

## Taylor Polynomials

Let  $f(x)$  be a function with derivatives of all orders on an open interval  $I$ , and  $a \in I$ .

Goal: Can we approximate  $f(x)$  around the point  $a$  by a polynomial  $P_n(x)$  of degree  $n$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{in a sense that } f(a) = P_n(a) \\ f'(a) = P'_n(a) \\ \vdots \\ f^{(n)}(a) = P_n^{(n)}(a) \end{array} \right\} n+1 \text{ conditions}$$

$$P_n(x) = a_0 + a_1(x-a) + a_2(x-a)^2 + \dots + a_n(x-a)^n$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^n a_i (x-a)^i$$

$a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$  are constants to be determined.

$n+1$  constants.

Remark:  $n+1$  conditions,  $n+1$  constants  $\Rightarrow a_i$ 's are completely determined.

To determine  $a_i$ 's:

$$\bullet P_n(x) = a_0 + a_1(x-a) + a_2(x-a)^2 + \dots + a_n(x-a)^n$$

$$f(a) = P_n(a) = a_0$$

$$\bullet P'_n(x) = 1a_1 + 2a_2(x-a) + 3a_3(x-a)^2 + \dots + na_n(x-a)^{n-1}$$

$$f'(a) = P'_n(a) = 1a_1$$

$$a_1 = \frac{f'(a)}{1}$$

$$\bullet P''_n(x) = 2 \cdot 1 a_2 + 3 \cdot 2 a_3 (x-a) + \dots + n \cdot (n-1) a_n (x-a)^{n-2}$$

$$f''(a) = P''_n(a) = 2! a_2$$

$$a_2 = \frac{f''(a)}{2!}$$

Repeating the process, in general, we have  $a_k = \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}$   $k=0, 1, 2, \dots, n$

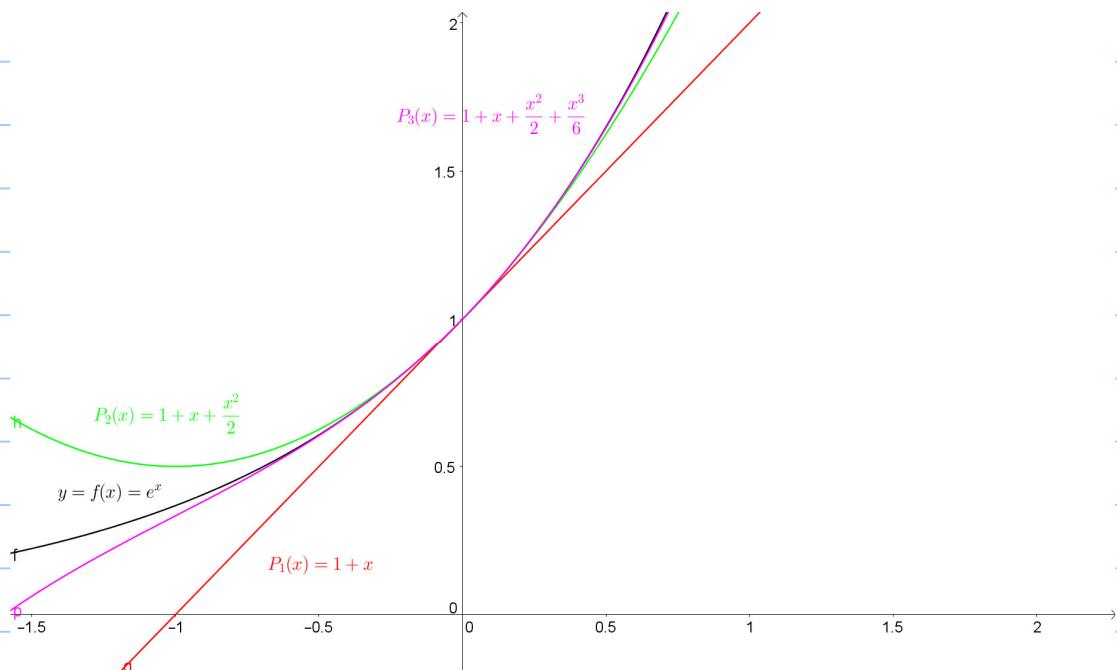
$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k \end{aligned}$$

is called the Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  generated by  $f$  at  $a$ .

e.g. Let  $f(x) = e^x$ . find the Taylor polynomials  $P_n(x)$  generated by  $f$  at  $x=0$ .

