

- In the case that the sequence is monotone increasing:

★ If  $\sup\{a_n \mid n > N\} < +\infty$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \sup\{a_n \mid n > N\}.$$

★ If  $\sup\{a_n \mid n > N\} = +\infty$ , then the sequence diverges to  $+\infty$ .

- In the case that the sequence is monotone decreasing:

★ If  $\inf\{a_n \mid n > N\} > -\infty$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \inf\{a_n \mid n > N\}.$$

★ If  $\inf\{a_n \mid n > N\} = -\infty$ , then the sequence diverges to  $-\infty$ .

*Proof.* We only prove for the monotone *increasing* case (the decreasing case follows the same proof). For brevity we shall write

$$\sup_{n > N} a_n = \sup\{a_n \mid n > N\}$$

★ Suppose that  $\sup_{n > N} a_n = \ell < +\infty$ . Fix some  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By the definition of the supremum,

1. there exists some index  $N_\varepsilon > N$  such that  $\ell - a_{N_\varepsilon} < \varepsilon$ ;
2. for all  $n > N$ ,  $a_n \leq \ell$ .

Combining these with the fact that the sequence is monotone increasing for  $n > N$ , we have the following sequence of inequalities

$$a_{N+1} \leq a_{N+2} \leq \cdots \leq \underbrace{a_{N_\varepsilon}}_{> \ell - \varepsilon} \leq a_{N_\varepsilon+1} \leq \cdots \leq \ell$$

Neglecting the terms up to  $a_{N_\varepsilon}$ , this can be written as

$$\ell - \varepsilon < a_{N_\varepsilon} \leq a_{N_\varepsilon+1} \leq \cdots \leq \ell$$

This means that for all  $n \geq N_\varepsilon$ ,  $|\ell - a_n| < \varepsilon$ . By the definition of the limit of a sequence, this means that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \ell.$$

★ Now, suppose that  $\sup_{n > N} a_n = +\infty$ . Then (by definition) for every  $A > 0$ , there exists  $N_A > N$  such that  $a_{N_A} > A$ . So we have

$$A < a_{N_A} \leq a_{N_A+1} \leq \cdots$$

By definition, this precisely means that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = +\infty.$$

□

**Example 4.3:** 1. The sequence  $a_n = \frac{n}{n+1}$  ( $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) is monotonically increasing, and its supremum is 1. Hence its limit exists (and it is 1).

2. The sequence  $a_n = \frac{1}{n}$  ( $n \in \mathbb{N}_+$ ) is monotonically decreasing and its infimum is 0. Hence its limit exists, and it is also 0.

**Proposition 4.2 (The number  $e$ ):** The sequence  $a_n = \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , is monotonically increasing and bounded from above. Hence it has a limit, which is denoted  $e$  (this is the famous Euler's number, and this is how it is defined):

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

*Proof.* We need to show that the sequence  $a_n$  is bounded and monotonically increasing.

**The sequence is monotonically increasing.** Actually, it is strictly increasing. We write

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n = \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k} \frac{1}{n^k} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{n!}{k!(n-k)!} \frac{1}{n^k} = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} \frac{n(n-1) \cdots (n-k+1)}{n^k} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} \frac{n}{n} \cdot \frac{n-1}{n} \cdots \frac{n-k+1}{n} \\ &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} 1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{k-1}{n}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, we can express  $a_{n+1}$  as:

$$a_{n+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \frac{1}{k!} 1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{k-1}{n+1}\right).$$

Comparing  $a_n$  and  $a_{n+1}$  we see that:

$$\begin{aligned} a_n &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} 1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{k-1}{n}\right) \\ &\quad \wedge \quad \wedge \\ a_{n+1} &= \sum_{k=0}^{n+1} \frac{1}{k!} 1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{k-1}{n+1}\right) \end{aligned}$$

each term in the product is bigger in the expression for  $a_{n+1}$  (and, moreover,  $a_{n+1}$  has an additional positive summand  $k = n+1$ ). Therefore  $a_{n+1} > a_n$  (strict inequality).

