

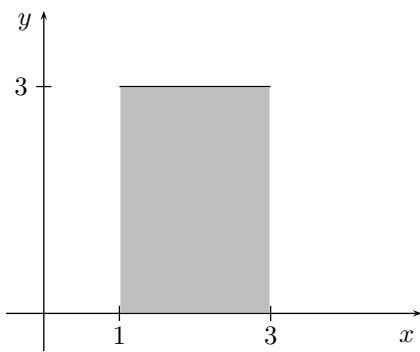
10.1 (a) For  $1 < p \leq 4$ ,  $A(p)$  denotes the area of the region bounded by the horizontal axis, the vertical lines  $x = 1$  and  $x = p$  and the graph of the function  $g: x \rightarrow 3$ . So the 'area function' is given by

$$A(p) = 3(p - 1).$$

(b) For  $1 < p \leq 5$ ,  $A(p)$  denotes the area of the region bounded by the horizontal axis, the vertical lines  $x = 1$  and  $x = p$  and the graph of the function  $h: x \rightarrow x$ . So the 'area function' is given by

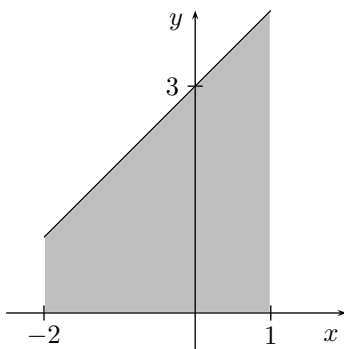
$$A(p) = (p - 1) \times 1 + \frac{1}{2}(p - 1) \times (p - 1) = \frac{1}{2}p^2 - \frac{1}{2}.$$

10.2 (a) The integral  $\int_1^3 3 dx$  represents the area of the region



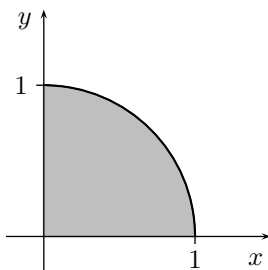
As the area of this region is 6, the given integral is equal to 6.

(b) The integral  $\int_{-2}^1 (t + 3) dt$  represents the area of the region



As the area of this region is  $7\frac{1}{2}$ , the given integral is equal to  $7\frac{1}{2}$ .

(c) The integral  $\int_0^1 \sqrt{1 - x^2} dx$  represents the area of the region

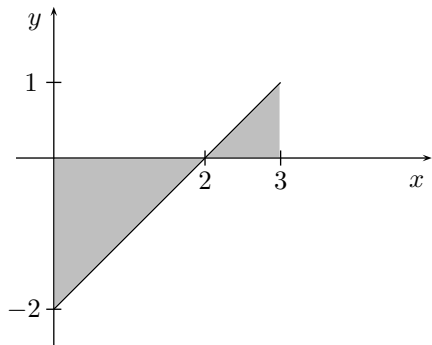


As the area of this region is  $\frac{1}{4}\pi$ , the given integral is equal to  $\frac{1}{4}\pi$ .

10.3 (a) The integral

$$\int_0^3 (x-2) dx = \left[\frac{1}{2}x^2 - 2x\right]_0^3 = 4\frac{1}{2} - 6 = -1\frac{1}{2}$$

represents the area  $\frac{1}{2}$  of the triangle above the horizontal axis minus the area 2 of the triangle below the horizontal axis.



(b) The integral

$$\int_2^3 (t-2) dt = \left[\frac{1}{2}t^2 - 2t\right]_2^3 = 4\frac{1}{2} - 6 - 2 + 4 = \frac{1}{2}$$

represents the area of the triangle above the horizontal axis (in the figure of part (a)).

