{\pi}{6} + \frac{\ln \tan(\pi/6) - \ln \tan(\pi/12)}{4}.$$

**Remark.** Using the Laws of Logarithms we may write the result as follows

$$\frac{\pi}{6} + \frac{1}{4} \ln \frac{\tan(\pi/6)}{\tan(\pi/12)}.$$

Of course, it is possible to express the tangent values more explicitly using trigonometric identities. Namely, we have  $\tan(\pi/6) = \frac{\sin(\pi/6)}{\cos(\pi/6)} = \frac{1/2}{\sqrt{3}/2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \tan(\pi/12) &= \frac{\sin(\pi/12)}{\cos(\pi/12)} = \sqrt{\frac{\sin^2(\pi/12)}{\cos^2(\pi/12)}} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \cos(2\pi/12)}{1 + \cos(2\pi/12)}} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}}{1 + \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}}} = \sqrt{\frac{2 - \sqrt{3}}{2 + \sqrt{3}}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{2 - \sqrt{3}}{2 + \sqrt{3}} \cdot \frac{2 - \sqrt{3}}{2 - \sqrt{3}}} = \sqrt{\frac{(2 - \sqrt{3})^2}{2^2 - \sqrt{3}^2}} = 2 - \sqrt{3}. \end{aligned}$$

This means that

$$\frac{\tan(\pi/6)}{\tan(\pi/12)} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3} - 3} = \frac{2\sqrt{3} + 3}{(2\sqrt{3})^2 - 3^2} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} + 1$$

hence the integral evaluates to

$$\frac{\pi}{6} + \frac{1}{4} \ln \left( \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} + 1 \right) = 0.71551 \dots$$

**8)** Solve the initial value problem  $y'(x) - \frac{y(x)}{x} = x^2 + 3x - 2$ ,  $y(1) = 4$ .

**Solution.** This is a first-order linear ODE, thus we can use an integrating factor to solve it. Namely, we have  $I(x) = e^{\int(-\frac{1}{x}) dx} = e^{-\ln x} = \frac{1}{x}$  and multiplying both sides of the equation by it yields

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

Now we have the left-hand side equal to  $\left(\frac{y(x)}{x}\right)'$ , so we have

$$\left(\frac{y(x)}{x}\right)' = x + 3 - \frac{2}{x}.$$

Integrating on both sides with respect to  $x$  yields

$$\frac{y(x)}{x} = \frac{x^2}{2} + 3x - 2 \ln(x) + C$$

from which we get the general solution

$$y(x) = \frac{x^3}{2} + 3x^2 - 2x \ln(x) + Cx.$$

This combined with the initial condition  $y(1) = 4$  means that

$$4 = y(1) = \frac{1}{2} + 3 - 0 + C \Rightarrow C = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Therefore the solution for the given initial value problem is

$$y(x) = \frac{x^3}{2} + 3x^2 - 2x \ln(x) + \frac{x}{2}, \quad (x > 0).$$

**9)** Find all complex number solutions of the equation  $z^2 = \bar{z}$ . Write your final answer in algebraic form.

**Solution.** Writing  $z = a + ib$  allows us to express the left-hand side of the equation as

$$z^2 = (a + ib)^2 = a^2 + i2ab - b^2.$$

This gives the real part  $\operatorname{Re}(z^2) = a^2 - b^2$  and the imaginary part  $\operatorname{Im}(z^2) = 2ab$ . On the other hand, we can also express the right-hand side as:

$$\bar{z} = a - ib$$

which gives the real part  $\operatorname{Re}(\bar{z}) = a$  and the imaginary part  $\operatorname{Im}(\bar{z}) = -b$ . To have  $z^2 = \bar{z}$  we need the real parts to match  $\operatorname{Re}(z^2) = \operatorname{Re}(\bar{z})$  and also the imaginary parts to match  $\operatorname{Im}(z^2) = \operatorname{Im}(\bar{z})$ . Thus we get the following system of equations for  $a$  and  $b$ :

$$\begin{cases} a^2 - b^2 = a \\ 2ab = -b \end{cases} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} a(a - 1) = b^2 \\ (2a + 1)b = 0 \end{cases}$$

From the second equation we see that we must have  $a = -\frac{1}{2}$  or  $b = 0$ . In fact, we can't have both, because that would lead to the contradiction  $\frac{3}{4} = 0$  in the first equation. Thus we have two distinct cases to consider:

- Case 1: If  $b = 0$ , then the first equation reads  $a(a - 1) = 0$  implying  $a = 0$  or  $a = 1$ . This gives the two solutions of the original equation  $z^2 = \bar{z}$ , namely  $z = 0$  and  $z = 1$ .
- Case 2: If  $a = -\frac{1}{2}$ , then the first equation reads  $\frac{3}{4} = b^2$ , or equivalently,  $b = \pm \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ .  
Therefore we have two more solutions of the equation  $z^2 = \bar{z}$ , namely  $z = -\frac{1}{2} \pm i \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ .

With these, we excluded all possibilities.

To summarize, there are four complex number solutions of the equation  $z^2 = \bar{z}$ . They are

$$z = 0, \quad z = 1, \quad z = -\frac{1}{2} + i \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \quad z = -\frac{1}{2} - i \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}.$$