## Divergence or "when the limit is infinite".

In the theory of sequences we say that a sequence $\left\{a_{n}\right\}_{n \geq 1}$ diverges if it fails to converge. There are a number of ways it could fail to converge, e.g. it could oscillate, i.e. $a_{n}=(-1)^{n}, n \geq 1$, or it could be unbounded, i.e. $a_{n}=n, n \geq 1$.

For certain unbounded functions there is a type of limit that can still be defined. The first definition below encapsulates the situation in which given a function defined on a deleted neighbourhood of $a \in \mathbb{R}$, and given any real number $K$, which we might think of as positive and large, there is some deleted neighbourhood of $a$ on which the function is greater than $K$. This can be repeated for each and every positive large $K$. Presumably the larger the $K$ the smaller the deleted neighbourhood. Then, if $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ is to be assigned a value connected in some way with the values taken by the function on deleted neighbourhoods of $a$, this value should be larger than every positive large $K$. There is no such possible real value! Instead we assign the symbol $+\infty$ to $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$.

Definition 1.2.1 1. Let $f: A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function whose domain contains a deleted neighbourhood of $a \in \mathbb{R}$. We write

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=+\infty
$$

or say

$$
" f(x) \text { tends to }+\infty \text { as } x \text { tends to } a "
$$

if, and only if, for all for all $K>0$ there exists $\delta>0$ such that if $0<$ $|x-a|<\delta$ then $f(x)>K$. That is:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall K>0, \exists \delta>0, \forall x \in A, 0<|x-a|<\delta \Longrightarrow f(x)>K \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

2. Similarly, we write

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=-\infty
$$

or say

$$
" f(x) \text { tends to }-\infty \text { as } x \text { tends to } a "
$$

if, and only if, for all for all $K<0$ there exists $\delta>0$ such that if $0<$ $|x-a|<\delta$ then $f(x)<K$. That is:

$$
\forall K<0, \exists \delta>0, \forall x \in A, 0<|x-a|<\delta \Longrightarrow f(x)<K .
$$

Note that here we have $f(x)<K<0$ and so, because the numbers are negative, $|f(x)|>|K|$, i.e. $f(x)$ will be larger, in magnitude, than $K$ !

As an illustration of the $K-\delta$ definition of the limit being $+\infty$ we have


Example 1.2.2 Verify the $K-\delta$ definition to show that

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x}{(x-1)^{2}}=+\infty
$$

Graphically, this function is very much like that used in the figure above:


Solution Rough Work Assume $0<|x-1|<\delta$ with $\delta>0$ to be chosen.
If we demanded that $\delta \leq 1$ then $0<|x-1|<\delta$ would imply $0<x<2$, which gives

$$
\frac{x}{(x-1)^{2}}>\frac{0}{(x-1)^{2}}=0,
$$

which is of no use. Thus we instead demand that $\delta$ be less than a number strictly less than 1 . The 'simplest' positive number strictly less than 1 is $1 / 2$.

If we demand that $\delta \leq 1 / 2$ then $0<|x-1|<\delta \leq 1 / 2$ which opens out as $-1 / 2 \leq x-1 \leq 1 / 2$, i.e. $1 / 2<x<3 / 2$. Thus $x$ is no smaller than $1 / 2$ in which case

$$
\frac{x}{(x-1)^{2}}>\frac{1}{2(x-1)^{2}} .
$$

Also, $0<|x-1|<\delta$ implies $(x-1)^{2}<\delta^{2}$ and so

$$
\frac{x}{(x-1)^{2}}>\frac{1}{2(x-1)^{2}} \geq \frac{1}{2 \delta^{2}} .
$$

We demand this is $\geq K$, which rearranges as $\delta \leq 1 / \sqrt{2 K}$. We put these two demands on $\delta$ together as

$$
\delta=\min \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2 K}}\right) .
$$

End of rough Work.
Solution left to students
Note To show $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=L$, with $L$ finite you have to show that $|f(x)-L|<$ $\varepsilon$. This is normally done by finding a simpler, upper bound for $|f(x)-L|$ and then demanding this upper bound is $<\varepsilon$.

