

S4.1 Related Rates

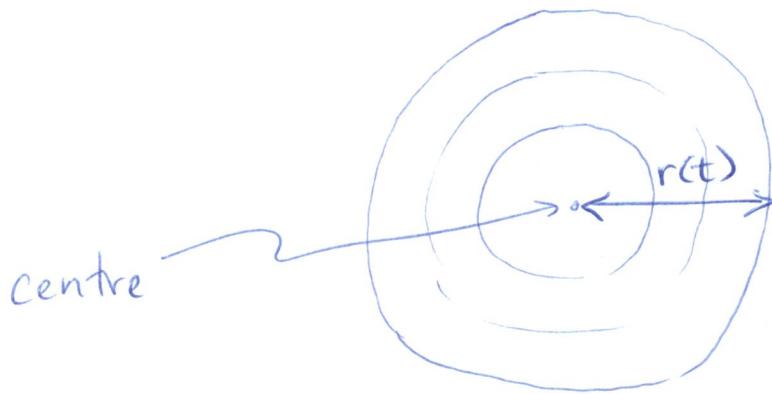
A related rate problem is a type of word problem centred around the following idea:

Given a relation between quantities that change with time, we can differentiate to obtain a relation involving rates of change.

Example: A pebble is dropped into a still pond, creating circular ripples whose radius grows at a rate of 1m/s. How fast is the area of the ripples growing when the radius is 2m?

Solution: We have:

Radius $r(t)$, and $\frac{dr}{dt} = 1 \text{ m/s}$. The picture is:



The area is $A = \pi r^2$ (this relates our known quantity—radius—to the unknown, area).

Differentiate (implicitly) :

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = 2\pi r \cdot \frac{dr}{dt} \quad (\text{recall } r=r(t) \text{ is a function of } t)$$

So, if we want to know $\frac{dA}{dt}$ when $r(t)=2m$, we can

simply plug in $r(t)=2$, $\frac{dr}{dt}=1\text{ m/s}$. and get:

$$\frac{dA}{dt} = 2\pi(2) \cdot 1 = 4\pi \text{ m}^2/\text{s}.$$

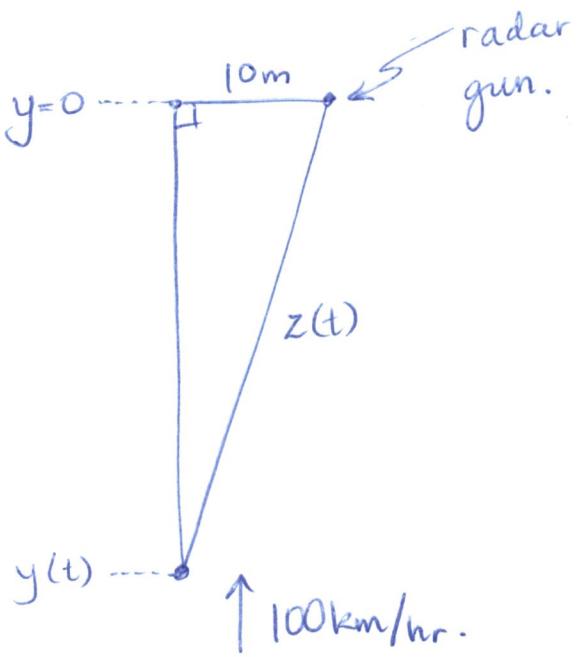
Answer: The area is changing at $4\pi \text{ m}^2/\text{s}$ when $r(t)=2$.

Example: Radar speed guns measure the rate of change of the distance between a moving object and the gun.

Suppose a car is traveling 100km/hr down a straight road towards a radar gun that is placed 300m down the road, and 10m to the side. What is the radar gun's measurement of the car's speed?

Solution: We're given:

The speed of the car, and distance to the radar gun.
So we let $y(t)$ denote the position of the car along the road (so $\frac{dy}{dt}=100 \text{ km/hr}$) as in the diagram:



Attention: We need to use the same unit of distance for every measurement, so replace 10m with $\frac{1}{100}$ km.

