

2.3 Calculating Limits Using the Limit Laws

Calculating limits by testing values of x close to a is tedious. The following Theorem essentially says that any ‘nice’ combination of functions has exactly the limit you’d expect.

Theorem. Suppose $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ both exist and that c is constant. Then the following limits exist and may be computed.

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} c = c$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} cf(x) = c \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$
4. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$
5. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x)g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$
6. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)}$ (provided $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$)

The Theorem also hold for one-sided limits and, with a little care,¹ for infinite limits. For example, if $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = -3$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} g(x) = -\infty$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} [f(x) + g(x)] = -\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)g(x) = \infty$$

Corollary. Suppose that $p(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + c_1 x + c_0$ is a polynomial, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} p(x) = p(a)$. Moreover, if r is any rational function, and $a \in \text{dom}(r)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} r(x) = f(a)$.

Proof. Simply calculate:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} p(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} c_n x^n + \cdots + c_1 \lim_{x \rightarrow a} x + \lim_{x \rightarrow a} c_0 && \text{(rule 4)} \\ &= c_n \lim_{x \rightarrow a} x^n + \cdots + c_1 \lim_{x \rightarrow a} x + c_0 && \text{(rule 3)} \\ &= c_n a^n + \cdots + c_1 a + c_0 && \text{(rule 5 (repeatedly) and 2)} \\ &= p(a) \end{aligned}$$

If r is rational, then $r(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ for some polynomials p, q . Rule 6 now finished things off. ■

¹If you end up with an indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$, $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$, $\infty - \infty$, etc., then the rules don’t apply. We will deal with these limits later using l’Hôpital’s Rule.

Examples

1. Suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 3$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = -1$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} h(x) = \infty$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} h(x) = 6$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) + 3g(x) = 3 + 3(-1) = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} 2f(x)g(x)h(x) = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot (-1) \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} h(x) = -\infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} 2f(x)g(x)h(x) = 2 \cdot 3 \cdot (-1) \cdot 6 = 36$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} \frac{g(x)}{f(x)h(x)} = \frac{-1}{3 \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} h(x)} = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} \frac{g(x)}{f(x)h(x)} = \frac{-1}{3 \cdot 6} = -\frac{1}{18}$$

2. Simple evaluation: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^3 + 2x^2 - x - 1}{4x^2 - 1} = \frac{1 + 2 - 1 - 1}{4 - 1} = \frac{1}{3}$

3. Factorizing: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{x^2 - 7x + 10}{x^2 - 4x + 4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{(x-2)(x-5)}{(x-2)(x-2)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{x-5}{x-2} = -3 \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{1}{x-2} = \infty$

Roots and Rationalizing

Theorem. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \implies \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{L}$

Recall how you would convert an expression with surds in the denominator into one with surds in the numerator:

$$\frac{4}{3 + \sqrt{5}} = \frac{4}{3 + \sqrt{5}} \cdot \frac{3 - \sqrt{5}}{3 - \sqrt{5}} = \frac{4(3 - \sqrt{5})}{9 - 5} = 3 - \sqrt{5}$$

A similar approach can be used for limits.

Examples

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x+3} - \sqrt{3}}{x}$ yields the indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$. Multiplying by $1 = \frac{\sqrt{x+3} + \sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{x+3} + \sqrt{3}} = 1$ fixes the problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x+3} - \sqrt{3}}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x+3} - \sqrt{3}}{x} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x+3} + \sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{x+3} + \sqrt{3}} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x + 3 - 3}{x(\sqrt{x+3} + \sqrt{3})} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+3} + \sqrt{3}} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \end{aligned}$$

2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 9} - 5}{x - 4} = \frac{4}{5}$

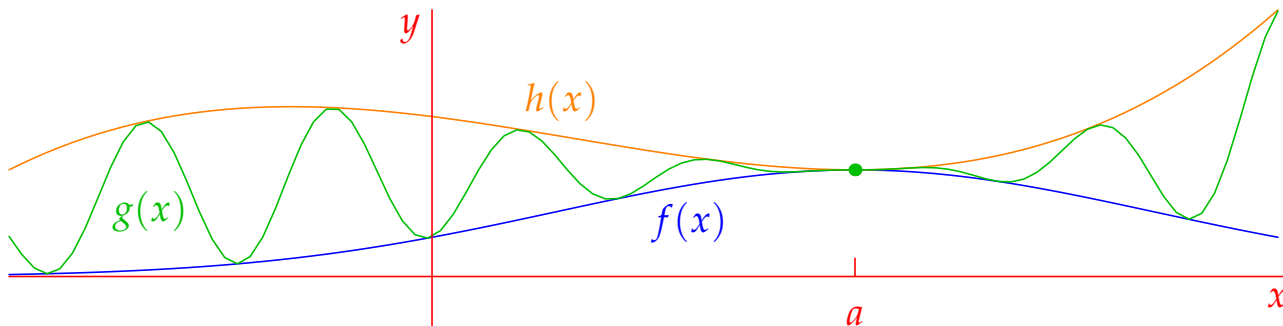
Comparing Limits and the Squeeze Theorem

While simple limits can be computed using the basic limit laws, more complicated functions are often best treated by *comparison*.

Theorem. Suppose that $f(x) \leq g(x)$ for all $x \neq a$ and suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ both exist. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$$

Theorem (Squeeze Theorem). Suppose that $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ for all $x \neq a$, and that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ exists and also equals L .

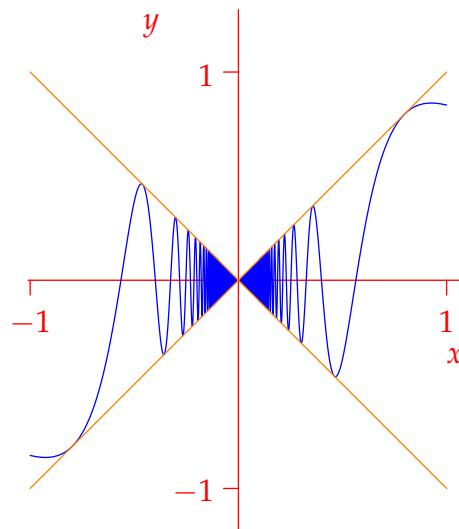


Example In this example we compare the complicated function $g(x) = x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right)$ with the much simpler function $f(x) = |x|$. Since $-1 \leq \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \leq 1$ for all $x \neq 0$, we have that

$$-|x| \leq x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) \leq |x|$$

Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |x| = 0$ it follows that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \sin\left(\frac{1}{x^2}\right) = 0$$



Homework

- Prove that $x - y = (x^{1/3} - y^{1/3})(x^{2/3} + x^{1/3}y^{1/3} + y^{2/3})$.
 - Hence or otherwise compute the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow 8} \frac{\sqrt[3]{x} - 2}{x - 8}$
- Suppose that $f(x) < g(x)$ for all $x \neq a$ and that limits of f and g both exist at $x = a$. Give an example which shows that we may only conclude that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$. That is, the inequality need not be strict.
- Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \cos\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$ exists and compute it.