To show $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=+\infty$ you have to show that $f(x)>K$. This is normally done by finding an simpler, lower bound for $f(x)$ and then demanding this lower bound is $>K$.

To show $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=-\infty$ you have to show that $f(x)<K$. This is normally done by finding an simpler, upper bound for $f(x)$ and then demanding this upper bound is $<K$.

Advice for the exams It is necessary to be able to deal with inequalities concerning negative numbers. For example

$$
\begin{aligned}
& x<y<0 \quad \text { implies } \quad|x|>|y| \\
& x<y \text { implies }-x>-y \\
& x<y \text { and } u<0 \quad \text { imply } u x>u y .
\end{aligned}
$$

And, as long as $x$ and $y$ are of the same sign, the direction of the inequality is reversed on inverting, i.e.

$$
\text { if either } x>y>0 \text { or } 0>x>y \text { then } \frac{1}{y}>\frac{1}{x} \text {. }
$$

For the function illustrated in the following figure it would appear that, as $x$ tends to $+\infty$, the function $f(x)$ also tend to $+\infty$. And that as $x$ tends to 1 from above, i.e. $x \rightarrow 1+$, that $f(x)$ tends to $+\infty$.


It should not be hard for the student to supply definitions for

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow+\infty} f(x)=+\infty \text { or }-\infty, \quad \text { and } \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow a^{+}} f(x)=+\infty \text { or }-\infty .
$$

Further, the student should be able to also define

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow-\infty} f(x)=+\infty \text { or }-\infty \quad \text { and } \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow a^{-}} f(x)=+\infty \text { or }-\infty .
$$

In fact you will be asked to do just this in a question on the Problem Sheets.
Note In none of the cases above do we say that the limit exists. If we say " $\lim f(x)$ exists" we are implicitly assuming that it is finite. This is because, as in the definitions of limits at infinity, the symbols $+\infty$ and $-\infty$ are not real numbers. They are used simply as shorthand. To say $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=+\infty$ is to say that $f$ satisfies (1), and there is no use of the symbol $+\infty$ in that definition.

A slightly more difficult example discussed in the Tutorial.
Example 1.2.3 Verify the $K-\delta$ definition to show that

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow-1} \frac{x}{(x+1)^{2}}=-\infty
$$

Hint Recall that given $K<0$ we want to find $x$ for which $f(x)<K$. We might attempt this by finding a simpler upper bound for $f(x)$ and then demanding this upper bound is $<K$.

Graphically:


Solution Rough Work Assume $0<|x-(-1)|<\delta$ with $\delta>0$ to be chosen.
If $\delta \leq 1$ then $0<|x+1|<\delta \leq 1$ would imply $-2<x<0$, which gives the upper bound

$$
\frac{x}{(x+1)^{2}}<\frac{0}{(x+1)^{2}}=0 .
$$

There is no way of demanding this is $<K<0$. Instead demand that $\delta \leq 1 / 2$. Then

$$
0<|x+1|<1 / 2 \Longrightarrow-1 / 2<x+1<1 / 2 \Longrightarrow-3 / 2<x<-1 / 2
$$

Use the upper bound on $x$ to give

$$
\frac{x}{(x+1)^{2}}<-\frac{1}{2(x+1)^{2}} .
$$

Then $0<|x+1|<\delta$ implies $0<(x+1)^{2}<\delta^{2}$ so

$$
\frac{1}{(x+1)^{2}}>\frac{1}{\delta^{2}} \quad \text { and } \quad-\frac{1}{2(x+1)^{2}}<-\frac{1}{2 \delta^{2}}
$$

We now demand this is $<K$. This rearranges as

$$
\delta \leq \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2 K}}
$$

Remember that $K$ is negative so we are not taking the square root of a negative number. So $\delta=\min (1 / 2, \sqrt{-1 / 2 K})$ will suffice.
End of Rough Work

Proof Let $K<0$ be given. Choose $\delta=\min (1 / 2, \sqrt{-1 / 2 K})$. Assume $0<|x+1|<\delta$. Then first $|x+1|<\delta \leq 1 / 2$ implies $x<-1 / 2$.