The diagram gives:

$$(y(t))^2 + \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^2 = (z(t))^2$$

at all times t .

We're asked to find $\frac{dz}{dt}$ given that $\frac{dy}{dt} = -100\text{km/hr}$

and $y(t) = \frac{3}{10}$ km (300 meters).

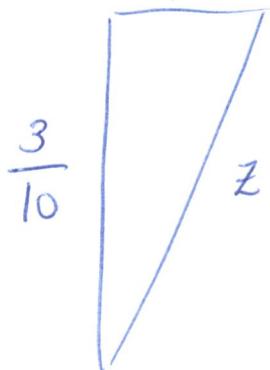
Differentiate: $2y \frac{dy}{dt} + 0 = 2z \frac{dz}{dt}$

$$\Rightarrow y \frac{dy}{dt} = z \frac{dz}{dt}.$$

We know y , $\frac{dy}{dt}$ but not z when $y(t) = 300\text{m}$. We

compute z from:

$$\frac{1}{100}$$



$$\Rightarrow z^2 = \left(\frac{3}{10}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{100}\right)^2 = \frac{901}{100^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow z = \frac{\sqrt{901}}{100}$$

Now plugging in known values:

$$\frac{3}{10}(-100) = \frac{\sqrt{901}}{100} \frac{dz}{dt} \Rightarrow \frac{dz}{dt} = -99.9 \text{ km/h.}$$

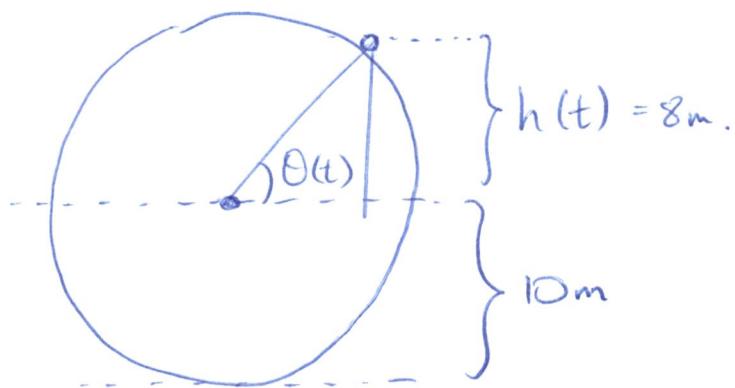
(so close, but not exact).

Example: A Ferris wheel with a radius of 10m is rotating at a rate of one revolution every 2 minutes. How fast is the rider rising when they are 8m above the ground?

Solution: We are given the rate of change of $\theta(t)$, the angle the rider forms with a parallel to the ground: $\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{2\pi}{2\text{min}} = \pi/\text{min.}$

Let $h(t)$ denote the height of the rider above the axis of rotation (we're asked to find $\frac{dh}{dt}$ when $h(t) = 8\text{m}$).

Picture:



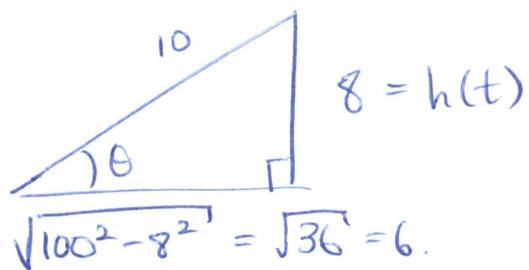
To produce an equation relating these quantities, note $\sin(\theta(t)) = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{hyp}} = \frac{h(t)}{10}$. Differentiating:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \sin(\theta(t)) = \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{h(t)}{10} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \cos \theta(t) \frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{1}{10} \frac{dh}{dt}.$$

