

Summary

This exam addresses fundamental topics from single-variable calculus, including the definitions of continuity and differentiability and the explicit calculation of limits, derivatives, and integrals. In order to earn full credit for your response to a question on this exam, your conceptual assertions must be justified and your calculations shown explicitly.

Sample questions and answers

1. Compute $\int \frac{2x^2 + x + 18}{x^3 + 9x} dx$.

The integrand can be decomposed in the form

$$\frac{2x^2 + x + 18}{x^3 + 9x} = \frac{2x^2 + x + 18}{x(x^2 + 9)} = \frac{A}{x} + \frac{Bx + C}{x^2 + 9}.$$

Since

$$\frac{A}{x} + \frac{Bx + C}{x^2 + 9} = \frac{A(x^2 + 9) + (Bx + C)x}{x(x^2 + 9)} = \frac{(A + B)x^2 + Cx + 9A}{x(x^2 + 9)},$$

it follows that

$$A + B = 2, \quad C = 1, \quad 9A = 18$$

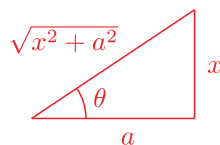
so $A = 2$, $B = 0$, and

$$\int \frac{2x^2 + x + 18}{x^3 + 9x} dx = \int \left(\frac{2}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2 + 9} \right) dx = \int \frac{2}{x} dx + \int \frac{1}{x^2 + 9} dx = 2 \ln x + \frac{1}{3} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{3} \right).$$

Note that while it's good to remember the formula

$$\int \frac{dx}{x^2 + a^2} = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a} \right),$$

this can be derived using trigonometric substitution. Consider the triangle shown:



Since $\frac{x}{a} = \tan \theta$, it follows that

$$d \left(\frac{x}{a} \right) = \frac{dx}{a} = d(\tan \theta) = \frac{d\theta}{\cos^2 \theta}.$$

Since $\frac{a}{\sqrt{x^2 + a^2}} = \cos \theta$, it follows that

$$\frac{1}{x^2 + a^2} dx = \left(\frac{\cos \theta}{a} \right)^2 \left(\frac{a d\theta}{\cos^2 \theta} \right) = \frac{d\theta}{a}.$$

Thus

$$\int_b^c \frac{dx}{x^2 + a^2} = \frac{1}{a} \int_{\tan^{-1}(b/a)}^{\tan^{-1}(c/a)} d\theta = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{c}{a} \right) - \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{b}{a} \right).$$

2. Consider the function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{if } x \text{ is rational} \\ 0 & \text{if } x \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}.$$

Is $g(x)$ continuous at $x = 0$? Is $g(x)$ differentiable at $x = 0$?

Note that $0 \leq g(x) \leq x^2$ for all values of x . Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 0 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0$, it follows (from the “squeeze theorem”) that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) = 0$. Since $g(0)$ is defined and equal to $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x)$, $g(x)$ is continuous at $x = 0$.

When $x = 0$, the derivative

$$\frac{dg}{dx} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(x + \epsilon) - g(x)}{\epsilon}$$

is given by

$$\left. \frac{dg}{dx} \right|_{x=0} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(0 + \epsilon) - g(0)}{\epsilon} = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(\epsilon)}{\epsilon}.$$

It follows that $g(x)$ is differentiable at $x = 0$ if this limit exists. Note that

$$\frac{g(\epsilon)}{\epsilon} = \begin{cases} \epsilon & \text{if } \epsilon \text{ is rational} \\ 0 & \text{if } \epsilon \text{ is irrational} \end{cases}$$

as long as $\epsilon \neq 0$, so that

$$-|\epsilon| \leq \frac{g(\epsilon)}{\epsilon} \leq |\epsilon|$$

as long as $\epsilon \neq 0$. Since $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} (-|\epsilon|) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} (|\epsilon|) = 0$, it follows (again from the “squeeze theorem”) that $\lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \frac{g(\epsilon)}{\epsilon} = 0$, so $g(x)$ is differentiable at $x = 0$.

Note that if a function is differentiable at a certain point, it must be continuous at this point. Had we shown that $g(x)$ was differentiable at $x = 0$ in the first place, we could have concluded that $g(x)$ was continuous at $x = 0$ without the first proof above.

3. Compute $\lim_{x \rightarrow e} \left(\frac{1 - \ln x}{x - e} \right)^2$.

Since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow e} \left(\frac{1 - \ln x}{x - e} \right)^2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow e} \frac{(1 - \ln x)^2}{(x - e)^2}$$

and $\lim_{x \rightarrow e} (1 - \ln x)^2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow e} (x - e)^2 = 0$, l'Hôpital's rule may apply. We compute

$$\frac{d}{dx} ((1 - \ln x)^2) = 2(1 - \ln x) \left(-\frac{1}{x} \right) = \frac{2(\ln x - 1)}{x}$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dx} ((x - e)^2) = 2(x - e).$$

Since both of these quantities tend to 0 as x tends to e , we compute

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{2(\ln x - 1)}{x} \right) = \frac{4 - 2 \ln x}{x^2}$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dx} (2(x - e)) = 2.$$

Both of these quantities tend to finite nonzero values as x tends to e , so l'Hôpital's rule does apply and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow e} \left(\frac{1 - \ln x}{x - e} \right)^2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow e} \frac{2(\ln x - 1)}{2(x - e)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow e} \frac{4 - 2 \ln x}{2} = \frac{1}{e^2}.$$

4. In order to compute

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi x + \sin x}{x + \sin x},$$

we try two different methods. First, we perform the calculation

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi x + \sin x}{x + \sin x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi + \frac{\sin x}{x}}{1 + \frac{\sin x}{x}} = \pi.$$

Next, to verify this result, we use l'Hôpital's rule, noting that both the numerator and the denominator of the original fraction are differentiable and approach ∞ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. We obtain

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi x + \sin x}{x + \sin x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(\pi x + \sin x)}{\frac{d}{dx}(x + \sin x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi + \cos x}{1 + \cos x},$$

which is undefined because $\cos x$ oscillates persistently as $x \rightarrow \infty$. We conclude that π is undefined (which isn't true). What went wrong?

L'Hôpital's rule

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

can only be applied to the situation when $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \pm\infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = \pm\infty$ if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

is defined or is equal to $\pm\infty$. Neither of these criteria is satisfied in the present case.

5. Recall the formula

$$\int u dv = uv - \int v du$$

for integration by parts. If we apply this formula with $u = 1/x$ and $v = x$, we obtain

$$\int \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx = \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) x - \int x \left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) dx = 1 + \int \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx.$$

Subtracting

$$\int \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx$$

from both sides of this equality, we obtain $0 = 1$. What went wrong?

If we add explicit bounds of integration to what's written above...

$$\int_a^b \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx = \left[\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) x\right]_{x=a}^{x=b} - \int_a^b x \left(-\frac{1}{x^2}\right) dx = [1 - 1] + \int_a^b \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx = \int_a^b \left(\frac{1}{x}\right) dx$$

... then it no longer seems unreasonable.

6. Compute the arclength of the graph of $f(x) = \cosh x$ between $x = 0$ and $x = 1$.

$$\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)^2} dx = \int_0^1 \sqrt{1 + (\sinh x)^2} dx = \int_0^1 \cosh x dx = \left[\sinh x\right]_{x=0}^{x=1} = \sinh(1).$$