10.6 We introduce the continuous function  $g$  on the interval  $[0, 1]$ , defined by

$$g(t) = t^2.$$

Then

$$G(x) = \int_0^x f(t^2) dt = \int_0^x f(g(t)) dt = \int_0^x (f \circ g)(t) dt$$

and the Fundamental Theorem, part I implies that, for  $0 < x < 1$ ,

$$G'(x) = (f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = f(x^2).$$

10.7 We introduce the differentiable functions  $g$  and  $h$  on the interval  $[0, 1]$ , defined by

$$g(x) = x^2$$

and

$$h(x) = \int_0^x f(t) dt.$$

Then  $G(x) = h(g(x))$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . In view of the Fundamental Theorem, part I and the Chain Rule, the function  $G$  is differentiable and for  $0 < x < 1$ ,

$$G'(x) = h'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x) = f(g(x)) \cdot 2x = f(x^2) \cdot 2x.$$

10.10 (a) Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Choose  $H = \ln\left(\frac{2}{\varepsilon}\right)^2$ . Then

$$t > H \implies e^t > e^H = \left(\frac{2}{\varepsilon}\right)^2 \implies \sqrt{e^t} > \frac{2}{\varepsilon} \implies \frac{1}{\sqrt{e^t}} < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \implies \frac{2}{\sqrt{e^t}} < \varepsilon \implies \left|\frac{2}{\sqrt{e^t}} - 0\right| < \varepsilon.$$

This proves that  $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{\sqrt{e^t}} = 0$ .

(b) Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Note that for all  $x \geq 0$ ,

$$0 < \frac{x}{e^x} < \frac{2}{\sqrt{e^x}}.$$

So for  $x > H$ ,  $0 < \frac{x}{e^x} < \frac{2}{\sqrt{e^x}} < \varepsilon$ , which implies that  $\left| \frac{x}{e^x} - 0 \right| < \varepsilon$ .

This proves that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{e^x} = 0$ .

10.12 (a) According to the Arithmetic Rules for limits

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 + e^x}{1 + 3e^x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 + 2e^{-x}}{3 + e^{-x}} = \frac{1}{3}.$$

Note that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [1 + 2e^{-x}] = 1$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [3 + e^{-x}] = 3$ .

(b) If  $f(x) = e^{2x} - e^x$  and  $g(x) = x$ , then the functions  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable,  $g'(x) = 1 \neq 0$  for all  $x$  and  $f(0) = g(0) = 0$ . Furthermore,  $f'(x) = 2e^{2x} - e^x$ . So, in view of de l'Hôpital's Rule (weak form),

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{2x} - e^x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(0)}{g'(0)} = 1.$$

11.8 (a) For  $b > 1$

$$\begin{aligned} \int_1^b x e^{-x} dx &= [-x e^{-x}]_1^b - \int_1^b -e^{-x} dx = -b e^{-b} + e^{-1} - [e^{-x}]_1^b \\ &= -b e^{-b} + e^{-1} - e^{-b} + e^{-1} = \frac{2}{e} - e^{-b} - b e^{-b}. \end{aligned}$$

Because  $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{2}{e} - e^{-b} - b e^{-b} \right) = \frac{2}{e}$ ,

$$\int_1^{\infty} x e^{-x} dx = \frac{2}{e}.$$

(b) For  $0 < b < 1$  and with  $\varphi(x) = 1 - x$

$$\int_0^b \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}} dx = \int_0^b -\frac{1}{\sqrt{\varphi(x)}} \cdot \varphi'(x) dx = [-2\sqrt{\varphi(x)}]_0^b = [-2\sqrt{1-x}]_0^b = -2\sqrt{1-b} + 2.$$

Because  $\lim_{b \rightarrow 1} (-2\sqrt{1-b} + 2) = 2$ ,

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x}} dx = 2.$$

11.10 As, for  $b > 0$ ,

$$\int_0^b \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = [\arctan x]_0^b = \arctan b$$

and  $\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} \arctan b = \frac{1}{2}\pi$ ,

$$\int_0^{\infty} \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \frac{1}{2}\pi.$$

Similarly,

$$\int_{-\infty}^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \int_a^0 \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} [\arctan x]_a^0 = -\lim_{a \rightarrow -\infty} \arctan a = \frac{1}{2}\pi.$$

Hence,

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

11.18 Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^3 x\sqrt{1+x} \, dx &= \int_0^3 ((1+x)\sqrt{1+x} - \sqrt{1+x}) \, dx = \int_0^3 ((1+x)^{1\frac{1}{2}} - (1+x)^{\frac{1}{2}}) \, dx \\ &= \left[ \frac{2}{5}(1+x)^{2\frac{1}{2}} - \frac{2}{3}(1+x)^{1\frac{1}{2}} \right]_0^3 = \frac{64}{5} - \frac{16}{3} - \frac{2}{5} + \frac{2}{3} = \frac{116}{15} = 7\frac{11}{15}.\end{aligned}$$