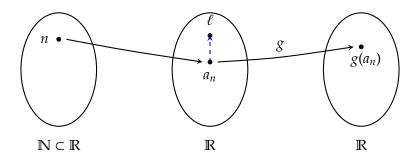
#### Nonexistence of a limit

To show that a limit  $\lim_{x\to x_0} g(y)$  *doesn't* exist we can rely on the previous results. A common method is as follows: as in the figure below, compose g with a sequence  $a_n$  such that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \ell$ . Then try to find another sequence,  $\{b_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ , also satisfying  $\lim_{n\to\infty} b_n = \ell$ , but for which  $\lim_{n\to\infty} g(a_n) \neq \lim_{n\to\infty} g(b_n)$ . Then g doesn't have a limit at  $\ell$ .



**Theorem 5.14** (Criterion for nonexistence of a limit): Let  $g : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be defined in a neighborhood of  $\ell \in \{-\infty\} \cup \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$  (possibly excluding  $\ell$  itself). Suppose that there exist sequences  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $\{b_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  such that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \ell = \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n$  and such that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}g(a_n)\neq\lim_{n\to\infty}g(b_n).$$

Then g(y) does not have a limit as  $y \to \ell$ .

*Proof.* By contradiction. If the limit existed, then the Substitution Theorem would imply that

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}g(a_n)=\lim_{y\to\ell}g(y)=\lim_{n\to\infty}g(b_n),$$

in contradiction to the assumption.

## 5.6 Theorems on limits of sequences

We can now continue the analysis of sequences, which we begun in Section 4.2. To simplify the presentation, let us agree that we say that a sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  satisfies a property **for all large** n if there exists  $N\in\mathbb{N}$  such that for all n>N the sequence satisfies this property. The results we obtained for functions all carry over to sequences, so we can state the following 'big' theorem:

**Theorem 5.15:** 1. The limit of a sequence (if exists) is unique.

- 2. A convergent sequence is bounded.
- 3. A sequence that is monotone for all large *n* cannot be indeterminate.
- 4. For sequences  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\{b_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ , if  $a_n \leq b_n$  for all large n, then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n \leq \lim_{n\to\infty} b_n$ .
- 5. For sequences  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\{b_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\{c_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ , if for all large n,  $a_n \leq b_n \leq c_n$ , and  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = \lim_{n\to\infty} c_n$ , then  $b_n$  has a limit and it is the same limit.

- 6. If two sequences  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$ ,  $\{b_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  have limits  $\lim_{n\to\infty}a_n=\ell_a$  and  $\lim_{n\to\infty}b_n=\ell_b$ , then
  - (a)  $\lim_{n\to\infty} (a_n \pm b_n) = \ell_a \pm \ell_b$
  - (b)  $\lim_{n\to\infty} (a_n \cdot b_n) = \ell_a \cdot \ell_b$
  - (c)  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \left(\frac{a_n}{b_n}\right) = \frac{\ell_a}{\ell_b}$ , if for all large  $n, b_n \neq 0$ ,

whenever the expressions on the right hand side are meaningful.

- 7. If  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  has the limit  $\ell$  and  $g:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$  is defined in a neighborhood of  $\ell$ , then
  - (a) if  $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$  and g is continuous at  $\ell$ , then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} g(a_n) = g(\ell)$ ,
  - (b) if  $\ell = \pm \infty$  and  $\lim_{y \to \ell} g(y)$  exists, then  $\lim_{n \to \infty} g(a_n) = \lim_{y \to \ell} g(y)$ .
- 8.  $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = 0$  if and only if  $\lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n| = 0$ .
- 9. If a sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  is bounded, and another sequence  $\{b_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  satisfies  $\lim_{n\to\infty}b_n=0$ , then  $\lim_{n\to\infty}(a_nb_n)=0$ .

*Proof.* The proof is completely analogous to the various proofs we've seen for functions. We skip it here.  $\Box$ 

For sequences there is an additional useful tool, which relies in the fact that sequences are discrete (as opposed to functions on  $\mathbb{R}$ ):

**Theorem 5.16** (Ratio Test): Let  $\{a_n\}_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence that for is positive for all large n (i.e. there exists  $N\in\mathbb{N}$  such that for all n>N,  $a_n>0$ ). Assume that the limit  $\lim_{n\to\infty}\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}=q$  exists (it may be finite or infinite). Then

- if q < 1, then  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = 0$ ,
- if q > 1, then  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n = +\infty$ ,
- if q = 1, it is impossible to determine whether or not the sequence has a limit.

*Note that the theorem applies also for sequences that are negative for all large n.* 

*Proof.* The proof is simple and we skip it here.

