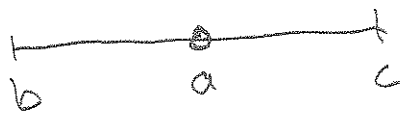


Tentatively. Midterm exam viewing Wed (14 Nov) 4-6pm in Math Support Center. (3011-3013 1A3 or 1A2).

L'Hopital's rule Suppose  $f, g$  differentiable on

$[b, a) \cup (a, c]$



and ①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  is indeterminant  $\frac{0}{0}$ , or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$

Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$  too.

Reason / proof why L'Hopital's rule is true.

Cauchy (or 2 function Mean Value Theorem)

Have 2 differentiable functions  $f, g$  (and assume  $g' \neq 0$ ).

look at  $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{g(b) - g(a)}$  (instead of secant slope  $\frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$  from  $(a, f(a)), (b, f(b))$ )

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Then as we move from one endpoint to other, there will be an interior point  $c$  so that

$$\frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)} = \frac{f(b)-f(a)}{g(b)-g(a)}$$

Reason why CMVT is true. Instead of looking at difference of  $f$  and secant line (which we did for MVT), we look at

$$h(x) = (f(b)-f(a))g(x) - f(x)(g(b)-g(a))$$

Can check  $h(a) = h(b) = f(b)g(a) - f(a)g(b)$

The function  $h$  is differentiable and  $h(a)=h(b)$  so EVT  $\Rightarrow$  there is max/min, and LEVT  $\Rightarrow$  there is max/min in interior  $c$ , so  $f'(c)=0$

Since  $h'(x) = (f(b)-f(a))g'(x) - f'(x)(g(b)-g(a))$

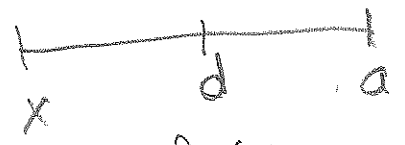
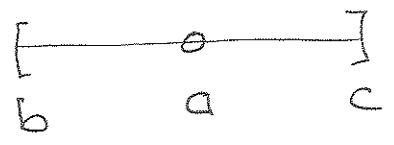
$$0 = h'(c) = \dots$$

So 
$$\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{g(b)-g(a)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$$

Use of CMVT to see why L'Hopital's rule is true.

We will assume  $\frac{0}{0}$  (so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0, \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ )

Define  $f(a) = 0, g(a) = 0$   
f, and g are continuous.



$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{g(x) - g(a)} \stackrel{\text{CMVT}}{=} \frac{f'(d)}{g'(d)} \text{ for a } \underline{\underline{d}} \text{ between } x \text{ and } a$$

If we let  $x \rightarrow a$ , then  $d \rightarrow a$ . But as  $d \rightarrow a$   $\lim_{d \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(d)}{g'(d)} = L$ .


$$\text{So } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L.$$

The case  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  is similar but longer.

The  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$  case of L'Hopital's rule.

Unlike the  $\frac{0}{0}$  case we cannot set  $f(a) = \infty$ ,  $g(a) = \infty$ .

We show  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = L$ .

We take  $y < x < a$   and apply the

Cauchy Mean Value Theorem to  $y < x$ . There is an interior point  $d$  ( $y < d < x$ ) so that

$$\frac{f(x) - f(y)}{g(x) - g(y)} = \frac{f'(d)}{g'(d)}.$$

Write  $\frac{f(x) - f(y)}{g(x) - g(y)}$  as  $\frac{f(x) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{f(y)}{f(x)}\right)}{g(x) \cdot \left(1 - \frac{g(y)}{g(x)}\right)} \left(= \frac{f'(d)}{g'(d)}\right)$ .

$$\text{So } \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(d)}{g'(d)} \cdot \frac{\left(1 - \frac{g(y)}{g(x)}\right)}{\left(1 - \frac{f(y)}{f(x)}\right)}$$

Now as  $y \rightarrow a$ , we have for any  $y < d < a$  that  $d \rightarrow a$ , and so

3B

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(d)}{g'(d)} = L.$$

Fix  $y$  so that  $\frac{f'(d)}{g'(d)}$  is near to  $L$  for  $y < d < a$ .

