

## HOMEWORK QUIZ 1 SOLUTIONS

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6. An example of a limit whose form as  $x \rightarrow 0$  is  $\infty/\infty$  is  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ln x / (1/x)$ .  
 17. Don't forget that ln only applies to one symbol on its right, unless parentheses are involved.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow e} \frac{\ln x - 1}{x - e} \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \ln e - 1 = 0 \\ \searrow e - e = 0 \end{array} \stackrel{\text{L'H}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow e} \frac{\frac{1}{x} - 0}{1 - 0} = \frac{1/e}{1} = \frac{1}{e}.$$

25. Don't forget the Chain Rule when differentiating the denominator.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} \frac{\cos x + 1}{(x - \pi)^2} \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \cos \pi + 1 = 0 \\ \searrow (\pi - \pi)^2 = 0 \end{array} \stackrel{\text{L'H}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} \frac{-\sin x + 0}{2(x - \pi) \cdot (1 - 0)} \begin{array}{l} \nearrow -\sin \pi = 0 \\ \searrow 2(\pi - \pi) = 0 \end{array} \stackrel{\text{L'H}}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} \frac{-\cos x}{2 \cdot 1} = \frac{-\cos \pi}{2} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

53.

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{\theta \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} (\tan \theta - \sec \theta) \rightarrow \infty - \infty \\ & \lim_{\theta \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \left( \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta} - \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \right) \\ & \lim_{\theta \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \left( \frac{\sin \theta - 1}{\cos \theta} \right) \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \sin \frac{\pi}{2} - 1 = 0 \\ \searrow \cos \frac{\pi}{2} = 0 \end{array} \\ & \lim_{\theta \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \frac{\cos \theta}{-\sin \theta} \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \cos \frac{\pi}{2} = 0 \\ \searrow -\sin \frac{\pi}{2} = -1 \end{array} \\ & \frac{0}{-1} \\ & 0 \end{aligned}$$

69. This is covered in the textbook on pp. 297-299. We compute

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^{10}}{e^{.01x}} \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \infty \\ \searrow \infty \end{array} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{10x^9}{.01e^{.01x}} \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \infty \\ \searrow \infty \end{array} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{10 \cdot 9x^8}{(.01)^2 e^{.01x}} \begin{array}{l} \nearrow \infty \\ \searrow \infty \end{array} = \dots = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{10!}{(.01)^{10} e^{.01x}} \begin{array}{l} \nearrow 10! \\ \searrow \infty \end{array} \rightarrow 0.$$

When the limit of the ratios of the functions is 0, the denominator grows much faster than the numerator. Hence  $e^{.01x}$  grows much faster than  $x^{10}$ .

*Remark:* When we write an exclamation point to the right of a number, it means to multiply that number to all the positive integers below it. In this case,  $10! = 10 \times 9 \times 8 \times 7 \times \dots \times 2 \times 1$ .

103. (a) Compound interest pays (or charges) interest on the *balance in the account* at the end of each compounding period. Here,

$$\begin{aligned}
 B(0) &= \underbrace{P}_{\text{initial deposit}} . \\
 B(1) &= \underbrace{P}_{\text{initial deposit}} + \underbrace{Pr}_{\text{interest on balance}} \\
 &= P(1+r) . \\
 B(2) &= \underbrace{P(1+r)}_{\text{amount in account after 1 yr}} + \underbrace{[P(1+r)]r}_{\text{interest on balance}} \\
 &= \underbrace{P(1+r)}_{\text{common factor}} \times \left( \underbrace{1}_{\frac{P(1+r)}{P(1+r)}} + \underbrace{r}_{\frac{[P(1+r)]r}{P(1+r)}} \right) \\
 &= P(1+r)^2 \\
 &\vdots \\
 B(t) &= \underbrace{P(1+r)^{t-1}}_{\text{amount in account after } t-1 \text{ years}} + \underbrace{[P(1+r)^{t-1}]r}_{\text{interest on balance}} \\
 &= \underbrace{P(1+r)^{t-1}}_{\text{common factor}} \times \left( \underbrace{1}_{\frac{P(1+r)^{t-1}}{P(1+r)^{t-1}}} + \underbrace{r}_{\frac{[P(1+r)^{t-1}]r}{P(1+r)^{t-1}}} \right) \\
 &= P(1+r)^{t-1} .
 \end{aligned}$$

