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**MATH 137 Fall 2019: Practice Final Exam**
**Multiple Choice**

**MC01.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \ln |x - 3| =$

- (a) 0.
- (b)  $\infty$ .
- (c)  $-\infty$ . *Vertical asymptote*
- (d) None of the above.

**MC02.** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and differentiable on  $(a, b)$ , then

- (a)  $\text{for any } x_1, x_2 \in (a, b) \text{ where } x_1 < x_2, \text{ exists } c \in (x_1, x_2) \text{ so that } f'(c) = \frac{f(x_1) - f(x_2)}{x_1 - x_2}.$   
*Statement of the MVT*
- (b)  $f(a) \leq f(x) \leq f(b)$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$ .
- (c)  $f'(x)$  is continuous on  $(a, b)$ .
- (d) None of the above.

**MC03.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x + \sin x - 1}{x} =$

- (a) -1.
- (b) 0.
- (c) 2.
- (d) None of the above. *And is equal to 1*

**MC04.** If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\{f(x_n)\}$  is a sequence such that  $x_n \rightarrow a$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , and  $x_n \neq a$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then

- (a)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n)$  does not exist.
- (b)  $f$  is continuous at  $x = a$ .
- (c)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x_n) = L.$  *Statement of SCL*
- (d) None of the above.

**MC05.** For a function  $f$  and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , if  $f''(a) = 0$  and  $f'(a) = 0$ , then

- (a)  $x = a$  is a point of inflection for  $f$ .
- (b)  $x = a$  is a critical point for  $f.$  *By definition*
- (c)  $f$  cannot have a local maximum at  $x = a$ .
- (d) None of the above.

**True/False****TF06.** For  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $|x - a| \leq 1$  defines a closed interval of length 1.False. *The interval has length 2***TF07.**  $f(x) = 3x^4 - 2x - 1$  has a root on  $[0, 1]$ .True. *Notice that  $f(1) = 0$* **TF08.** If  $f'(x) = \cos x$  then  $f(x) = \sin x$ .False. *Missing constant of integration***TF09.** Let  $a_n = f(n)$  where  $f$  is a continuous function defined on  $\mathbb{R}$ . If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$  then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$ .False. *Let  $f(n + \frac{1}{2}) = L + 1$  for all  $n$* **TF10.** If  $f$  is not differentiable at  $x = a \in \mathbb{R}$ , then for  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $g(x) = f(x) + k$  is not differentiable at  $x = a$ True. *The limit does not exist***Short Answer****SA01.** For  $f(x) = \ln(e + x)$ , find  $L_0^f(x)$ .*Solution.* We know  $f(0) = \ln e = 1$  and  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{e+x}$  so  $f'(0) = \frac{1}{e}$ . Therefore,

$$L_0^f(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{e}x \quad \square$$

**SA02.** If  $f$  is a differentiable function such that  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(x) \in [1, 5]$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , use the Bounded Derivative Theorem to write down an interval that  $f(3)$  must lie in.*Solution.* Apply BDT:  $f(3) \in [1 + 1(3), 1 + 5(3)] = [4, 16]$ .  $\square$ **SA03.** Give an example of a differentiable function  $f$  that is concave up everywhere, but  $f''(0)$  does not exist.*Solution.* Let  $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & x \geq 0 \\ x^4 & x < 0 \end{cases}$ .At  $x = 0$ , the function remains differentiable since both one-sided limits and derivatives are 0. However,  $f''(0)$  does not exist since the one-sided derivatives do not agree. For all points other than  $x = 0$ ,  $f''(x) > 0$ , so  $f$  is concave up for positive and negative  $x$ . In fact,  $f$  is concave up everywhere.  $\square$ **SA04.** Give an example of a function  $f$  that is differentiable on  $(0, 1)$ , both  $f(0)$  and  $f(1)$  are defined, but the Mean Value Theorem cannot be applied to  $f$ .*Solution.* We are given the hypotheses of MVT except continuity. Make  $f$  discontinuous:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & x \neq 0 \\ 1 & x = 0 \end{cases} \quad \square$$

**SA05.** If  $f(3) = 1$  and  $f'(3) = \pi$ , find  $(f^{-1})'(1)$ .*Solution.* We know that  $f^{-1}(1) = 3$ . Then, by the IFT,  $(f^{-1})'(1) = \frac{1}{f'(3)} = \frac{1}{\pi}$ .  $\square$

