March 14 Math 1190 sec. 62 Spring 2017

Section 4.5: Indeterminate Forms & L'Hôpital's Rule

In this section, we are concerned with *indeterminate forms*. L'Hôpital's Rule applies directly to the forms

$$\frac{0}{0}$$
 and $\frac{\pm \infty}{\pm \infty}$.

Other indeterminate forms we'll encounter include

$$\infty - \infty$$
, $0 \cdot \infty$, 1^{∞} , 0^{0} , and ∞^{0} .

Indeterminate forms are not defined (as numbers)



Theorem: l'Hospital's Rule (part 1)

Suppose f and g are differentiable on an open interval I containing c (except possibly at c), and suppose $g'(x) \neq 0$ on I. If

$$\lim_{x\to c} f(x) = 0$$
 and $\lim_{x\to c} g(x) = 0$

then

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

provided the limit on the right exists (or is ∞ or $-\infty$).

Use when
$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{0}{0}$$

Theorem: l'Hospital's Rule (part 2)

Suppose f and g are differentiable on an open interval I containing c (except possibly at c), and suppose $g'(x) \neq 0$ on I. If

$$\lim_{x \to c} f(x) = \pm \infty$$
 and $\lim_{x \to c} g(x) = \pm \infty$

then

$$\lim_{x \to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \to c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

provided the limit on the right exists (or is ∞ or $-\infty$).

Use when
$$\lim_{x\to c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\pm 100}{\frac{\pm 100}{2}}$$

The form $\infty - \infty$

Evaluate the limit if possible

$$\lim_{x\to 1^+} \left(\frac{1}{\ln x} - \frac{1}{x-1}\right) = \infty - \infty$$

$$\frac{1}{g_{nx}} - \frac{1}{x-1} = \frac{x-1}{(g_{nx})(x-1)} - \frac{g_{nx}}{(g_{nx})(x-1)}$$

$$= \frac{x-1-\ln x}{(\ln x)(x-1)}$$

$$\lim_{x\to 1^+} \frac{1}{x-1} = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \to 1^{+}} \left(\frac{1}{9^{nx}} - \frac{1}{x-1} \right) = \lim_{x \to 1^{+}} \frac{x-1-9^{nx}}{(x-1)9^{nx}} = \frac{0}{0}$$

apply l'Hrule

$$= \int_{1}^{x \to 1+} \frac{\frac{dx}{dx}(x-1) \int_{0}^{x} x}{(x-1) \int_{0}^{x} x}$$

$$= \sqrt{1 - \sqrt{\frac{1 - \sqrt{x}}{1 - \sqrt{x}}}}$$

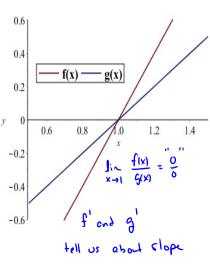
$$= \int_{1}^{x \to 1+} \left(\frac{\partial_{v} x + (x-1) \cdot \frac{x}{y}}{1 - \frac{x}{y}} \right) \cdot \frac{x}{x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 1+} \frac{x-1}{x \ln x + x - 1} = \frac{0}{0}$$

we can use I'H rule again

$$= \int_{1}^{1} \frac{dx}{dx} \left(x \partial y + x - 1 \right)$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 1} + \frac{1}{1 \cdot \ln x + x \cdot \frac{1}{x} + 1}$$



y = f(x) and y = g(x) close to x = 1 are plotted on the same set of axes. Note that

$$\lim_{x \to 1} f(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to 1} g(x) = 0$$

From the graph, only one of the following limit statements could be true. Which one?

(a)
$$\lim_{x\to 1}\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=0$$

(b)
$$\lim_{x\to 1}\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=2$$

(c)
$$\lim_{x\to 1}\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=-2$$



l'Hospital's Rule is not a "Fix-all"

Evaluate
$$\lim_{x\to 0^{+}} \frac{\cot x}{\csc x} = \frac{1}{\infty}$$

Apply 1'14 rule

 $\lim_{x\to 0^{+}} \frac{\cot x}{\cot x} = \lim_{x\to 0^{+}} \frac{\cot x}{\cot x} = \infty$
 $\lim_{x\to 0^{+}} \frac{\cot x}{\cot x} = \lim_{x\to 0^{+}} \frac{d}{dx} \frac{\cot x}{\cot x}$
 $\lim_{x\to 0^{+}} \frac{\cot x}{\cot x} = \lim_{x\to 0^{+}} \frac{d}{dx} \frac{\cot x}{\cot x}$
 $\lim_{x\to 0^{+}} \frac{\cot x}{\cot x} = \lim_{x\to 0^{+}$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0+} \frac{\frac{1}{6x} \operatorname{Gcx}}{\frac{1}{6x} \operatorname{Gc} x} = \lim_{x \to 0+} \frac{-\operatorname{Cscx} \operatorname{Co}^{1} x}{-\operatorname{Csc}^{2} x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \to 0+} \frac{\operatorname{Co}^{1} x}{\operatorname{Cscx}} \qquad \lim_{x \to 0} \lim_{x \to 0} \operatorname{here}.$$
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Let's use this IDs

