

## 18.01 Solutions to Problem Set 1 Part II

### Problem 1: Nonexistence of sin and cos cancellations

- a) Since  $E(x)$  is an even function,  $E(-x) = E(x)$  for all real numbers  $x$ . Similarly, since  $O$  is odd,  $O(-x) = -O(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Suppose now that

$$E(x) + O(x) = 0$$

for all  $x$ . Since every real number  $x$  has a negative  $-x$ , we also have

$$E(-x) + O(-x) = 0$$

for all  $x$ . Using the equations we derived above, we get

$$E(x) - O(x) = 0$$

for all  $x$ . Adding the first and third equation together, we see that  $2E(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  and hence  $E$  is just the 0 function. Similarly, subtracting the two equations tells us that  $2O(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  and hence  $O$  is also the 0 function.

- b) Suppose  $A \sin(ax) + B \cos(bx) = 0$  for all  $x$ . If we let  $E(x) = B \cos(bx)$  and  $O(x) = A \sin(ax)$ , then we see that  $E$  is an even function,  $O$  is an odd function and  $E$  and  $O$  satisfy the equation of part a). Hence, by part a), we must have  $E(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  and  $O(x) = 0$  for all  $x$ .

The only way we can have  $B \cos(bx) = 0$  for all  $x$  is for  $B = 0$ , as plugging in  $x = 0$  gives  $0 = B \cos(0) = B$ . The only way  $A \sin(ax) = 0$  for all  $x$  is if either  $A = 0$  or  $a = 0$ . If neither is true, then plugging in  $x = \frac{\pi}{2a}$ , we get  $A \sin(ax) = A \neq 0$ . So,  $B$  must be 0 and at least one of  $A$  or  $a$  must be 0.

### Problem 2: Error analysis

- a) Since  $V = \frac{\pi}{9}h^3$ ,  $h = \left(\frac{9V}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}$ . Let us use the symbol  $a$  to denote  $\left(\frac{9}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}$ . Hence,  $h = aV^{\frac{1}{3}}$ . By the analytic definition of the derivative,

$$\begin{aligned} h'(V) &= \lim_{\Delta V \rightarrow 0} a \frac{(V + \Delta V)^{\frac{1}{3}} - V^{\frac{1}{3}}}{\Delta V} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta V \rightarrow 0} a \frac{(V + \Delta V)^{\frac{1}{3}} - V^{\frac{1}{3}}}{\Delta V} \frac{(V + \Delta V)^{\frac{2}{3}} + V^{\frac{1}{3}}(V + \Delta V)^{\frac{1}{3}} + V^{\frac{2}{3}}}{(V + \Delta V)^{\frac{2}{3}} + V^{\frac{1}{3}}(V + \Delta V)^{\frac{1}{3}} + V^{\frac{2}{3}}} \\ &= \lim_{\Delta V \rightarrow 0} a \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta V} \lim_{\Delta V \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{(V + \Delta V)^{\frac{2}{3}} + V^{\frac{1}{3}}(V + \Delta V)^{\frac{1}{3}} + V^{\frac{2}{3}}} \end{aligned}$$

Cancelling the  $\Delta V$  in the numerator and denominator in the first limit, we can then evaluate the second limit by simply setting  $\Delta V$  equal to 0, as there are no factors of zero left in the denominator. Hence, we get

$$h'(V) = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{9}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} V^{-\frac{2}{3}}.$$

**Alternative Solution:** The analytic definition of the derivative tells us that

$$h'(V) = \lim_{\Delta V \rightarrow 0} \frac{h(V + \Delta V) - h(V)}{\Delta V}.$$

Instead of writing everything in terms of  $V$ , we can write everything in terms of  $h$  and note that sending  $\Delta V$  to 0 is the same as sending  $\Delta h$  to 0 since  $V$  is a continuous function of  $h$ . Using  $b$  to denote  $\frac{\pi}{9}$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
h'(V) &= \lim_{\Delta h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta h}{V(h + \Delta h) - V(h)} \\
&= \lim_{\Delta h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{b} \frac{\Delta h}{(h + \Delta h)^3 - h^3} \\
&= \lim_{\Delta h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{b} \frac{\Delta h}{\Delta h((h + \Delta h)^2 + h(h + \Delta h) + h^2)} \\
&= \frac{1}{b} \frac{1}{3h^2}
\end{aligned}$$

