

MITES 09 : Solution set 1

1.)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}$

(i)  $f(f(x)) = \frac{1}{1+f(x)} = \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{1+x}} = \frac{1+x}{2+x}$

Makes sense for all but  $x = -2$ .  
( $\because f(x \rightarrow -2) = \pm \infty$ )

(ii)  $f(\frac{1}{x}) = \frac{1}{1+\frac{1}{x}} = \frac{x}{1+x}$

(iii)  $f(cx) = \frac{1}{1+cx}$

(iv)  $f(x+y) = \frac{1}{1+x+y}$

(v)  $\frac{1}{1+x} + \frac{1}{1+y} = f(x) + f(y)$

(vi)  $f(cx) = f(x)$

For what "c" is there at least a single number x such that above equality ~~is~~ holds? ← Bit of a trick question.

$\frac{1}{1+cx} = \frac{1}{1+x} \Rightarrow cx = x$  ; Dividing both sides by x gives  $c = 1$

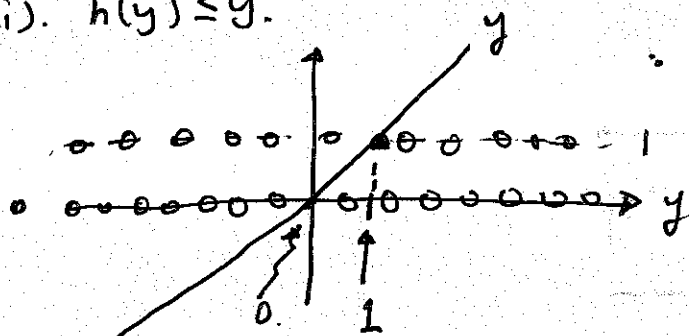
But there's more! since ~~above~~  $cx = x$  is true when  $x = 0$ , for any value of c.  
(we could not detect this care ~~is~~ by dividing both sides by x since you cannot divide by zero.)

$\therefore$  Answer: For any value of c, there is at least one number x that yields  $f(cx) = f(x)$ . [namely,  $x = 0$ ].

(vii) From above,  $c = 1$  ~~is the only solution~~.

2.)  $g(x) = x^2$  ;  $h(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & , x \text{ rational} \\ 1 & , x \text{ irrational} \end{cases}$

(i).  $h(y) \leq y$ .



Graphically, can see that we need  $y \geq 0$ .  
Also, for  $y \geq 1$ ,  $y \geq h(y)$   
Since  $h(y) \leq 1$ .

For  $0 < y < 1$ , need to look at when  $y$  is rational, and when  $y$  is irrational. [note:  $h(1) = 0$ ;  $h(0) = 1$ ]

① For  $0 < y < 1$ ; and  $y$  ~~rational~~ <sup>irrational</sup>:  ~~$h(y) = 0$~~

$h(y) = 1 \Rightarrow h(y) > y$

② For  $0 < y < 1$  and  $y$  irrational:  $h(y) = 0 < y$

∴ Summarizing our findings, we have:

$h(y) \leq y$  when  $(y \geq 1)$  or  $(0 \leq y \leq 1$  and  $y$  is rational.)

(ii)  $h(y) \leq g(y) \Rightarrow h(y) \leq y^2$

Again, for  $y \geq 1$ ,  $y^2 \geq h(y)$  since  $h(y) \leq 1$

For  $0 \leq y < 1$ :  $y$  rational:  $h(y) = 0 \leq y^2$

$y$  irrational:  $h(y) = 1 > y^2$

∴  $h(y) \leq g(y)$  when  $(y \geq 1)$  or  $(0 \leq y < 1, \text{ and } y \text{ is rational})$

(iii)  $g(h(z)) = [h(z)]^2 = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } h(z) = 0 \\ 1, & \text{if } h(z) = 1 \end{cases}$  but  $h(z) = \begin{cases} 0, & z \text{ rational} \\ 1, & z \text{ irrational} \end{cases}$

$= \begin{cases} 0, & z \text{ rational} \\ 1, & z \text{ irrational} \end{cases}$

$= h(z)$



∴  $g(h(z)) - h(z) = h(z) - h(z) = 0$

(iv)  $g(w) \leq w$

$\Rightarrow w^2 \leq w$

$\Rightarrow w \leq 1$  (if  $w \neq 0$ , and  $w > 0$  divide both sides by  $w$ )

[Notice that if  $w < 0$ , then dividing both sides of  $w^2 \leq w$  gives  $w \geq 1$ .]

↑  
flipped inequality.

Notice that  $w=0$  also satisfies  $w^2 \leq w$ .

So:  $g(w) \leq w$  for  $0 \leq w \leq 1$ .

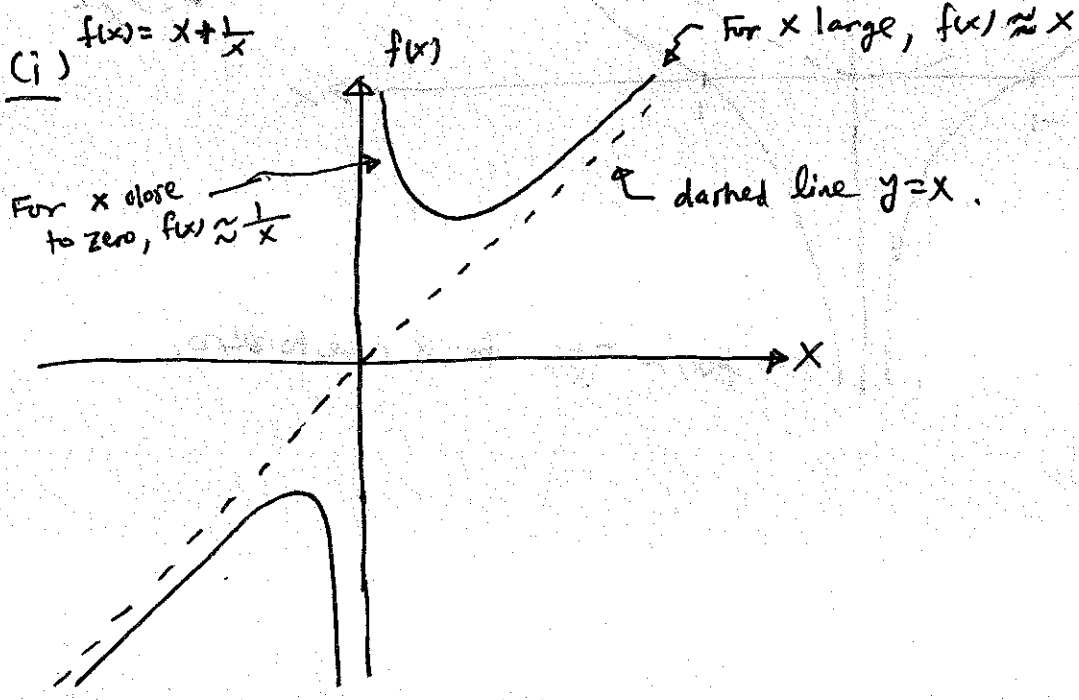
(v)  $g(g(\epsilon)) = g(\epsilon)$

$\Rightarrow [g(\epsilon)]^2 = \epsilon^2 \Rightarrow \epsilon^4 = \epsilon^2$

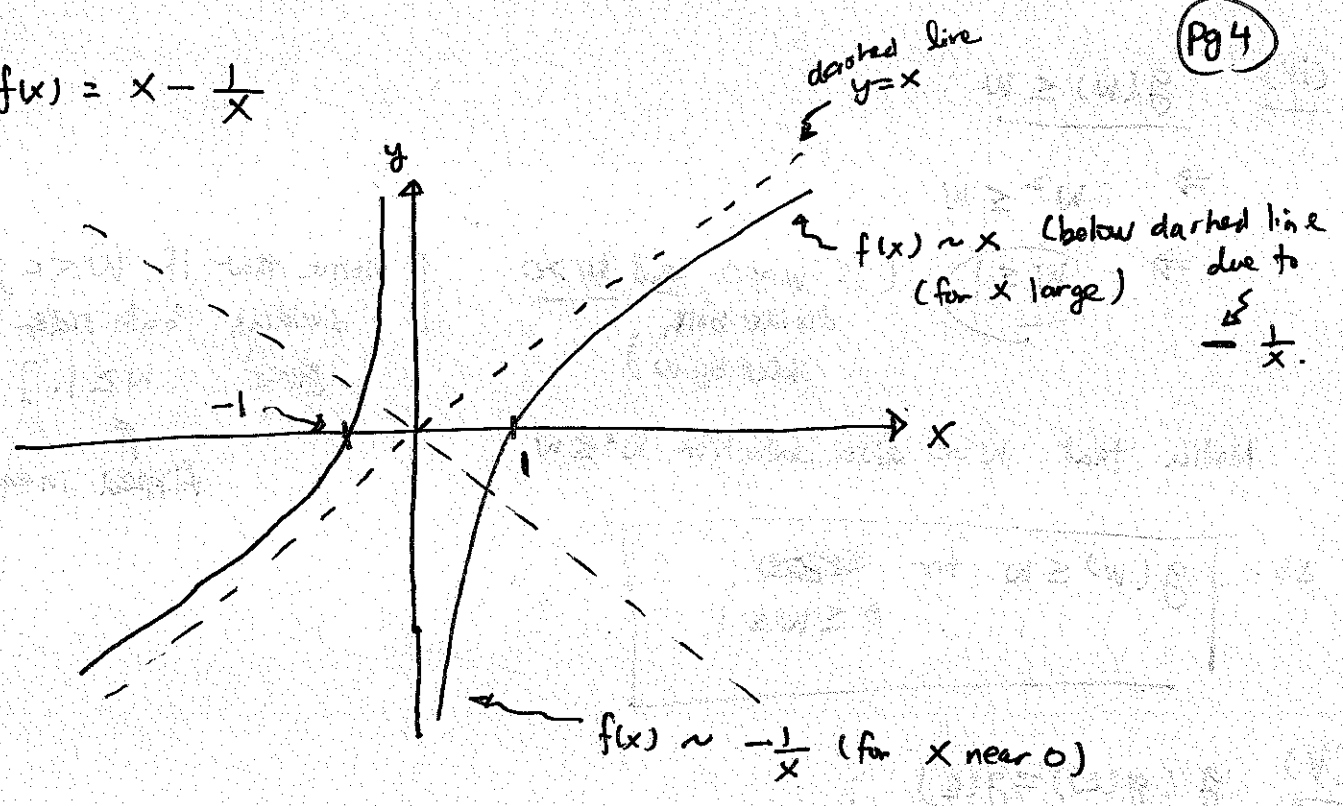
$\Rightarrow \epsilon = 0$  or  $\epsilon^2 = 1 \Rightarrow \epsilon = \pm 1$

