

## Tutorial 3 (SVC) - Solutions sketch

- ①  $f(x) = \sin x$  is continuous and differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$ , hence, in particular, it is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$  for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  with  $a < b$ .  
Thus, by MVT,  $\exists c \in (a, b) \ni$

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}, \quad \text{i.e.}$$

$$\cos c = \frac{\sin b - \sin a}{b - a}$$

Since  $|\cos c| \leq 1$ , the result follows.

- ② Let  $f(x) = x^n + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1x + a_0$ ,  $n \geq 2$ .  
If  $b$  &  $c$  are any 2 roots of  $f(x)$ .

Then  $f(b) = f(c)$ . Of course,  $f$  is continuous on  $[b, c]$  & differentiable on  $(b, c)$  whence  
 $\exists d$  with  $b < d < c \ni f'(d) = 0$ .

[After discussing this problem, you can tell them about 'interlacing property'.]

- ③ Let  $p(x) = a_3x^3 + a_2x^2 + a_1x + a_0$  ( $a_3 \neq 0$ ) denote the cubic polynomial.

$$\text{Then } p'(x) = 3a_3x^2 + 2a_2x + a_1$$

$$\& \quad p''(x) = 6a_3x + 2a_2$$

Now  $p''(x)$  has only one root, namely,  $x = -\frac{a_2}{3a_3}$  <sup>Note that  $(a_3 \neq 0)$</sup>

By prob. ②  $p'$  can have at most 2 real zeros, & again by prob. ②, we see that  $p$  can have at most 3 real zeros.

$$(4) f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 3}{x - 2}, \quad x \neq 2$$

$$f'(x) = \frac{(x-1)(x-3)}{(x-2)^2}, \quad (x \neq 2)$$

Intervals	$(-\infty, 1)$	$(1, 2)$	$(2, 3)$	$(3, \infty)$
Sign of $f'$	+	-	-	+
Behavior of $f$	increasing	decreasing	decreasing	increasing

(a)  $f$  is increasing on  $(-\infty, 1)$  &  $(3, \infty)$ , and decreasing on  $(1, 2)$  &  $(2, 3)$ .

(b) Since  $f$  changes sign from + to - when we move from the left of 1 to its right, by the first der. test for local extrema,  $f$  has a local max. at  $x=1$ . It is  $f(1) = \frac{(1)^2 - 3}{1 - 2} = 1$

Similarly,  $f$  has a loc. min. at  $x=3$ , & it is  $f(3) = 6$ .

• 2 is not in the domain of  $f$ , however,  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{x^2 - 3}{x - 2} = -\infty$ , whereas  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} \frac{x^2 - 3}{x - 2} = +\infty$ .

(c)  $f$  does not have any absolute extrema since  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{x^2 - 3}{x - 2} = -\infty$  &  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{x^2 - 3}{x - 2} = +\infty$ .

⑤ To graph the  $f(x) = \frac{x^2-3}{x-2}$ ,  $x \neq 2$ , we first

find  $f''(x)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} f''(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{x^2-4x+3}{x^2-4x+4} \right) \\ &= \frac{(x^2-4x+4)(2x-4) - (x^2-4x+3)(2x-4)}{(x-2)^4} \\ &= \frac{2}{(x-2)^3}, \text{ which exists } \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{2\}. \end{aligned}$$

By the 2<sup>nd</sup> derivative test for concavity,

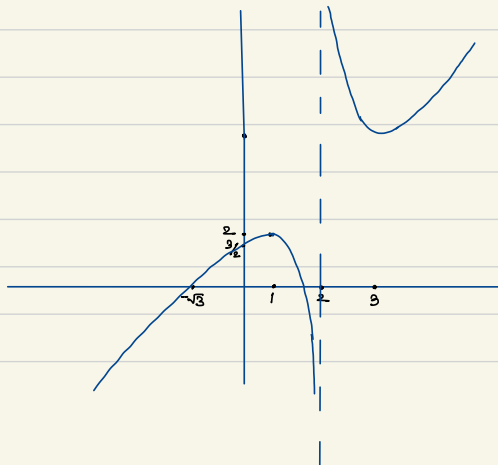
$f'' < 0$  on  $(-\infty, 2)$  implies  $f$  is concave down on  $(-\infty, 2)$ .

Similarly,  $f$  is concave up on  $(2, \infty)$ .

Note also that  $f(\pm\sqrt{3}) = 0$  &  $f(0) = \frac{3}{2}$




Hence with the help of this information as well as that in ④, we graph  $f$  as follows:

$$y = \frac{x^2-3}{x-2}$$



⑥<sup>(i)</sup> Let  $b$  and  $c$  with  $b < c$  denote the 2 roots of  $f'(x)$ .

