

## SUBSTITUTIONS IN LIMITS

MATH 166: CALCULUS II

In this note we examine how to make a “change of variables” or a “substitution” when calculating limits. In the following theorem, we assume that the substitution function  $u = g(x)$  is continuous and non-constant, but we do not assume anything about the function it is composed with.

**Theorem.** *Let  $g(x)$  be a function defined on an interval  $[a, b]$ . Assume that  $g(x)$  is continuous and non-constant on any subinterval of  $[a, b]$  containing  $p$ . Define  $p^*$  to be the symbol  $p^+$  if  $p = a$ , or  $p^-$  if  $p = b$ , or  $p$  otherwise. Similarly, let  $q = g(p)$  and define  $q^*$  to be the symbol  $q^+$  if  $g(x)$  has a relative minimum at  $p$ , or  $q^-$  if  $g(x)$  is a relative maximum at  $p$ , or  $q$  otherwise. Then for any function  $f(u)$  defined in an appropriate neighborhood of  $q$  we have*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p^*} f(g(x)) = \lim_{u \rightarrow q^*} f(u)$$

*Proof.* We must show the existence of one limit implies the existence of the other and that the two limiting values are equal.

Let us first assume  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^*} f(g(x)) = L$  exists and prove  $\lim_{u \rightarrow q^*} f(u) = L$ . This part is similar to the proof of Theorem 3.10, Apostol p.147. By the definition of limit, given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an interval  $I$  containing  $p$  such that if  $x \in I$ , then  $|f(g(x)) - L| < \epsilon$ . If  $g(x)$  has a relative extremum at  $x = p$ , we replace  $I$  by a smaller interval containing  $p$  so that so that  $q = g(p)$  is an extreme value of  $g(x)$  restricted to  $I$ . Let  $J$  be a closed subinterval of  $I$  containing  $p$ . Since  $g(x)$  is continuous and non-constant on any subinterval containing  $p$ , the Extreme Value Theorem and the Intermediate Value Theorem imply that the range of  $g(x)$  restricted to  $J$  is also a closed interval, say  $K = [c, d]$ . Note that if  $g(x)$  has a relative minimum at  $p$  then  $q = c$ , or if  $g(x)$  has a relative maximum at  $p$  then  $q = d$ . By construction, for any  $u \in K$ , there is an  $x \in J \subset I$  such that  $u = g(x)$ . Then,  $|f(u) - L| = |f(g(x)) - L| < \epsilon$ , since  $x \in I$ . This proves  $\lim_{u \rightarrow q^*} f(u) = L$ .

Let us now assume  $\lim_{u \rightarrow q^*} f(u) = L$  exists and prove  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^*} f(g(x)) = L$ . This part is similar to the proof of Theorem 3.5, Apostol p.141. By the definition of limit, given  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an interval  $K$  containing  $q$  such that if  $u \in K$  then  $|f(u) - L| < \epsilon$ . Since  $g(x)$  is continuous at  $p$  (and this is all we need to assume about  $g(x)$  for this part of the proof), there is an interval  $I$  containing  $p$  such that if  $x \in I$  then  $g(x) \in K$ , which implies  $|f(g(x)) - L| < \epsilon$ . This proves  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^*} f(g(x)) = L$ .  $\square$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x^2)}{x^2} = \lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\sin(u)}{u} = 1$

**Example.** To see why the assumptions of the theorem are necessary, consider the function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} & \text{if } \frac{1}{n+1} < |x| \leq \frac{1}{n} \text{ for some } n \in \mathbf{N} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then  $g(x)$  is non-constant in any interval containing 0 and is also continuous at 0 since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) = g(0) = 0$ . However,  $g(x)$  is not continuous in any *interval* containing 0 since for  $n \in \mathbf{N}$ ,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{1}{n}^-} g(x) = \frac{1}{n} \neq \frac{1}{n-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{1}{n}^+} g(x)$$

If we define

$$f(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } |u| = \frac{1}{n} \text{ for some } n \in \mathbf{N} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

then clearly  $f(g(x)) = 1$  for all  $0 < |x| \leq 1$  so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(g(x)) = 1$ . Yet  $\lim_{u \rightarrow 0^+} f(u)$  does not exist since  $f(u)$  takes on the values 0 and 1 for arbitrarily small positive values of  $u$ .