$\therefore g(g(\epsilon)) = g(\epsilon)$  when  $\epsilon = 0$ , or  $\epsilon = \pm 1$

3.) (i)  $f(x) = x + \frac{1}{x}$



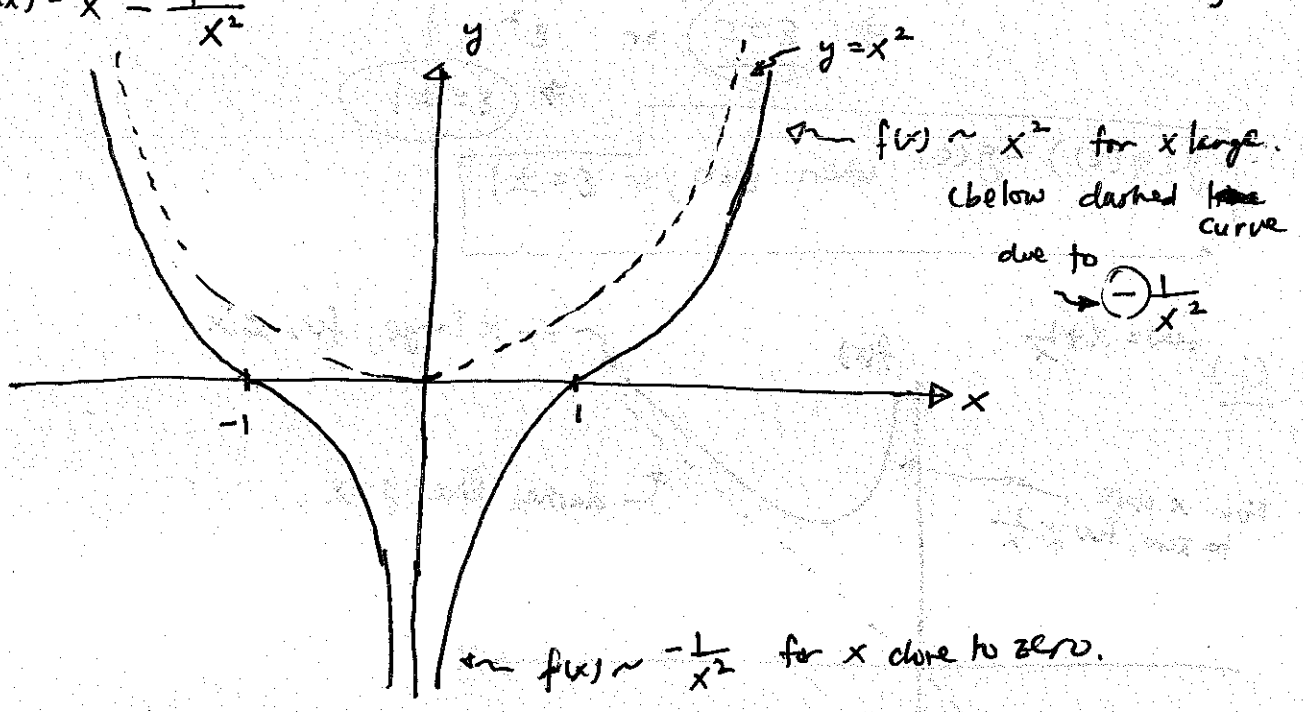
(ii)  $f(x) = x - \frac{1}{x}$



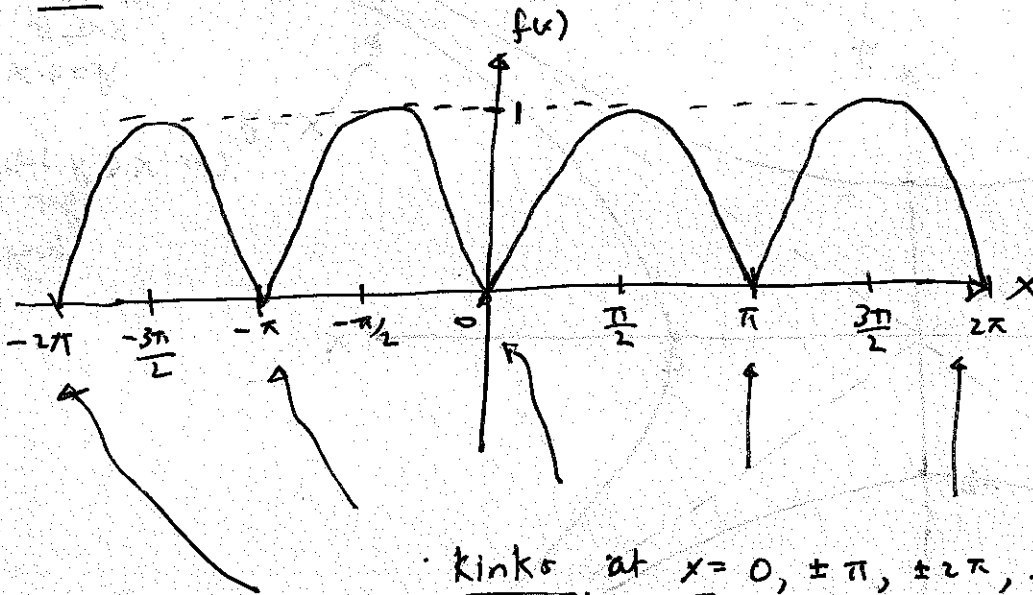
[Notice that  $f'(x) = 0 \Rightarrow 1 = -\frac{1}{x^2}$  ← NOT possible.  
 so no local max/min.]

(iii)

$f(x) = x^2 - \frac{1}{x^2}$

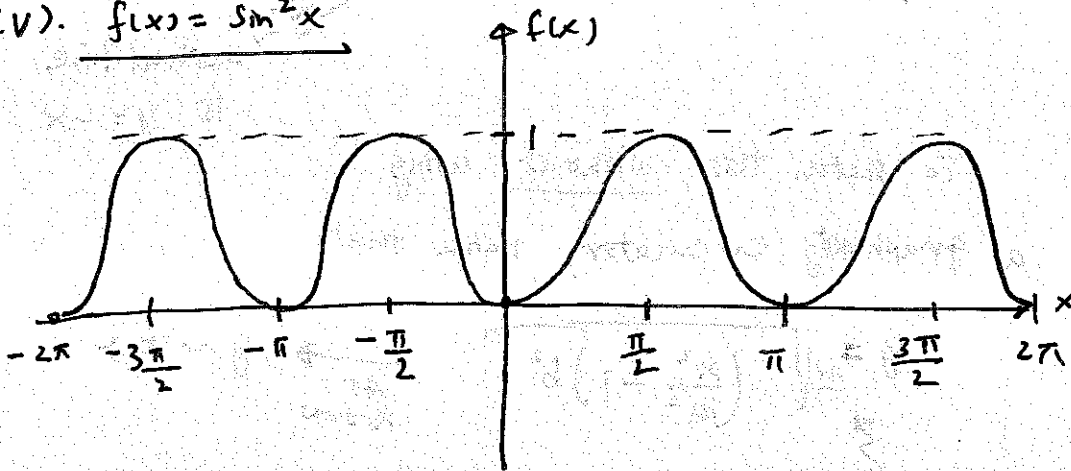


(iv)  $f(x) = |\sin x|$



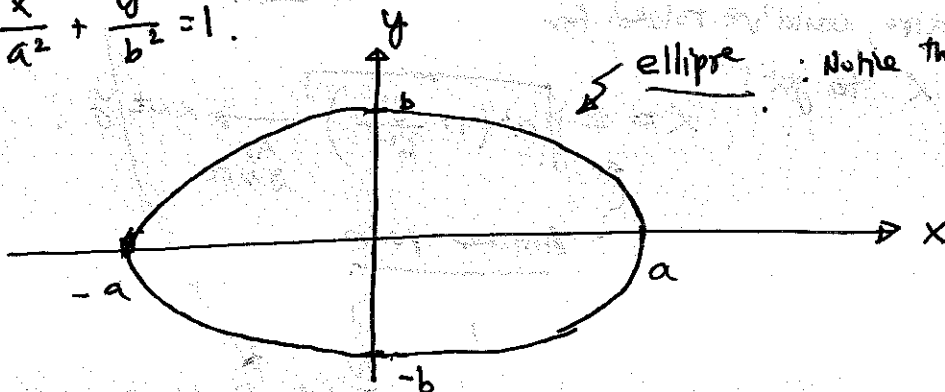
kinks at  $x = 0, \pm\pi, \pm 2\pi, \dots$ ,  
 (i.e.,  $f(x)$  is not differentiable at these kinks.)

(v)  $f(x) = \sin^2 x$



No more kinks.  $f(x)$  is smooth everywhere.

