

Module 7 : Applications of Integration - I

Lecture 20 : Definition of the power function and logarithmic function with positive base [Section 20.1]

Objectives

In this section you will learn the following :

- How to define the power (exponential) function for arbitrary positive base.

20.1 The Power function

In view of the property as in theorem 19.2.2 (iii), the function $\exp(x)$ is also called the power function with the natural base, i.e., Using the functions $\exp(x)$ and $\ln(x)$, we define the power function for any base $a > 0$.

20.1.1 Definition:

Let $a > 0$. For $x \in \mathbb{R}$, define

$$a^x := \exp(x \ln a).$$

The function $x \mapsto a^x$ is called the exponential function with base a .

20.1.2 Theorem:

For $a > 0$, the function

$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, \infty), f(x) = a^x$$

has the following properties:

- $f(0) = 1$.
- $f'(x) = (\ln a) f(x)$.
- $(a^{x_1})^{x_2} = a^{(x_1 x_2)} = (a^{x_2})^{x_1}$.
- If $a = 1$, then
 $f(x) = 1$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- For $a > 1$, the function $f(x)$ is a strictly increasing and concave upward with

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = \infty \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} a^x = 0.$$

- For $a < 1$, the function a^x is strictly decreasing, concave upward with

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} a^x = \infty.$$

(v) For $a \neq 1$, a^x is one-one and its range is $(0, \infty)$. If $g : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the inverse of f , then

$$g(x) = \left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln a} \right) \text{ for all } x \in (0, \infty).$$

The function g is denoted by \log_a . Thus,

$$\log_a(x) = \left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln a} \right) \text{ for all } x \in (0, \infty).$$



20.1.2 Theorem:

For $a > 0$, the function
 $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$, $f(x) = a^x$
 has the following properties:

- (i) $f(0) = 1$.
- (ii) $f'(x) = (\ln a) f(x)$.
- (iii) $(a^{x_1})^{x_2} = a^{(x_1 x_2)} = (a^{x_2})^{x_1}$.
- (iv) If $a = 1$, then
 $f(x) = 1$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.
- (v) For $a > 1$, the function $f(x)$ is a strictly increasing and concave upward with

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = \infty \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} a^x = 0.$$

- (vi) For $a < 1$, the function a^x is strictly decreasing, concave upward with

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} a^x = \infty.$$

- (v) For $a \neq 1$, a^x is one-one and its range is $(0, \infty)$. If $g : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the inverse of f , then

$$g(x) = \left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln a} \right) \text{ for all } x \in (0, \infty).$$

The function g is denoted by \log_a . Thus,

$$\log_a(x) = \left(\frac{\ln x}{\ln a} \right) \text{ for all } x \in (0, \infty).$$

Proof:

The statement (i) follows since,

$$f(0) := \exp(0) = 1.$$

20.1.3 Definition:

The function $\log_a(x)$, $x \in (0, \infty)$ is called the logarithmic function with base a .

20.1.4 Note:

For $a = e$, the power function e^x , is given by

$$e^x = \exp(x \ln e) = \exp(x) \text{ for every } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

20.1.5 Examples:

(i) Consider the function

$$f(x) = x^x, x > 0.$$

Let us analyse if for regions of increasing / decreasing and concavity. Since,

$$f(x) = \exp(x \ln x),$$

$$f'(x) = \exp(x \ln x) \left(x \cdot \frac{1}{x} + \ln x \right)$$

$$= x^x (1 + \ln(x)) > 0 \text{ for all } x > 0.$$

Thus $f(x)$ is a strictly increasing function.

Further

$$f''(x) = f'(x) \left(1 + \ln(x) \right) + f(x) \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} \right)$$

$$= x^x (1 + \ln(x))^2 + \frac{x^x (x+1)}{x} > 0,$$

it is a concave up function.

(ii) Let

$$f(x) = \frac{\ln(x)}{x}, x > 0.$$

Then

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

Since, $f'(x) > 0$ for $(0, e)$ and $f'(x) < 0$ for (e, ∞) , we have

$f(x)$ is strictly increasing on $(0, e)$,

$f(x)$ is strictly decreasing on (e, ∞) ,

and f has a global minimum on $x = e$.