Then

Intervals	$(-\infty, b)$	$(b, c)$	$(c, \infty)$
sign of $f'$	+	-	+
Behavior of $f$			

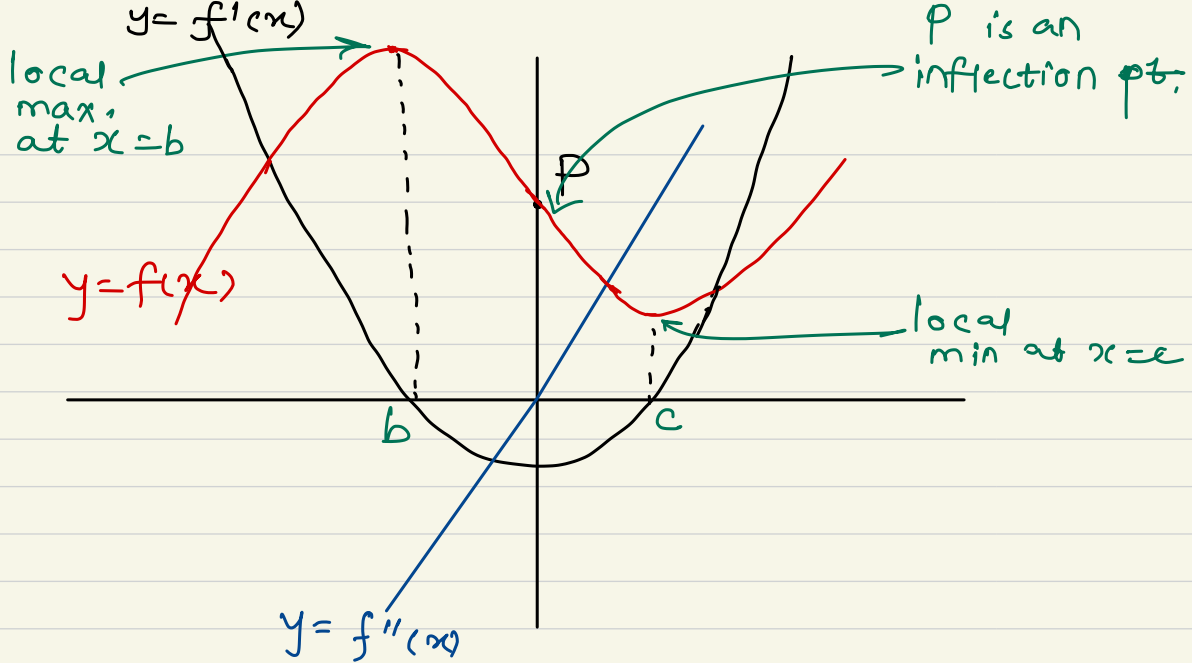
(ii) The sign of  $f'$  changes from  $+$  to  $-$  when we move from the left of  $b$  to its right.  
Hence  $f$  has local max. at  $x = b$ .

Similarly  $f$  has a loc. min. at  $x = c$ .

(iii)  $f'' < 0$  on  $(-\infty, 0)$ , so  $f$  is concave down there whereas  $f'' > 0$  on  $(0, \infty)$ , hence  $f$  is concave up there.

Also, as  $f$  changes its concavity at  $P$ ,  $f$  has an inflection point at  $x = 0$ , which is  $P$ .

With this, we graph  $y = f(x)$  as follows:



Q 7] The thermometer took 14 sec. to rise from  $-19^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $100^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

So if  $y = f(t)$  denotes the temperature (in celcius) of the thermometer at time  $t$ , then we are given, with  $a < b$ ,

$$f(a) = -19, \quad f(b) = 100 \text{ \& } b - a = 14.$$

Assuming the continuity of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  & its differentiability on  $(a, b)$ , we see that there exists  $c$  with  $a < c < b$  &

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a} \quad (\text{by MVT})$$

$$= \frac{100 + 19}{14} = 8.5$$

Hence somewhere along the way the mercury was rising at  $8.5^{\circ}\text{C/sec}$ ,

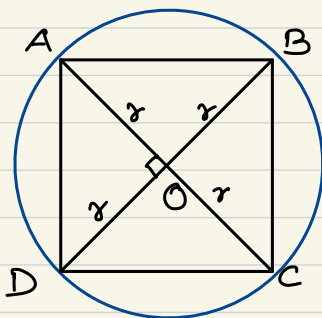
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Q8]} \quad \int \frac{\csc(\theta) d\theta}{\csc(\theta) - \sin(\theta)} &= \int \frac{1}{\sin\theta \left( \frac{1 - \sin^2\theta}{\sin\theta} \right)} d\theta \\ &= \int \sec^2\theta d\theta = \tan\theta + c. \end{aligned}$$

Q9]

It would be nice to have students visualize what happens to the area of the regular  $n$ -gon inscribed in a circle of radius  $r$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

