

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

in a sense that $f(a) = P_n(a)$ } ?
 $f'(a) = P'_n(a)$ } $n+1$ conditions
 \vdots
 $f^{(n)}(a) = P_n^{(n)}(a)$ }

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } P_n(x) &= a_0 + a_1(x-a) + a_2(x-a)^2 + \dots + a_n(x-a)^n \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n a_i(x-a)^i \end{aligned}$$

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 :

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

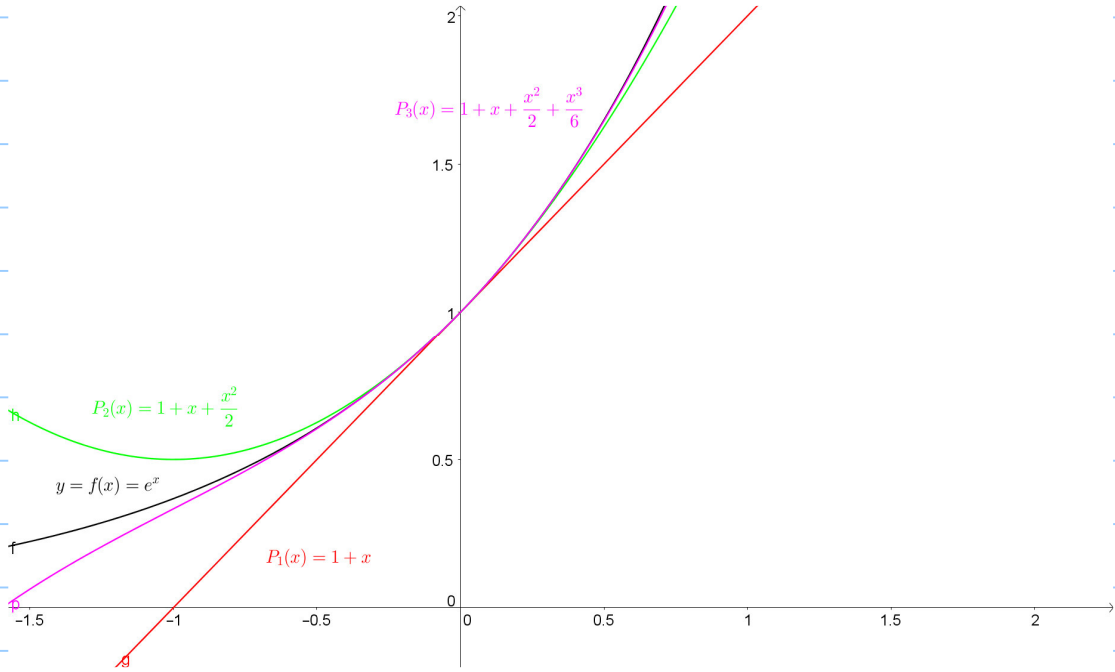
$$\begin{aligned} P_n(x) &= f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k \end{aligned}$$

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 $x=0$.