**Long Answer**

**LA01.** Find each of the following sequence limits, if they exist. If they do not exist, prove it.

(a)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin n\pi}{\sin n}$

*Solution.* Recall that  $\sin n\pi = 0$  for all  $n$ . Then,  $\frac{\sin n\pi}{\sin n} = 0$  so the limit is 0.  $\square$

(b)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin n}{n^2 + 1}$

*Solution.* We know that  $-1 \leq \sin n \leq 1$ , so we have

$$-\frac{1}{n^2 + 1} \leq \frac{\sin n}{n^2 + 1} \leq \frac{1}{n^2 + 1}$$

Now, both of these converge to 0, so by the Squeeze Theorem, the limit is 0.  $\square$

(c)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3 + n + 1}{3n^3 + n^2}$

*Solution.* Divide through by  $n^3$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3 + n + 1}{3n^3 + n^2} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + \frac{1}{n^2} + \frac{1}{n^3}}{3 + \frac{1}{n}} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + 0 + 0}{3 + 0} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

**LA02.** Prove that if  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  are sequences such that  $\{a_n\}$  is bounded and  $b_n \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (a_n b_n) = 0$ .

*Proof.* Since  $a_n$  is bounded, we have  $x = \sup a_n$  and  $y = \inf a_n$  such that  $x \leq a_n \leq y$  for all  $n$ . Multiplying through by  $b_n$ , we have  $x b_n \leq a_n b_n \leq y b_n$ . As  $b_n$  converges to 0, so too do  $x b_n$  and  $y b_n$  by the arithmetic rules.

Therefore, by the Squeeze Theorem, the limit is 0.  $\square$

**LA03.** For each of the following functions, compute  $f'(x)$  using any method. You do not need to simplify your answers.

(a)  $f(x) = x^2 e^x \ln x$

*Solution.* Repeatedly apply the product rule:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= 2x e^x \ln x + x^2 (e^x \ln x)' \\ &= 2x e^x \ln x + x^2 (e^x \ln x + \frac{e^x}{x}) \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

(b)  $f(x) = \tan(\cos x)$

*Solution.* Apply the chain rule:

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= \sec^2(\cos x) (\cos x)' \\ &= -\sec^2(\cos x) \sin x \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

**LA04.** (a) Find  $y'$  if  $\ln x + \ln y = xy$ .

*Solution.* Implicitly differentiate with respect to  $x$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{x} + \frac{y'}{y} &= xy' + y \\ y' \left( \frac{1}{y} - x \right) &= y - \frac{1}{x} \\ y' &= \frac{y - \frac{1}{x}}{\frac{1}{y} - x} \quad \square\end{aligned}$$

(b) Find  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  if  $y = (\sin x)^{\ln x}$  for  $0 < x \leq \pi$ .

*Solution.* Taking the logarithm of both sides,  $\ln y = \ln x \ln(\sin x)$ . Then, implicitly differentiating with respect to  $x$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{y'}{y} &= \frac{\ln(\sin x)}{x} + \frac{\ln x \cos x}{\sin x} \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= (\sin x)^{\ln x} \left( \frac{\ln(\sin x)}{x} + \ln x \cot x \right) \quad \square\end{aligned}$$

**LA05.** For  $f(x) = (x-1)|x+2| - 3$ , determine all global extrema on the interval  $[-3, 0]$ , if they exist.

*Solution.* For  $x < -2$ ,  $f(x) = -(x-1)(x+2) - 3 = -x^2 - x - 1$  and  $f'(x) = -2x - 1$ . Likewise, if  $x > -2$ ,  $f(x) = (x-1)(x+2) - 3 = x^2 + x - 5$  and  $f'(x) = 2x + 1$ .

The critical points are at  $x = -2$  (undefined) and  $x = -\frac{1}{2}$  (zero). Testing the function values here and at the endpoints, we have  $f(-3) = -7$ ,  $f(-2) = -3$ ,  $f(-\frac{1}{2}) = -\frac{21}{4}$ , and  $f(0) = -5$ .