(This takes care of problems 21 & 22 of the exercises at the end of Sect. 5.1)

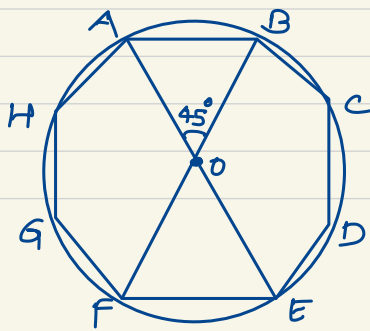
(i) (a)  $n = 4$  :



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Area of the square} &= 4 \cdot \text{Area of } \triangle AOB \\ &= 4 \cdot \frac{1}{2} (r)(r) \end{aligned}$$

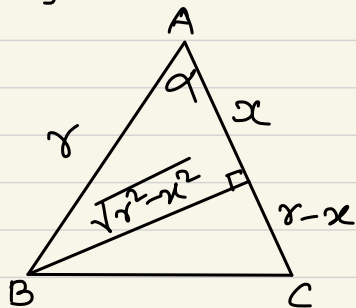
$$= 2r^2.$$

(b)  $n = 8$  :



$$\begin{aligned}\text{Area of the octagon} &= 8 \cdot \text{Area of } \triangle AOB \\ &= 8 \cdot \frac{1}{2} r^2 \sin(45^\circ) = 2\sqrt{2} r^2\end{aligned}$$

Here we have used the fact that if we have an isosceles  $\triangle$  with its congruent sides of length  $r$  forming an angle of  $\alpha$  degrees, then its area  $= \frac{1}{2} r^2 \sin(\alpha)$ . It can be easily derived as follows:



$$\begin{aligned}A(\triangle ABC) &= \frac{1}{2} \cdot r \cdot \sqrt{r^2 - x^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} r \cdot (r \sin \alpha) \left( \because \sin \alpha = \frac{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}{r} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} r^2 \sin(\alpha)\end{aligned}$$

Thus, in general, the area of the general  $n$ -gon inscribed in a circle of radius  $r$

$$= n \cdot \frac{1}{2} r^2 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{n}\right).$$

Thus, we have

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \text{Area of the } n\text{-gon} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \cdot \frac{1}{2} r^2 \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{n}\right) \\ &= \pi r^2 \cdot \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{n}\right)}{\left(\frac{2\pi}{n}\right)}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \pi r^2 \lim_{\substack{n \rightarrow \infty \\ \frac{n}{2\pi} \rightarrow \infty}} \frac{\sin(2\pi/n)}{(2\pi/n)} \\
&= \pi r^2 \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(\theta)}{\theta} \\
&= \pi r^2 (1) \\
&= \pi r^2.
\end{aligned}$$

Q 10] Yes  $\int_a^b av(f) dx = \int_a^b f(x) dx$

Proof: Since  $av(f) = \int_a^b f(t) dt$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
\int_a^b av(f) dx &= \int_a^b \frac{1}{(b-a)} \left( \int_a^b f(t) dt \right) dx \\
&= \frac{1}{(b-a)} \left( \int_a^b f(t) dt \right) \left( \int_a^b dx \right) \left( \because \int_a^b f(t) dt \text{ is a number independent of } x \right) \\
&= \frac{1}{(b-a)} \cdot \int_a^b f(t) dt \cdot (b-a) \\
&= \int_a^b f(x) dx.
\end{aligned}$$

Q 11] (i)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$  is decreasing on  $[0, 1]$ .

So on  $[0, 1]$   $\max f = f(0) = 1$   
 $\& \min f = f(1) = \frac{1}{2}$



Thus, by max-min inequality,

$$\frac{1}{2}(1-0) \leq \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \leq 1(1-0)$$

$$\text{i.e.}, \frac{1}{2} \leq \int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \leq 1. \quad \text{--- } (*)$$

$$\text{(ii) On } [0, \frac{1}{2}] \quad \max f = f(0) = 1 \\ \& \min f = f(\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{4}{5}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{4}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \leq \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx \leq 1 \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$\text{i.e.} \quad \frac{2}{5} \leq \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}} \frac{dx}{1+x^2} \leq \frac{1}{2} \quad \text{--- } (A)$$

$$\text{Moreover, on } [\frac{1}{2}, 1] \quad \max f = f(\frac{1}{2}) = \frac{4}{5} \\ \& \min f = f(1) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \leq \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 \frac{dx}{1+x^2} \leq \frac{4}{5} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{i.e.} \quad \frac{1}{4} \leq \int_{\frac{1}{2}}^1 \frac{dx}{1+x^2} \leq \frac{2}{5} \quad \text{--- } (B)$$

From (A) & (B)

$$\frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{4} \leq \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1+x^2} \leq \frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{i.e.} \quad \frac{13}{20} \leq \int_0^1 \frac{dx}{1+x^2} \leq \frac{18}{20} = 0.9$$

0.65

→ improved estimate over the one in (\*) ✓

Ex. 2 Solve the integral  $\int_0^b x \, dx$  by taking  $c_k$  to be the left endpoint of  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$  and show that you get the same answer as before.