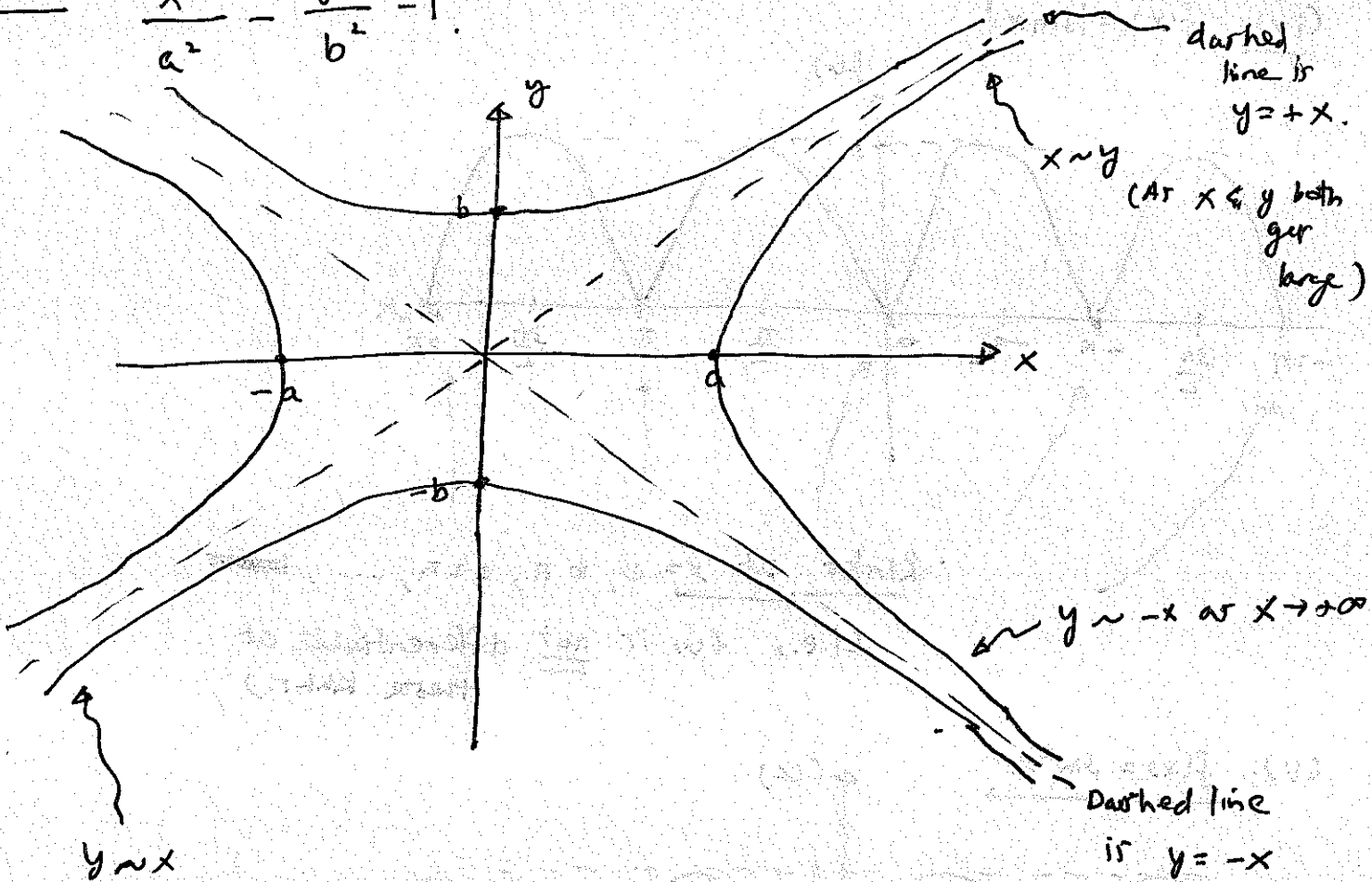
(vi)  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$



ellipse. Note that when  $a=b$ ,  
 we get  $x^2 + y^2 = r^2$ .  
 ↑  
 circle.

(vii)

$$\frac{x^2}{a^2} - \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$$



To sketch this without using a graphical calculator, notice that

$$y = \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{x^2}{a^2} - 1\right) b^2}$$

As  $x \rightarrow \infty$   $y \sim \pm x$

2 possible signs, so we get a pair of curves that are mirror images

And also, could've solved for of each other.

x to get:

$$x = \pm \sqrt{a^2 \left(1 + \frac{y^2}{b^2}\right)}$$

As  $y \rightarrow \infty$   $x \sim \pm y$

Another pair

Total of 4 curves

4.) (i)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x + 1} = \frac{1 - 1}{2} = \boxed{0}$

(ii)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^3 - 8}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{(x - 2)(ax^2 + bx + c)}{(x - 2)}$

To figure out a, b, c: Expand numerator to get:  $x^3 - 8 = ax^3 + (b - 2a)x^2 - 2c$   
 $\Rightarrow a = 1$   
 $b - 2a = 0 \Rightarrow b = 2$   
 $c = 4$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 2x + 4) = 4 + 4 + 4 = \boxed{12}$

(iii)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow y} \frac{x^n - y^n}{x - y}$  (n some integer)

Although it's ok to just apply the l'Hôpital's rule here, it's a much better testament to your calculus knowledge if you recognize that this is just the definition of derivative of  $f(x) = x^n$  evaluated at  $x = y$

i.e.,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow y} \frac{x^n - y^n}{x - y} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(y+h)^n - y^n}{h} = \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=y}$  where  $f(x) = x^n$   
by definition of derivative  
 $= \boxed{ny^{n-1}}$

(iv)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{a+h} - \sqrt{a}}{h} = \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=a}$  where  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$   
 $= \left. \frac{1}{2x^{1/2}} \right|_{x=a} = \boxed{\frac{1}{2\sqrt{a}}}$   
 $\uparrow$  defn of derivative

5.) We'll use  $\alpha = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 2x}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{\sin 2x}{2x} \right) \cdot 2 \\ &= \lim_{(2x) \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(2x)}{(2x)} \cdot 2 = \boxed{2\alpha} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(ii)} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(ax)}{\sin(bx)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{bx}{\sin(bx)} \cdot \frac{\sin(ax)}{ax} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{ax}{bx} \right) \\ &= \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{bx}{\sin(bx)} \right] \cdot \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(ax)}{ax} \right] \cdot \frac{a}{b} \\ &= \underbrace{\left[ \lim_{bx \rightarrow 0} \frac{(bx)}{\sin(bx)} \right]}_{\text{" } \frac{1}{\alpha} \text{ "}} \cdot \underbrace{\left[ \lim_{ax \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(ax)}{ax} \right]}_{\text{" } \alpha \text{ "}} \cdot \frac{a}{b} \\ &= \boxed{a/b} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(iii)} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 2x}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{\sin 2x}{2x} \cdot \frac{\sin 2x}{2x} \right] \cdot \underbrace{4x}_{\text{" } 4x \text{ "}} \\ &= \underbrace{\left[ \lim_{2x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 2x}{2x} \right]^2}_{\text{" } \alpha^2 \text{ "}} \cdot \underbrace{\left( \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 4x \right)}_{\text{" } 0 \text{ "}} \\ &= \boxed{0} \end{aligned}$$



(iv)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^2 2x}{x^2}$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{\sin 2x}{2x} \cdot \frac{\sin 2x}{2x} \right] \cdot 4 = \underbrace{\left[ \lim_{2x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(2x)}{(2x)} \right]^2}_{\alpha^2} \cdot 4 = \boxed{4\alpha^2}$

(v)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2}$  ; use  $\cos x = \cos\left(\frac{x}{2} + \frac{x}{2}\right) = \cos^2\left(\frac{x}{2}\right) - \sin^2\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{[1 - \cos^2(\frac{x}{2})] + \sin^2(\frac{x}{2})}{x^2}$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \sin^2(\frac{x}{2})}{x^2}$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{\sin(\frac{x}{2})}{(x/2)} \right]^2 \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4}$

$= \underbrace{\left[ \lim_{(\frac{x}{2}) \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x/2)}{(x/2)} \right]^2}_{\alpha^2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \boxed{\frac{\alpha^2}{2}}$

(vi)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan^2 x + 2x}{x + x^2}$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cancel{x} \left[ \frac{\sin^2 x}{x \cos^2 x} + 2 \right]}{\cancel{x} [1 + x]}$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left\{ \frac{\left( \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2} \right) \left( \frac{x}{\cos^2 x} \right) + 2}{1 + x} \right\} = \underbrace{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2}{1+x}}_2 + \underbrace{\left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \right]^2}_{\alpha^2} \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \underbrace{\frac{x}{(1+x)}}_{\frac{0}{1}} \underbrace{\frac{1}{\cos^2 x}}_1 \right]$

$= 2 + 0 \cdot \alpha^2$

$= \boxed{2}$

(vii)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x \sin x}{1 - \cos x}$

From previous pg :

$1 - \cos x = 2 \sin^2(x/2)$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x \sin x}{2 \sin^2(x/2)}$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x/2)}{(\sin(x/2))} \cdot (\sin x)$

$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[ \frac{(x/2)}{\sin(x/2)} \right]^2 \cdot \frac{1}{(x/2)} \cdot \frac{(\sin x)}{x} \cdot x$

$= \underbrace{\left[ \lim_{\frac{x}{2} \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x/2)}{\sin(x/2)} \right]^2}_{\frac{1}{\alpha^2}} \cdot \underbrace{\left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \right]}_{\alpha} \cdot 2 = \boxed{\frac{2}{\alpha}}$

(viii)  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x+h) - \sin x}{h} = \frac{d(\sin x)}{dx} = \cos x$

↑  
Just the def<sup>n</sup>  
of derivative.

But we want to

~~substitute~~ evaluate this limit differently; using "α" = ~~sin~~

To do so:  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x+h) - \sin x}{h}$

$\sin(x+h) = \sin(x) \cos h + \cos x \sin h$

$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\sin x) [\cos h - 1]}{h}$

$+ \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x \sin h}{h}$

$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\sin x) [2 \sin^2(h/2)]}{h} + \cos x \cdot \alpha$

← used  $1 - \cos h = 2 \sin^2(h/2)$

$= (\sin x) \underbrace{\left( \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{2} \right)}_{\rightarrow 0} \cdot \underbrace{\left( \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(h/2)}{(h/2)} \right)^2}_{\alpha^2} + \alpha \cos x$

(from previous problem.)

$$\begin{aligned} \delta: &= 0 \cdot (\sin x) \cdot \alpha^2 + \alpha \cos x \\ &= \alpha \cos x \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x+h) - \sin x}{h} = \boxed{\alpha \cos x}$$

Ans. in terms of  $\alpha$ .