We know $\frac{d\theta}{dt}$. To determine $\cos \theta(t)$ when $h(t) = 8$,

observe that we have a triangle:



$$\Rightarrow \cos(\theta(t)) = \frac{3}{5} \text{ when } h(t) = 8.$$

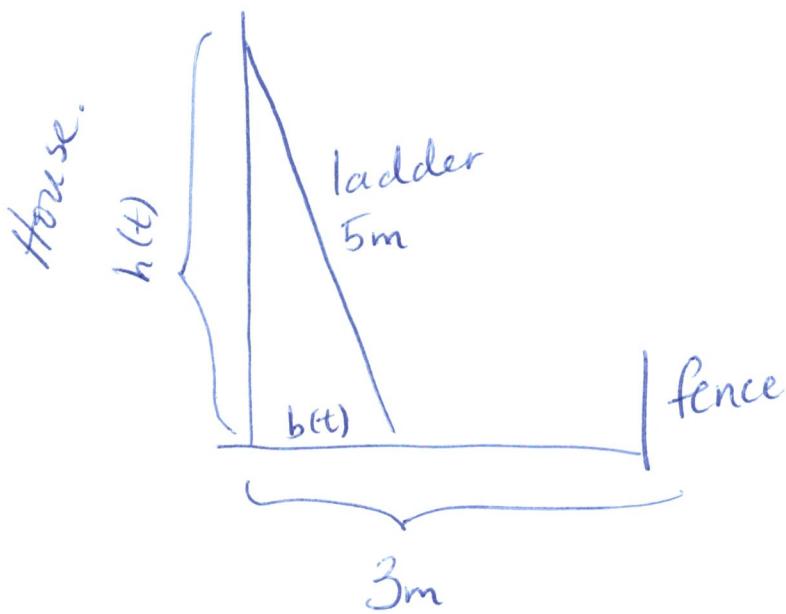
Therefore $\frac{3}{5} \cdot \pi = \frac{1}{10} \frac{dh}{dt} \Rightarrow \frac{dh}{dt} = \frac{30\pi}{5} \text{ m/min.}$

Example: A house is 3m away from a fence marking the edge of the property. A ladder 5m long is leaning against the house, and the top of the ladder begins to slide down at 1m/s. How fast is the bottom of the ladder strike the fence? (i.e. at what speed?)

Solution: We are given information about $h(t)$, the height of the top of the ladder. We know

$\frac{dh}{dt} = -1$. Let $b(t)$ denote the distance of the foot of the ladder from the house.

Picture:



We want ~~the~~

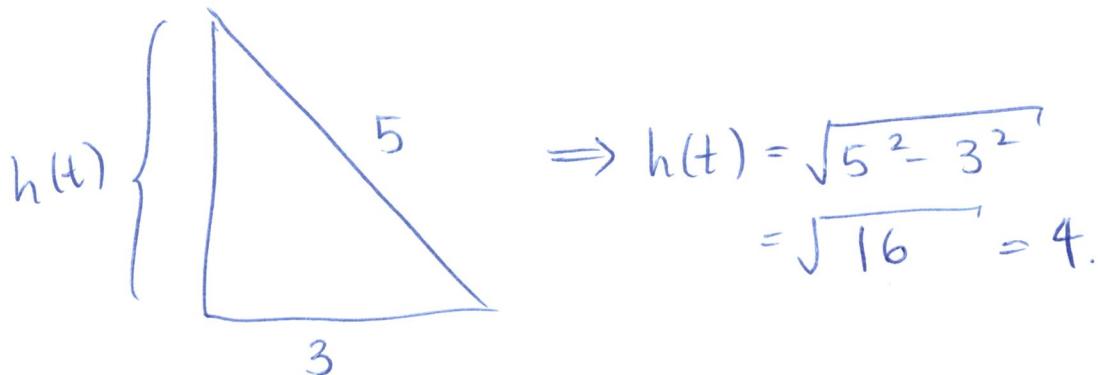
$$\frac{db}{dt} \text{ when } b(t) = 3.$$

Then $(b(t))^2 + (h(t))^2 = 5^2$

$$\Rightarrow 2b(t)\frac{db}{dt} + 2h(t)\frac{dh}{dt} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{db}{dt} = -h(t)\frac{dh}{dt} \cdot \frac{1}{b(t)}$$

When $b(t) = 3$, we have



Therefore $\frac{db}{dt} = -4 \cdot (-1) \cdot \frac{1}{3} = \frac{4}{3} \text{ m/s.}$

MATH 1230§4.3 L'Hôpital's Rule (~ 1696 , sometimes attributed to Bernoulli).

