# **Solutions to Differentiation**

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## **Q1** Exercises

#### 1.1 The Fundamentals

**Exercise.** Find the equation of the line tangent to  $x^4 + 3x^2$  at (2, 28).

**Solution:** Note that  $f'(x) = 3x^3 + 6x$ , so f'(2) = 36. Thus the point-slope equation of the line is

$$y - 28 = 44(x - 2)$$
.

**Example.** Find  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin(2x)}{x+x^2}$ .

**Solution 1 (Maclaurin Series):** Note that the Maclaurin Series of  $\sin(2x)$  is  $2x + O(x^3)$ . Because the denominator has degree 2, and x approaches 0, we don't care about  $O(x^3)$ . So the limit is equivalent to

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{2x}{x + x^2} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{2}{1 + x} = 2.$$

**Solution 2 (Factoring):** Note that this expression is equivalent to

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin 2x}{2x} \cdot \frac{2}{1+x} = 1 \cdot \frac{2}{1} = 2.$$

**Solution 3 (L'Hopital's):** Note that 1 is the smallest number such that  $g^{(1)}(x) \neq 0$ , where  $g(x) = x + x^2$ , so

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin(2x)}{x + x^2} = \frac{2\cos(2 \cdot 0)}{1 + 2 \cdot 0} = 2.$$

#### 1.2 Laws of Differentiation

**Exercise (AoPS Calculus, 3.6.3).** Find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  if  $x^2 + y = \ln(y^2 - 1)$ .

**Solution:** We implicitly differentiate. Note that

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

$$2x = \frac{dy}{dx} \frac{2y - (y^2 - 1)}{y^2 - 1} = \frac{dy}{dx} \frac{-y^2 + 2y + 1}{y^2 - 1}$$

$$\frac{2x(y^2 - 1)}{-y^2 + 2y + 1} = \frac{dy}{dx}.$$

**Exercise (AoPS Calculus, 3.6.4).** Find the slope of the tangent line to the curve  $x \sin(x + y) = y \cos(x - y)$  at the point  $(0, \frac{\pi}{2})$ .

**Solution:** We implicitly differentiate. First use the product rule and note that

$$\sin(x+y) + x(\cos(x+y))' = y'\cos(x-y) + y(\cos(x-y))'.$$

By the Chain Rule, this implies

$$\sin(x+y) + x\cos(x+y)(x+y)' = y'\cos(x-y) - y\sin(x-y)(x-y)'.$$

Now the linearity of derivatives implies

$$\sin(x+y) + x\cos(x+y)(1+y') = y'\cos(x-y) - y\sin(x-y)(1-y').$$

Plug in  $(x, y) = (0, \frac{\pi}{2})$  to get

$$\sin(\frac{\pi}{2}) = y'\cos(-\frac{\pi}{2}) - \frac{\pi}{2}\sin(-\frac{\pi}{2})(1 - y')$$

$$1 = \frac{\pi}{2}(1 - y')$$

$$\frac{\pi}{2}y' = \frac{\pi}{2} - 1$$

$$y' = 1 - \frac{2}{\pi}.$$

Thus the slope is  $1 - \frac{2}{\pi}$ .

#### 1.3 Derivatives of Certain Functions

**Exercise (Periodic Derivatives).** If  $f(x) = \sin x$ , find f'(x), f''(x), f'''(x), and f''''(x). Do the same for  $f(x) = \cos x$ .

**Solution:** We already know from before that  $f'(x) = \cos x$ . Thus  $f''(x) = -\sin x$ ,  $f'''(x) = -\cos x$ , and  $f''''(x) = \sin x$ .

A good way to think of this is that  $f'(x) = \sin(x + \frac{\pi}{2})$ . Then  $f^{(n)}(x) = \sin(x + \frac{n\pi}{2})$ , which intuitively explains why  $f^{(n)}(x)$  has period 4.

**Exercise (Derivatives of Reciprocal Functions).** Given how the trigonometric derivatives for sin, cos, and tan were derived, determine and prove the derivatives of csc, sec, and cot.

**Solution:** The reciprocal rule murders the first wo:

$$(\csc x)' = \left(\frac{1}{\sin x}\right)' = -\frac{\cos x}{\sin^2 x} = -\csc x \cot x$$
$$(\sec x)' = \left(\frac{1}{\cos x}\right)' = \frac{\sin x}{\cos^2 x} = \sec x \tan x.$$

We could also use the reciprocal rule on  $\cot x$ , but it's more convenient to just use the quotient rule:

$$(\cot x)' = \left(\frac{\cos x}{\sin x}\right)' = \frac{\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x}{\sin^2 x} = \frac{1}{\sin^2 x} = \csc^2 x.$$

**Exercise.** Find the Maclaurin Series of  $x \cos x$ .

**Solution:** Note that the Maclaurin Series of x is x, and the Maclaurin Series of  $\cos x$  is  $1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots$ . Multiplying the two yields

$$x\cos x = x - \frac{x^3}{2!} + \frac{x^5}{4!} - \cdots$$

**Exercise (Derivative of Inverse of Reciprocal Trigonometric Functions).** Find the derivative of  $\operatorname{arccsc} x$ ,  $\operatorname{arcsec} x$ , and  $\operatorname{arccot} x$ .