(ix)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 - 1)^3 \sin\left(\frac{1}{(x-1)^3}\right)$

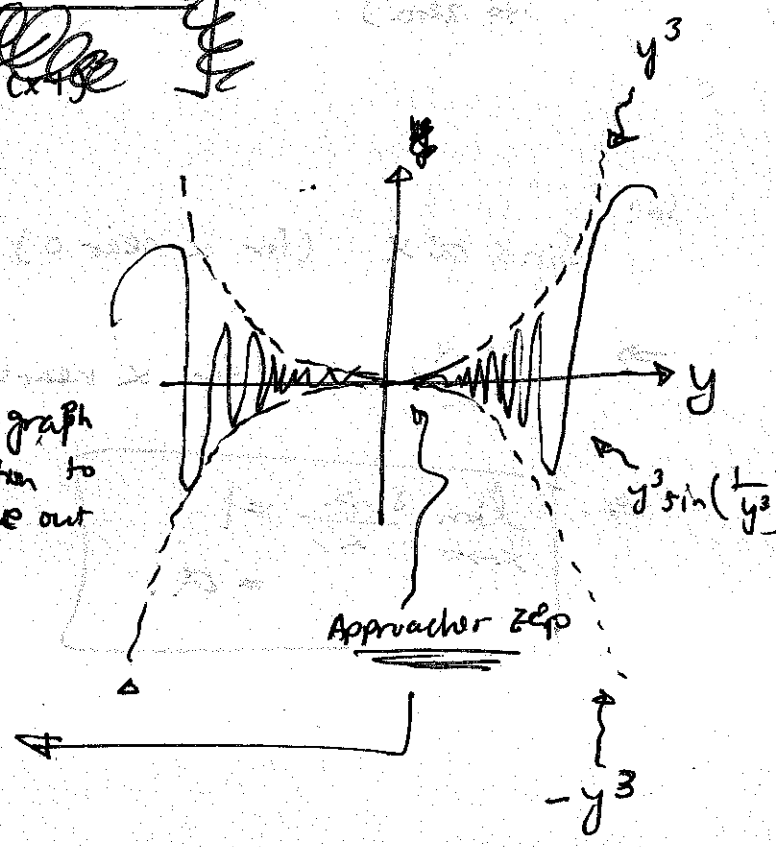
$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x-1)^3 (x+1)^3 \sin\left(\frac{1}{(x-1)^3}\right) = \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x+1)^3 \right] \cdot \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x-1)^3 \sin\left(\frac{1}{(x-1)^3}\right) \right]$$

~~lim (x-1)^3 sin(1/(x-1)^3)~~  
~~lim (x+1)^3~~

$$= 8 \cdot \lim_{(x-1) \rightarrow 0} (x-1)^3 \sin\left(\frac{1}{(x-1)^3}\right)$$

$$= 8 \lim_{y \rightarrow 0} y^3 \sin\left(\frac{1}{y^3}\right)$$

↑ look at the graph of this function to figure out



$$= 8 \cdot 0$$

$$= \boxed{0}$$

Ans.

Taylor series of  $\sin x$  can tell us why  $\alpha = 1$ :

$$\sin x = f(x)$$

so:

$$f(x) = f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f^{(3)}(0)}{3!}x^3 + \dots$$

$$= \underset{0}{\cancel{\sin(0)}} + \underbrace{\cos(0)}_1 x + \underset{0}{\cancel{(-\sin(0))}} \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{\cos(0)x^3}{3!} + \dots$$

$$= x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \text{higher order terms of form } \#x^n \quad \underline{n > 3}$$

$$\approx x$$

(when  $x$  close to zero.)

↑ All these terms are much much smaller than  $x$  when  $x \rightarrow 0$

To see this:

note that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^n}{x} = x^{n-1} = 0$  (if  $n > 1$ .)

so:

$$\sin x \approx x \quad (\text{for } x \text{ near } 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\sin x}{x} \approx 1 \quad (\text{for } x \text{ near } 0)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 = \alpha}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\alpha = 1}$$

6.)

(i)  $f(x) = x^4$  ;  $l = a^4$ .

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , need to find  $\delta > 0$  such that :

$|f(x) - l| < \epsilon$  as long as  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ .

• First, start with  $|f(x) - l| = |x^4 - a^4|$

we have  $\epsilon > |x^4 - a^4|$   
 $= |x^2 - a^2| \cdot |x^2 + a^2|$   
 $\geq a^2 |x^2 - a^2|$   
 $= a^2 |x - a| \cdot |x + a|$   
 $\geq a^2 |x - a|^2$

since  $|x^2 + a^2| \geq a^2$

now, as long as we pick  $\delta$   
so that  $a - \delta > 0$  (if  $a > 0$ )  
or  $a + \delta < 0$  (if  $a < 0$ )

we have  $|x + a| \geq |x - a|$

so:  $\epsilon > a^2 |x - a|^2$

$\Rightarrow \frac{\epsilon}{a^2} > |x - a|^2$

$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{\epsilon}{a^2}\right)^{1/2} > |x - a| > 0$ .

note that if

$a = 0$ , this

is also true since  $|x + a| \geq |x - a|$   
still true

(i.e.,  $|x + 0| = |x - 0|$ )

so, pick  $\delta$  such that it's equal to or lgr than  $\left(\frac{\epsilon}{a^2}\right)^{1/2}$

and also need  $a - \delta > 0$  (if  $a > 0$ ) (see above)

or  $a + \delta < 0$  (if  $a < 0$ )

We can do this by noticing that if  $0 < \delta < \frac{|a|}{2}$ , then certainly

(when  $a \neq 0$ )

$a - \delta > 0$  (if  $a > 0$ )

$a + \delta < 0$  (if  $a < 0$ )

so: pick  $\delta = \min\left(\frac{|a|}{2}, \left(\frac{\epsilon}{a^2}\right)^{1/2}\right)$

means pick the smaller of these 2 numbers.

(ii)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ ;  $a=1, l=1$ .

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon &> \left| \frac{1}{x} - 1 \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{1-x}{x} \right| \\ &= \frac{|x-1|}{|x|} \\ &> \frac{|x-1|}{100} \end{aligned}$$

Notice that we can pick  $\delta$  to be as small as we want, as long as  $\epsilon > \left| \frac{1}{x} - 1 \right|$  is satisfied.  
 (We'll want  $0 < |x-1| < \delta$ .)  
 We'll pick  $\delta$  to be small enough so that  $|x| < 100$ .

$\Rightarrow \underline{100\epsilon > |x-1| > 0}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{|x|} > \frac{1}{100}$

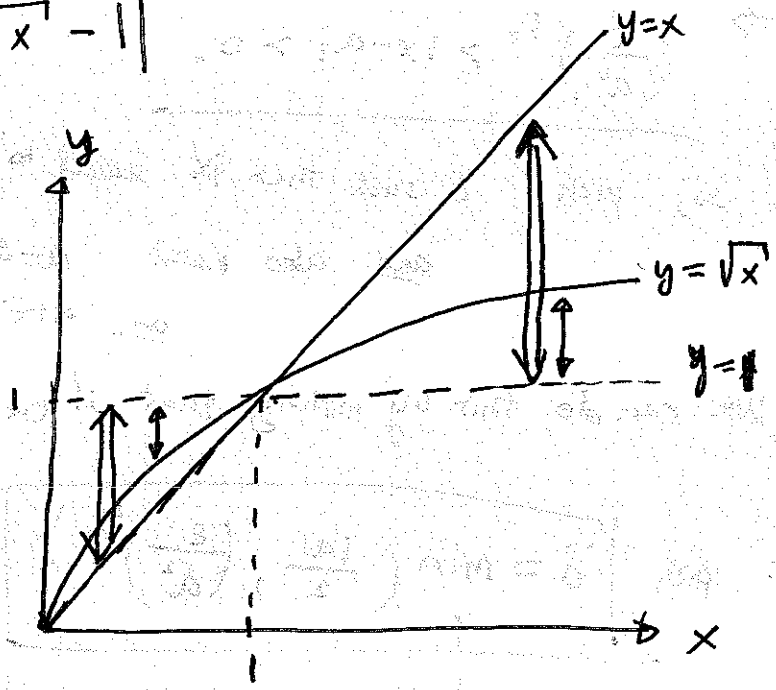
so, pick  $\delta = \min(100\epsilon, 99)$

(iii)  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ;  $a=1, l=1$ .

Given  $\epsilon > 0$ :  $\epsilon > |\sqrt{x} - 1|$

Consider the graph:

Notice that the distance between  $y=x$  and  $y=1$  line is always larger than the distance between  $\sqrt{x}=y$  curve and  $y=1$  line.



i.e.,  $|\sqrt{x} - 1| \leq |x - 1|$

↑  
equal only when  $x=1$ .

so:  $|\sqrt{x}-1| < |x-1| < \delta$

i.e. For all  $x$  such that  $0 < |x-1| < \delta$ , we have

$|\sqrt{x}-1| < |x-1| < \delta$

(we also have to make  $\delta < 1$

for otherwise, we might get  $x < 0$ , but we can't allow this since  $\sqrt{x}$  is undefined for  $x < 0$ )

(if we pick  $\delta = \epsilon$ , then

$|\sqrt{x}-1| < |x-1| < \epsilon$

so,

pick  $\delta = \min(\epsilon, 1)$

7.) Details of why l'Hôpital's rule is true is covered in Lecture note 4 (involves approximation of function by its tangent line)

8.) (i)  $f(x) = \sin(x+x^2)$

$\frac{df}{dx} = [\cos(x+x^2)] \cdot [1+2x]$

(ii)  $f(x) = \sin(\frac{\cos x}{x})$

$f'(x) = \cos[\frac{\cos x}{x}] \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(\frac{\cos x}{x})$   
 $= [\cos(\frac{\cos x}{x})] \cdot \left\{ \frac{-x \sin x - \cos x}{x^2} \right\}$

(iii)  $f(x) = \sin^3(\sin^2(\sin x))$

$f'(x) = [\cos(\frac{\cos x}{x})] \cdot \left[ \frac{-x \sin x - \cos x}{x^2} \right]$

~~...~~  
~~...~~  
 $f(u) = \sin^3(u)$ ;  $u = \sin^2(\sin x)$

so:  $\frac{df}{dx}(x) = \frac{df(u)}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} = 3 \sin^2(u) \cos(u) \cdot \frac{du}{dx}$

over

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{df}{dx} &= 3 \sin^2(u) \cos(u) \frac{du}{dx} \\ &= 3 \sin^2(u) \cos(u) \frac{du}{dv} \cdot \frac{dv}{dx} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} u &= \sin^2(\sin x) \\ &= \sin^2(v) \end{aligned}$$

(Pg 16)

$$\frac{dv}{dx} = \cos x$$

$$= \boxed{[3 \sin^2(u) \cos(u)] [2 \sin(v) \cos(v)] \cos x}$$

(iv)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}$

$$\boxed{\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{-1}{(1+x)^2}}$$

9.) (i)  $f(x) = g(x+g(a))$

$a = \text{constant}$

$$\begin{aligned} f' &= \frac{df}{dx} \\ &= \frac{d}{dx} [g(x+g(a))] \\ &= \frac{dg(u)}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \quad ; \quad u = x+g(a) \\ &= \boxed{g'(x+g(a))} \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{du}{dx} = \frac{dx}{dx} = 1$$

$$g' = \frac{dg(u)}{du} \leftarrow \text{same as } \frac{dg(x)}{dx}$$

★ Important that you know why this is true.