L'Hôpital's rule is a method of evaluating limits that yield problems using other methods.

E.g. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$, but if we simply take the limits of the top and bottom we get $\frac{\lim \sin x}{\lim x} = \frac{0}{0}$. This

is called an indeterminate form of type $\frac{0}{0}$.

Similarly, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(\frac{1}{x^2})}{\cot(x^2)}$ is an indeterminate form of type $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$, since $\frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ln(\frac{1}{x^2})}{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cot(x^2)} = \frac{\infty}{\infty}$.

~~L'Hôpital's rule:~~

Suppose that f and g are both differentiable on (a, b) , and that c is a number in (a, b) . Assume $g'(x) \neq 0$ anywhere in (a, b) , except possibly at c . Then

(i) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = 0$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists

or is equal to $\pm\infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$.

(ii) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = \pm\infty$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ exists

or is $\pm\infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$.

Remarks: ① We could also have $a = -\infty$, $b = +\infty$ in the theorem above, and replace $x \rightarrow c$ with $x \rightarrow a^+$, $x \rightarrow b^-$, or $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$.

② The book states L'Hôpital's rule incorrectly and as a result this section is replete with logical inconsistencies. A better resource for the technical matters behind L'Hôpital's rule is wikipedia (the error is that $g'(x) \neq 0$ for all (a, b))

Example: Evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}$.

Solution: Note that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x = 0$,

so we have an indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$. Note also that $\frac{d}{dx}(x) = 1$, so $g'(x) \neq 0$ (where $g(x)$ is the bottom).

So by L'Hôpital's rule

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

Example: Evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2\sin x - \sin(2x)}{2e^x - 2 - 2x - x^2}$ (Example 2 in the book)

Solution: First note that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 2\sin x - \sin(2x) = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 2e^x - 2 - 2x - x^2 = 0.$$

So it's a $\frac{0}{0}$ indeterminate form. L'Hôpital's rule gives:

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2\sin x - \sin(2x)}{2e^x - 2 - 2x - x^2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2\cos x - 2\cos(2x)}{2e^x - 2 - 2x} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{differentiate top and} \\ \text{bottom.} \end{array} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Now $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} 2\cos x - 2\cos(2x) = 2 - 2 = 0$ and

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

So it's still $\frac{0}{0}$. Try again:

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2\sin x + 4\sin(2x)}{2e^x - 2} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{diff top and bottom} \end{array} \right\}$$

We still get $\frac{0}{0}$. Try again:

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-2\cos x + 8\cos(2x)}{2e^x}$$

$$= \frac{-2 + 8}{2} = 3.$$

Example: Evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{e^x}$.

Solution: Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^n = \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^x = \infty$, thus is an indeterminate form $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$. So we apply L'Hôpital's rule:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^n}{e^x} \stackrel{HR}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{nx^{n-1}}{e^x} \quad (\text{still } \frac{\infty}{\infty})$$

$$\stackrel{HR}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(n-1)x^{n-2}}{e^x} \quad (\text{still } \frac{\infty}{\infty})$$

$$\stackrel{HR}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(n-1)(n-2)x^{n-3}}{e^x} \quad (\text{still } \frac{\infty}{\infty})$$

} as long
as $n-1$,
 $n-2$ and
 $n-3$ are
not 0!

: keep going until $x^{n-n} = x^0 = 1$, we get

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n!}{e^x} = n! \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^{-x} = 0, \text{ done.}$$

Remark: Though the intermediate steps will be messy, this is true of any polynomial/exponential quotient. That is,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\text{polynomial}}{\text{exponential}} = 0,$$

as long as the exponential has base bigger than 1 (ie. a^x for $a > 1$), so that it grows as $x \rightarrow \infty$ instead of shrinking).

There are many other indeterminate forms, like $0 \cdot \infty$, $\infty - \infty$, 0^0 , ∞^0 , etc... generally

one deals with these by trying to algebraically change them into $\frac{0}{0}$ or $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$.