$$\lim_{X \to 0^{+}} \frac{\text{Cot}_{X}}{\text{Csc}_{X}} = \lim_{X \to 0^{+}} \frac{\frac{\text{Cos}_{X}}{\text{Sin}_{X}}}{\frac{1}{\text{Sin}_{X}}} = \lim_{X \to 0^{+}} \frac{\text{Cos}_{X}}{\text{Sin}_{X}} \cdot \frac{\text{Sin}_{X}}{1}$$

$$\lim_{X \to 0^{+}} \frac{\text{Cos}_{X}}{\text{Csc}_{X}} = \lim_{X \to 0^{+}} \frac{\text{Cos}_{X}}{\text{Sin}_{X}} = \lim_{X \to 0^{+}} \frac{\text{Cos}_{X}}{\text{Sin}_{X}} \cdot \frac{\text{Sin}_{X}}{1}$$

$$= \int_{X \to 0^+} CosX = Cos0 = 1$$

Don't apply it if it doesn't apply!

$$\lim_{x\to 2}\frac{x+4}{x^2-3}=\frac{6}{1}=6$$

BUT

$$\lim_{x\to 2} \frac{\frac{d}{dx}(x+4)}{\frac{d}{dx}(x^2-3)} = \lim_{x\to 2} \frac{1}{2x} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Remarks:

- ▶ l'Hopital's rule only applies directly to the forms 0/0, or $(\pm \infty)/(\pm \infty)$.
- Multiple applications may be needed, or it may not result in a solution.
- ▶ It can be applied indirectly to the form $0 \cdot \infty$ or $\infty \infty$ by rewriting the expression as a quotient.
- Derivatives of numerator and denominator are taken separately—this is NOT a quotient rule application.
- ▶ Applying it where it doesn't belong likely produces nonsense!

True or False: If $\lim_{x\to c} f(x)g(x)$ produces the indeterminate form

$$0\cdot\infty$$

then we apply l'Hopital's rule by considering

$$\lim_{x\to c}f'(x)\cdot g'(x)$$
 The rule is for $\frac{0}{2}$ or $\frac{\pm \omega}{\pm \omega}$

Indeterminate Forms 1^{∞} , 0^{0} , and ∞^{0}

Since the logarithm and exponential functions are continuous, and $ln(x^r) = r \ln x$, we have

$$\lim_{x \to a} F(x) = \exp\left(\ln\left[\lim_{x \to a} F(x)\right]\right) = \exp\left(\lim_{x \to a} \ln F(x)\right)$$

provided this limit exists.

Use this property to show that

$$\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e$$

$$\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x)^{1/x} = e$$

$$\lim_{x\to 0} (1+x) = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \int_{M} \left(1+x\right)^{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1}{x} \int_{M} \left(1+x\right)$$



$$= \lim_{X \to 0} \frac{1}{X+1} = \frac{1}{0+1} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

to get our limit, we exponentiale.

True or False Since $1^n = 1$ for every integer n, we should conclude that the indeterminate form 1^{∞} is equal to 1.

The limit

 $\lim_{x\to\infty} x^{1/x}$ gives rise to the indeterminate form

- (a) $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$
- (b) ∞^0
 - (c) 0^0
 - (d) 1[∞]

$$\begin{cases} \lim_{X \to \infty} X = \infty \\ \lim_{X \to \infty} \frac{1}{X} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \lim_{X \to \infty} \chi^{\frac{1}{X}} = \lim_{X \to$$

we have a power indet. form.

will try toking the limit of

lh x *

Since
$$\ln \left(x^{1/x}\right) = \frac{1}{x} \ln x = \frac{\ln x}{x}$$
, evaluate $\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x}$

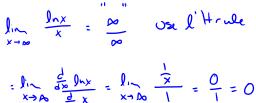
(use l'Hopital's rule as needed)

(a)
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} = 0$$

(b)
$$\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} = 1$$

(b)
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} = 1$$

(c)
$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} = \infty$$



$$\lim_{x\to\infty} x^{1/x} =$$

- (a) 0
- (b))1
 - (c) ∞

50

$$\int_{X\to\infty}^{\infty} \chi^{\frac{1}{x}} = e^{\circ} = 1$$



Section 4.2: Maximum and Minimum Values; Critical Numbers

Definition: Let f be a function with domain D and let c be a number in D. Then f(c) is

- ▶ the absolute minimum value of f on D if $f(c) \le f(x)$ for all x in D,
- ▶ the absolute maximum value of f on D if $f(c) \ge f(x)$ for all x in D.

