due: October 13th

1. Use the precise definition of the limit of a sequence (from page 8.3 of the lecture notes) to prove that $\frac{n}{n+1} \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

(Your proof should begin with a statement like "Let m be given." You'll then need to figure out how large n must be to sotisfy the conditions of the definition.)

- 2. "Infinite Limits" require a slightly different definition: $a_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ if, for any M>0, there exists a number N>0 such that an > M whenever n>N (i.e. n>N => an>M). Use this to prove that $\frac{n^2}{n+1} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.
- 3. Determine the limits of the following sequences, if they exist. You may need to perform some algebraic manipulations in order to apply the limit theorems.

a)
$$\left\{ \frac{5n^2 - 2n}{3n^2 + n + 1} \right\}$$

b)
$$\left\{ \frac{3n^2+1}{2n-4} \right\}$$

b)
$$\left\{ \frac{3n^2+1}{2n-4} \right\}$$
 c) $\left\{ \cos \left(\frac{\pi n}{n+5} \right) \right\}$

d)
$$\{ \{ n^2 + 3n - n \}$$
 e) $\{ \frac{2^n + 3^n}{3^n + 1} \}$

e)
$$\left\{ \frac{2^{n}+3^{n}}{3^{n}+1} \right\}$$

4. Many sequences arise naturally in "recursive" form; that is, rather than having an explicit formula for an as a function of n, we have only a rule for obtaining each term from the previous one. For example, we might know that

$$a_1 = 1$$
, while $a_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left(a_n + \frac{11}{a_n} \right)$

- a) Calculate as.
- b) From (a) it should appear that the sequence is convergent. Find the limit. (Hint: <u>assume</u> that it converges, and realize that if {an} Converges to L, then the shifted sequence {anti} must also converge to L.)
- 5. The same set of limit rules applies to functions as applies to sequences, so, for example, we can evaluate $\lim_{x\to\infty} \frac{x}{12x+1}$ in the same way as $\lim_{n\to\infty} \frac{n}{12n+1}$.

For functions, though, we can also consider limits as $x \to a$. If we know that f is <u>continuous</u> at a, then of course $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = f(a)$; that is, direct substitution of x with a is justified. Even if f is not continuous at a, the behaviour <u>may</u> be clear; eg. $\frac{1}{x} \to +\infty$ as $x \to 0^+$. While $\frac{1}{x} \to -\infty$ as $x \to 0^-$.

The difficulties arise when substitution results in the indeterminate forms $\frac{0}{0}$, $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$, $\infty - \infty$, etc. In these cases we may be able to get around the problem using algebraic manipulation or identities. With this in mind, evaluate the following:

a)
$$\lim_{x \to -1} \frac{x^2(1-x^3)}{2x^2+x+1}$$

b)
$$\lim_{x \to 4} \frac{x^2 - 16}{x - 4}$$

d)
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin 2x}{\sin x}$$

e)
$$\lim_{x\to 0} \frac{\sin 3x}{x}$$

6. a) Sketch the graph of $y = \frac{x^2 + 2x}{x^2 + 2x - 8}$, by considering

the behaviour near any discontinuities and as $x \to \pm \infty$. You may want to use a few specific points to improve the accuracy of your sketch; I'd suggest finding y(-5), y(-1), and y(3).

b) Use the same principles to sketch the graph of $y = \frac{2x^3 + 3x^2}{x^2 + 2x + 1}$

Note: this graph has an oblique asymptote; you can identify it by performing long division.