Example: Evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \sin(\frac{3}{x}))^x$.

Solution: This is of the form 1^∞ , since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 1 + \sin\left(\frac{3}{x}\right) = 1 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x = \infty. \text{ However we}$$

can change it to $\frac{0}{0}$.

If $L = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \sin(\frac{3}{x}))^x$, then

$$\begin{aligned} \ln(L) &= \ln\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \sin\left(\frac{3}{x}\right)\right)^x\right) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln\left(1 + \sin\left(\frac{3}{x}\right)\right)^x \quad \begin{matrix} \text{limit laws: can} \\ \text{pass a limit inside a} \\ \text{continuous function.} \end{matrix} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x \cdot \ln\left(1 + \sin\left(\frac{3}{x}\right)\right) \quad \begin{matrix} \text{algebra} \\ \text{trick!} \end{matrix} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln\left(1 + \sin\left(\frac{3}{x}\right)\right)}{\frac{1}{x}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln\left(1 + \sin\left(\frac{3}{x}\right)\right) = \ln(1) = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0.$$

So it's $\frac{0}{0}$, and we can apply L'Hopital's rule:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{1 + \sin(\frac{3}{x})} \cdot \cos(\frac{3}{x}) \cdot -\frac{3}{x^2}}{-\frac{1}{x^2}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3\cos\left(\frac{3}{x}\right)}{1 + \sin\left(\frac{3}{x}\right)} = \frac{3}{1} = 3.$$

Finally, a word of caution: If you attempt to apply L'Hopital's rule to a limit that is not an indeterminate form, you may get the wrong answer.

Example (WRONG method)!

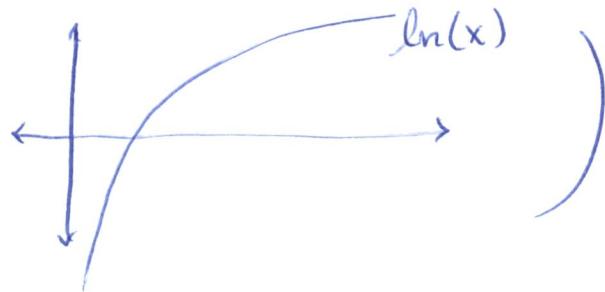
Evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{x}{\ln(x)}$.

Solution: (WRONG method first)!

Suppose we tried L'Hopital's rule. Then we'd say,

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

However this is wrong! Recall that $\ln(1) = 0$, and if $x > 1$ then $\ln(x) > 0$ (the graph is



So in fact $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{x}{\ln(x)} = \infty$, since the bottom is positively approaching 0 as the top approaches 1.

§4.4 Extreme Values.

