

This technique evaluates limits which approach indeterminate forms like $\frac{0}{0}$ and $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$.

Theorem: For functions $f(x), g(x)$, suppose $f'(x), g'(x)$ exist and $g'(x) \neq 0$, on some interval $x \in (a-\delta, a+\delta)$. Suppose that either:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} |f(x)| = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} |g(x)| = \infty.$$

Then:

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

provided the right side limit exists, or equals ∞ or $-\infty$.

There is another version for limits as x becomes very large:

Theorem: Let $f(x), g(x)$ be functions which are differentiable and $g'(x) \neq 0$, on a semi-infinite interval $x \in (c, \infty)$. Suppose that either:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g(x) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} |f(x)| = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} |g(x)| = \infty.$$

Then:

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

provided the right side limit exists, or equals ∞ or $-\infty$.

The above also holds with $x \rightarrow \infty$ replaced with $x \rightarrow -\infty$.

*Proof.** There is an easy and enlightening proof of the Theorem if we assume:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a) = 0, & & \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = g(a) = 0, \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f'(x) = f'(a), & & \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g'(x) = g'(a) \neq 0. \end{aligned}$$

In this case:

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

That is, the quotient on the left is approximately $\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta g}$. But if f starts at $f(a) = 0$, then the change in $f(x)$ is just the value of $f(x)$: that is, $\Delta f = f(x) - f(a) = f(x)$; and similarly $\Delta g = g(x)$.

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*A more complete proof. Assume only that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a) = 0$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = g(a) = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f'(x)/g'(x)$ exists. This means $f'(x), g'(x)$ are defined and $g'(x) \neq 0$ near $x = a$. I claim that also $g(x) \neq 0$ near $x = a$. Otherwise, if we had $g(x) = 0$ arbitrarily near $x = a$, the Mean Value Theorem (§3.2) would imply $g'(c) = 0$ for $c \in (a, x)$ or (x, a) , contradicting the existence of $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f'(x)/g'(x)$.

The Cauchy Mean Value Theorem (end of §3.2) says that if $f(x), g(x)$ are continuous on $[a, b]$, differentiable on (a, b) , then there is some $c \in (a, b)$ with $\frac{f(b)-f(a)}{g(b)-g(a)} = \frac{f'(c)}{g'(c)}$, provided the denominators are non-zero. Applying this to any sufficiently small interval $[a, x]$ or $[x, a]$ gives some $c_x \in (a, x)$ or (x, a) with $f(x)/g(x) = f'(c_x)/g'(c_x)$. Now, as $x \rightarrow a$, also $c_x \rightarrow a$, and $f(x)/g(x) = f'(c_x)/g'(c_x)$ clearly approaches the same value as $f'(x)/g'(x)$.

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-2}{x^2-4}$. The top and bottom both approach zero, so the limit approaches the indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$, and L'Hôpital's Rule applies.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-2}{x^2-4} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{(x-2)'}{(x^2-4)'} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{2x} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

In this simple case, we can also find the limit by cancelling vanishing factors in the numerator and denominator:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-2}{x^2-4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x-2}{(x-2)(x+2)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{x+2} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

Similar reasoning would apply to the $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ form $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x-2}{x^2-4} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2x} = 0$.

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x}{x^2}$. This approaches $\frac{0}{0}$, so L'Hôpital applies.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1 - x}{x^2} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 0 - 1}{2x}.$$

This still approaches $\frac{0}{0}$, so we can use L'Hôpital again:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 0 - 1}{2x} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x}{2} = \frac{e^0}{2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln(x)$. (Here we use a one-sided limit $x \rightarrow 0^+$ because $\ln(x)$ is undefined for $x < 0$.) This approaches the indeterminate form $0 \cdot (-\infty)$, so it is a difficult limit, but we must manipulate it into a quotient to apply L'Hôpital:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln(x)}{1/x}$$

Now top and bottom become infinite approaching $\frac{-\infty}{\infty}$, so L'Hôpital applies.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln(x)}{1/x} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1/x}{-1/x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (-x) = 0.$$

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^x$. This approaches the indeterminate form 0^0 , but we can once again manipulate it into a limit we can handle:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} e^{\ln(x)x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \exp(x \ln(x)) = \exp\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \ln(x)\right).$$

We can move the limit inside $\exp(\)$ because it is a continuous function (see §1.8 Composition Law). Applying the previous example, the limit becomes $\exp(0) = 1$.