(ii)  $f(x) = g(x \cdot g(a))$

$$\begin{aligned} f' &= \frac{df}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} [g(x \cdot g(a))] \\ &= \frac{dg}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \\ &= \boxed{g(a) g'(x \cdot g(a))} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{du}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} (g(a) \cdot x) \\ &= g(a) \end{aligned}$$



(iii)  $f(x) = g(x + g(x))$

$$f'(x) = \frac{df}{dx} = \frac{dg}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dx} \quad u = x + g(x)$$

$$\frac{du}{dx} = 1 + g'(x)$$

$$= [1 + g'(x)] \cdot g'(x + g(x))$$

(iv)  $f(x) = g(x)(x-a)$

$$f'(x) = \frac{df}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} [g(x)(x-a)]$$

$$= g'(x)(x-a) + g(x) \frac{d(x-a)}{dx} \quad \leftarrow \text{chain rule}$$

$$= [g(x) + g'(x)(x-a)]$$

10.) (i)  $f(x) = x^3 - x^2 - 8x + 1$ . on  $[-2, 2]$  x-interval.

$$f(-2) = -8 - 4 + 16 + 1$$

$$= 5$$

$$f(2) = 8 - 4 - 16 + 1$$

$$= -11$$

$$f'(x) = 3x^2 - 2x - 8$$

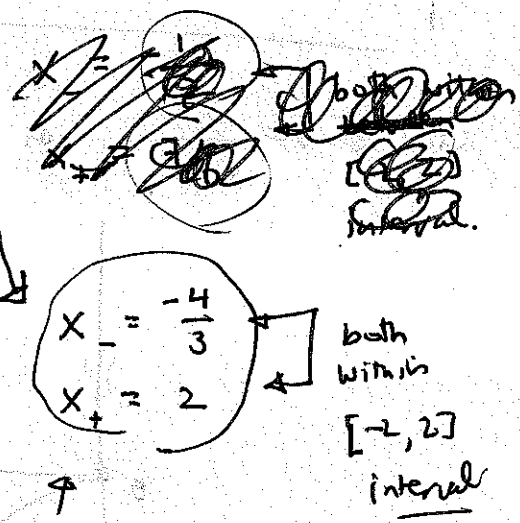
$$0 = f'(x) \Rightarrow 0 = 3x^2 - 2x - 8$$

solve for root using quadratic root finding eqn.

$$x_{\text{root}} = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{4 - 4(3)(-8)}}{6}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm 2\sqrt{1+24}}{6}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm 10}{6}$$

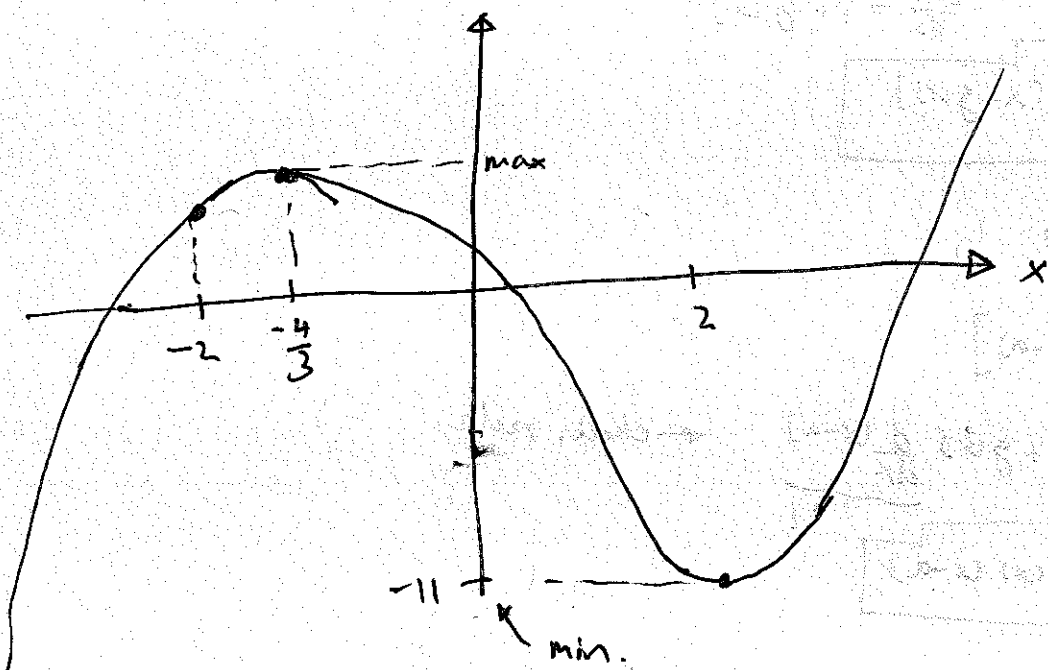


2 turning points.

both within  $[-2, 2]$  interval

We now have enough info. to graph the function and get our answer:

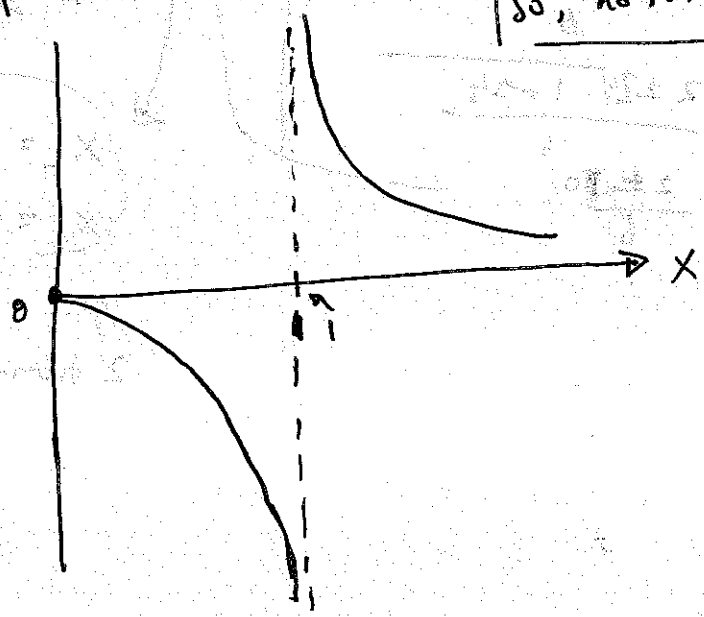
pg 18



- Max within  $[-2, 2]$  : occurs at  $x = -\frac{4}{3}$  ;  $f(-\frac{4}{3}) = (-\frac{4}{3})^3 - (-\frac{4}{3})^2 + 2(\frac{4}{3}) + 1$
- Min within  $[-2, 2]$  : occurs at  $x = 2$ .  $f(2) = -11$

(ii)  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2 - 1}$  on  $[0, 5]$

So, no max or min on  $[0, 5]$



11.) (i)  $\int \frac{\sqrt[5]{x^3} + \sqrt[6]{x}}{\sqrt{x}} dx$

=  $\int (x^{\frac{6-5}{10}} + x^{\frac{1-3}{6}}) dx$

=  $\int [x^{1/10} + x^{-1/3}] dx$

=  $\frac{10}{11} x^{11/10} + \frac{3}{2} x^{2/3} + C$   
 ↑  
 Constant.

(ii)  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x-1} + \sqrt{x+1}}$

=  $\int \frac{\sqrt{x-1} - \sqrt{x+1}}{(\sqrt{x-1} + \sqrt{x+1})(\sqrt{x-1} - \sqrt{x+1})} dx$

=  $\int \frac{\sqrt{x-1} - \sqrt{x+1}}{(x-1) - (x+1)} dx$

=  $\int dx \left[ \frac{-\sqrt{x-1}}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{x+1}}{2} \right]$

=  $\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{2}{3} [-(x-1)^{3/2}] + \frac{2}{3} (x+1)^{3/2} \right)$

=  $\frac{1}{3} [-(x-1)^{3/2} + (x+1)^{3/2}] + C$

(iii)  $\int \frac{e^x + e^{2x} + e^{3x}}{e^{4x}} dx$

=  $\int e^{-3x} + e^{-2x} + e^{-x} dx$

=  $\frac{e^{-3x}}{-3} - \frac{e^{-2x}}{2} - e^{-x} + C$

(iv)  $\int \frac{dx}{a^2+x^2} = \int \frac{(1/a)^2 dx}{1+(x/a)^2}$

=  $\frac{1}{a} \int \frac{d(x/a)}{1+(x/a)^2}$

=  $\frac{1}{a} \int \frac{du}{1+u^2}$       $u = x/a$

Now, note:

letting  $u = \tan y$ .

$\Rightarrow 1+u^2 = \sec^2 y = \frac{1}{\cos^2 y}$

and  $\frac{du}{dy} = \frac{d}{dy} \left( \frac{\sin y}{\cos y} \right) = \sec^2 y = \frac{1}{\cos^2 y}$

$\Rightarrow du = \frac{dy}{\cos^2 y}$

$\therefore \frac{1}{a} \int \frac{du}{1+u^2}$   
 =  $\frac{1}{a} \int \frac{\cos^2 y}{\cos^2 y} dy$

=  $\frac{1}{a} y + C = \frac{1}{a} \arctan(u) + C$

=  $\frac{1}{a} \arctan\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$

12.)