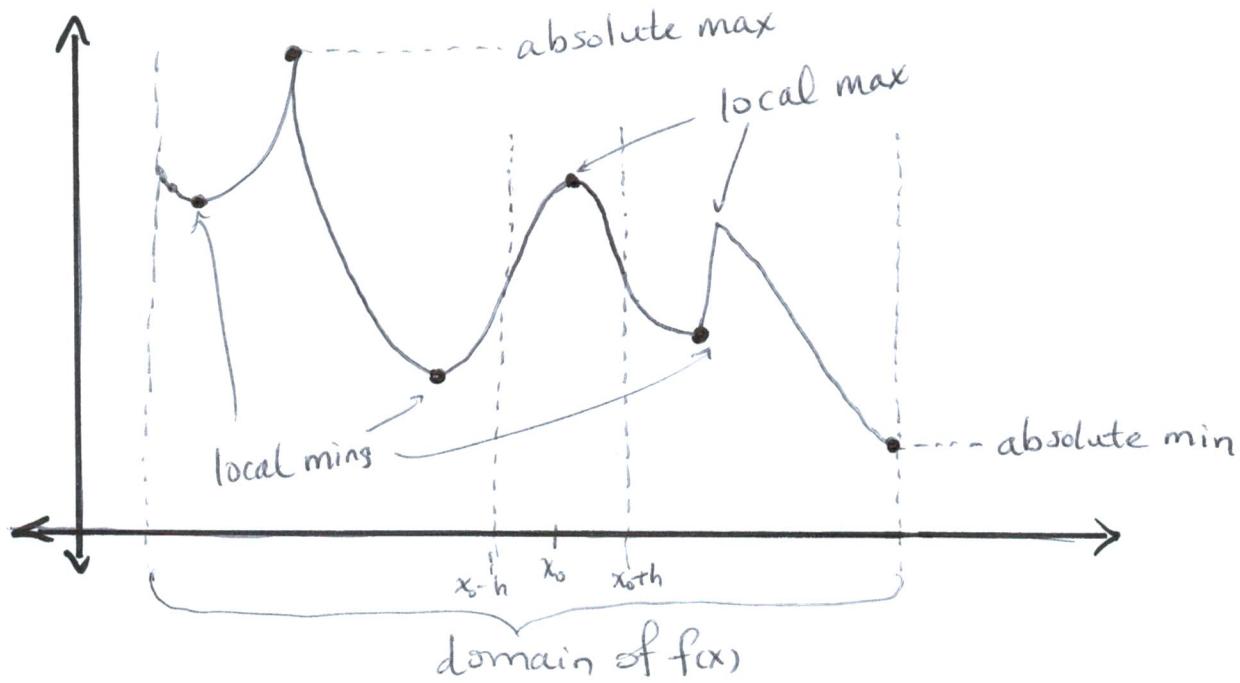
If $f(x)$ is a function, then the max/min values of $f(x)$ together are referred to as extreme values. There are two kinds of extreme values: absolute and local.

Absolute: A point x_0 in the domain of $f(x)$ gives an absolute max value $f(x_0)$ of $f(x)$ if $f(x) \leq f(x_0)$ for all x in the domain.

Similarly $f(x_0)$ an absolute min $\Leftrightarrow f(x) \geq f(x_0)$ for all x in the domain.

Local: A point x_0 gives a local max value of $f(x_0)$ if there's an $h > 0$ such that $f(x) \leq f(x_0)$ whenever ~~$|x-x_0| < h$~~ .

Similarly $f(x_0)$ a local min $\Leftrightarrow f(x) \geq f(x_0)$ whenever $|x-x_0| < h$.

Pictures:

We would like to be able to find all x_0 in the domain of a given function $f(x)$ such that $f(x_0)$ is an extreme value. We would then also like to be able to say if $f(x_0)$ is a max or a min.

It turns out that if $f(x_0)$ is an extreme value, then x_0 is one of three kinds of points (if $f(x)$ is continuous):

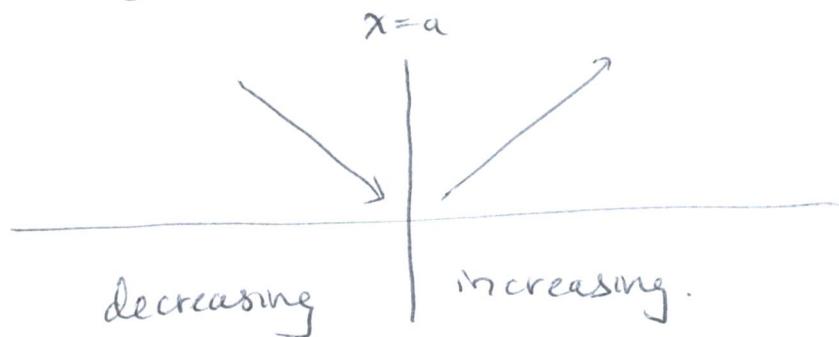
- (i) A critical point of $f(x)$, i.e. a point where $f'(x)=0$
- (ii) An singular point of $f(x)$, i.e. a point where $f'(x)$ is not defined, or
- (iii) An endpoint of the domain of $f(x)$.

[This follows from work we already did, recall we showed that $f'(x)>0 \Rightarrow$ increasing, $f'(x)<0 \Rightarrow$ decreasing, and $f'(x)=0$ must therefore be a max, or min, or possibly a "flat spot".]