**Solution:** We implicitly differentiate for all of these.

For the first one, let  $f(x) = \arccos x$ , and note this implies  $\csc y = x$ . Then differentiating with respect to x gives

$$\left(\frac{1}{\sin y}\right)' y' = 1$$
$$-\frac{\cos y}{\sin^2 y} y' = 1$$
$$y' = -\frac{\sin^2 y}{\cos y}.$$

Since  $\sin y = \frac{1}{x}$  and  $\cos y = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{x^2}}$ ,

$$y' = -\frac{1}{x^2\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{x^2}}} = -\frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}.$$

For the second one, let  $f(x) = \operatorname{arcsec} x$ , and note that this implies  $\sec y = x$ . Then differentiating with respect to x gives

$$\left(\frac{1}{\cos x}\right)y' = 1$$
$$\frac{\sin y}{\cos^2 y}y' = 1$$
$$y' = \frac{\cos^2 y}{\sin y}.$$

Since  $\cos y = \frac{1}{x}$  and  $\sin y = \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{x^2}}$ ,

$$y' = \frac{1}{x^2 \sqrt{1 - \frac{1}{v^2}}} = \frac{1}{|x| \sqrt{x^2 - 1}}.^2$$

For the last one, let  $f(x) = \operatorname{arccot} x$ , and note that this implies  $\cot y = x$ . Then differentiating with respect to x gives

$$\left(\frac{\cos y}{\sin y}\right)y' = 1$$
$$\frac{-\sin^2 y - \cos^2 y}{\sin y}y' = \frac{1}{\sin y}y' = 1$$
$$y' = \sin y.$$

Since  $x = \cot y$ ,

$$y' = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}.$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>The absolute value appears because  $x^2 \ge 0$  for obvious reasons, and we need to preserve this even after factoring out an x.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>See above.

**Exercise.** Find the derivative of  $f(x) = \log_a(g(x))$ .

**Solution:** Note that  $f(x) = \frac{\ln(g(x))}{\ln a}$ , so

$$f'(x) = \frac{(\ln(g(x)))'}{\ln a} = \frac{\frac{1}{g(x)}g'(x)}{\ln a} = \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)\ln a}.$$

## **Q2** Problems

#### 2.1 Unsourced

Prove that the derivative of  $f(x) = e^{g(x)}$  is  $e^{g(x)}g'(x)$ .

**Solution:** This follows directly from the chain rule.

#### **2.2 HMMT**

Let  $f(x) = x^3 + ax + b$ , with  $a \ne b$ , and suppose that the tangent lines to the graph of f at x = a and x = b are parallel. Find f(1).

**Solution:** Note that  $f'(x) = 3x^2 + a$ , so f'(a) = f'(b) implies  $3a^2 + a = 3b^2 + a$ , or that a = -b. Thus f(1) = 1 + a + b = 1.

#### 2.3 HMMT Calculus 2010/1

Suppose that p(x) is a polynomial and that  $p(x) - p'(x) = x^2 + 2x + 1$ . Compute p(5).

**Solution:** Note that p(x) must have leading term  $x^2$ , because by the Power Rule deg(p(x) - p'(x)) = deg(p(x)), and furthermore the leading coefficients are the same. So we have

$$p(x) = x^2 + ax + b$$
$$p'(x) = 2x + a$$

and we want  $p(x) - p'(x) = x^2 + x(a-2) + (b-a) = x^2 + 2x + 1$ , or

$$a - 2 = 2$$

$$b - a = 1$$
.

implying that a = 4 and b = 5. Therefore,  $p(5) = 5^2 + 4 \cdot 5 + 5 = 50$ .

#### 2.4 HMMT Calculus 2010/3

Let p be a monic cubic polynomial such that p(0) = 1 and such that all the zeroes of p'(x) are also zeros of p(x). Find p. Note: monic means that the leading coefficient is 1.

**Solution:** There are either three distinct roots, two distinct roots, or one root. We look at all three cases.

If there are three distinct roots, then  $p(x) = (x - r_1)(x - r_2)(x - r_3)$  and  $p'(x) = 3x^2 - 2x(r_1 + r_2 + r_3) + (r_1r_2 + r_2r_3 + r_3r_1)$ . We can verify that this function has zeroes and that none of them are  $r_1, r_2, r_3$ , since the roots are distinct.