Thus, if $0 < a < b$, then

$$\frac{\ln(b)}{b} < \frac{\ln(a)}{a},$$

i.e., $a \ln(b) < b \ln(a)$

i.e., $\ln(b^a) < \ln(a^b)$.

Since $\ln(x)$ is a monotonically increasing function, above implies that

$$b^a < a^b$$

In particular, since $e < 3 < \pi$, we get the following inequalities:

$$3^e < e^3, \pi^e < e^\pi, \pi^3 < 3^\pi.$$



PRACTICE EXERCISES

1. Analyse the following functions for the region of increase/ decrease:

(i) $f(x) = x^{\frac{2}{x}}, x > 0.$

(ii) $f(x) = \log_2\left(\frac{x_2}{x-1}\right), x > 1.$

2. Sketch a graph of the following functions:

(i) $f(x) = 3^x, x > 0.$

(ii) $f(x) = 2^{-1/x}, x > 0.$

(iii) $f(x) = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{x^2}, x > 0.$

3. Find equation of the tangent to the following at the indicated points

(i) $f(x) = \log_4 x + \log_4 x^2$ at $x = 1.$

(ii) $f(x) = (\log_2 x)(\log_4 x)$ at $x = 1.$

Recap

In this section you have learnt the following

- How to define the power (exponential) function for arbitrary positive base.

Section - 20.2

Objectives

In this section you will learn the following :

- How derivative function is useful in computing limits of the form $\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\infty}{\infty}$ and so on.

20.2 L'Hopital's Rule

In this section we shall see how the derivative function is useful in computing limits of certain types of functions.

20.2.1 Example:

Consider the function

$$f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x^2+5}-3}{x^2-4}, x \neq \pm 2.$$

We want to analyse $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$. We note that simply putting $x = 2$ in the above formula does not help, as f is not defined at $x = 2$, and

$$g(x) := \sqrt{x^2+5}-3 = 0 = h(x) = x^2-4, \text{ for } x = 2.$$

However, both $g(x)$ and $h(x)$ are differentiable at $x = 2$. Thus, we may assume that near $x = 2$,

$$f(x) \cong \frac{g(a) + (x-2)g'(a)}{h(a) + (x-2)h'(a)} = \frac{x}{2x}.$$

Thus, we should expect that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2+5}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{2x} \right) = \frac{1}{6}.$$

In fact, the above does hold and is made precise in the next theorem.

20.2.2 Theorem (L'Hopital Rule $\frac{0}{0}$ form)

Let $g, h: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be functions such that the following hold:

- (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} g(x) = 0 = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} h(x)$.
- (ii) $g(x)$ and $h(x)$ are differentiable in (a, b) with $h'(x) \neq 0$.
- (iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \left(\frac{g(x)}{h(x)} \right)$ exists, says L .

Then,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \left(\frac{g(x)}{h(x)} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \left(\frac{g'(x)}{h'(x)} \right) = L.$$

20.2.4 Note:

- (i) Theorem 20.2.2 is applicable for functions g, h defined in intervals of the type (c, a) with $x \rightarrow a^+$ replaced by

$$x \rightarrow a^- :$$

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

whenever the right hand side limit exists.

- (ii) In theorem 20.2.2, since $g(x) = h(x) = 0$ for $x = a$, the limit

$$\frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} g(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} h(x)} = \frac{0}{0}.$$

This is called indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$.

- (iii) The conclusion of theorem 20.2.2 is also true when $x \rightarrow +\infty$, or $x \rightarrow -\infty$, or $L = +\infty / -\infty$.

20.2.5 Examples:

- (i) Let $g(x) = \sin x$ and $h(x) = x$, then the $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$ is of the form $\frac{0}{0}$, and by theorem 20.2.2,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{\cos x}{1} \right) = 1.$$

- (ii) We want to compute $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \left(\frac{1}{x^{\frac{4}{3}} \sin \left(\frac{1}{x} \right)} \right)$. Let



20.2.2 Theorem (L'Hopital Rule $\frac{0}{0}$ form)

Let $g, h : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be functions such that the following hold:

(i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} g(x) = 0 = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} h(x)$.