(b) Since

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P \left(1 + \frac{r}{m}\right)^{mt} = P \cdot \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{r}{m}\right)^{mt} \rightarrow P \cdot (1+0)^\infty ,$$

we see the indeterminate form  $1^\infty$  and realize we need to rewrite the expression using a logarithm. Let  $y = (1 + r/m)^{mt}$  (the problematic part of the limit); by properties of logarithms,

$$\ln y = \ln (1 + r/m)^{mt} = (mt) \ln (1 + r/m) ,$$

so instead of  $\ln y$  we consider

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \ln y = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} (mt) \ln (1 + r/m) \rightarrow m \cdot \infty \cdot \ln (1 + 0) \rightarrow m \cdot \infty \cdot \ln 1 \rightarrow m \cdot \infty \cdot 0 .$$

We cannot apply L'Hôpital's Rule directly to this expression; we need to rewrite it so that the limit approaches  $0/0$  or  $\pm\infty/\pm\infty$ . In this case, the easier way to accomplish this is to write

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln (1 + r/m)}{1/mt} \begin{matrix} \nearrow \ln(1+0) \rightarrow 0 \\ \searrow 1/\infty \rightarrow 0 \end{matrix} \stackrel{\text{L'H}}{=} \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{1+r/m} \cdot (-r/m^2)}{-1/m^2 \cdot 1/t} = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left( rt \times \frac{1}{1+r/m} \right) \rightarrow rt \times \frac{1}{1+0} = rt .$$

This is the limit of  $\ln y$ . Substituting into its definition, we have

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \ln y = rt \quad \Rightarrow \quad \ln \left( \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} y \right) = rt \quad \Rightarrow \quad \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} y = e^{rt} .$$

We wanted  $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} y$  to start with; combining with the  $P$  that we omitted while we worked on the limit, we have

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} P \left(1 + \frac{r}{m}\right)^{mt} = Pe^{rt},$$

as claimed.

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1. Newton's method approximates roots of a function using roots of tangents lines. Near the point of intersection, a tangent line travels in roughly the same direction as the curve. So, if we compute a tangent line near the actual root, the tangent line's root should approximate the actual root.

5. Use

$$x_{i+1} = -\frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)} + x_i = -\frac{x_i^2 - 6}{2x_i} + x_i.$$

If we start at  $x_0 = 3$ , this gives us the successive approximations  $x_1 = 2.5$  and  $x_2 = 2.45$ , which rounds to 2.50. We can therefore stop the algorithm.

15. For the root of  $f(x) = \sin x - x/2$ , use

$$x_{i+1} = -\frac{f(x_i)}{f'(x_i)} + x_i = -\frac{\sin x_i - x/2}{\cos x_i - 1/2}.$$

A glance at a graph suggests that  $x = 2$  is close to the root. Starting from there, we obtain the approximations

$$x_0 = 2, \quad x_1 = 1.90, \quad x_2 = 1.90,$$

so we take  $x \approx 1.90$  as one root. A second glance at the graph suggests  $x = 0$  is close to the root. In fact,  $x = 0$  is a root, as we discover if we try to use Newton's method. A third glance shows that  $x = -2$  is close to the root. While skipping the details, we point out that this gives

$$x_0 = -2, \quad x_1 = -1.90, \quad x_2 = -1.90.$$

So the there roots are approximately  $x = 0$ ,  $x = 1.90$ , and  $x = -1.90$ .

27. (a) *True*: We approximate using roots of tangent lines. The tangent lines are themselves approximations to the curve at the points of intersection.  
 (b) *False*: The quadratic formula gives *exact* answers, but Newton's Method provides only *approximate* answers.  
 (c) *False*: Newton's method can find the exact root in certain circumstance; for example, when  $f(x) = mx + b$  for non-zero integers  $m$  and  $b$ .