If there are two distinct roots, there are two copies of one root and one copy of another. So  $p(x) = (x - r_1)^2(x - r_2)$ , and by the Product Rule,

$$p'(x) = 2(x - r_1)(x - r_2) + (x - r_1)^2 = (x - r_1)(3x - r_1 - 2r_2).$$

Since  $r_1 \neq r_2$ ,  $\frac{r_1+2r_2}{3}$  cannot be either  $r_1$  or  $r_2$ , since it is a weighted mean.

If there is one distinct root, then  $p(x) = (x - r)^3$ . Note that  $p'(x) = 3(x - r)^2$ , and the only root is x = r, so this satisfies the condition. Since p(0) = 1, we must have r = -1, or  $p(x) = (x + 1)^3$ .

#### 2.5 Lemma of Hong Kong

Determine the minimum value  $f(x) = e^x + \frac{1}{e^x}$  can take.

**Solution:** Note that  $f'(x) = e^x - \frac{1}{e^x}$ . It is somewhat easy to guess that the minimum occurs at x = 0, and to prove it, note that f'(x) < 0 when x < 0 and f'(x) > 0 when x > 0. Thus f(0) = 2 is the minimum value it can take, and this minimum **is only achieved at** x = 0.

#### 2.6 Unsourced

Find the derivative of  $\frac{4^x}{4^x+1}$ .

**Solution:** Let this function be f(x). Note that  $f(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{4^x + 1}$ , so  $f'(x) = -\frac{d}{dx}(\frac{1}{4^x + 1})$ . By the Reciprocal Rule,

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

#### 2.7 MIT OCW

Show that,  $g(h) = \frac{f(a+h)-f(a)}{h}$  has a removable discontinuity at h = 0 given that f'(a) exists.

**Solution:** In order for g(h) to have a removable discontinuity at h = 0 it must follow two different rules. Firstly the  $\lim_{h\to 0}$  for g(h) must exist. As the g(h) when evaluated for the limit leads to the equation  $\lim_{h\to 0} g(h) = \lim_{h\to 0} \frac{f(a+h)-f(a)}{h}$  it is therefore shown, through the limit definition of a limit that  $\lim_{h\to 0} g(h) = f'(a)$ . As we know, therefore, that f'(a) exists at a we therefore know that the  $\lim_{h\to 0} g(h)$  exists. When paired with the structure of the equation, with  $\frac{f(a+h)-f(a)}{h}$  demonstrating a rational equation and when evaluated for  $\lim_{h\to 0} g = 0$  giving  $\frac{0}{0}$  there is clearly a removable discontinuity. Therefore based on the structure of the equation and what g(h) represents it can be surmised that at h = 0, g(h) has a removable discontinuity.

#### **2.8 HMMT**

Determine the real number a having the property that f(a) = a is a relative minimum of  $f(x) = x^4 - x^3 - x^2 + ax + 1$ .

**Solution:** Note that it is necessary (but not sufficient) for f'(a) = 0. Note that  $f'(x) = 4x^3 - 3x^2 - 2x + a$ , so

$$f'(a) = 4a^3 - 3a^2 - 2a + a = 4a^3 - 3a^2 - a = (a-1)a(4a+1).$$

Thus the possible values of a are  $-\frac{1}{4}$ , 0, 1.

Note that we require a = f(a), so the only case left to check is a = 1. For a = 1, we have

$$f'(x) = 4x^3 - 3x^2 - 2x - 1 = (x+1)(4(x+\frac{1}{8})^2 - \frac{17}{16}),$$

so the other roots of f'(x) are  $x = -\frac{1 \pm \sqrt{17}}{8}$ . Since both of these roots are less than 1, and the leading coefficient of f'(x) is positive,  $f(1 - \epsilon) < 0$  and  $f(1 + \epsilon) > 0$  for small  $\epsilon > 0$ , which are necessary for a minimum to be achieved.

So the answer is just a = 1.

#### **2.9 HMMT**

Compute  $\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{e^{x\cos x}-1-x}{\sin(x^2)}$ .

**Solution:** We use L'Hopital's Rule to completely butcher this problem. Note that

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^{x \cos x} - 1 - x}{\sin(x^2)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^{x \cos x} (\cos x - x \sin x) - 1}{2x \cos(x^2)} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - x \sin x - 1}{2x} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x}{2x} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

## 2.10 MAST Diagnostic 2020/C10

Find the maximum value of k such that  $(x + 1)^4 \ge kx^3$  for all x.

We solve this problem in two separate ways: one with calculus and another with AM-GM.

