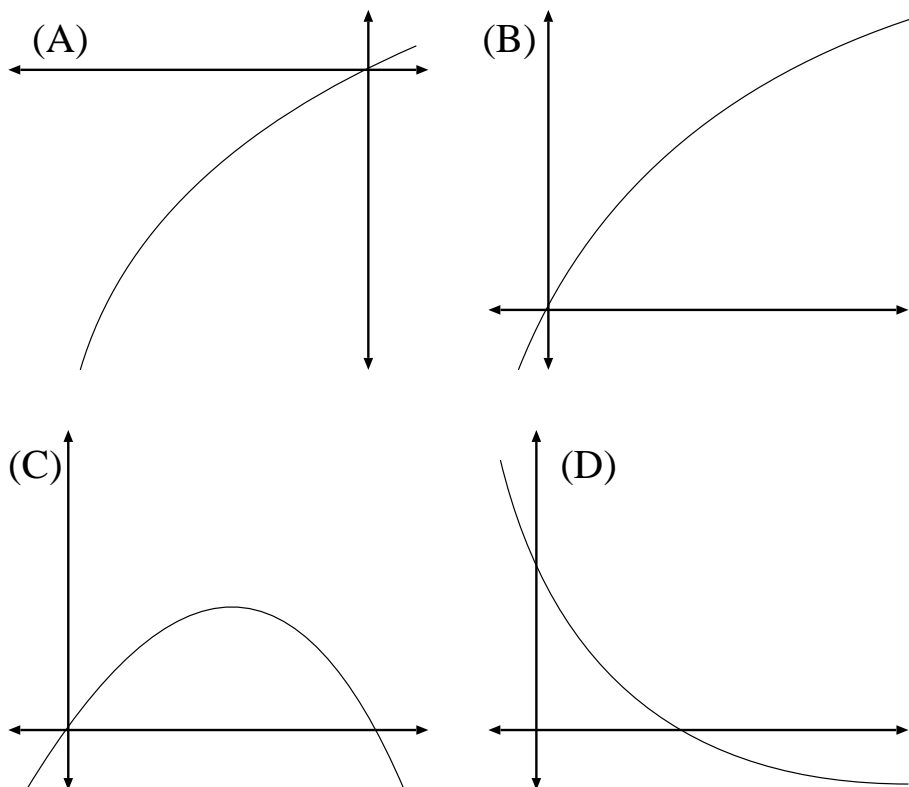


1. Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function with the following properties:

- $f$  is thrice-differentiable, and  $f''(x) < 0$  and  $f'''(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- $f(0) = 0$  and  $f'(0) > 0$ .



- (10) (a) How many maxima or minima (if any) can  $f$  have in the interval  $(-\infty, 0)$ ? Justify your answer.

**Solution:**  $f$  cannot have any maxima or minima in the interval  $(-\infty, 0)$ .

To see this, suppose (by contradiction) that  $y < 0$  was a maximum or minimum. Then Fermat's Theorem says that  $f'(y) = 0$ . But  $f'$  is strictly decreasing (because  $f'' < 0$ ). Thus, if  $f'(y) = 0$  and  $y < 0$ , then we would have  $f(0) < 0$ , which is false. By contradiction,  $f$  can't have any maxima/minima in  $(-\infty, 0)$ .

To see it another way,  $f'(y) > 0$  for all  $y \in (-\infty, 0)$ , so  $f$  is strictly increasing in this interval; hence it can't have any extrema here.  $\square$

- (10) (b) Recall that a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is a zero of  $f$  if  $f(x) = 0$ . (For example  $x = 0$  is a zero of  $f$  in this case.) How many zeros (if any) can  $f$  have in the interval  $(-\infty, 0)$ ? Justify your answer.

**Solution:**  $f$  cannot have any zeros in the interval  $(-\infty, 0)$ .

To see this, suppose (by contradiction) that  $x < 0$  and  $f(x) = 0$ . Then Rolle's Theorem says there exists some  $y \in (x, 0)$  such that  $f'(y) = 0$ . But as we saw in question (a), this is impossible.

- ① A lot of people seemed to think that the endpoint 0 was included in the domain  $(-\infty, 0)$ , and hence, they counted  $x = 0$  amongst the 'zeros' in this domain. This is not correct. The interval  $(-\infty, 0)$  is *open*. It does not include its endpoints. (In contrast, the interval  $(-\infty, 0]$  is *closed*, and *does* include 0). However, this was a minor issue, and I didn't deduct any marks for this as long as the question was otherwise done properly.