(i)  $\int e^x \sin(e^x) dx$       $e^x \equiv u$   
 $\frac{du}{dx} = e^x$   
 $\Rightarrow \frac{du}{u} = dx$

~~$= \int \frac{u \sin(u)}{u} du$~~   
 ~~$= -\cos(u) + C.$~~       $= -\cos(e^x) + C.$

(ii)  $\int x e^{-x^2} dx$      let  $u = x^2$   
 $\Rightarrow du = 2x dx$

$= \int \frac{du}{2} e^{-u}$   
 $= -\frac{1}{2} e^{-u} + C.$   
 $= \boxed{-\frac{e^{-x^2}}{2} + C.}$

(iii)  $\int \frac{\log x}{x} dx$      let  $u = \log x$   
 $\frac{du}{dx} = \frac{1}{x}$   
 $\Rightarrow du = \frac{dx}{x}$

$= \int du \cdot u$   
 $= \frac{u^2}{2} + C$   
 $= \boxed{\frac{(\log x)^2}{2} + C.}$

(iv)  $\int \frac{e^x dx}{e^{2x} + 2e^x + 1}$      let  $u = e^x$   
 $du = u dx$   
 $\Rightarrow \frac{du}{u} = dx$

$= \int \frac{du}{u^2 + 2u + 1}$   
 $= \int \frac{du}{(u+1)^2} = -\frac{1}{(u+1)} + C$   
 $= \boxed{-\frac{1}{e^x + 1} + C}$

(v)  $\int e^{e^x} e^x dx$      let  $e^x = u.$

$= \int e^u du$   
 $= e^u + C$   
 $= \boxed{e^{e^x} + C}$

(vi)  $\int \log(\cos x) \cdot \tan x dx$      let  $u = \cos x$   
 $\Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = -\sin x$   
 $\Rightarrow du = -\sin x dx$

$= \int \log(u) \frac{\sin x dx}{\cos x}$   
 $= \int -\frac{\log(u)}{u} du$   
 $= -\frac{(\log u)^2}{2} + C$      ← from (iii)

$\Rightarrow \boxed{-\frac{[\log(\cos x)]^2}{2} + C.}$

13.)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(i)} \quad & \int x^2 e^x dx \\
 & \begin{array}{c} \underbrace{\phantom{x^2}}_g \quad \underbrace{\phantom{e^x}}_{f'} \\ \uparrow \quad \uparrow \end{array} \\
 & = e^x x^2 - \int 2x e^x dx \\
 & = e^x x^2 - [2x e^x - \int 2e^x dx] \\
 & = \boxed{e^x x^2 - 2x e^x + 2e^x + C} \\
 & \qquad \qquad \qquad \uparrow \\
 & \qquad \qquad \qquad \text{constant}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(ii)} \quad & \int x^2 \sin x dx \\
 & \begin{array}{c} \underbrace{\phantom{x^2}}_g \quad \underbrace{\phantom{\sin x}}_{f'} \\ \uparrow \quad \uparrow \end{array} \\
 & = -x^2 \cos x + \int 2x \cos x dx \\
 & = -x^2 \cos x + [2x \sin x - \int 2 \sin x dx] \\
 & = \boxed{-x^2 \cos x + 2x \sin x + 2 \cos x + C}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(iii)} \quad & \int (\log x)^3 dx \\
 & = \int \underbrace{1}_{f'} \cdot \underbrace{(\log x)^3}_g dx \\
 & = x(\log x)^3 - 3 \int \frac{x(\log x)^2}{x} dx \\
 & = x(\log x)^3 - 3 \left[ x(\log x)^2 - 2 \int \frac{x \log x}{x} dx \right] \\
 & = x(\log x)^3 - 3 \left[ x(\log x)^2 - 2 \left\{ x \log x - \int dx \right\} \right] \\
 & = \boxed{x(\log x)^3 - 3x(\log x)^2 + 6x \log x - 6x + C}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{(iv)} \quad & \int \cos(\log x) dx \\
 & = \int \underbrace{\cos(u)}_g \cdot \underbrace{e^u}_{f'} du \\
 & = e^u \cos u + \int e^u \sin u du \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{let } u = \log x \\ \Rightarrow \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{1}{x} \\ \Rightarrow x du = dx \\ e^u = x \\ \text{so: } e^u du = dx \end{array} \right\} \text{but} \\
 & = e^u \cos u + e^u \sin u \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \bullet \int e^u \cos u du
 \end{aligned}$$

so we have:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \cos u e^u du &= e^u [\cos u + \sin u] - \int e^u \cos u du \\
 \Rightarrow 2 \int \cos u e^u du &= e^u [\cos u + \sin u] \\
 \Rightarrow \int \cos(\log x) dx &= \frac{e^u}{2} [\cos u + \sin u] \\
 &= \boxed{\frac{x}{2} [\cos(\log x) + \sin(\log x)] + C}
 \end{aligned}$$

(v)  $\int \sqrt{x} \log x dx$

$\begin{matrix} \text{"f"} & \text{"g"} \\ \hline \int \sqrt{x} \log x dx \end{matrix}$

$$= \frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} \log x - \int \frac{2}{3} \frac{x^{3/2}}{x} dx$$

$\text{"x"}^{1/2}$

$$= \frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} \log x - \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{2}{3} x^{3/2}$$

$$= \boxed{\frac{2}{3} x^{3/2} \left[ \log x - \frac{2}{3} \right]} + C$$

(vi)  $\int x (\log x)^2 dx$

$\begin{matrix} \text{"f"} & \text{"g"} \\ \hline \int x (\log x)^2 dx \end{matrix}$

$$= \frac{x^2}{2} (\log x)^2 - \int \frac{x^2}{2} \frac{\log x}{x} dx$$

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

$$= \boxed{\frac{x^2}{2} \log x \left[ \log x - 1 \right] + \frac{x^2}{4}} + C$$

14.) (i)  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$  let  $x = \sin u$   
 $dx = \cos u du$

$$= \int \frac{\cos u du}{\cos u}$$

$$= u + C = \boxed{\arcsin(x) + C}$$

(ii)  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$  let  $x = \tan u$   
 $dx = \sec^2 u du$

$$= \int \frac{\sec^2 u du}{\sec u}$$

$$= \int \sec u du$$

$$= \log(\sec u + \tan u)$$

← given on the problem set handout

$$= \boxed{\log \left[ \sec(\tan^{-1} x) + x \right]} + C$$

(iii)  $\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{x^2-1}}$  let  $x = \sec u$

$$\frac{dx}{du} = \frac{d}{du} \left[ \frac{1}{\cos u} \right]$$

$$= \frac{+1}{\cos^2 u} \sin u$$

$$\Rightarrow dx = \frac{\sin u}{\cos^2 u} du$$

$$x = \frac{1}{\cos u} \Rightarrow u = \text{Arccos}\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$$

$$= \int \frac{\sin u du}{\cos^2 u \cos u}$$

$$= \int \sec u du$$

$$= \log[\sec u + \tan u] + C$$

$$= \log \left[ \sec \left( \text{Arccos} \left( \frac{1}{x} \right) \right) + \tan \left( \text{Arccos} \left( \frac{1}{x} \right) \right) \right] + C$$

$$= \boxed{\log \left[ x + \tan \left( \text{Arccos} \left( \frac{1}{x} \right) \right) \right]} + C$$

iv)

$$\int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}$$

Let  $x = \sec u$

$$\frac{dx}{du} = \frac{+\sin u}{\cos^2 u}$$

9

$$= \int \frac{\sin u \, du}{\cos^2 u \sec u \tan u}$$

$$= \int \frac{\cancel{\sin u} \cos u}{\cancel{\cos^2 u} \left(\frac{1}{\cancel{\cos u}}\right) \cancel{\sin u}} \, du$$

$$= u + C.$$

$$= \boxed{\text{Arcsec}(x) + C}$$

v)

$$\int x^3 \sqrt{1-x^2} \, dx$$

let  $x = \sin u$

$$dx = \cos u \, du$$

$$= \int \sin^3 u \cos^2 u \, du$$

$$= \int \sin u [1 - \cos^2 u] \cos^2 u \, du$$

$$= \int \sin u [\cos^2 u - \cos^4 u] \, du$$

$$= \int \cos^2 u \sin u \, du - \int \cos^4 u \sin u \, du$$

$$= \frac{-\cos^3 u}{3} - \left( \frac{-\cos^5 u}{5} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\cos^5 u}{5} - \frac{\cos^3 u}{3} + C.$$

$$= \boxed{\frac{\cos^5(\sin^{-1}(x))}{5} - \frac{\cos^3(\sin^{-1}(x))}{3} + C}$$

vi)

let  $x = \sin u$

$$dx = \cos u \, du$$

$$\int \sqrt{1-x^2} \, dx$$

$$= \int \cos^2 u \, du$$

$$= \int \left[ \frac{1 + \cos 2u}{2} \right] \, du$$

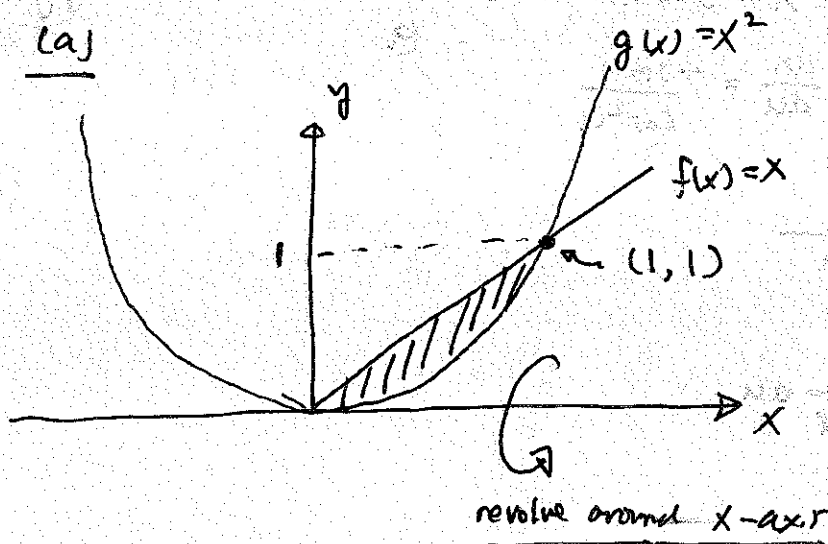
$$= \frac{u}{2} + \frac{\sin 2u}{4} + C$$

$$= \boxed{\frac{\text{Arcsin}(x)}{2} + \frac{\sin(2 \text{Arcsin}(x))}{4} + C.}$$

see lecture note #2.