**Example 5.16:** Consider a sequence that we have previously seen:

$$a_n = \frac{n!}{n^{100}}.$$

We have

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = \frac{\frac{(n+1)!}{(n+1)^{100}}}{\frac{n!}{n^{100}}} = \frac{n^{100}(n+1)!}{(n+1)^{100}n!} = \underbrace{\left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{100}}_{\to 1}\underbrace{(n+1)}_{\to +\infty}^{100},$$

hence

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = +\infty$$

so that the sequence  $a_n$  diverges.

# 5.7 Fundamental limits and indeterminate forms of exponential type

We have seen before that

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

Now we show the same result for the function  $\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x$ :

**Claim:** The function  $\left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x$  has limits as  $x \to \pm \infty$ , and

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

*Proof.* Observe that the function  $\left(1+\frac{1}{x}\right)^x$  is defined when  $1+\frac{1}{x}>0$  and  $x\neq 0$ . Hence it is defined when either x>0 or x<-1. We prove for the case  $x\to +\infty$ .

Let  $n = \lceil x \rceil$ . Then

$$n \le x < n + 1$$
.

Hence

$$\frac{1}{n+1} < \frac{1}{x} \le \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow$$

$$1 + \frac{1}{n+1} < 1 + \frac{1}{x} \le 1 + \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\downarrow \downarrow$$

$$\left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^n \le \left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^x < \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x \le \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^x < \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n+1}$$

So we have:

$$\underbrace{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^{n+1}}_{\rightarrow e} \underbrace{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n+1}\right)^{-1}}_{\rightarrow 1} < \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^{x} < \underbrace{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n}}_{\rightarrow e} \underbrace{\left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^{n}}_{\rightarrow 1} \underbrace{\left(1 + \frac{1}$$

So by the Squeeze Theorem,

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

The proof in the case  $x \to -\infty$  follows similarly, taking caution with signs.

Observe that by substituting  $y = \frac{1}{x}$  we have:

$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{x} \right)^x = \lim_{y \to 0} \left( 1 + y \right)^{\frac{1}{y}} = e.$$

Claim:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = 1.$$

Proof.

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

Hence, using the continuity of the logarithm, we have:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\ln(1+x)}{x} = \ln\left(\lim_{x \to 0} (1+x)^{\frac{1}{x}}\right) = e$$

where in the last equality we have used the previous remark (above).

Claim:

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x} = 1.$$

*Proof.* Follows from the previous claim with an appropriate substitutions, we skip this here.  $\Box$ 

## **Useful identities**

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\lim_{x \to \pm \infty} \left(1 + \frac{a}{x}\right)^x = e^a, \quad (a \in \mathbb{R})$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{\log_a (1 + x)}{x} = \frac{1}{\ln a}, \quad (a > 0, a \neq 1)$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{a^x - 1}{x} = \ln a, \quad (a > 0)$$

$$\lim_{x \to 0} \frac{(1 + x)^\alpha - 1}{x} = \alpha, \quad (\alpha \in \mathbb{R})$$

### **Power functions**

## Limits of powers of functions

Let  $h(x) = [f(x)]^{g(x)}$ , let  $x_0 \in \{-\infty\} \cup \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$  and assume that f, g have limits as  $x \to x_0$  and that f > 0 near  $x_0$ . Observe that  $h = e^{g \ln f}$ . Hence, by the continuity of the exponential and the fact that for continuous functions we can commute the operations of taking the limit and applying the function:

$$\lim_{x \to x_0} \left( [f(x)]^{g(x)} \right) = e^{\lim_{x \to x_0} \left( g(x) \ln f(x) \right)}.$$

So we need to study the exponential of  $\lim_{x\to x_0} (g(x) \ln f(x))$ . This is the limit of the product of two functions. We know that it is problematic if we get  $0 \cdot \infty$ . Hence we need to investigate thoroughly in these cases:

- 1.  $\lim_{x\to x_0} g(x) = \pm \infty$  and  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = 1$ , so that we get  $1^{\infty}$ .
- 2.  $\lim_{x \to x_0} g(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \to x_0} f(x) = 0$ , so that we get  $0^0$ .
- 3.  $\lim_{x\to x_0} g(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x\to x_0} f(x) = +\infty$ , so that we get  $\infty^0$ .

# **Example 5.17:** Determine $\lim_{x\to +\infty} x^{\frac{1}{x}}$ .

We see that this has the form  $\infty^0$ . Let  $y = \frac{1}{x}$ , so that the problem becomes  $\lim_{y\to 0^+}(1/y)^y$ . We see that

$$x^{\frac{1}{x}} = \left(\frac{1}{y}\right)^y = e^{y \ln \frac{1}{y}} = e^{-y \ln y}.$$

We will later prove that  $\lim_{y\to 0^+} (y \ln y) = 0$ , so that

$$\lim_{x \to +\infty} x^{\frac{1}{x}} = \lim_{y \to 0^+} e^{-y \ln y} = e^{\lim_{y \to 0^+} (-y \ln y)} = e^0 = 1.$$