**The sequence is bounded.** Observe that  $a_1 = 2$ , so that 2 is a lower bound (the sequence is increasing). We will now show that 3 is an upper bound. We shall use the inequality

$$k! = \underbrace{k(k-1)(k-2) \cdots 2 \cdot 1}_{k-1 \text{ terms}} \geq \underbrace{2 \cdot 2 \cdots 2}_{k-1 \text{ times}} = 2^{k-1}.$$

We write  $a_n$  as before:

$$\begin{aligned}
 a_n &= \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} 1 \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{n}\right) \cdots \left(1 - \frac{k-1}{n}\right) \\
 &< \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{1}{k!} = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{k!} \\
 &\leq 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} \\
 &= 1 + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2^k}.
 \end{aligned}$$

We know the formula for the partial sum of a geometric series:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2^k} = \frac{1 - \frac{1}{2^n}}{1 - \frac{1}{2}} = 2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^n}\right) < 2.$$

So we find that

$$a_n < 1 + \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \frac{1}{2^k} < 1 + 2 = 3.$$

□

## 4.3 Limits of functions

### Limits at infinity ( $x \rightarrow +\infty$ )

Our first few definitions are very similar to definitions we've already seen for sequences:

#### Finite limit at infinity (horizontal asymptote)

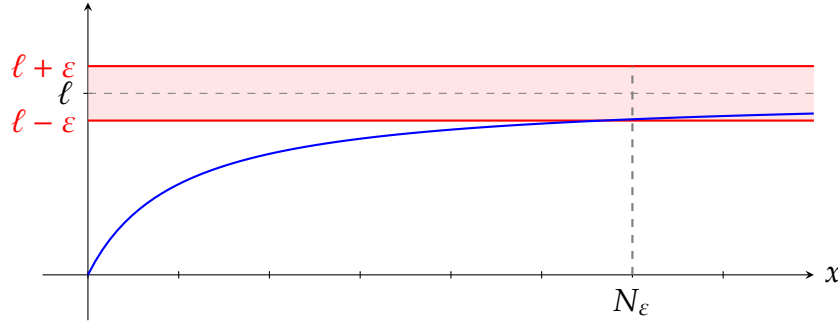
Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real-valued function. If there exists  $\ell \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $N_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $x > N_\varepsilon$ ,  $|\ell - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ , we say that  $f$  tends to  $\ell$  as  $x \rightarrow +\infty$ , and we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = \ell.$$

The condition for convergence can be written symbolically as:

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ s.t. } \forall x > N_\varepsilon, |\ell - f(x)| < \varepsilon.$$

In this case we say that the line  $y = \ell$  is a **right horizontal asymptote** of  $f(x)$ .



**Example 4.4:** Let us show that the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  tends to 0 as  $x \rightarrow +\infty$ .

Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We need to find  $N_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $x > N_\varepsilon$ , we have  $\left|0 - \frac{1}{x}\right| < \varepsilon$ . Note that for  $x > 0$ ,  $\left|\frac{1}{x}\right| < \varepsilon$  is equivalent to  $x > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ . Take  $N_\varepsilon = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ . Then for any  $x > N_\varepsilon$ , we have:

$$\left|0 - \frac{1}{x}\right| = \left|\frac{1}{x}\right| = \frac{1}{x} < \frac{1}{N_\varepsilon} = \varepsilon.$$

Since  $\varepsilon > 0$  was arbitrary, this shows that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N_\varepsilon$  such that for all  $x > N_\varepsilon$ ,  $\left|0 - \frac{1}{x}\right| < \varepsilon$ . Therefore,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0.$$

**Example 4.5:** Let us show that the function  $f(x) = \frac{2x^2+3x-1}{x^2+1}$  tends to 2 as  $x \rightarrow +\infty$ .

Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We need to find  $N_\varepsilon \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $x > N_\varepsilon$ , we have  $\left|2 - \frac{2x^2+3x-1}{x^2+1}\right| < \varepsilon$ .