So, here is how we find extreme values; and classify them:

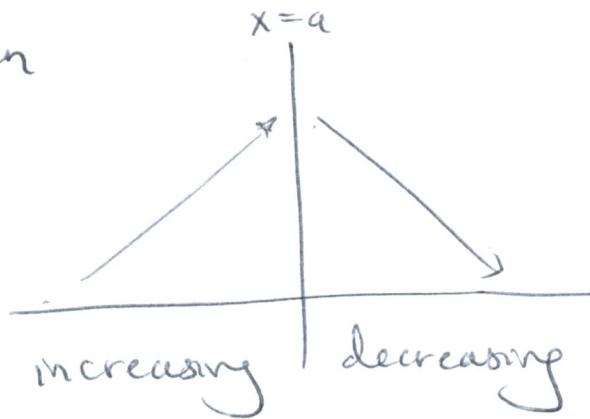
- ① Calculate $f'(x)$, and list all points in the domain of $f(x)$ where $f'(x)=0$ or $f'(x)$ is undefined.
- ② For each point in the list from step 1, we check if it's a max or min by looking at the sign of $f'(x)$.

If $x=a$ is in the list and $f'(x) < 0$ left of a , $f'(x) > 0$ right of a , then $f(x)$ looks like:



So $x=a$ is obviously a minimum.

If $x=a$ is in the list and $f'(x) > 0$ for $x < a$, $f'(x) < 0$ for $x > a$, then



and $x=a$ is a max.

If $f'(x)$ does not change sign at $x=a$, then we don't have a max or min.

Example: Find and classify the extreme values of

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

Solution: First, we note that the domain of $f(x)$ is $[-1, 1]$ since the domain of $\sin^{-1}(x)$ is $[-1, 1]$. Next, we compute

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now we calculate: } f'(x) = 0 &\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = 2 \\ &\Rightarrow \sqrt{1-x^2} = \frac{1}{2} \\ &1-x^2 = \frac{1}{4} \\ &\Rightarrow x^2 = \frac{\pm\sqrt{3}}{2}, \text{ note } \frac{\pm\sqrt{3}}{2} \text{ is in } [-1, 1] \end{aligned}$$

Also note that $f'(x)$ is only undefined at the endpoints $x=\pm 1$ of the domain, because there we get division by zero.

So our list is: $\{-1, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, 1\}$.

Next we need to determine the sign of $f'(x)$ on each of the intervals $[-1, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}]$, $(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})$, $(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, 1)$ in order to classify the points from the previous step. (Actually, the sign of $f'(x)$ changes on $(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})$.) We can choose 'test points' for $f'(x)$ in each interval:

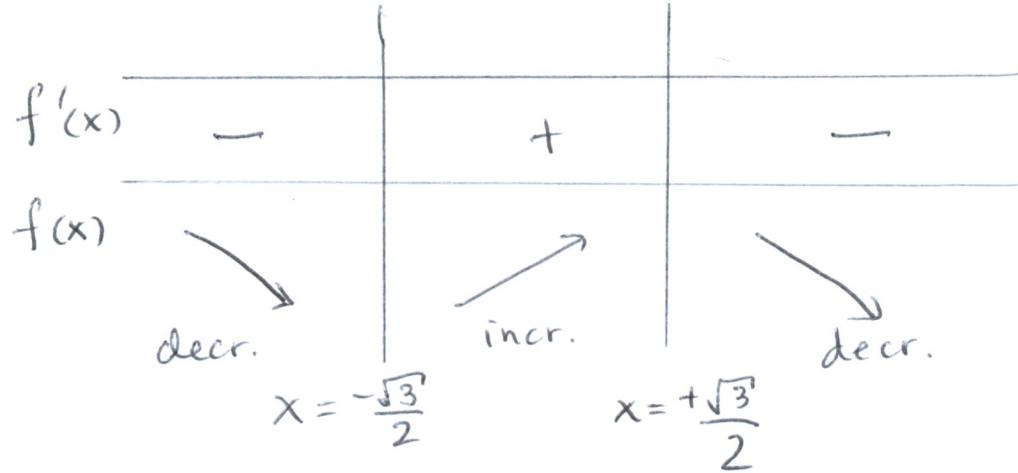
In $(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})$ we test $x=0$ and find

$$f'(0) = 2 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-0}} = 1, \text{ so } f'(x) \text{ is positive on } (-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}).$$