- (ii) Both $g(x)$ and $h(x)$ are differentiable in (a, b) with $h'(x) \neq 0$.

(iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \left(\frac{g(x)}{h(x)} \right)$ exists, says L .

Then,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \left(\frac{g(x)}{h(x)} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \left(\frac{g'(x)}{h'(x)} \right) = L.$$

Proof :

The proof is an application of Cauchy's Mean Value theorem.

Let α, β be arbitrary real numbers with

$$a < \alpha < \beta < b.$$

We note that $h(\beta) \neq h(\alpha)$, for otherwise by Roll's theorem we will have $h'(c) = 0$ for some $\alpha < c < \beta$, which is not possible by (ii). Thus, by Cauchy's mean value theorem for $g, h: [\alpha, \beta] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, there exists a point $c \in (\alpha, \beta)$ such that

$$\frac{g(\beta) - g(\alpha)}{h(\beta) - h(\alpha)} = \frac{g'(c)}{h'(c)}. \quad (1)$$

By (iii), given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$L - \epsilon < \frac{g'(x)}{h'(x)} < L + \epsilon, \text{ for all } x \in (a, a + \delta).$$

Now from (1), for $\beta < a + \delta$, we get

$$L - \epsilon < \frac{g(\beta) - g(\alpha)}{h(\beta) - h(\alpha)} < L + \epsilon, \text{ for } a < \beta < a + \delta.$$

Since, this holds for all $a < \alpha < \beta$, letting $\alpha \rightarrow a$, we have $g(\alpha) \rightarrow 0, h(\alpha) \rightarrow 0$, and hence

$$L - \epsilon \leq \frac{g(\beta)}{h(\beta)} \leq L + \epsilon, \text{ for } a < \beta < a + \delta.$$

Hence,

$$\lim_{\beta \rightarrow a^+} \frac{g(\beta)}{h(\beta)} = L.$$



(i) Let

$$g(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 5} - 3 \text{ and } h(x) = x^2 - 4.$$

Then, both $g(x)$ and $h(x)$ satisfy the conditions of the theorem in the interval say $(2, 3)$. Thus,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} \left(\frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 5} - 3}{x^2 - 4} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} \left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + 5}} \right) \left(\frac{1}{2x} \right) = \frac{1}{6}.$$

$$g(x) := x^{-\frac{4}{3}} \text{ and } h(x) = \sin \left(\frac{1}{x} \right).$$

Then, $\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{g(x)}{h(x)}$ is of the form $\frac{0}{0}$, and hence

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{x^{-\frac{4}{3}}}{\sin \frac{1}{x}} \right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{-\frac{4}{3} x^{-\frac{4}{3}-1}}{\cos \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) \left(-\frac{1}{x^2} \right)} \right) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{4}{3x \cos \left(\frac{1}{x} \right)} \right) \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

(iii) Let us compute

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x^3}$$

The required limit is of the form $\frac{0}{0}$. Thus

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

We give below (without proof) some other terms of the L'Hopital's rule:

20.2.6 Theorem (L'Hopital's rule, $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ form):

Let $g, h : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be differentiable functions such that $h'(x) \neq 0$ for every x and

$$(i) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} g(x) = \pm\infty = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} h(x).$$

$$(ii) \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{g'(x)}{h'(x)} = M, \text{ exists,}$$

where $M \in \mathbb{R}$ or $M = +\infty / -\infty$.

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \left(\frac{g(x)}{h(x)} \right) = M$$

20.2.7 Note:

(i) The conclusions of theorem 20.2.6 also holds when $x \rightarrow a^+$ is replaced by $x \rightarrow a^-$, provided g, h are defined

in some interval (c, a) .

(ii) The conclusion of theorem 20.2.6 also holds when g, h are defined in some interval $(a, +\infty)$ and $x \rightarrow +\infty$ (or

in some interval $(-\infty, a)$ and $x \rightarrow -\infty$).