Now let  $x \rightarrow a$ , and note that  $y < d < x < a$  in

$$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f'(d)}{g'(d)} \frac{\left(1 - \frac{g(y)}{g(x)}\right)}{\left(1 - \frac{f(y)}{f(x)}\right)}.$$

As  $x \rightarrow a^-$ , the terms  $\left(1 - \frac{g(y)}{g(x)}\right) \rightarrow 1 - 0 = 1$ , and  $\left(1 - \frac{f(y)}{f(x)}\right) \rightarrow 1 - 0 = 1$ .

We conclude  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  is near to  $L$ . If we let BOTH  $y \rightarrow a$ , and  $y < x \rightarrow a$ ,

we can deduce  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{d \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(d)}{g'(d)} = L$ .

Student problem Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x - x^2 \ln(1 + \frac{1}{x}))$ . 4  
 $\infty - \infty^2 \cdot 0$  indeterminate

"change of variable"  $x = \frac{1}{h}$ . So  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $h \rightarrow 0$ .

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{1}{h} - \left(\frac{1}{h}\right)^2 \ln(1+h) \right) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h - \ln(1+h)}{h^2} \quad \begin{array}{l} \rightarrow 0-0 \\ \rightarrow 0^2 \end{array}$$

Indeterminate  $\frac{0}{0}$ . Try to apply L'Hopital's rule.

$$\frac{1 - \frac{1}{1+h} \cdot (0+1)}{2h} = \frac{1 - \frac{1}{1+h}}{2h} \quad \text{as } h \rightarrow 0 \text{ we get } \frac{1 - \frac{1}{1+0}}{2 \cdot 0} = \frac{0}{0}$$

Indeterminate  $\frac{0}{0}$ . Try 2nd time

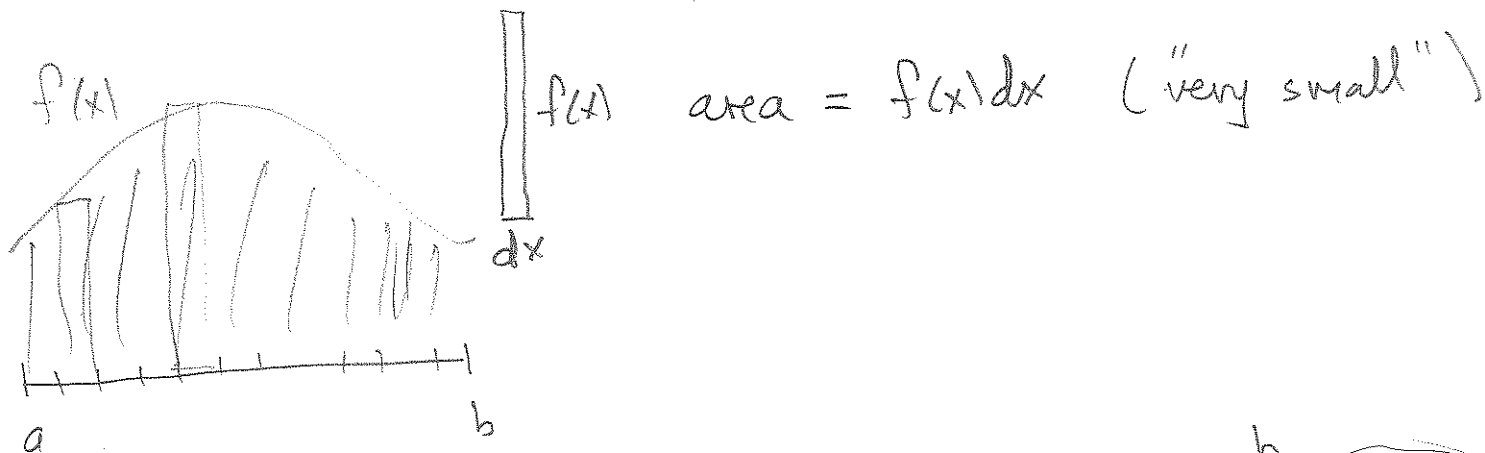
$$\frac{0 - (-1)(1+h)^{-2}}{2} \quad \text{as } h \rightarrow 0 \text{ we get } \frac{\frac{1}{(1+0)^2}}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\text{So } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x - x^2 \ln(1 + \frac{1}{x})) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

