

1. By the Chain Rule,

$$f'(x) = -\frac{1}{1+x^{-2}}(-x^{-2}) = \left(\frac{x^2}{x^2+1}\right)\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) = \frac{1}{x^2+1},$$

which is also the derivative of $\tan^{-1}x$.

2. Suppose that $f : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a continuous function such that $f'(c) = 0$ for all $c > 0$. If $x > 0$ then, by the Mean Value Theorem applied to the interval $[0, x]$, there exists $c \in (0, x)$ such that

$$0 = f'(c) = \frac{f(x) - f(0)}{x - 0},$$

so that $f(x) - f(0) = 0$, yielding $f(x) = f(0)$. This verifies that f is a constant function.

3. Let $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by the rule

$$f(x) = \frac{|x|}{x} = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } x > 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Clearly $f'(x) = 0$ for all x in the domain of f . Thus f is differentiable, but f is not a constant function (though is piecewise constant).

4. The curve $y = \frac{1}{x^2}$ is not continuous over $[-1, 1]$ (not even defined at $x = 0$), so the hypothesis of the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus does not hold, so Bill is not entitled to quote it. Susan is partly right: the function is positive everywhere that it is defined, so if an area makes sense then at least it should be nonnegative. In fact $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx$ is an improper integral because $\frac{1}{x^2}$ is unbounded. We get

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \int_a^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \left[-\frac{1}{x} \right] = \lim_{a \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{a} - 1 = \infty,$$

and similarly $\int_{-1}^0 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \infty$. Thus

$$\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \int_{-1}^0 \frac{1}{x^2} dx + \int_0^1 \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \infty,$$

which is “positive” but not a number at all!

5. (i) Put $u = \cos \theta$, so that $du = -\sin \theta d\theta$, and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^4 \theta \sin^3 \theta d\theta &= \int_0^{\pi/2} (\cos^4 \theta - \cos^6 \theta) \sin \theta d\theta = -\int_1^0 u^4 - u^6 du \\ &= \int_0^1 u^4 - u^6 du = \left[\frac{u^5}{5} - \frac{u^7}{7} \right]_0^1 = \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{7} = \frac{2}{35}. \end{aligned}$$

(ii) Put $u = \sec \theta$, so that $du = \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta$, and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^{\pi/3} \sec^5 \theta \tan^3 \theta d\theta &= \int_0^{\pi/3} (\sec^6 \theta - \sec^4 \theta) \sec \theta \tan \theta d\theta = \int_1^2 u^6 - u^4 du \\ &= \left[\frac{u^7}{7} - \frac{u^5}{5} \right]_1^2 = \frac{2^7}{7} - \frac{2^5}{5} - \frac{1}{7} + \frac{1}{5} = \frac{418}{35} . \end{aligned}$$

(iii) Put $u = \sqrt{x}$, so that $du = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} dx = \frac{1}{2u} dx$, and we have

$$\int \frac{\sin \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x}} dx = \int \frac{\sin u}{u} 2u du = 2 \int \sin u du = -2 \cos u + C = -2 \cos \sqrt{x} + C .$$

(iv) Put $u = \sqrt[4]{x+2}$, so that $du = \frac{1}{4}(x+2)^{-3/4} dx = \frac{1}{4u^3} dx$, and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int \frac{x}{\sqrt[4]{x+2}} dx &= \int \frac{u^4 - 2}{u} 4u^3 du = 4 \int u^6 - 2u^2 du \\ &= 4 \left(\frac{u^7}{7} - \frac{2u^3}{3} \right) + C = \frac{4}{7}(x+2)^{7/4} - \frac{8}{3}(x+2)^{3/4} + C . \end{aligned}$$

(v) Put $u = a^2 - x^2$, so that $du = -2x dx$, and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^a x \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx &= -\frac{1}{2} \int_{a^2}^0 u^{1/2} du = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^{a^2} u^{1/2} du = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{2u^{3/2}}{3} \right]_0^{a^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{3} (a^2)^{3/2} = \frac{a^3}{3} . \end{aligned}$$