A few people also described the point  $x = -\infty$  as a 'minimum' of the function. First of all,  $-\infty$  is not a real number, so it doesn't count as a 'minimum'. Second of all, even if we did count  $-\infty$  as a real number, it would not be included in the *open* interval  $(-\infty, 0)$ . (If I wanted to include  $-\infty$ , I would have written  $[-\infty, 0)$ .) Again, however, I did not deduct marks for this minor confusion.

- ② Several people wrote something like this: "If  $f$  is three times differentiable, that means it is a degree 3 polynomial." They then proceeded to analyse this 'polynomial' —e.g. "a degree 3 polynomial has at most 3 zeros, has at most one maximum and one minimum," etc. This is totally wrong. First of all, there is no reason to believe this function is a polynomial. Second all, any polynomial is *infinitely* differentiable, so information about the first three derivatives tells you nothing about the degree of the polynomial.

□

- (10) (c) Sketch the possible graph(s) of  $f$  on the interval  $(-\infty, 0]$  to illustrate the scenario(s) you claim are possible in parts (a) and (b).

**Solution:** See Figure A.

□

- (10) (d) How many maxima or minima (if any) can  $f$  have in the interval  $(0, \infty)$ ? Justify your answer.

**Solution:**  $f$  can have *at most one* extreme point in the interval  $(0, \infty)$ . If it has any extreme point, then *it must be a maximum*.

To see this, suppose (by contradiction) that  $0 < x < z$  are two extreme points. Then Fermat's Theorem implies that  $f'(x) = 0 = f'(z)$ . But  $f'$  is strictly decreasing (because  $f'' < 0$ ), so this is impossible unless  $x = z$ .

Now, let  $x > 0$ , and suppose  $x$  is an extreme point (so  $f'(x) = 0$ ). Then  $f$  must be a maximum, because  $f''(x) < 0$  (by hypothesis).

Note: while  $f$  *can* have a maximum, it doesn't have to. Figures B and C portray two possibilities.

□

- (10) (e) How many zeros (if any) can  $f$  have in the interval  $(0, \infty)$ ? Justify your answer.

**Solution:**  $f$  can have *at most one* zero in the interval  $(0, \infty)$ . To see this, suppose  $0 < x < z$  and we have  $f(0) = f(x) = f(z) = 0$ . Then Rolle's Theorem says there exist some  $w \in (0, x)$  such that  $f'(w) = 0$ , and also some  $y \in (x, z)$  such that  $f'(y) = 0$ . But  $f'$  is strictly decreasing (because  $f'' < 0$ ). Thus, we cannot have  $f'(w) = 0 = f'(y)$  if  $w < y$  —contradiction. By contradiction,  $f$  can't have two zeros in  $(0, \infty)$ .

Note that  $f$  *can* have one zero in  $(0, \infty)$ , but it doesn't have to. Figures B and C portray two possibilities.

□

- (10) (f) Sketch the possible graph(s) of  $f$  on the interval  $[0, \infty)$  to illustrate the scenario(s) you claim are possible in parts (d) and (e).

**Solution:** See Figure B and C.

□

- (10) (g) Now suppose there is some function  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(x) = \int_0^x g(x) dx$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . What can you say about  $g'$  and  $g''$ ? Where is  $g$  increasing/decreasing?

Where is  $g$  concave up or concave down? Use this information to sketch a possible graph for  $g$ .

**Solution:** The Fundamental Theorem of Calculus says that  $f' = g$ . Thus,  $g' = f''$  and  $g'' = f'''$ . Thus, we know that  $g'(x) < 0$  and  $g''(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  (because  $f''(x) < 0$  and  $f'''(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ). Thus,  $g$  is *decreasing* and *concave up* everywhere on  $\mathbb{R}$ ; see Figure D.  $\square$

2. Compute the following limits:

(20) (a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x^2 + 1)}{x}$ .

**Solution:** Let  $f(x) = \ln(x^2 + 1)$  and  $g(x) = x$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x^2 + 1)}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \stackrel{(*)}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} \\ &\stackrel{(\dagger)}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2/x}{1 + 1/x^2} \\ &= \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (2/x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + 1/x^2)} = \frac{0}{1} = \boxed{0}. \end{aligned}$$

Here,  $(*)$  is by l'Hospital's rule, which is applicable because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x)$ .

Next,  $(\dagger)$  is because  $f'(x) = \frac{2x}{x^2 + 1}$  and  $g'(x) = 1$ .  $\square$

(10) (b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x^2 + 1)^{1/x}$ .

**Solution:** This is an indeterminate form of type " $\infty^0$ ". We take the logarithm, and find that

$$\begin{aligned} \ln \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x^2 + 1)^{1/x} \right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln \left( (x^2 + 1)^{1/x} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} \ln(x^2 + 1) \\ &= 0, \end{aligned}$$

where the last step is by part (a). Thus,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x^2 + 1)^{1/x} = e^0 = \boxed{1}$ .  $\square$

3. Compute the following integrals:

(25) (a)  $\int \sin(x)^3 \cos(x)^5 dx$ .