Ans. to Ex. 2

Take  $\{0, \frac{b}{n}, \frac{2b}{n}, \dots, \frac{(n-1)b}{n}, b\}$  as a partition of  $[a, b]$ .

$$\Delta x_k = \Delta x = \frac{b-0}{n} = \frac{b}{n}.$$

$$c_k = \frac{(k-1)b}{n}, \quad 1 \leq k \leq n.$$

Hence the Riemann sum

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \cdot \Delta x \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{(k-1)b}{n} \cdot \frac{b}{n} \\ &= \frac{b^2}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n (k-1) \\ &= \frac{b^2}{n^2} \left( \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} k \right) \\ &= \frac{b^2}{n^2} \left( \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} k \right) = \frac{b^2}{n^2} \frac{n(n-1)}{2} = \frac{b^2}{2} \left( 1 - \frac{1}{n} \right) \\ &\rightarrow \frac{b^2}{2} \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \end{aligned}$$

**Ex.3** Using a Riemann sum calculation similar to the one in the above example, show that  $\int_a^b c dx = c(b-a)$  where  $c$  is any constant

and  $\int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3}{3} - \frac{a^3}{3}$ ,  $a < b$ .

**Ans.** (i) Take the partition

$$\left\{ a, a + \frac{b-a}{n}, a + \frac{2(b-a)}{n}, \dots, a + \frac{(n-1)(b-a)}{n}, b \right\}$$

of  $[a, b]$  which divides  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  sub-intervals of equal width  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ .

Hence Riemann sum

$$\begin{aligned} &= \sum_{k=1}^n f(c_k) \Delta x_k \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n c \left( \frac{b-a}{n} \right) \\ &= \left( \frac{b-a}{n} \right) c \sum_{k=1}^n (1) \\ &= c(b-a). \end{aligned}$$

Hence  $\int_a^b c dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c(b-a) = c(b-a)$ .

(ii)  $\int_a^b x^2 dx = \frac{b^3}{3} - \frac{a^3}{3}$ ,  $a < b$ .

(iii)



Take the partition

$$\left\{ a, a + \frac{b-a}{n}, a + \frac{2(b-a)}{n}, \dots, a + \frac{(n-1)(b-a)}{n}, b \right\}$$

of  $[a, b]$  which divides  $[a, b]$  into  $n$  sub-intervals of equal width  $\Delta x = \frac{b-a}{n}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Riemann sum} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n c_k^2 \Delta x. \end{aligned}$$

But let  $c_k$  denote the right end-point of the sub-interval  $[x_{k-1}, x_k]$ .

$$\text{Then } c_k = a + \frac{k(b-a)}{n}.$$

Hence, the Riemann sum

$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \left( a + \frac{k(b-a)}{n} \right)^2 \cdot \frac{(b-a)}{n}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_{k=1}^n \left( a^2 + \frac{2a(b-a)k}{n} + \frac{k^2(b-a)^2}{n^2} \right) \left( \frac{b-a}{n} \right) \\
&= \frac{a^2(b-a)}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n (1) + \frac{2a(b-a)^2}{n^2} \sum_{k=1}^n k \\
&\quad + \frac{(b-a)^3}{n^3} \sum_{k=1}^n k^2 \\
&= \frac{a^2(b-a)}{n} + \frac{2a(b-a)^2}{n^2} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} \\
&\quad + \frac{(b-a)^3}{n^3} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6} \\
&= \frac{a^2(b-a)}{n} + a(b-a)^2 \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \\
&\quad + \frac{(b-a)^3}{6} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \left( 2 + \frac{1}{n} \right) \} \textcircled{A}
\end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $\int_a^b x^2 dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \textcircled{A}$

$$= \frac{a^2(b-a)}{n} + a(b-a)^2 + \frac{(b-a)^3}{3}$$

$$= (b-a) \left\{ \cancel{a^2} + a \cancel{(b-a)} + \frac{(b-a)^2}{3} \right\}$$

$$= (b-a) \left\{ ab + \frac{(b-a)^2}{3} \right\}$$

$$= (b-a) \left\{ \frac{3ab + b^2 - 2ab + a^2}{3} \right\}$$

$$= (b-a) \frac{(b^2 + ab + a^2)}{3}$$

$$= \frac{b^3 - a^3}{3}.$$

$$\text{since } x^3 - y^3 = (x-y)(x^2 + xy + y^2).$$