(iii) L'Hopital's rule also becomes applicable to indeterminate forms like $\infty - \infty, 0(-\infty), 1^\infty$ and so on. In most of

these cases, we can bring the required limit to $\frac{0}{0}$ or $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ form.

20.2.8 Examples:

$$(i) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\ln(\sin x)}{\ln(x)} \quad \left(\frac{-\infty}{\infty} \text{ form} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\frac{\cos x}{\sin x}}{\frac{1}{x}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{x}{\sin x} \right) (\cos x) \\ &= 1. \end{aligned}$$

$$(ii) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\ln(x)}{x} \right) \quad \left(\frac{\infty}{\infty} \text{ form} \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

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

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{\sin x - x}{x \sin x} \right) \quad \left(\frac{0}{0} \right) \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{\cos x - 1}{\sin x + x \cos x} \right) \quad \left(\frac{0}{0} \right) \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{-\sin x}{2 \cos x - x \sin x} \right) \\
&= \frac{0}{2} = 0.
\end{aligned}$$

(iv) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (x \ln x) \quad (0 - (-\infty))$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{\ln x}{\frac{1}{x}} \right) \quad \left(\frac{-\infty}{+\infty} \right) \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left(\frac{1}{x} \right) (-x^2) \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}$$

(v) To compute $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} \right)^x$ which is of the form 1^∞ , we write

$$f(x) := \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} \right)^x.$$

using the fact that $\ln(x)$ is continuous,

Applying \ln function to both sides, and taking limit,

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

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\ln \left(1 + \frac{1}{x} \right)}{\frac{1}{x}} \right) \quad \left(\frac{0}{0} \text{ form} \right) \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left(\frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{x}} \right) \left(-\frac{1}{x^2} \right)}{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{1 + \frac{1}{x}} \right) = 1.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln(f(x)) = 1.$$

Since $\exp(x)$ is a continuous function, we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \exp(1) = e.$$

Hence,

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

20.2.11 Remark

- (i) L'Hopital's rule should not be taken as a golden rule, applicable always. For example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\tan x}{\sec x} \text{ is of the form } \frac{\infty}{\infty}, \text{ since}$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2}(\tan x) = \tan x, \quad \frac{d^2}{dx^2}(\sec x) = \sec x,$$

L'Hopital's rule will yield no result.

- (ii) Consider

$$I = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 + \sin x}{x^2}.$$

It is of the form $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$, and if we apply L'Hopital's rule twice, we get

$$I = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x + \cos x}{2x}, \quad \left(\frac{\infty}{\infty} \text{ form} \right)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 - \sin x}{2},$$

and the last limit does not exist. However, from this we cannot conclude that I does not exist.

In fact,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{x^2 + \sin x}{x^2} \right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{\sin x}{x^2} \right) \\ &= 1 + \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{\sin x}{x^2} \right) \\ &= 1, \end{aligned}$$

because

$$\left| \frac{\sin x}{x^2} \right| \leq \frac{1}{x^2} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$



PRACTICE EXERCISES

1. Evaluate the following limits:

- (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} (\sin x - \tan x).$
- (ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(x - \sqrt{x + x^2} \right).$
- (iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x - 1 + (x^2/2)}{x^4}.$

2. Let $f, g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} x+2, & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) := \begin{cases} x+1, & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x = 0, \end{cases}$$

Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = 1$, but $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 2$. Does this contradict L'Hopital's Rule?

3. Evaluate the following:

- (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln x.$

$$(ii) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(\ln x)}{\ln x}.$$

$$(iii) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^5}{e^x}.$$

$$(iv) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{5^{\sin x} - 1}{x}.$$

4. Using L'Hopital's Rule, analyze the convergence of the sequence whose n th term is given below. In case it is

convergent, find the limit.

$$(i) \left(1 + \frac{\alpha}{n}\right)^n, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$(ii) \frac{n!}{10^n}.$$

$$(iii) \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^n.$$

$$(iv) \frac{\ln n}{n^n}.$$

5. Suppose f'' exists at $x = a$, compute

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a) - f'(a)h}{h^2}.$$

Recap

In this section you have learnt the following

- How derivative function is useful in computing limits of indeterminate the form $\frac{0}{0}$, $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ and so on.