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{e^x}$. The bottom does not approach 0, so this is not indeterminate at all, and *L'Hôpital does not apply here*. Instead, this is an easy limit that can be evaluated by continuity (plugging in):

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{e^x} = \frac{\sin(0)}{e^0} = \frac{0}{1} = 0.$$

If we incorrectly try to apply L'Hôpital when it is not valid, we get a wrong answer:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{e^x} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} ?? \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(x)}{e^x} = \frac{\cos(0)}{e^0} = 1 \text{ (WRONG)}.$$

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^n}$ for any integer $n > 0$. Here top and bottom go to ∞ as x becomes very large, so the limit approaches $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ and l'Hôpital applies; in fact it applies n times:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^n} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{nx^{n-1}} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{n(n-1)x^{n-2}} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \dots \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{n!x^0} = \infty,$$

since the top goes to ∞ and the bottom is the constant $n! = n(n-1)(n-2) \cdots (3)(2)(1)$. Another method: $f(z) = z^n$ is a continuous function, so we can pull it out of the limit.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^n} = \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{x/n}}{x} \right)^n \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{n}e^{x/n}}{1} \right)^n = (\infty)^n = \infty.$$

This result means that the exponential growth on the top is much faster than the polynomial growth on the bottom, so the quotient gets larger and larger along with x .

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} h^b e^{1/h^a}$ for any $a, b > 0$, of the form $0 \cdot \infty$. We need to simplify before L'Hôpital is any use. We substitute $x = 1/h^a$, $h = \frac{1}{x^{1/a}}$, so $x \rightarrow \infty$ as $h \rightarrow 0^+$. Then we pull out the power of x as in the previous example:

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} h^b e^{1/h^a} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^{b/a}} = \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{(a/b)x}}{x} \right)^{b/a} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \infty^{b/a} = \infty.$$

EXAMPLE: Another $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ form:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^3 + x^2 + x + 1}{x^2 - x + 1} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3x^2 + 2x + 1}{2x - 1} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{6x + 2}{2} = \infty$$

This means that the x^3 growth on top is much faster than the x^2 growth on the bottom. We can see this without L'Hôpital if we divide top and bottom by the smaller leading term, namely x^2 :

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

The top approaches $x + 1$ and the bottom approaches 1, so the quotient approaches ∞ .

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln(x) - x$, of indeterminate form $\infty - \infty$. We can wrangle up a quotient:

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

Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{x} \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$, the above becomes $\infty \cdot (0 - 1) = -\infty$.

Alternatively, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln(x) - x = \ln\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x}{e^x}\right) \stackrel{\text{Hôp}}{=} \ln\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{-x}\right) = \ln(0^+) = -\infty$.

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x+1)^p - x^p$ for $p > 0$, a tough $\infty - \infty$ form. To create a quotient, we substitute $u = \frac{1}{x} \rightarrow 0^+$ in place of $x \rightarrow \infty$.

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x+1)^p - x^p = \lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{1}{u} + 1\right)^p - \left(\frac{1}{u}\right)^p = \lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{(1+u)^p - 1}{u^p} = \left(\lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{((1+u)^p - 1)^{1/p}}{u}\right)^p$$

$$\stackrel{\text{H\^op}}{=} \left(\lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{p} ((1+u)^p - 1)^{\frac{1}{p}-1} \cdot p(1+u)^{p-1}\right)^p = \left(\lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} ((1+u)^p - 1)^{1-p}\right) \cdot \left(\lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} (1+u)^{p-1}\right)^p$$

The second factor approaches 1, so the original limit is equal to the first factor, of the form $(0^+)^{1-p}$. This approaches $L = 0$ if $p < 1$; $L = 1$ if $p = 1$; and $L = \infty$ if $p > 1$.