Note :  $f^{(k)}(x) = e^x$  and  $f^{(k)}(0) = 1$  for  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore P_n(x) &= f(0) + f'(0)x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n \\ &= 1 + x + \frac{1}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}x^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!}x^k\end{aligned}$$



e.g. Let  $f(x) = \cos x$ . find the Taylor polynomials generated by  $f$  at  $x=0$ .

$$\text{Note : } f(x) = \cos x$$

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

$$f''(x) = -\cos x$$

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

$$f^{(4)}(x) = \cos x$$

$$f^{(5)}(x) = -\sin x$$

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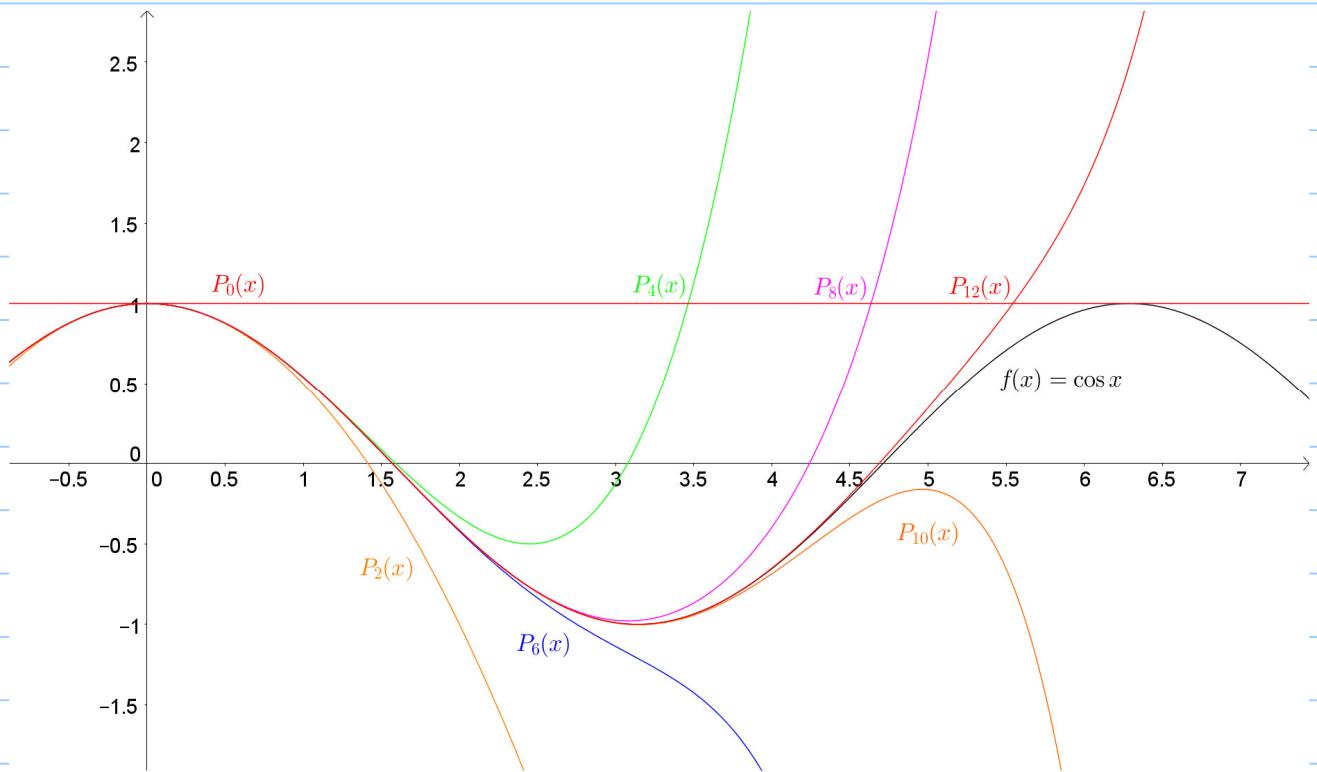
$$f^{(2n)}(x) = (-1)^n \cos x$$