(vi) Put $x = a \sin \theta$, so that $dx = a \cos \theta d\theta$, and we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^a \sqrt{a^2 - x^2} dx &= \int_0^{\pi/2} a \cos \theta a \cos \theta d\theta = a^2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2 \theta d\theta \\ &= a^2 \int_0^{\pi/2} \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} d\theta = \frac{a^2}{2} \left[\theta + \frac{\sin 2\theta}{2} \right]_0^{\pi/2} = \frac{\pi a^2}{4} . \end{aligned}$$

6. First note that

$$\int_1^{100} \sqrt{x} dx = \left[\frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} \right]_1^{100} = \frac{2}{3} (1000 - 1) = 666 .$$

Using an upper Riemann sum with unit subintervals gives

$$\sqrt{2} + \sqrt{3} + \dots + \sqrt{100} \geq 666 .$$

A lower Riemann sum gives

$$1 + \sqrt{2} + \dots + \sqrt{99} \leq 666 ,$$

so

$$667 \leq 1 + \sqrt{2} + \dots + \sqrt{100} \leq 676 .$$

7. (i) By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, $f'(x) = \sqrt{x^3 + 1}$.
(ii) By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$f'(x) = -\frac{d}{dx} \int_4^x (2 + \sqrt{u})^8 du = -(2 + \sqrt{x})^8.$$

- (iii) Write $f(x) = g(\sqrt{x})$, where $g(x) = \int_1^x \frac{s^2}{s^2+1} ds$. By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus and the chain rule,

$$f'(x) = g'(\sqrt{x}) \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} = \frac{x}{x+1} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}} = \frac{\sqrt{x}}{2(x+1)}.$$

Alternatively, one could make the substitution $s = \sqrt{t}$, so that $ds = \frac{dt}{2\sqrt{t}}$, to get

$$f(x) = \int_1^x \frac{\sqrt{t}}{2(t+1)} dt.$$

Then the result follows directly from the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus.

8. (i) In both cases (making the substitutions $u = 2x$ and $u = x^2$ respectively), the integrals evaluate to

$$\frac{1}{2} \int_0^4 f(u) du = 5.$$

- (ii) Making the substitution $u = -x$ gives

$$\int_a^b f(-x) dx = -\int_{-a}^{-b} f(u) du = \int_{-b}^{-a} f(u) du = \int_{-b}^{-a} f(x) dx,$$

which says that the area under a curve does not change if it is reflected in the y -axis. Making the substitution $u = x + c$ gives

$$\int_a^b f(x+c) dx = \int_{a+c}^{b+c} f(u) du = \int_{a+c}^{b+c} f(x) dx,$$

which says that an area does not change if it is translated c units in the positive or negative x -direction.

- (iii) Observe always that $\sin(\pi - \theta) = \sin \theta$, and $du = -dx$, so we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\pi x f(\sin x) dx &= -\int_\pi^0 (\pi - u) f(\sin(\pi - u)) du = \int_0^\pi (\pi - u) f(\sin u) du \\ &= \pi \int_0^\pi f(\sin x) dx - \int_0^\pi x f(\sin x) dx, \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$2 \int_0^\pi x f(\sin x) dx = \pi \int_0^\pi f(\sin x) dx,$$

yielding finally

$$\int_0^\pi x f(\sin x) dx = \frac{\pi}{2} \int_0^\pi f(\sin x) dx.$$

9. For $0 < \theta < \pi/2$ and $x = \tan \theta > 0$, we have $\tan(\pi/2 - \theta) = 1/x$, so $\tan^{-1}(1/x) = \pi/2 - \theta$, giving

$$f(x) = -(\pi/2 - \theta) = \theta - \pi/2 = \tan^{-1}(x) - \pi/2.$$

For $-\pi/2 < \theta < 0$ and $x = \tan \theta < 0$, we have $\tan(-\pi/2 - \theta) = 1/x$, so $\tan^{-1}(1/x) = -\pi/2 - \theta$, giving

$$f(x) = -(-\pi/2 - \theta) = \theta + \pi/2 = \tan^{-1}(x) + \pi/2.$$

Thus f differs from \tan^{-1} by the constant $-\pi/2$ on $(0, \infty)$ and by the constant $\pi/2$ on $(-\infty, 0)$. There is no anomaly, since f is not defined on all of \mathbb{R} .