Therefore, the global extrema are at  $(-3, -7)$  and  $(-2, -3)$ .  $\square$

**LA06.** (a) State the Intermediate Value Theorem for a function  $f$ .

**Theorem.** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and  $f(a) < f(b)$ , then for any value  $k \in (f(a), f(b))$  there exists a  $c \in (a, b)$  where  $f(c) = k$ . Likewise, if  $f(b) < f(a)$ , then for any value  $k \in (f(b), f(a))$ , there exists a  $c \in (a, b)$  where  $f(c) = k$ .

(b) Find an interval of length at most 1 that contains a root of  $f(x) = x^3 + 3x + 1$ .

*Solution.* We know that  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f(-1) = -3$ , so by the IVT, a root exists on  $(0, 1)$ .  $\square$

(c) Using  $x_1 = 0$ , perform two iterations of Newton's Method to find  $x_2$  and  $x_3$  to approximate the root of  $f(x) = x^3 + 3x + 1$ .

*Solution.* We have  $f'(x) = 3x^2 + 3$ . Then,  $x_1 = 0$  and  $x_2 = x_1 - \frac{f(x_1)}{f'(x_1)} = -\frac{f(0)}{f'(0)} = -\frac{1}{3}$ .

Again,  $x_3 = x_2 - \frac{f(x_2)}{f'(x_2)} = -\frac{1}{3} - \frac{-1/27}{10/3} = -\frac{29}{90}$ .

Therefore,  $f(-\frac{29}{90}) \approx 0$ .  $\square$

**LA07.** Let  $f(x) = \ln(x^2 + 1)$ .

(a) Determine the intervals of increase/decrease for  $f$ .

*Solution.* We have  $f'(x) = \frac{2x}{x^2+1}$ . Since  $x^2 + 1$  is always positive,  $f'(x)$  has the same sign as  $x$ . Therefore,  $f$  is increasing for positive  $x$  and decreasing for negative  $x$ .  $\square$

(b) Determine the intervals of concavity for  $f$ .

*Solution.* Taking the derivative from above,  $f''(x) = -\frac{2(x-1)(x+1)}{(x^2+1)^2}$ . The denominator is always positive so this is well-defined. It is zero at  $x = \pm 1$ , and from a sign analysis, we determine that  $f''(x)$  is positive on  $(-1, 1)$  so  $f$  is concave up, and that  $f''(x)$  is negative on  $(-\infty, -1)$  and  $(1, \infty)$  so  $f$  is concave down.  $\square$

**LA08.** Prove that if  $f$  is a differentiable function with no critical points, then it can have at most one real root.

*Proof.* Let  $f$  be a differentiable function with no critical points. Suppose for a contradiction that  $f$  contains more than one real root, namely,  $a$  and  $b$ . Then, by Rolle's Theorem, since  $f(a) = 0$  and  $f(b) = 0$ , there exists a point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f'(c) = 0$ , i.e.,  $c$  is a critical point of  $f$ . However,  $f$  has no critical points.

Therefore,  $f$  has at most one real root.  $\square$

**LA09.** In each case, compute the limit using any method.

(a)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} (\ln x)^{x-1}$

*Solution.* This is indeterminate of the form  $0^0$ . We can rewrite the quantity in the limit as  $e^{\ln((\ln x)^{x-1})} = e^{(x-1)\ln(\ln x)}$ . Since  $e^x$  is continuous, we can push through the limit and consider only the limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} (\ln x)^{x-1} = e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} (x-1)\ln(\ln x)}$$

We now have the form  $0 \cdot -\infty$ . We rewrite as  $-\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  and apply l'Hôpital's Rule:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} (x-1)\ln(\ln x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{\ln(\ln x)}{\frac{1}{x-1}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{\frac{1}{x \ln x}}{-\frac{1}{(x-1)^2}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x \ln x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x \ln x} \quad \left(\text{of the form } \frac{0}{0}\right) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{2(x-1)}{1 + \ln x} \\ &= \frac{0}{1} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Now,  $e^0 = 1$ , so the limit is equal to 1.  $\square$

(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (\sqrt{x})^{\frac{1}{3\sqrt{x}}}$

*Solution.* We have an indeterminate form  $0^\infty$ . Again, we rewrite as  $e^{\frac{1}{3\sqrt{x}} \ln(\sqrt{x})} = e^{\frac{\ln x}{6\sqrt{x}}}$  and then push through the limit to get one of the form  $-\frac{\infty}{0}$ . This clearly diverges to  $-\infty$ , so we have  $e^{-\infty} = 0$ .  $\square$