$$f^{(2n+1)}(x) = (-1)^{n+1} \sin x$$

$$f^{(2n)}(0) = (-1)^n$$

$$f^{(2n+1)}(0) = 0$$

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



Ex: Find the Taylor polynomials generated by  $f$  at  $x=0$ , if  $f(x) =$

a)  $\sin x$

b)  $\frac{1}{1-x}$

c)  $\ln(1+x)$

When we approximate  $f(x)$  by  $P_n(x)$ , there is an error term  $E_n(x) = f(x) - P_n(x)$

The error term tells us how good / bad our approximation is!

The error term can be described by the following theorem.

## Talyor's Theorem

Theorem (Talyor's Theorem) :

If  $f$  and its first  $n$  derivatives  $f'$ ,  $f''$ , ...,  $f^{(n)}$  are continuous on the closed interval between  $a$  and  $b$ ,  $f^{(n)}$  is differentiable on the open interval between  $a$  and  $b$ , then there exists  $c$  between  $a$  and  $b$  such that

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(b-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(b-a)^{n+1}$$

Remark: If  $n=0$ ,

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(c)(b-a)$$

it is just Mean Value Theorem.

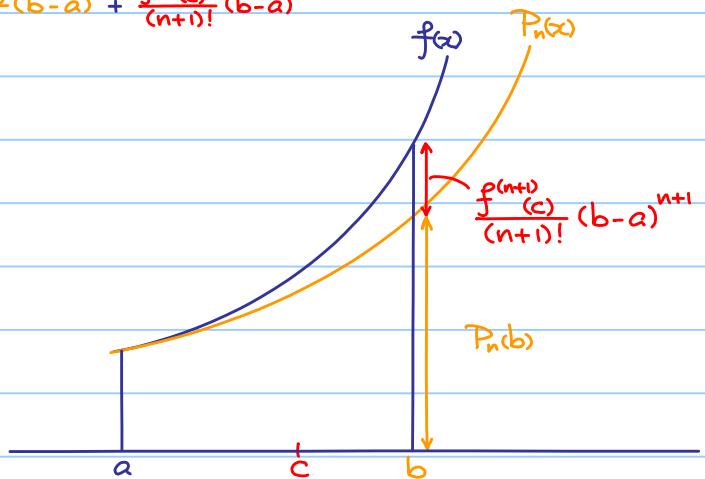
Let  $P_n(x)$  be the Talyor polynomial of order  $n$  generated by  $f$  at the point  $a$ .

i.e.  $P_n(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(b-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(b-a)^{n+1}$$

$$f(b) = P_n(b) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!}(b-a)^{n+1}$$

} error



Replace  $b$  by  $x$ , and let  $x$  varies

$$f(x) = P_n(x) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c(x))}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1}$$

} error  $E_n(x)$

proof:

Assume  $b > a$ .

Let  $P_n(x)$  be the Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  generated by  $f$  at the point  $a$ .

$$\text{i.e. } P_n(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

$$\text{Let } F(x) = f(x) - P_n(x) - \frac{f(b)-P_n(b)}{(b-a)^{n+1}}(x-a)^{n+1}$$

Check:  $F$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$

$F$  is differentiable on  $(a, b)$

$$F(a) = F(b) = 0$$

Apply Rolle's Theorem,  $\exists c_1 \in (a, b)$  such that  $F'(c_1) = 0$

Check:  $F'$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$

$F'$  is differentiable on  $(a, b)$

$$F'(a) = F'(c_1) = 0$$

Apply Rolle's Theorem,  $\exists c_2 \in (a, c_1)$  such that  $F''(c_2) = 0$

Repeating the process:  $\exists c_{n+1} \in (a, c_n)$  such that  $F^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1}) = 0$

$$\text{Note: } F^{(n+1)}(x) = f^{(n+1)}(x) - (n+1)! \frac{f(b)-P_n(b)}{(b-a)^{n+1}}$$

$$0 = F^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1}) = f^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1}) - (n+1)! \frac{f(b)-P_n(b)}{(b-a)^{n+1}}$$

$$\therefore f^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1}) = \frac{f(b)-P_n(b)}{(b-a)^{n+1}}$$

$$\therefore F(x) = f(x) - P_n(x) - \frac{f(b)-P_n(b)}{(b-a)^{n+1}}(x-a)^{n+1}$$

$$F(x) = f(x) - P_n(x) - \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1})}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1}$$

$$\text{Recall } F(b) = 0, \text{ so } f(b) = P_n(b) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1})}{(n+1)!}(b-a)^{n+1}$$