10. (i) We have

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

- (ii) Completing the square and putting $u = x + 1$, so that $du = dx$, we have

$$\int \frac{dx}{x^2 + 2x + 2} = \int \frac{dx}{(x+1)^2 + 1} = \int \frac{du}{u^2 + 1} = \tan^{-1} u + C = \tan^{-1}(x+1) + C.$$

- (iii) Observe that

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

so that

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

11. Introduce a constant terminal, say 0, and rearrange and expand $g(x)$ to become

$$g(x) = \int_0^{\cos x} e^{-t^2} dt - \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt.$$

By the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus and the chain rule we have

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_0^{\cos x} e^{-t^2} dt = -\sin x e^{-\cos^2 x} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{dx} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt = e^{-x^2},$$

and so

$$g'(x) = -\sin x e^{-\cos^2 x} - e^{-x^2}.$$

12. Since x is constant as far as the integrating variable t is concerned, we can write $f(x) = x \int_0^x \sin(t^2) dt$. Now by the product rule and the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$f'(x) = x \sin(x^2) + \int_0^x \sin(t^2) dt,$$

and

$$f''(x) = \sin(x^2) + x \frac{d}{dx} \sin(x^2) + \sin(x^2) = 2 \sin(x^2) + 2x^2 \cos(x^2).$$

13. Let F be the function defined on the interval $[a, b]$ by the rule

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt .$$

Then, by the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus, F is differentiable and $F'(x) = f(x)$ for each $x \in (a, b)$. By the Mean Value Theorem, there exists $c \in (a, b)$ such that

$$f(c) = F'(c) = \frac{F(b) - F(a)}{b - a} = \frac{1}{b - a} \int_a^b f(t) dt .$$

14. If we set $F(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt$, then $\int_0^{x^2} f(t) dt = F(x^2)$, and the derivative of this is $F'(x^2) \cdot (2x) = 2xf(x^2)$. So differentiating both sides of the given equation, we get

$$\sin(\pi x) + \pi x \cos(\pi x) = 2xf(x^2).$$

Evaluating both sides of this at $x = 2$, we see that $0 + 2\pi = 4f(4)$. Hence, $f(4) = \pi/2$.

15. This solution relates to the First Assignment so is not included.

16. Put

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } x > 0, \\ -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \text{ (actually } f(0) \text{ can be anything).} \end{cases}$$

For $x > 0$, we have $\int_0^x f(t) dt = \int_0^x (+1) dt = x = |x|$. For $x < 0$, we have $\int_0^x f(t) dt = \int_0^x (-1) dt = \int_x^0 1 dt = -x = |x|$. Finally, $\int_0^0 f(t) dt = 0 = |0|$. This verifies that $\int_0^x f(t) dt = |x|$ for all x .

17. A simple calculation reveals that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} > \sum_{n=1}^7 \frac{1}{n^2} > 1.5$. Observe now that, for any given positive integer $m \geq 3$, $\sum_{n=3}^m \frac{1}{n^2}$ is a lower Riemann sum for

$$\int_2^m \frac{1}{x^2} dx = \left[-\frac{1}{x} \right]_2^m = -\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{2} < \frac{1}{2}$$

so that

$$\sum_{n=1}^m \frac{1}{n^2} = 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \sum_{n=3}^m \frac{1}{n^2} < 1.75 ,$$

so

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} \leq 1.75 .$$

Certainly then

$$1.5 < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^2} < 2 .$$

To see why the limit exists, put $a_m = \sum_{n=1}^m \frac{1}{n^2}$ and $X = \{ a_m \mid m \geq 1 \}$. Observe that

$$a_1 < a_2 < a_3 < \dots < a_m < \dots < 1.75 .$$

In particular X is bounded above so has a least upper bound L , by completeness of the real numbers. Consider any $\epsilon > 0$. If $a_m \leq L - \epsilon$ for all m then L is not the least upper bound of X , a contradiction. Hence $a_M > L - \epsilon$ for some M , so that $L \geq a_m > L - \epsilon$ for all $m \geq M$. This shows

$$|L - a_m| < \epsilon$$

for all $m \geq M$, which proves $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} a_m$ exists and equals L . (This argument is the substance of the Monotone Convergence Theorem which asserts that all monotonic bounded sequences of real numbers have limits.)