Note: $f(x) = \cos x$

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

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

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

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

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

⋮

⋮

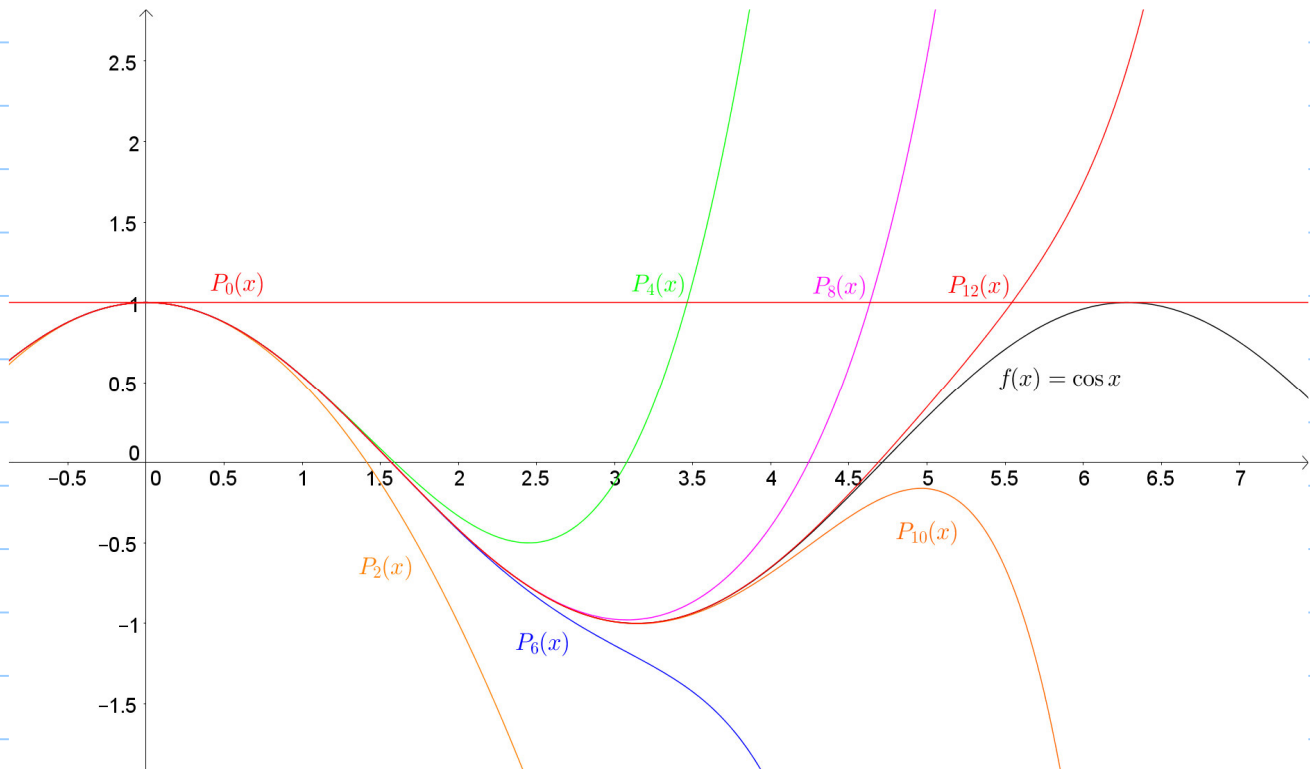
$$f^{(2n)}(x) = (-1)^n \cos x$$

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

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

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

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



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.

Taylor's Theorem

Theorem (Taylor's Theorem):

If f and its first n derivatives $f', f'', \dots, f^{(n)}$ 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 $n=0$,

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

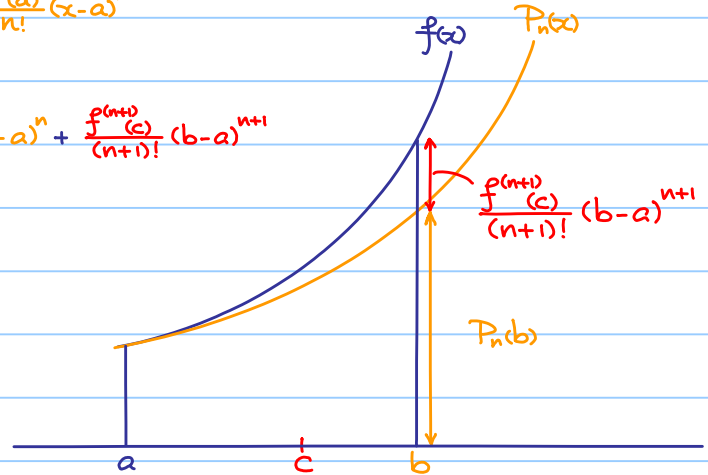
it is just Mean Value Theorem.