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(b-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(b-a)^n + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1})}{(n+1)!}(b-a)^{n+1}$$

The proof for the case  $a > b$  is similar.

e.g. Approximate  $\cos 0.1$

Let  $f(x) = \cos x$ ,

$$P_5(x) = P_4(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!}$$

Taylor polynomials generated by  $f$  at  $x=0$ .

$$\cos 0.1 = f(0.1) \approx P_5(0.1) = 0.995004166 \dots$$

By Taylor's Theorem  $f(0.1) = P_5(0.1) + \frac{f^{(6)}(c)}{6!}(0.1)^6$   $c \in (0, 0.1)$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Absolute Error} &= \left| \frac{f^{(6)}(c)}{6!}(0.1)^6 \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{6!}(0.1)^6 \approx 1.38 \times 10^{-9}\end{aligned}$$

Note:  $f^{(6)}(x) = -\cos x$   
 $\Rightarrow |f^{(6)}(c)| \leq 1$

Very small.

Question: If we want to approximate  $\cos 2$  by  $P_n(2)$  with the same precision,

i.e. absolute error  $\leq 1.38 \times 10^{-9}$ , then what is the least  $n$ ?

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Absolute Error} &= \left| \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} 2^{n+1} \right| \leq \frac{2^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \leq 1.38 \times 10^{-9} \\ &\text{Solve } n \\ &c \in (0, 2)\end{aligned}$$

$n=16$ ! Much more terms needed!

e.g. Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{1-x}$

Ex: Suppose  $P_n(x)$  is Taylor polynomial of order  $n$  generated by  $f$  at 0.

Show that  $P_n(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n$

$$\text{Note: } f(0.1) = \frac{1}{1-0.1} = 1.111 \dots$$

$$P_n(0.1) = 1 + 0.1 + 0.1^2 + \dots + 0.1^n = 1. \underbrace{111 \dots}_n$$

$E_n(0.1) = f(0.1) - P_n(0.1)$  is getting closer and closer to 0 as  $n$  increases.

Good Approximation

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

$$P_n(2) = 1 + 2 + 2^2 + \dots + 2^n = 2^{n+1} - 1$$

$E_n(2) = f(2) - P_n(2)$  is NOT getting closer and closer to 0 as  $n$  increases.

Bad Approximation

We express  $f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + E_n(x)$

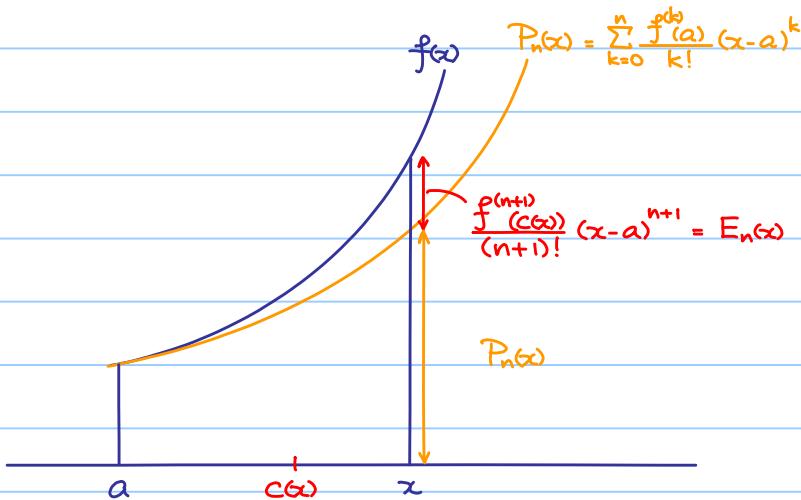
$$= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^k + E_n(x)$$

Fix  $x$ , then  $E_n(x)$  becomes a sequence of real numbers.