EXAMPLE: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\sqrt{f(x)-f(a)}}{f'(x)}$, where $f(x)$ has a non-stationary critical point, meaning $f'(a) = 0$ but $f''(a) \neq 0$. Applying L'H\^opital to this $\frac{0}{0}$ limit:

$$L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\sqrt{f(x)-f(a)}}{f'(x)} \stackrel{\text{H\^op}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\frac{f'(x)}{2\sqrt{f(x)-f(a)}}}{f''(x)} = \frac{1}{2f''(a)} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{\sqrt{f(x)-f(a)}} = \frac{1}{2f''(a)} \cdot \frac{1}{L}$$

Solving for L gives $L = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2f''(a)}}$. A simpler method is to pull out the radical:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\sqrt{f(x)-f(a)}}{f'(x)} = \sqrt{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)-f(a)}{(f'(x))^2}} \stackrel{\text{H\^op}}{=} \sqrt{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{2f'(x)f''(x)}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2f''(a)}}$$

Review Problem. Graph the function $f(x) = x^{1/x}$ for $x \geq 0$. First, the horizontal asymptote is $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$ of indeterminate form $\infty^{1/\infty} = \infty^0$. By the Natural Base Principle (§6.4), $x^{1/x} = (e^{\ln(x)})^{1/x} = \exp(\frac{\ln(x)}{x})$, so:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^{1/x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \exp\left(\frac{\ln(x)}{x}\right) = \exp\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{x}\right).$$

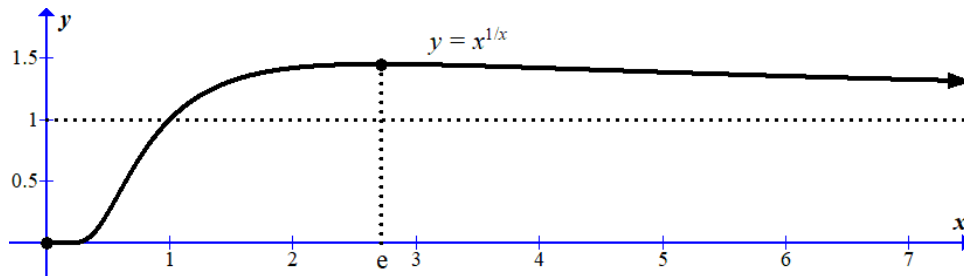
By L'H\^opital $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1/x}{1} = 0$, and the horizontal asymptote is $y = \exp(0) = 1$.

On the other end of the graph, $f(0)$ is not defined, but it approaches: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^{1/x} = \exp(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln(x)}{x})$. The inside limit is *not* indeterminate, rather of the form $\frac{-\infty}{0^+} = -\infty$: large divided by tiny is very large. Applying L'H\^opital would give a *wrong answer!* To make $f(x)$ continuous, we set $f(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = e^{-\infty} = 0$.

The critical (max/min) points are where $f'(x) = 0$. Using logarithmic differentiation on $\ln f(x) = \ln(x^{1/x}) = (1/x) \ln(x) = \ln(x)/x$, we get:

$$f'(x) = f(x) (\ln f(x))' = f(x) \left(\frac{\ln(x)}{x}\right)' = x^{\frac{1}{x}} \frac{\frac{1}{x} - \ln(x)(1)}{x^2} = x^{\frac{1}{x}-2} (1 - \ln(x)) = 0.$$

The first factor, being an exponential, can never be zero. The second factor gives $1 - \ln(x) = 0$, or $x = e^1 = e$, the only critical point. Since $f'(x) > 0$ to the left and $f'(x) < 0$ to the right of $x = e$, this must be a local maximum, a hill.



CHALLENGE: Show $f'(0) = 0$ and $(f^{-1})'(\sqrt{2}) = \frac{4}{\sqrt{2(1-\ln(2))}}$. Solve $n^m = m^n$ over whole numbers. Use Newton's Method to approximate inflection points: $f''(x) = 0$ for $x \approx 0.58193$ and 4.36777 .

Review problem: Graph $y = x^n e^{-x^2}$ for each $n \geq 1$.