# Antiderivatives

Differential calculus.  $\frac{dy}{dx}$   $dy$ : "infinitesimal"  $dx$ : "infinitesimal".  $\frac{dy}{dx}$  ratio makes sense.

Integral calculus  $dx$  "infinitesimal" think of as base of rectangle  
 $f(x)$  think as height of rectangle



Add up "lots" of "infinitesimal" rectangle area.  $\int_a^b f(x)dx = \text{area}$ .

There is extremely important connection between differential and integral calculus (Fundamental Theorem of Calculus). The two are related by antiderivatives.

Suppose we have a function  $f$ . An antiderivative of  $f$  is any function  $F$  so that  $F' = f$ .

Examples ①  $f(x) = x^2$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$

$F(x) = \frac{x^3}{3}$  is an antiderivative since  $F'(x) = \left(\frac{x^3}{3}\right)' = \frac{3 \cdot x^2}{3} = f(x)$ .

②  $f(x) = 0$  on  $(-\infty, \infty)$

$F(x) = 1$ , or  $2$ , or in fact any constant  $C$ .

③  $\frac{x^3}{3} + C$  is also an antiderivative of  $x^2$ .

If  $F$  is an antiderivative of  $f$  (so  $F' = f$ ), then adding a constant  $C$  to  $F$  gives another antiderivative  $F + C$ .

By MVT, if  $f$  is function on  $a \leq x \leq b$  and  $F_1, F_2$  are two antiderivatives, then they differ by constant.



WW 8 #1. Find derivative of  $f(x) = -\frac{\sqrt{x^2+36}}{36x} + C$ .

Take derivative prod (of  $\sqrt{x^2+36}$  and  $x^{-1}$ ).

$$f'(x) = \left( -\frac{1}{36} \right) \left( \frac{1}{x} (x^2+36)^{-1/2} \cdot (2x) \cdot \frac{1}{x} + \sqrt{x^2+36} (-1)(x^{-2}) \right) + 0.$$

$$f'(x) = \left( -\frac{1}{36} \right) \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+36}} - \frac{\sqrt{x^2+36}}{x^2} \right)$$

So antiderivative of  $\left( -\frac{1}{36} \right) \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+36}} - \frac{\sqrt{x^2+36}}{x^2} \right)$  is  $-\frac{\sqrt{x^2+36}}{36x} + C$ .

We use notation  $\int g(x) dx$  to denote an antiderivative of  $g$ .

$$\int \left( -\frac{1}{36} \right) \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+36}} - \frac{\sqrt{x^2+36}}{x^2} \right) dx = -\frac{\sqrt{x^2+36}}{36x} + C$$

Similarly  $\int x^2 dx = \frac{x^3}{3} + C$

$$\int 0 dx = C.$$

#2 Find

$$(a) \int (14t - 5t^2 + 9) dt = 7t^2 - \frac{5t^3}{3} + 9t + C.$$

$$(b) \int \left( \frac{1}{u^{7/4}} + 3u^{1/2} \right) du = \int \left( u^{-7/4} + 3u^{1/2} \right) du$$
$$= \frac{u^{(-7/4+1)}}{(-3/4)} + \frac{3 \cdot 2u^{3/2}}{3/2} + C$$

$-\frac{3}{4}$

$$(c) \int \frac{1}{5x^4} dx = \int \frac{1}{5} x^{-4} dx = \frac{1}{5} \frac{x^{-3}}{-3} + C$$
$$= \frac{x^{-3}}{-15} + C.$$