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n(x) = 0$ , that means the error is getting closer and closer to 0

as we increase the number of terms to approximate  $f(x)$ .

If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in I$ , we have  $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^k$



$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!}(x-a)^k$  is said to be the **Taylor series** generated by  $f$  at  $a$ .

We say the Taylor series converges to  $f(x)$  for all  $x \in I$  if  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n(x) = 0$

e.g. Let  $f(x) = \cos x$

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

"

$$P_{2n}(x) = P_{2n+1}(x)$$

$$0 \leq |E_{2n+1}(x)| = \left| \frac{f^{(2n+2)}(c(x))}{(2n+2)!} x^{2n+2} \right| \leq \frac{|x^{2n+2}|}{(2n+2)!}$$

$$\text{Note: } |f^{(2n+2)}(c(x))| = |\cos(c(x))| \leq 1$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x^{2n+2}|}{(2n+2)!} = 0 \quad \text{--- (*)}$$

By sandwich theorem,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |E_{2n+1}(x)| = 0$  and hence  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_{2n+1}(x) = 0$ .

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} + \dots = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{(2k)!} x^{2k} \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

(\*) For a fix  $x$ , there exists  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|x| < k$

$$0 \leq \frac{|x^{2n+2}|}{(2n+2)!} = \underbrace{\frac{|x|^k}{k!} \cdot \frac{|x|}{k+1} \cdot \frac{|x|}{k+2} \cdots \frac{|x|}{2n+2}}_M \leq M \left( \frac{|x|}{k+1} \right)^{2n+2-k}$$

$$\text{Note: As } 0 < \frac{|x|}{k+1} < 1, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M \left( \frac{|x|}{k+1} \right)^{2n+2-k} = 0$$

$$\therefore \text{By sandwich theorem, } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x^{2n+2}|}{(2n+2)!} = 0$$

Remark: In general, let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a^n}{n!} = 0$ .

Frequently used Taylor series :

$$1) \frac{1}{1-x} = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n, \quad |x| < 1$$

$$2) \frac{1}{1+x} = 1 - x + x^2 - \dots + (-x)^n + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-x)^n, \quad |x| < 1$$

$$3) e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$4) \sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$5) \cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{(2n)!} x^{2n}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$6) \ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots + (-1)^{n+1} \frac{1}{n} + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^n x^{n+1}}{n}, \quad \forall -1 < x \leq 1$$

e.g. (NOT Rigorous)

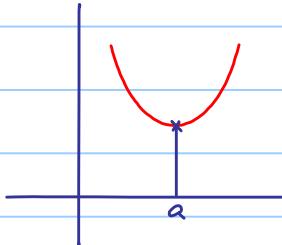
$$\text{Suppose } f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + \dots$$

in an interval I and  $a \in I$ .

If we know  $f'(a) = 0$  and  $f''(a) > 0$ .

then if  $x \approx a$ ,

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \underbrace{\frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2}_{\text{y}}$$



locally, like a parabola opening upward?

It suggests why  $f(x)$  attains minimum at  $x=a$ .

How about  $f''(a) = 0$ ?

e.g. (NOT Rigorous)

$$\frac{\sin x}{x} = \frac{x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots}{x}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \dots$$

terms involves  $x$

It suggests  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$

$$\text{In general, } f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots$$

$$g(x) = g(a) + g'(a)(x-a) + \frac{g''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots$$

Suppose  $f(a) = g(a) = 0$  and  $f'(a), g'(a) \neq 0$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots}{g'(a)(x-a) + \frac{g''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(a) + \text{terms involves } (x-a)}{g'(a) + \text{terms involves } (x-a)} = \frac{f'(a)}{g'(a)}$$

The formal statement : L'Hôpital Rule

## Intermediate Form and L'Hôpital Rule

Intermediate Form  $\frac{0}{0}$  and L'Hôpital Rule

Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  and suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  exist.

Case 1: If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)}$

Case 2: If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \neq 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  does NOT exist.

Case 3: If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$ , then we do NOT know whether  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  exist!