Now, plugging in  $h = \left(\frac{9V}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}$  and  $b = \frac{\pi}{9}$ , we get

$$h'(V) = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{9}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} V^{-\frac{2}{3}}$$

the same answer as before.

b) If  $h_0 = 1$ , then  $V_0 = \frac{\pi}{9}h^3 = \frac{\pi}{9}$ . The approximate height error  $\Delta h$  is given by the formula

$$\Delta h \approx h'(V_0)\Delta V = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{9}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \left(\frac{9}{\pi}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}} \Delta V = \frac{1}{3} \frac{9}{\pi} \Delta V = \frac{3\Delta V}{\pi}.$$

c) Since  $3 \approx \pi$ ,  $|\Delta h| \approx |\Delta V|$ . As the scoops can only measure volumes with error  $|\Delta V|$  around 0.1, it is impossible to fill the cone with  $|\Delta h| \leq 0.2$ .

d) Using  $V(h) = \frac{\pi}{9}h^3$ , we have  $V'(h) = \frac{\pi}{3}h^2$  and hence  $V'(h_0) = \frac{\pi}{3}$ . Thus, we have

$$\Delta V \approx \frac{\pi}{3}\Delta h \approx \Delta h$$

and hence we cannot have  $\Delta h \leq 0.2$  if  $\Delta V$  is around 0.1.

### Problem 3: Section 3.1

14. The first condition on  $a, b, c$  comes from requiring both curves to actually contain the point  $(3, 3)$ . Plugging in  $x = 3, y = 3$ , we get

$$3 = 9 + 3a + b \text{ and } 3 = 3c - 9.$$

Hence,

$$3a + b = -6 \text{ and } c = 4.$$

If they also have the same tangent at  $(3, 3)$ , the derivatives  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  must be equal at  $(3, 3)$ .

$$\frac{d}{dx} (x^2 + ax + b) |_{x=3} = (2x + a) |_{x=3} = 6 + a$$

and

$$\frac{d}{dx} (cx - x^2) |_{x=3} = (c - 2x) |_{x=3} = c - 6 = -2.$$

Hence,  $6 + a = -2$ , i.e.,  $a = -8$  and  $b = 18$ .

18. Suppose the tangent line that passes through  $(0, 2)$  is tangent to the curve  $y = x^3$  at a point  $(x_0, y_0) = (x_0, x_0^3)$ . Then, the slope of the tangent line is  $\frac{y_0 - 2}{x_0} = \frac{x_0^3 - 2}{x_0}$ . This slope is also equal to the derivative of the function  $y = x^3$  at  $(x_0^3, x_0)$ . Hence,

$$\frac{x_0^3 - 2}{x_0} = 3x_0^2.$$

Thus,  $3x_0^3 = x_0^3 - 2$ , which implies  $x_0 = -1$ . Thus, the equation of the line is

$$y = 3x_0^2x + 2 = 3x + 2.$$

- 21 (a) If the point  $(x_0, y_0)$  is on the parabola,  $y_0 = \frac{x_0^2}{4p}$ . The slope of the tangent line at this point is

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\bigg|_{(x_0, y_0)} = \frac{x_0}{2p}.$$

Thus, if the  $y$ -intercept is  $c$ , the equation of the line is

$$y = \frac{x_0}{2p}x_0 + c.$$

Plugging in  $x = x_0, y = y_0 = \frac{x_0^2}{4p}$ , we have

$$c = \frac{x_0^2}{4p} - \frac{x_0^2}{2p} = -\frac{x_0^2}{4p} = -y_0.$$

- 21 (b) Let us use the distance formula to compute the side lengths of the triangle.

The side  $a$  with vertices  $(0, p)$  and  $(0, -y_0)$  has length  $p + y_0 = p + \frac{x_0^2}{4p}$ .