**Solution:**

$$\begin{aligned} \int \sin(x)^3 \cos(x)^5 dx &= \int \cos(x)^5 \cdot \sin(x)^2 \cdot \sin(x) dx \stackrel{(*)}{=} \int \cos(x)^5 \cdot (1 - \cos(x)^2) \cdot \sin(x) dx \\ &\stackrel{(\dagger)}{=} - \int u^5 \cdot (1 - u^2) du = - \int u^5 - u^7 du = -\frac{u^6}{6} + \frac{u^8}{8} + C \\ &\stackrel{(\ddagger)}{=} \boxed{\frac{\cos(x)^8}{8} - \frac{\cos(x)^6}{6} + C}. \end{aligned}$$

Here  $(*)$  is by Pythagoras' equation  $\sin(x)^2 + \cos(x)^2 = 1$ . Next  $(\dagger)$  is the substitution  $u := \cos(x)$  so that  $du = -\sin(x) dx$ .  $\square$

(25) (b)  $\int \frac{u}{\sqrt{1 + u^2}} du$ .

**Solution:** Let  $y := 1 + u^2$ ; then  $dy = 2u du$ , so  $u du = \frac{1}{2} dy$ . Thus

$$\int \frac{u du}{\sqrt{1+u^2}} = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{dy}{\sqrt{y}} = \frac{1}{2} \int y^{-1/2} dy = y^{1/2} + C = \boxed{(1+u^2)^{1/2} + C}.$$

□

**Solution:** Another approach uses a ‘trig substitution’. Let  $u := \tan(\theta)$ ; then  $du = \sec(\theta)^2 d\theta$ . Meanwhile,

$$\sqrt{1+u^2} = \sqrt{1+\tan(\theta)^2} = \sqrt{\sec(\theta)^2} = |\sec(\theta)| = \sec(\theta),$$

where the last step assumes  $-\pi/2 < \theta < \pi/2$ . Substituting this all in, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{u}{\sqrt{1+u^2}} du &= \int \frac{\tan(\theta)}{\sec(\theta)} \cdot \sec(\theta)^2 d\theta = \int \tan(\theta) \sec(\theta) d\theta \\ &= \sec(\theta) + C = \sec(\arctan(u)) + C = \sqrt{1+u^2} + C. \end{aligned}$$

where the last step follows from a ‘Pythagoras triangle’ argument. □

(25) (c)  $\int \frac{\ln(x)}{x \cdot \sqrt{1+\ln(x)^2}} dx.$

**Solution:** Let  $u := \ln(x)$ . Then  $du = \frac{1}{x} dx$ . Thus,

$$\int \frac{\ln(x)}{x \cdot \sqrt{1+\ln(x)^2}} dx = \int \frac{u}{\sqrt{1+u^2}} du \stackrel{(*)}{=} (1+u^2)^{1/2} + C = \boxed{\sqrt{1+\ln(x)^2} + C},$$

here (\*) is by question (b). □

(25) (d)  $\int x \cdot e^{-x} dx.$

**Solution:** We will use integration by parts. Let  $u := x$ , so that  $du = dx$ . Let  $dv := e^{-x} dx$ ; then  $v = -e^{-x}$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \int x \cdot e^{-x} dx &= \int u dv = uv - \int v du \\ &= -xe^{-x} - \int -e^{-x} dx = -xe^{-x} - e^{-x} + C \\ &= \boxed{-e^{-x} \cdot (x+1) + C}. \end{aligned}$$

□

**Common minor mistakes:** A lot of people forgot to add the constant term “+C” to the indefinite integrals. This cost 2 marks (out of 25) per question.

Also, a lot of people forgot to ‘reverse’ their substitutions (e.g. in question #3(b), they would leave  $\sqrt{y} + C$  as a final answer). This cost 5 marks (out of 25) per question.

Finally, some divided or multiplied by the wrong constant when antidifferentiation. For example in question #3(b), they would end up with  $\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{1+u^2} + C$  or  $2\sqrt{1+u^2} + C$  as a final answer. This cost 5 marks (out of 25) per question.

**Major mistakes:** Some people tried to *differentiate* instead of antidifferentiating (e.g. in question #3(a) they applied the Leibniz rule to differentiate  $\sin(x)^3 \cos(x)^5$ ). Also, some people tried to ‘factor’ the integral (e.g. they wrote “ $\int \sin(x)^3 \cos(x)^5 dx = \int \sin(x)^3 dx \cdot \int \cos(x)^5 dx$ ”, or at least, antidifferentiated each term separately, as if this was the case). This is totally wrong.