We call it indeterminate form  $\frac{0}{0}$ .

Theorem (L'Hôpital's Rule)

Suppose that  $f(a) = g(a) = 0$ ,  $I$  is an open interval containing  $a$ ,

$f$  and  $g$  are differentiable on  $I \setminus \{a\}$ , and  $g'(x) \neq 0$  on  $I \setminus \{a\}$ .

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$  exists, then

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

(Further, if  $f'(x)$  and  $g'(x)$  are continuous at  $a$  and  $g'(a) \neq 0$ ,

then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f'(x) = f'(a)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g'(x) = g'(a)$

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

e.g.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} \quad (\frac{0}{0}) - (*)$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{1} \quad - (***)$$

$$= 1$$

Logic: limit  $(***)$  exists  $\Rightarrow$  limit  $(*)$  exists

e.g.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} \quad (\frac{0}{0})$

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

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x}{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}$$

## Intermediate Form $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ , $\infty \cdot 0$ , $\infty - \infty$

- L'Hôpital's Rule can also be applied to  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$
- L'Hôpital's Rule can also be applied to left hand limit or right hand limit

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

- L'Hôpital's Rule can also be applied to limits at infinities

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$$

e.g. Intermediate Form  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \frac{\sec x}{1 + \tan x} \quad (\infty)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \frac{\sec x \tan x}{\sec^2 x}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \frac{\sin x}{\cos^2 x}$$

$$= 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\ln x}{2\sqrt{x}} \quad (\infty)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$= 0$$

e.g. Intermediate Form  $\infty \cdot 0$

Idea: Converting to  $\frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x \sin \frac{1}{x} \quad (\infty \cdot 0)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\sin \frac{1}{x}}{\frac{1}{x}} \quad \begin{matrix} \downarrow \text{convert} \\ \text{to} \end{matrix} \quad \left( \frac{0}{0} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{-\frac{1}{x^2} \cos \frac{1}{x}}{-\frac{1}{x^2}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \cos \frac{1}{x}$$

$$= 1$$

Alternative method :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x \sin \frac{1}{x} \quad (\infty \cdot 0)$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\sin h}{h} \quad \left( \frac{0}{0} \right) \quad \text{Let } h = \frac{1}{x},$$

As  $x \rightarrow +\infty, h \rightarrow 0^+$

$$= 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sqrt{x} \ln x \quad (\infty \cdot 0)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln x}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}} \quad \begin{matrix} \downarrow \text{convert} \\ \text{to} \end{matrix} \quad \left( \frac{\infty}{\infty} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{-\frac{1}{2}x^{-\frac{3}{2}}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} -2\sqrt{x}$$

$$= 0$$

Remark: Why don't we try  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sqrt{x} \ln x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\sqrt{x}}{\frac{1}{\ln x}} \quad \left( \frac{0}{0} \right) ?$

e.g. Intermediate Form  $\infty - \infty$

Idea: Converting to  $\frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{1}{\sin x} - \frac{1}{x} \right) \quad (\infty - \infty)$$

$\downarrow$  convert  
to

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x - \sin x}{x \sin x} \quad \left( \frac{0}{0} \right)$$

Ex:  $\vdots$   
 $= 0$

Intermediate Form  $1^\infty, 0^\circ, \infty^\circ$

Idea: Taking  $\ln$ , converting to  $\frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$

e.g. Intermediate Form  $1^\infty$

Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} x^{\frac{1}{1-x}} \quad (1^\infty)$

Let  $y = \ln x^{\frac{1}{1-x}}$   
 $= \frac{\ln x}{1-x}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} y = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{\ln x}{1-x} \quad \left( \frac{0}{0} \right)$$

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

$$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} x^{\frac{1}{1-x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} e^y = e^{-1}$$

e.g. Intermediate Form  $\infty^\circ$

Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x^{\frac{1}{x}} \quad (\infty^\circ)$

Let  $y = \ln x^{\frac{1}{x}}$   
 $= \frac{\ln x}{x}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} y = \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\ln x}{x} \quad (\infty)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\left( \frac{1}{x} \right)}{1}$$
$$= 0$$

$$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x^{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} e^y = e^0 = 1$$