The side  $b$  with vertices  $(0, p)$  and  $(x_0, y_0)$  has length

$$\sqrt{x_0^2 + (p - y_0)^2} = \sqrt{x_0^2 + p^2 + \frac{x_0^4}{16p^2} - \frac{x_0^2}{2}}.$$

Squaring both sides gives

$$a^2 = p^2 + \frac{x_0^4}{16p^2} + \frac{x_0^2}{2} = b^2.$$

Hence,  $a = b$  and the corresponding triangle is isosceles.

- 21 (c) Suppose the light ray starts at the focus  $F = (0, p)$  and hits the parabola at the point  $A = (x_0, y_0)$ . Let  $B = (0, -y_0)$ . By part (a), the line containing the points  $A$  and  $B$  is tangent to the parabola at  $A$  and by part (b), the segments  $FA$  and  $FB$  have the same length. Let  $C$  be a point on the vertical line passing through  $A$  above  $A$ . Then, since the line passing through  $AC$  is parallel to the axis, the angle  $FAC$  is the same as the angle  $FBA$ , which is the same as the angle  $FAB$  because the corresponding sides have the same length. Hence, the ray  $AC$  makes the same angle with the tangent line as the ray  $FA$  and hence must be the path of the light ray after reflection.

#### Problem 4: Section 2.5

- 19 (f)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 x}{3x^2} = \frac{1}{3} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{3} \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{3}.$$

19 (g)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 2x}{\sin 3x} = \frac{2}{3} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 2x}{\sin 3x} \frac{3x}{2x} = \frac{2}{3} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 2x}{2x} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x}{\sin 3x} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

20 (a)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{3\sqrt{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{3\sqrt{x}} \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{3} \frac{\sin x}{x} \sqrt{x} = \frac{1}{3} \cdot 1 \cdot 0 = 0.$$

20 (b)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x = 1 \cdot 0 = 0.$$

20 (g)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x^2 + 4x}{\sin 2x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{3x}{2} \frac{2x}{\sin 2x} + \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 2 \frac{2x}{\sin 2x} = 0 + 2 = 2.$$

22 (a) Conjecture:

$$\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos \theta}{\theta^2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

22 (b) Proof: Note that  $1 - \cos(\theta) = 2 \sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)$ . Hence,

$$\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos \theta}{\theta^2} = \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2} \frac{\sin^2\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)}{\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)^2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

**Problem 5:** Induction and derivatives of powers of  $x$ .

a) Using the quotient rule

$$\frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{\frac{d1}{dx} \cdot x - 1 \cdot \frac{dx}{dx}}{x^2} = -\frac{1}{x^2}.$$

b) We want to show, using induction on  $n$ , that  $\frac{d}{dx} x^{-n} = -n x^{-n-1}$  for  $n > 0$ . Whenever we need to do an induction proof, we need to prove a base case, when  $n = 1$ , by hand and then show that if the statement is true for  $n$ , then it is true for  $n + 1$ . We have shown the base case in part (a).

So, assume that  $\frac{d}{dx} x^{-n} = -n x^{-n-1}$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} x^{-n-1} &= \frac{d}{dx} (x^{-1} x^{-n-1}) \\ &= x^{-n} \frac{d}{dx} x^{-1} + x^{-1} \frac{d}{dx} x^{-n} \\ &= -x^{-n-2} - n x^{-1} x^{-n-1} \text{ (by the induction hypothesis)} \\ &= -(n+1) x^{-n-2}. \end{aligned}$$

c) Let us use induction to prove that  $\frac{d}{dx} x^n = n x^{n-1}$  for  $n \geq 1$ . As mentioned in part b), we first need to prove a base case. For  $n = 1$ ,

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^n = \frac{d}{dx} x = 1 = 1x^0,$$

as desired. Let us now assume, as induction hypothesis, that the statement is true for  $n$ . Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dx}x^{n+1} &= \frac{d}{dx}(xx^n) \\ &= x^n \frac{d}{dx}x + x \frac{d}{dx}x^n \\ &= x^n + nx^{n-1} \\ &= (n+1)x^n\end{aligned}$$

as desired.