On $(-1, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})$ and $(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, 1)$ we test at $\pm \frac{8}{7} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = \frac{8\sqrt{3}}{14}$.

$$f'(\pm \frac{8\sqrt{3}}{14}) = 2 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{192}{196}}} = 2 - \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{49}}} = 2 - \frac{1}{\frac{1}{7}} = -5.$$

So $f'(x)$ is negative on $(-1, -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})$ and $(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, 1)$. Thus we have:



Therefore $x=1$ and $x=-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ are minima, and

$x=-1$ and $x=\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ are maxima.

"By the first derivative test" (Say this to explain how you arrived at your answer).

To determine which is an absolute max and which is a local max, we plug in:
(or min)

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

$$= 2 - \frac{\pi}{2} \approx 0.43$$

what angle in $[\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi]$ gives $\sin(\theta) = 1$?

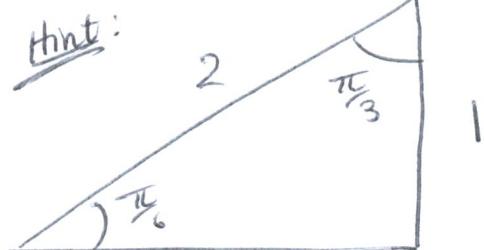
and

$$f\left(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = 2\left(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) - \sin^{-1}\left(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$$

$$= -\sqrt{3} - \left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right)$$

$$\approx -0.68.$$

what angle in $[\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi]$ gives $\sin(\theta) = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$?

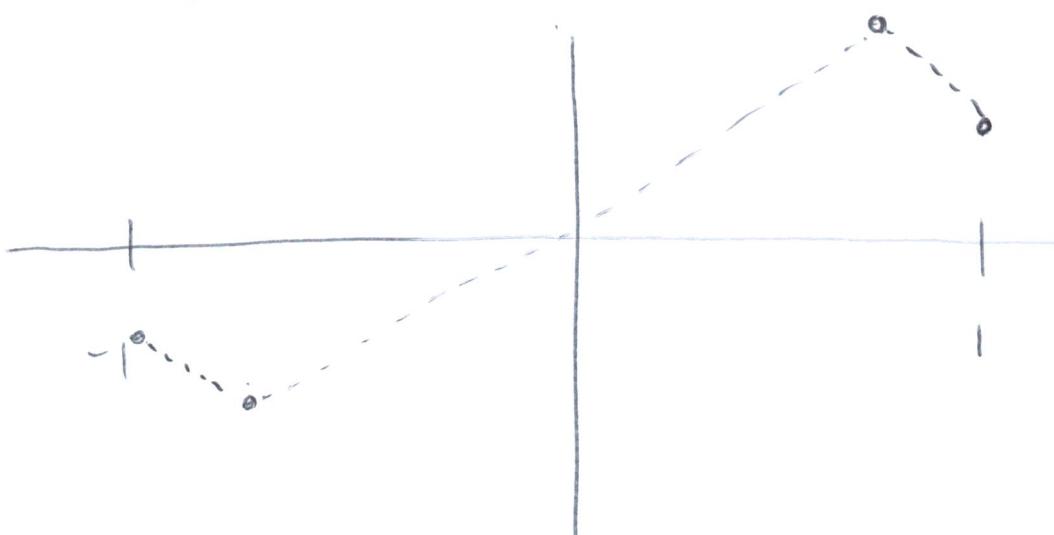


So $x_0 = -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ gives the absolute min of

$$f\left(-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = -\sqrt{3} + \frac{\pi}{3}.$$

Similarly (or, by symmetry) $f\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$ is the absolute max value of $f(x)$.

So the graph of $f(x)$ looks something like:



However, the shape of the graph is a mystery where we have drawn dotted lines. Next class we learn how to analyze these unknown parts.