First, simplify the expression:

$$\begin{aligned} \left|2 - \frac{2x^2+3x-1}{x^2+1}\right| &= \left|\frac{2(x^2+1) - (2x^2+3x-1)}{x^2+1}\right| \\ &= \left|\frac{2x^2+2-2x^2-3x+1}{x^2+1}\right| \\ &= \left|\frac{-3x+3}{x^2+1}\right| \\ &= \frac{3|x-1|}{x^2+1}. \end{aligned}$$

For  $x > 1$ , we have  $|x-1| = x-1 < x$ , so:

$$\frac{3|x-1|}{x^2+1} < \frac{3x}{x^2+1} < \frac{3x}{x^2} = \frac{3}{x}.$$

We want  $\frac{3}{x} < \varepsilon$ , which is equivalent to  $x > \frac{3}{\varepsilon}$ .

Take  $N_\varepsilon = \max\left\{1, \frac{3}{\varepsilon}\right\}$  (The max here is to ensure that  $N_\varepsilon$  is at least 1, which is a requirement from before). Then for any  $x > N_\varepsilon$ , we have:

$$\left|2 - \frac{2x^2+3x-1}{x^2+1}\right| < \frac{3}{x} < \frac{3}{N_\varepsilon} \leq \varepsilon.$$

Since  $\varepsilon > 0$  was arbitrary, this shows that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N_\varepsilon$  such that for all  $x > N_\varepsilon$ ,  $|2 - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ . Therefore,

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

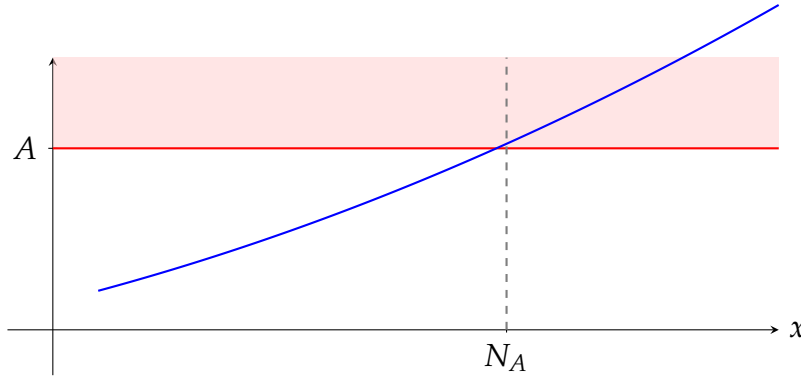
### Positive infinite limit at infinity

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real-valued function. If for any  $A > 0$  there exists  $N_A \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $x > N_A$ ,  $f(x) > A$ , we say that  $f$  tends to  $+\infty$  as  $x \rightarrow +\infty$ , and we write

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

The condition for convergence can be written symbolically as:

$$\forall A > 0, \exists N_A \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ s.t. } \forall x > N_A, f(x) > A.$$



**Example 4.6:** We show that  $f(x) = \ln(x)$  tends to  $+\infty$  as  $x \rightarrow +\infty$ .

Fix  $A > 0$ . We need to find  $N_A \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $x > N_A$ , we have  $\ln(x) > A$ . Take  $N_A = e^A$ . Then for any  $x > e^A$ , we have:

$$\ln(x) > \ln(e^A) = A.$$

Since  $A > 0$  was arbitrary, this shows that for every  $A > 0$ , there exists  $N_A$  such that for all  $x > N_A$ ,  $\ln(x) > A$ . Therefore,

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

### Negative infinite limit at infinity

Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real-valued function. If for any  $A < 0$  there exists  $N_A \in \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $x > N_A$ ,  $f(x) < A$ , we say that  $f$  tends to  $-\infty$  as  $x \rightarrow +\infty$ , and we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} f(x) = -\infty.$$

The condition for convergence can be written symbolically as:

$$\forall A < 0, \exists N_A \in \mathbb{R}, \text{ s.t. } \forall x > N_A, f(x) < A.$$