Note that if an absolute minimum occurs at c, then f(c) is the **absolute minimum value** of f. Similarly, if an absolute maximum occurs at c, then f(c) is the **absolute maximum value** of f.

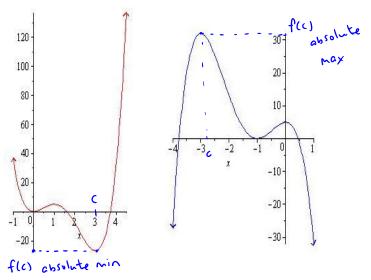


Figure: Graphically, an absolute minimum is the lowest point and an absolute maximum is the highest point.

Local Maximum and Minimum

Definition: Let f be a function with domain D and let c be a number in D. Then f(c) is

- ▶ a local minimum value of f if $f(c) \le f(x)$ for x near* c
- ▶ a local maximum value of f if $f(c) \ge f(x)$ for x near c.

More precisely, to say that x is near c means that there exists an open interval containing c such that for all x in this interval the respective inequality holds.

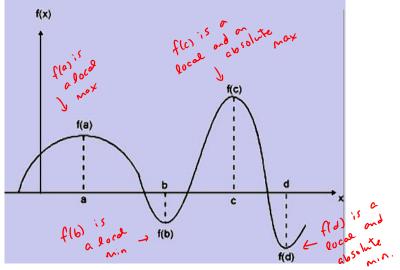


Figure: Graphically, local maxes and mins are relative high and low points.

Terminology

Maxima—-plural of maximum

Minima—-plural of minimum

Extremum—is either a maximum or a minimum

Extrema—plural of extremum

"Global" is another word for absolute.

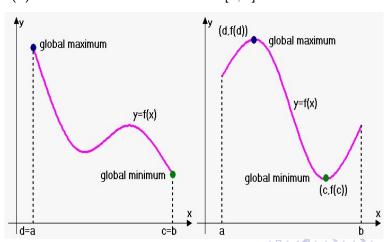
"Relative" is another word for local.

25 / 61

Extreme Value Theorem



Suppose f is continuous on a closed interval [a, b]. Then f attains an absolute maximum value f(d) and f attains an absolute minimum value f(c) for some numbers c and d in [a, b].



Fermat's Theorem

Note that the Extreme Value Theorem tells us that a continuous function is guaranteed to take an absolute maximum and absolute minimum on a closed interval. It does not provide a method for actually finding these values or where they occur. For that, the following theorem due to Fermat is helpful.

Theorem: If f has a local extremum at c and if f'(c) exists, then

$$f'(c) = 0.$$

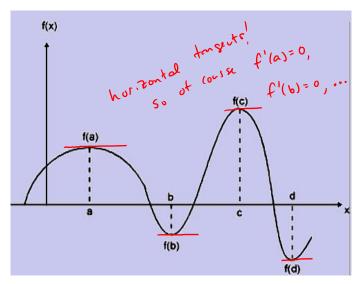


Figure: We note that at the local extrema, the tangent line would be horizontal.

28 / 61

Is the Converse of our Theorem True?

Suppose a function f satisfies f'(0) = 0. Can we conclude that f(0) is a local maximum or local minimum?

Turns out, the answer is no. Consider $f(x) = x^3$. $f'(x) = 3x^2$ and $f'(x) = 3.0^2 = 0$

Does an extremum have to correspond to a horizontal tangent?

Could f(c) be a local extremum but have f'(c) not exist?

Critical Number

Definition: A **critical number** of a function f is a number c in its domain such that either

$$f'(c) = 0$$
 or $f'(c)$ does not exist.

Theorem:If f has a local extremum at c, then c is a critical number of f.

Some authors call critical numbers critical points.

Example

factor

Find all of the critical numbers of the function.

$$g(t) = t^{1/5}(12-t)$$
The donoin is $(-\infty, \infty)$

we need to find where $g'(t) = 0$ or $g'(t)$ DINE

$$g'(t) = 12 t^{1/5} - t^{6/5}$$

$$g'(t) = \frac{12}{5} t - \frac{6}{5} t^{1/5}$$

$$g'(t) = \frac{6}{5} t (2-t) = \frac{6(2-t)}{5}$$

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g'(t)=0 if the numerator is $3e_{0}$ $6(z-t)=0 \implies t=2$ g'(t) DNE if the denominator is $3e_{0}$ 0 $\xi^{t/s}=0 \implies t=0$

Our critical numbers are 2 and 0.