15.) ca)

Pg 24



Shaded region: ~~rotated about~~  
 region bounded by f & g.

$$\pi [g(x) - f(x)]^2 dx = dV$$

$$\Rightarrow V = \sum dV$$

$$= \int_0^1 \pi [g(x) - f(x)]^2 dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 \pi [x^2 - x]^2 dx$$

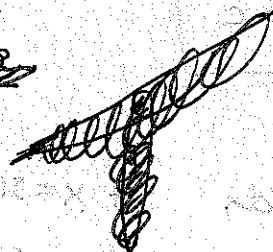
$$= \int_0^1 \pi [x^4 - 2x^3 + x^2] dx$$

$$= \pi \left[ \frac{x^5}{5} - \frac{x^4}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} \right] \Big|_0^1$$

$$= \pi \left[ \frac{1}{5} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} \right]$$

$$= \pi \left[ \frac{1}{30} \right]$$

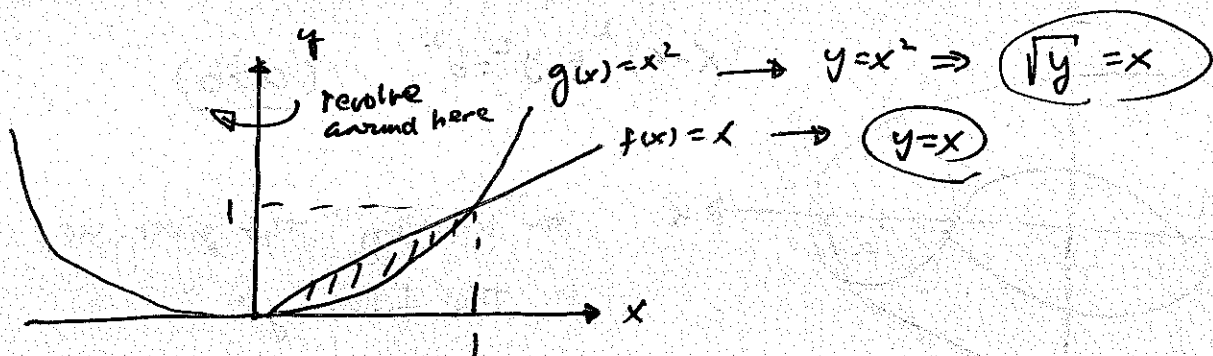
$$\rightarrow \boxed{\text{Vol.} = \frac{\pi}{30}}$$





(b) This time, revolve around  $y$ -axis:

(pg 25)



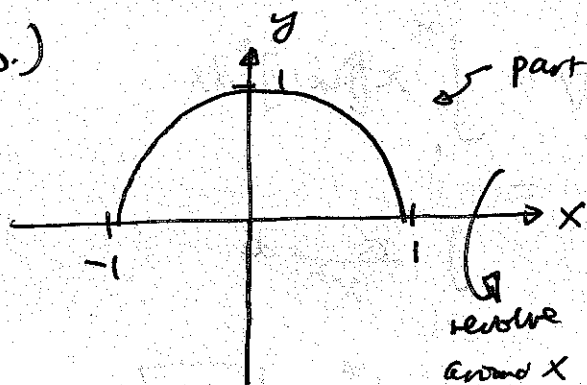
$$dv = \pi [\sqrt{y} - y]^2 dy$$

$$V = \int_0^1 dv = \int_0^1 \pi [\sqrt{y} - y]^2 dy = \int_0^1 \pi [y - 2\sqrt{y}y + y^2] dy$$

$$= \pi \left[ \frac{y^2}{2} - 2y^{5/2} \left( \frac{2}{5} \right) + \frac{y^3}{3} \right]_0^1$$

$$= \pi \left[ \frac{1}{2} - \frac{4}{5} + \frac{1}{3} \right] = \boxed{\frac{\pi}{30}}$$

16.)



part of  $x^2 + y^2 = 1$

$$\rightarrow y = \sqrt{1-x^2}$$

(+) root to describe the upper ( $x > 0$ ) part of unit circle

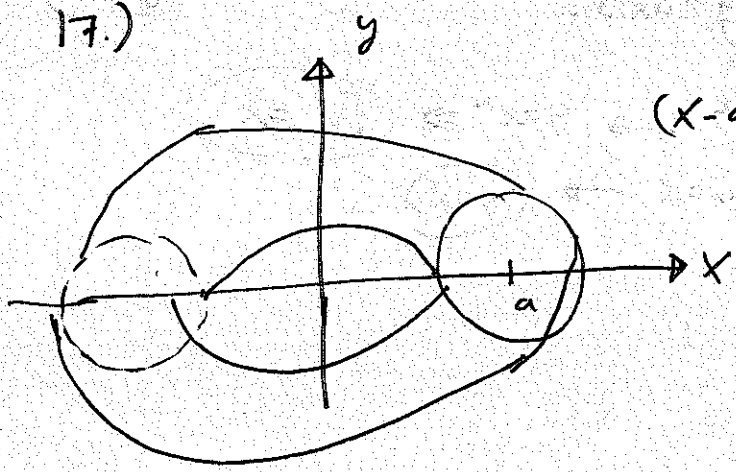
Vol. generated by revolve around  $x$ -axis is:  $V = \int dv$

where:  $dv = \pi y^2 dx$   
 $= \pi [1-x^2] dx$

$$V = \int_{-1}^1 dx \pi [1-x^2] = \pi \left[ \frac{x}{1} - \frac{x^3}{3} \right]_{-1}^1 = \pi \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{3} + 1 - \frac{1}{3} \right]$$

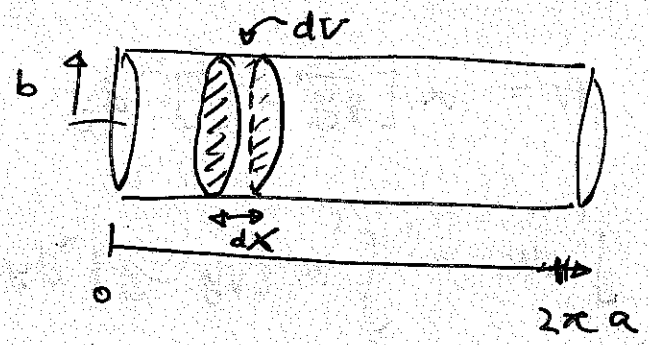
$$= \boxed{\frac{4}{3} \pi}$$

17.)



$$(x-a)^2 + y^2 = b^2 \quad (a > b)$$

← "Unrolling" This gives us the following:



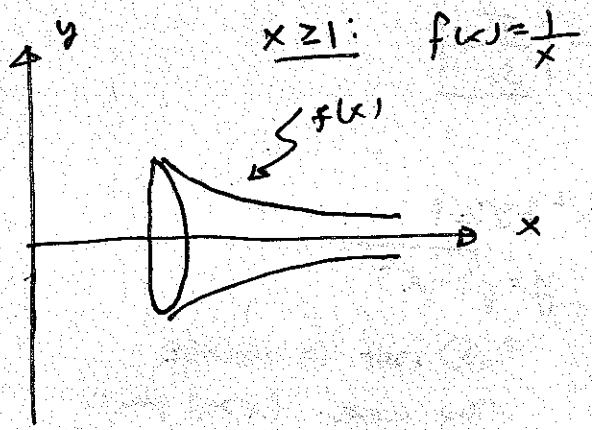
$$dV = \pi b^2 dx$$

So:

$$V = \sum dV = \int \pi b^2 dx = \pi b^2 2\pi a$$

$$\rightarrow \boxed{V = 2\pi^2 ab^2}$$

18.)



$x \geq 1: f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

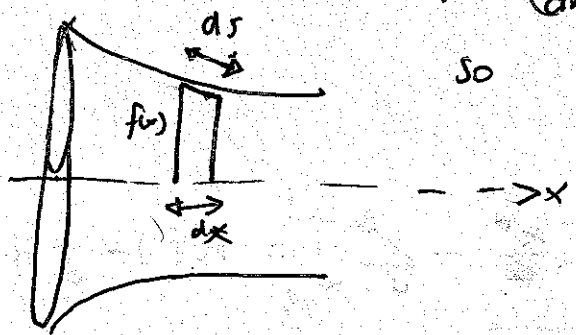
(a) Volume:

$$V = \int_1^{\infty} \pi [f(x)]^2 dx = \int_1^{\infty} \frac{\pi}{x^2} dx$$

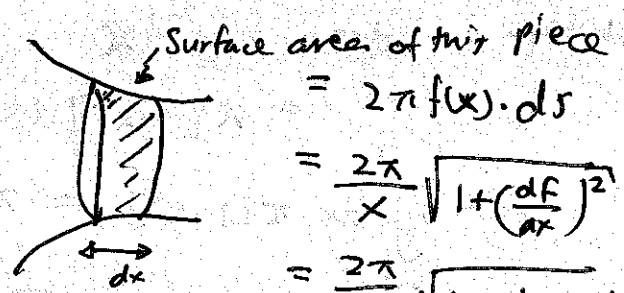
$$= -\frac{\pi}{x} \Big|_1^{\infty} = \boxed{\pi}$$

(b) Surface area:

$$ds = dx \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)^2}$$



So



Surface area of this piece

$$= 2\pi f(x) \cdot ds = \frac{2\pi}{x} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{df}{dx}\right)^2} dx = \frac{2\pi}{x} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} dx = dA$$

So, total s.A. is:

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= \sum dA \\
 &= \int_1^{\infty} \frac{2\pi}{x} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} dx
 \end{aligned}$$

Notice that as  $x \rightarrow \infty$  :

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\frac{2\pi}{x} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} \\
 &\approx \frac{2\pi}{x} \sqrt{1}
 \end{aligned}$$

so: for  $x_0$  very large,

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\int_{x_0}^{\infty} \frac{2\pi}{x} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} dx \\
 &\approx \int_{x_0}^{\infty} \frac{2\pi}{x} dx = \frac{2\pi}{1} \ln(x) \Big|_{x_0}^{\infty}
 \end{aligned}$$

From this, we can see why  $\int_1^{\infty} \frac{2\pi}{x} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} dx$

blows up since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln(x) = \infty$

blow up (i.e.  $\rightarrow +\infty$ )

Since

$$\int_1^{\infty} \frac{2\pi}{x} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} dx > \int_{x_0}^{\infty} \frac{2\pi}{x} \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{x^2}} dx \rightarrow \infty$$

( $x_0 > 1$ )

$\therefore$  Surface area is infinite

(c) Notice that the trumpet extends out to infinity (Pg 28)  
( $x \rightarrow \infty$ ).