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

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

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

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



Replace b by x , and let x varies

$$f(x) = P_n(x) + \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c(x))}{(n+1)!}(x-a)^{n+1} \quad c(x) \text{ lies between } a \text{ and } x.$$

$$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{\text{error } E_n(x)}$$

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, $\exists c, c \in (a, b)$ such that $F'(c) = 0$

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 $F^{(n+1)}(c_{n+1}) = 0$

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

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

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

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

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

Recall $F(b) = 0$, 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 $f(x) = \cos x$,

$$P_5(x) = P_4(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} \quad \text{Taylor polynomials generated by } f \text{ at } x=0.$$

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

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

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

Very small.

$$\text{Note: } f^{(6)}(x) = -\cos x$$

$$\Rightarrow |f^{(6)}(c)| \leq 1$$

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 ?

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

Solve n

$n = 16!$ 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 $P_n(x) = 1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n$

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

$$P_n(0.1) = 1 + 0.1 + 0.1^2 + \dots + 0.1^n = \underbrace{1.111\dots}_n$$

$E_n(0.1) = f(0.1) - P_n(0.1)$ 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 $f(x) = f(a) + f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n + E_n(x)$

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

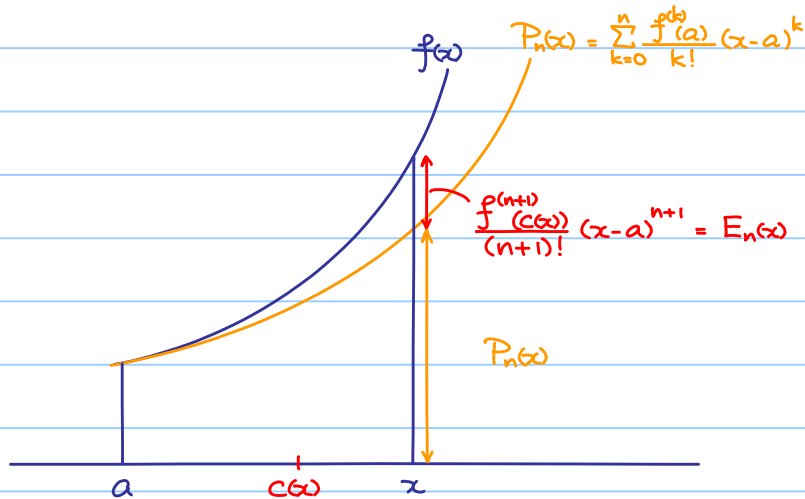
Fix x , then $E_n(x)$ becomes a sequence of real numbers.

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 $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(k)}(a)}{k!} (x-a)^k$

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 $f(x) = \cos x$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Frequently used Taylor series:

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

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

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

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

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

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

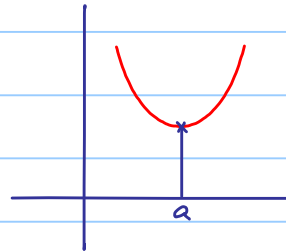
e.g. (NOT Rigorous)

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 $x \sim a$,

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + \cancel{f'(a)(x-a)} + \underbrace{\frac{f''(a)}{2!}}_0 (x-a)^2$$



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)

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

$$= 1 - \underbrace{\frac{x^2}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{5!} - \dots}_{\text{terms involves } x}$$

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 $f'(a), g'(a) \neq 0$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(a)(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots}{g'(a)(x-a) + \frac{g''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \dots} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(a) + \text{terms involves } (x-a)}{g'(a) + \text{terms involves } (x-a)} = \frac{f'(a)}{g'(a)} \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

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

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

$$= 1$$

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

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

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

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

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

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 $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$

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

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

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

$$= 1$$

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

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

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

$$= 0$$

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

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

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

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

↓ convert to

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

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

$$= 1$$

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

$$= 1$$

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

↓ convert
to

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

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

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

$$= 0$$

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

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

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

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

↓ 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^∞ , 0^0 , ∞^0

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

e.g. Intermediate Form 1^∞

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } y &= \ln x^{\frac{1}{1-x}} \\ &= \frac{\ln x}{1-x} \end{aligned}$$

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

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

$$= -1$$

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

e.g. Intermediate Form ∞^0

$$\text{Find } \lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} x^{\frac{1}{x}} \quad (\infty^0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } y &= \ln x^{\frac{1}{x}} \\ &= \frac{\ln x}{x} \end{aligned}$$

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

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

$$= 0$$

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