**Solution 1 (Calculus):** Note that obviously  $k \ge 0$ , so  $x \le 0$  is not even a case worth considering since the left-hand side will be non-negative and the right-hand side will be non-positive.

This is equivalent to finding the minimum value of  $f(x) = \frac{(x+1)^4}{x^3}$  over positive x. Note that the derivative of this function is, by the quotient/chain rules,

$$f'(x) = \frac{4(x+1)^3 x^3 - 3(x+1)^4 x^2}{x^6} = \frac{(x+1)^3 (4x - 3(x+1))}{x^4} = \frac{(x+1)^3 (x-3)}{x^4}.$$

Note that f'(x) > 0 when x > 3 and f'(x) < 0 when 0 < x < 3, so on the domain  $(0, \infty)$ , f(x) is minimized when x = 3.

It is easy to verify that x = 3 gives  $f(x) = \frac{64}{27}$ , so that is our answer.

**Solution 2 (AM-GM):** Note that by AM-GM,  $(\frac{x}{3} + \frac{x}{3} + \frac{x}{3} + 1)^4 \ge 64 \cdot \frac{x^3}{27}$  with equality at  $\frac{x}{3} = 1$ , so our maximum is  $k = \frac{64}{27}$ .

#### 2.11 Extension of C10

Find the range of values k such that  $(x + 1)^4 \ge kx^3$  for all x.

**Solution:** As we can probably infer from the solution above, the problem behaves differently for  $k \ge 0$  and  $k \le 0$ , and each of these cases only care about  $x \ge 0$  and  $x \le 0$ , respectively.

We have already done  $x \ge 0$  – in that case,  $k \le \frac{64}{27}$  will work. So we do  $x \le 0$ .

The extension is really not hard; when x = -1 we have  $0 \ge k \cdot -1^3$ , so we must have  $k \ge 0$ . Thus the range is  $k \in [0, \frac{64}{27}]$ .

#### 2.12 Leibniz Rule

Given two nth differentiable functions f, g, prove that

$$(fg)^{(n)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} f^{(k)}(x) g^{(n-k)}(x).$$

**Solution:** This is just algebraic manipulation with Taylor Series.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>We took the derivative of both sides of the fraction.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>The case where *x* is non-positive is not addressed in this solution, but it is completely trivial.

Note that the Taylor Series of f(x) is  $f(x+\epsilon)=f(x)+f'(x)\epsilon+\frac{f''(x)\epsilon^2}{2!}+\cdots$ . A similar equation holds for  $g(x+\epsilon)$ . Take the product of the Taylor Series and note that the coefficient of the  $\epsilon^n$  term can be expressed as

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \frac{f^{(k)}(x)\epsilon^{k}}{k!} \cdot \frac{g^{(n-k)}(x)\epsilon^{n-k}}{(n-k)!},$$

and since

$$\epsilon^n \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(x)}{k!} \cdot \frac{g^{(n-k)}(x)}{(n-k)!} = \frac{(fg)^{(n)}(x)\epsilon^n}{n!},$$

$$(fg)^{(n)}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} f^{(k)}(x) g^{(n-k)}(x).$$

### 2.13 Hong Kong TST 2021/1/1

Find, with proof, all real triples (a, b, c) satisfying

$$(2^{2a} + 1)(2^{2b} + 2)(2^{2c} + 8) = 2^{a+b+c+5}$$
.

**Solution:** We would like to make this expression symmetric to make it easier to work with; factoring out powers of 2 from the second and third terms in the left-hand side would make the problem a lot easier to work with. So note this expression is equivalent to

$$(2^{2a} + 1)(2^{2b-1} + 1)(2^{2c-3} + 1) = 2^{a+b+c+1}$$
.

Now we want to actually make this problem symmetric, so we substitute  $y = b - \frac{1}{2}$  and  $z = c - \frac{3}{2}$  to get

$$(2^{2a} + 1)(2^{2y} + 1)(2^{2z} + 1) = 2^{a+y+z+3}$$

$$(2^a + \frac{1}{2^a})(2^y + \frac{1}{2^y})(2^z + \frac{1}{2^z}) = 2^3.$$

By **Lemma of Mock JMO**, the minimum value of  $2^a + \frac{1}{2^a}$  is 2, achieved only when a = 0.56 So we must have a = y = z = 0, or  $(a, b, c) = (0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2})$ .

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Note that all exponential functions are the same; there's just a difference in the constant.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Alternatively, you may cite AM-GM. Actually, I will directly prove this:  $(\sqrt{2}^a - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^a})^2 \ge 0$  with equality at  $\sqrt{2}^a - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}^a} = 0$ , or a = 0 – expanding the inequality and rearranging gives the desired  $2^a + \frac{1}{2^a} \ge 2$ .