~~So to coat both the surface &~~

so even though the trumpet has a finite volume ( $\pi$ ),  
to fill up all of the trumpet, paint has to be  
extended out to  $x \rightarrow +\infty$ . As the paint spreads

towards larger and larger position  $x$ , larger and larger  
portion of the  $\pi$ -volume of trumpet gets to be filled up.

But to get exactly all of  $\pi$ -volume, paint has to get out to  $\infty$ .

(which is to say that this is a limiting process.)

To coat the surface with the paint, the same is true.

For both the volume & the surface, as  $x$  gets larger  
and larger, less and less vol. & surface area is added to  
the trumpet. It's just that while the volume approaches  
a finite volume  $\pi$ , surface area does not.

But the bottom line is that in order to fill up the entire  
trumpet, paint has to travel out to  $x = +\infty$ .

This can never happen in reality.

19) We derived the formula in class notes.

• For  $f(x) = \frac{x^3}{5} + 47\pi$  for  $x \in [0, \pi/4]$ , we have:

$$\text{Length} = \int_0^{\pi/4} dx \sqrt{1 + \frac{df}{dx}}$$

$$= \int_0^{\pi/4} dx \sqrt{1 + x^2}$$

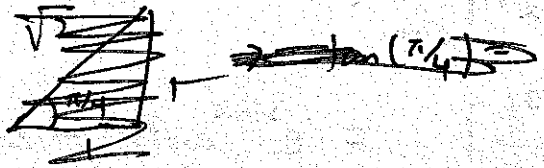
$$= \int_{u_a}^{u_b} \sec^3 u \, du$$

$$= \int_0^{\text{Arctan}(\pi/4)} \sec^3 u \, du$$

$$\text{let } x = \tan u \\ dx = \sec^2 u \, du$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = \tan u_a \Rightarrow u_a = 0$$

$$\frac{\pi}{4} = \tan u_b \Rightarrow u_b = \text{Arctan}\left(\frac{\pi}{4}\right)$$



⊗

⤴ you can leave your answer in this form

(Hard integral to do.)

2a) (i)  $f(x) = e^{e^x}$  : degree 3, at 0.

$$\text{so: } f(0) = e$$

$$\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=0} = e^{e^x} e^x \Big|_{x=0} = e$$

$$\left. \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} \right|_{x=0} = \left( e^x e^{e^x} + e^x [e^{e^x} e^x] \right) \Big|_{x=0} = e + e = 2e$$

$$\left. \frac{d^3f}{dx^3} \right|_{x=0} = e^x e^{e^x} + e^x [e^{e^x} e^x] + e^x [e^{e^x} e^x] + e^x \left[ \left. \frac{d^2f}{dx^2} \right|_{x=0} \right] \Big|_{x=0} \\ = e + e + e + 2e = 5e$$

$$f(x) = e^x = e + e \cdot (x) + \frac{2e x^2}{2} + \frac{5e x^3}{3!}$$

$$= \boxed{e + xe + x^2 e + \frac{5x^3}{6} e}$$

(ii)  $f(x) = e^{\sin x}$  ; deg. 3 at 0.

$$f(0) = 1$$

$$\left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x=0} = e^{\sin x} \cos x \Big|_{x=0} = 1$$

$$\left. \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \right|_{x=0} = e^{\sin x} \cos^2 x - e^{\sin x} \sin x \Big|_{x=0} = 1$$

$$\left. \frac{d^3 f}{dx^3} \right|_{x=0} = e^{\sin x} \cos^3 x - 2e^{\sin x} \cos x \sin x - e^{\sin x} \sin x \cos x \Big|_{x=0}$$

$$= 1 - 1 = 0$$

$$\therefore f(x) = e^{\sin x} = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{0 \cdot x^3}{3!}$$

$$= \boxed{1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2}}$$

(iii)  $\sin x = f(x)$

$$f(\pi/2) = 1$$

$$f'(\pi/2) = \cos(\pi/2) = 0$$

$$f''(\pi/2) = -\sin x \Big|_{\pi/2} = -1$$

$$f^{(3)}(\pi/2) = -\cos x \Big|_{\pi/2} = 0.$$

$$f^{(4)}(\pi/2) = \sin x \Big|_{\pi/2} = 1$$

and start all over again.

i.e.,  $f^{(1)} = f^{(5)}$

$f^{(2)} = f^{(6)}$

$f^{(3)} = f^{(7)}$

and so on...

So:

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(x) &= \sin(x) \\
 &= 1 - \frac{(x-\pi/2)^2}{2!} + \frac{(x-\pi/2)^4}{4!} - \frac{(x-\pi/2)^6}{6!} + \dots \\
 &= \boxed{1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(-1)^i (x-\pi/2)^{2i}}{(2i)!}}
 \end{aligned}$$

(iv)  $f(x) = \cos x$  ; degree  $2n$ , at  $\pi$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
 f^{(0)}(\pi) &= -1 & f^{(4)}(\pi) &= \cos(\pi) = f^{(0)}(\pi) = -1 \\
 f^{(1)}(\pi) &= -\sin(\pi) = 0 & f^{(5)}(\pi) &= f^{(1)}(\pi) \text{ and so on...} \\
 f^{(2)}(\pi) &= -\cos(\pi) = 1 & f^{(6)}(\pi) &= f^{(2)}(\pi) \\
 f^{(3)}(\pi) &= \sin(\pi) = 0 & f^{(7)}(\pi) &= f^{(3)}(\pi)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{So: } f(x) &= \cos x \\
 &= -1 + \frac{(x-\pi)^2}{2!} - \frac{(x-\pi)^4}{4!} + \frac{(x-\pi)^6}{6!} - \frac{(x-\pi)^8}{8!} + \dots \\
 &= \boxed{-1 + \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x-\pi)^{2i}}{(2i)!} (-1)^{i+1}}
 \end{aligned}$$

(v)  $f(x) = e^x$  ; degree  $n$ , at 2.

~~Sketch~~ ~~Sketch~~

$$\begin{aligned}
 f(2) &= e^2 \\
 f'(2) &= e^2 \\
 f''(2) &= e^2 \\
 &\text{and so on.} \\
 f^{(n)}(2) &= e^2 \\
 &\text{for all } n.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{So: } e^x &= e^2 \left[ 1 + (x-2) + \frac{(x-2)^2}{2!} + \dots \right] \\
 &= \boxed{e^2 \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{(x-2)^i}{i!}}
 \end{aligned}$$

(vi)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$  ; degree  $2n+1$ , at 0.

$$f(0) = 1$$

$$f'(0) = \left. \frac{-1}{(1+x^2)^2} \cdot 2x \right|_{x=0} = 0$$

$$f^{(2)}(0) = \left. \frac{-2(1+x^2)^{-2} + 4x(1+x^2)^{-2} \cdot 2x}{(1+x^2)^4} \right|_{x=0} = -2$$

$$f^{(3)}(0) = 0$$

$$f^{(4)}(0) = 4! \dots \text{and so on.}$$

so:

$$\frac{1}{1+x^2} = 1 - x^2 + x^4 - \dots + (-1)^n x^{2n}$$

21.) (i)  $\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots$

← Taylor series of  $\sin x$ .

↑ these higher order terms,  $x^3, x^5, x^7, \dots$  are much smaller than  $x$

when ~~0 < x < 1~~

$$\underline{|x| \ll 1.}$$

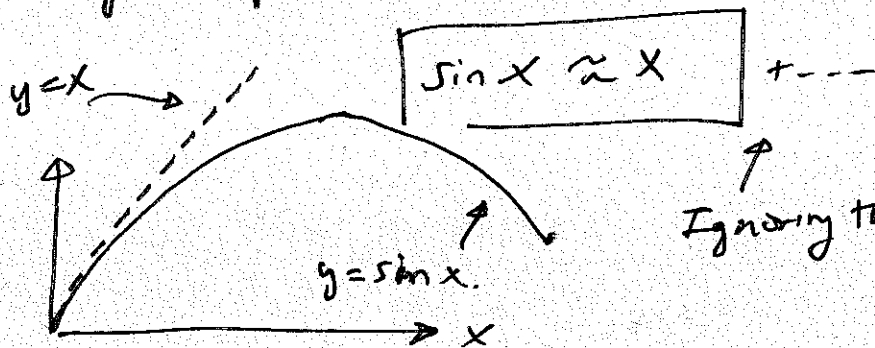
To see this, note

that if  $m > n$   $\frac{x^m}{x^n} = x^{m-n}$

so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^{m-n} = 0.$



So: good approx of  $\sin x$  is:



(ii)  $\cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots$  ← Taylor series of  $\cos x$ .

Again, for the same reason as above, (in (i))

$\cos x \approx 1 - \frac{x^2}{2}$   
When  $x$  close to 0

(iii)  $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \approx \frac{x}{(1 - \frac{x^2}{2})}$  ← from (i) and (ii)

but when  $x \approx 0$ :  $\frac{1}{1 - \frac{x^2}{2}} \approx 1 + \frac{x^2}{2}$   
↑ by Taylor series of this

So:  $\tan x \approx x \cdot [1 + \frac{x^2}{2}]$   
 $= x + \frac{x^3}{2}$   
 $\approx x$  ← much smaller than  $x$  when  $x$  close to 0.

So:  $\tan x \approx x$