Secondly

$$
\begin{equation*}
|x+1|<\delta \leq \sqrt{-\frac{1}{2 K}} \Longrightarrow(x+1)^{2} \leq-\frac{1}{2 K} \Longrightarrow \frac{1}{(x+1)^{2}} \geq-2 K \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Combine these inequalities as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{x}{(x+1)^{2}}<\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)\left(\frac{1}{(x+1)^{2}}\right) \leq\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)(-2 K), \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the direction of the inequality in (2) has changed in (3) because of being multiplied by the negative $-1 / 2$. Hence

$$
\frac{x}{(x+1)^{2}}<K
$$

Thus we have verified the $K-\delta$ definition of $\lim _{x \rightarrow-1} x /(x+1)^{2}=-\infty$.

## Limit Rules

An important result says that if the limit of $f(x)$ as $x \rightarrow a$ exists and is non-zero then, for $x$ sufficiently close to $a$, the values of the function $f(x)$ cannot be too large nor too small.

Lemma 1.2.4 If $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=L$ exists then there exists $\delta>0$ such that

$$
\text { if } 0<|x-a|<\delta \quad \text { then } \quad \begin{cases}\frac{L}{2}<f(x)<\frac{3 L}{2} & \text { if } L>0 \\ \frac{3 L}{2}<f(x)<\frac{L}{2} & \text { if } L<0 \\ |f(x)|<|L|+1 & \text { for all } L\end{cases}
$$

The first two cases can be summed up as

$$
\frac{|L|}{2}<|f(x)|<\frac{3|L|}{2}
$$

if $L \neq 0$. A deduction from this is that if the limit at $a$ is non-zero then there exists a deleted neighbourhood of $a$ in which $f$ is non-zero.

Proof Assume $L>0$. Choose $\varepsilon=L / 2>0$ in the $\varepsilon-\delta$ definition of $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=L$ to find $\delta>0$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
0<|x-a|<\delta & \Longrightarrow|f(x)-L|<\frac{L}{2} \\
& \Longrightarrow-\frac{L}{2}<f(x)-L<\frac{L}{2} \\
& \Longrightarrow \frac{L}{2}<f(x)<\frac{3 L}{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Assume $L<0$. Choose $\varepsilon=-L / 2>0$ in the $\varepsilon-\delta$ definition of $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=$ $L$ to find $\delta>0$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
0<|x-a|<\delta & \Longrightarrow|f(x)-L|<-\frac{L}{2} \\
& \Longrightarrow-\left(-\frac{L}{2}\right)<f(x)-L<-\frac{L}{2} \\
& \Longrightarrow \frac{3 L}{2}<f(x)<\frac{L}{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Given any $L$ choose $\varepsilon=1$ in the $\varepsilon-\delta$ definition of $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=L$ to find $\delta>0$ such that if $0<|x-a|<\delta$ then $|f(x)-L|<1$. Then, by the triangle inequality,

$$
|f(x)|=|(f(x)-L)+L| \leq|f(x)-L|+|L|<1+|L| .
$$

Theorem 1.2.5 Suppose that $f$ and $g$ are both defined on some deleted neighbourhood of $a$ and that both $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=L$ and $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} g(x)=M$ exist. Then:
Sum Rule: the limit of the sum exists and equals the sum of the limits:

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow a}[f(x)+g(x)]=L+M
$$

Product Rule: the limit of the product exists and equals the product of the limits:

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x) g(x)=L M
$$

Quotient Rule: the limit of the quotient exists and equals the quotient of the limits:

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=\frac{L}{M}, \quad \text { provided that } M \neq 0
$$

Proof of the Sum Rule is left to student.
Proof of the Product Rule. Consider

$$
\begin{aligned}
&|f(x) g(x)-L M|=|f(x) g(x)-L g(x)+L g(x)-L M|, \\
& \text { "adding in zero", } \\
& \leq|f(x) g(x)-L g(x)|+|L g(x)-L M|
\end{aligned}
$$

by the triangle inequality,

$$
\begin{equation*}
=|f(x)-L||g(x)|+|L||g(x)-M| \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\varepsilon>0$ be given. From the Lemma above $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} g(x)=M$ means there exists $\delta_{1}>0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
0<|x-a|<\delta_{1} \Longrightarrow|g(x)|<|M|+1 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

From the definition of $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x)=L$ we find that there exists $\delta_{2}>0$ such that, if $0<|x-a|<\delta_{2}$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
|f(x)-L|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2(|M|+1)} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, the definition of $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} g(x)=M$ means there exists $\delta_{3}>0$ such that, if $0<|x-a|<\delta_{3}$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
|g(x)-M|<\frac{\varepsilon}{2(|L|+1)}, \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

(where we have put a " +1 " in the denominator, $2(|L|+1$ ), in case $L=0$ ).
Choose $\delta=\min \left(\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}, \delta_{3}\right)>0$. Assume $0<|x-a|<\delta$. For such $x$ all the three bounds (5), (7) and (6) hold. Then, returning to (4),

$$
\begin{aligned}
|f(x) g(x)-L M| & \leq|f(x)-L||g(x)|+|L||g(x)-M|, \\
& <\underbrace{\frac{\varepsilon}{2(|M|+1)}}_{\text {by }(6)}(|M|+1)+|L| \underbrace{\frac{\varepsilon}{2(|L|+1)}}_{\text {by }(5)} \\
& =(\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{2} \times \underbrace{\frac{|L|}{||L|+1)}}_{<1}) \varepsilon<\varepsilon .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus we have verified the definition that $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} f(x) g(x)=L M$.

## Proof of the Quotient Rule for limits.

Assume $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} g(x)=M$ and $M \neq 0$.
By the Lemma 1.2.4 we also have $\delta_{1}>0$ such that if $0<|x-a|<\delta_{1}$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
|g(x)|>\frac{|M|}{2} . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

In particular $g(x) \neq 0$ and so, for such $x$ we can consider

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left|\frac{1}{g(x)}-\frac{1}{M}\right|=\frac{1}{|g(x)|} \frac{|g(x)-M|}{M}<\underbrace{\frac{2}{|M|}}_{\text {by }(8)} \times \frac{|g(x)-M|}{M} . \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\varepsilon>0$ be given. From the definition of $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} g(x)=M$ there exists $\delta_{2}>0$ such that if $0<|x-a|<\delta_{2}$ then

$$
\begin{equation*}
|g(x)-M|<\frac{\varepsilon|M|^{2}}{2} . \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Let $\delta=\min \left(\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}\right)$ and assume $0<|x-a|<\delta$. For such $x$ both (10) and (9) hold and we have

$$
\left|\frac{1}{g(x)}-\frac{1}{M}\right| \leq \frac{2}{M^{2}}|g(x)-M|<\frac{2}{M^{2}} \times \underbrace{\left(\frac{|M|^{2} \varepsilon}{2}\right)}_{\text {by }(10)}=\varepsilon
$$

Hence we have verified the definition of $\lim _{x \rightarrow a} 1 / g(x)=1 / M$
I leave it to the Student to use the Product Rule to deduce

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=\frac{L}{M}
$$

Advice for the exam. If asked to evaluate a limit by verifying the $\varepsilon-\delta$ definition, do not use the limit laws.

If asked to evaluate a limit without restriction on the method and you use a limit law tell me the rule being a used.