(c)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (1 + \sqrt{x})^{\frac{1}{3\sqrt{x}}}$

*Solution.* The limit is indeterminate and of the form  $1^\infty$ . Doing our good ole' trickery, we rewrite as  $e^{\frac{\ln(1+\sqrt{x})}{3\sqrt{x}}}$ , and after pushing through, we have a form  $\frac{0}{0}$  so we can apply l'Hôpital's Rule:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln(1 + \sqrt{x})}{3\sqrt{x}} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}(1+\sqrt{x})}}{\frac{3}{2\sqrt{x}}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{3(1 + \sqrt{x})} \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \end{aligned}$$

We can conclude the limit is  $\sqrt[3]{e}$ . □

**LA10.** Find values of  $a$  and  $b$  so that  $f$  is differentiable everywhere, where

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \sin ax & x \geq 0 \\ x^2 + 2x + b & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

*Solution.* For  $f$  to be differentiable, the one-sided derivatives must agree. These are  $a \cos ax$  and  $2x + 2$ . At  $x = 0$ , these are equal to  $a$  and  $2$ , so  $a = 2$ . Differentiability implies continuity, so we check the one-sided limits. Then,  $\sin 0 = (0)^2 + 2(0) + b$ , and we conclude  $b = 0$ .

Therefore,  $(a, b) = (2, 0)$ . □

**LA11.** (a) Prove that if  $f'(x) = g'(x)$  for all  $x$  in some open interval  $I$ , then there exists  $k \in \mathbb{R}$  so that  $f(x) = g(x) + k$  for all  $x \in I$ .

*Proof.* This follows directly from the Constant Function Theorem. □

(b) Use part (a) to prove that if  $f'(x) - g'(x) = 2x$  on  $I$ , then  $f(x) = g(x) + x^2 + k$  for all  $x \in I$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ .

*Proof.* Notice that  $f'(x) = g'(x) + 2x = (g(x) + x^2)'$ .

Then, from (a),  $f(x) = g(x) + x^2 + k$ . □

**LA12.** Consider the function  $f(x) = \ln(1 + x)$ .

(a) Find the second-degree Taylor polynomial for  $f$  centred at  $x = 0$ ,  $T_{2,0}(x)$ .

*Solution.* We have that  $f'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x}$  and  $f''(x) = -\frac{1}{(1+x)^2}$ . Then,  $f(0) = 0$ ,  $f'(0) = 1$ , and  $f''(0) = -1$ . Now, applying the formula,

$$\begin{aligned} T_{2,0}(x) &= \frac{f''(0)}{2}x^2 + f'(0)x + f(0) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2}x^2 + x \end{aligned} \quad \square$$

(b) Use  $T_{2,0}$  to approximate  $\ln 2$ .

*Solution.* From above, evaluate  $\ln 2 = \ln(1 + 1) \approx T_{2,0}(1) = \frac{1}{2}$ . □

- (c) Use Taylor's Theorem to write down what  $f(x) - T_{2,0}(x)$  is equal to (in terms of  $x$  and  $c$ ) for  $x > 0$ .

*Solution.* For some  $c \in (0, 1)$ , we have that  $f(x) - T_{2,0}(x) = R_{2,0} = \frac{f^{(3)}(c)}{3!}x^3$ . We can calculate  $f^{(3)}(x) = \frac{2}{(1+x)^3}$ , so we can expand this as

$$R_{2,0}(x) = \frac{x^3}{3(1+c)^3} \quad \square$$

- (d) Find an upper bound on the error in your approximation in part (b).

*Solution.* From above,  $R_{2,0}(1) = \frac{1}{3(1+c)^3}$ . This is always positive and maximized when  $c = 0$ , so  $R_{2,0}(1) \leq \frac{1}{3}$ . □

- (e) Is the estimate in part (b) an over or under estimate?

*Solution.* From above, the difference is positive, so it is an underestimate. □

- (f) Give an interval that  $\ln 2$  must lie in, be as specific as possible.

*Solution.* From part (d), it lies in  $[\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3}] = [\frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{6}]$ . □