

MATH101
Calculus & Analytic Geometry I

Lecture Notes

Chapter 2: Limits and Continuity

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Chapter 2 : Limits and Continuity

2.1. Limits (An Intuitive Approach)

Motivation: Instantaneous Velocity

Let a particle be moving along the s -axis, so that its position at time t is given by $s = s(t)$. Then the average velocity of the particle on the interval $[t_0, t_1]$ is

$$v_{\text{ave}} = \frac{s(t_1) - s(t_0)}{t_1 - t_0}.$$

In order to *estimate* the (instantaneous) velocity of the particle at $t = t_0$, we may consider the average velocity of the particle on intervals $[t_0, t]$ or $[t, t_0]$, where t is *very close* to t_0 .

Example Suppose a ball is thrown vertically upwards, so that its height in feet at time t is given by

$$s(t) = 16t^2 + 29t + 6, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 2.$$

To estimate the (instantaneous) velocity of the particle at $t = \frac{1}{2}$ sec, we make the following list

t_1	t_0	$v_{\text{ave}} = \frac{s(t_1) - s(t_0)}{t_1 - t_0}$
0.5010	0.0010	12.9840
0.5005	0.0005	12.9920
0.5001	0.0001	12.9984
0.5	0	<i>Undefined</i>
0.4999	0.0001	13.0016
0.4995	0.0005	13.0080
0.4990	0.0010	13.0160

From the list above one may conjecture that the (instantaneous) velocity of the particle at $t_0 = \frac{1}{2}$ is 13 ft/sec. However this conjecture still needs a **Corroboration Evidence!!**

Two-Sided Limits General Definition

Let $f(x)$ be a function and a be a real number, such that $f(x)$ is defined on some open interval containing a (possibly $a \in \text{Domain } f$). If we can make the values of $f(x)$ as close as we wish to L by choosing x sufficiently close to a (from both sides), then we say: “the **(two-sided) limit** of $f(x)$ as x approaches a is L ” and write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L.$$

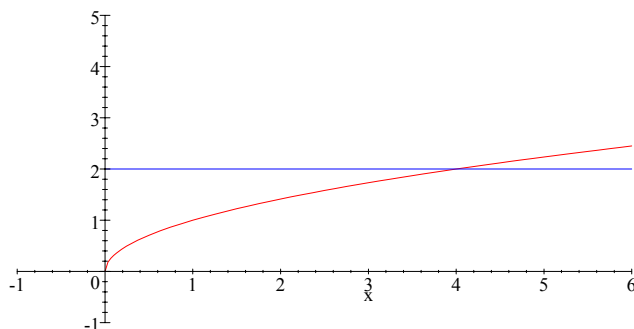
Example Consider $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ at $x_0 = 4$. In order to find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} f(x)$ we consider the values of $f(x)$ at points very close to $x_0 = 4$ (from both sides):

x	\sqrt{x}
3.9	1.974841766
3.99	1.997498436
3.999	1.999749984
3.9999	1.999975
3.99999	1.9999975
4.00001	2.0000025
4.0001	2.000025
4.001	2.000249984
4.01	2.002498439
4.1	2.024845673

So one may conjecture that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \sqrt{x} = 2.$$

This conjecture is supported by the graph of $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$



$$f(x) = \sqrt{x}; y = 2$$

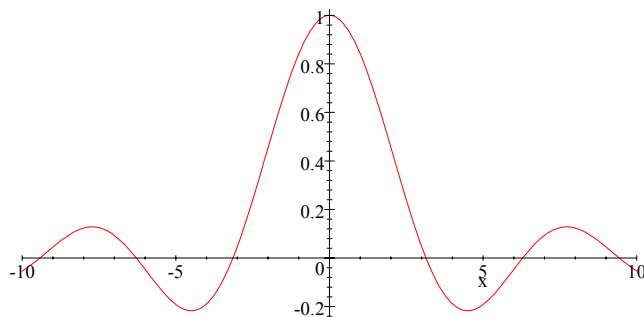
Example Consider

$$f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}, x \neq 0.$$

Although $f(x)$ is not defined at $x = 0$, one may ask if the (two-sided) limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches 0 exists? To make a conjecture about this we make a list of the values of the functions at points very close to $x = 0$ (from both sides):

x	$\frac{\sin x}{x}$
0.1	0.998 334 166 5
0.01	0.999 983 333 4
0.001	0.999 999 833 3
0.0001	0.999 999 998 3

So one may conjecture that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$. This conjecture is supported by the graph of the function:



$$f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$$

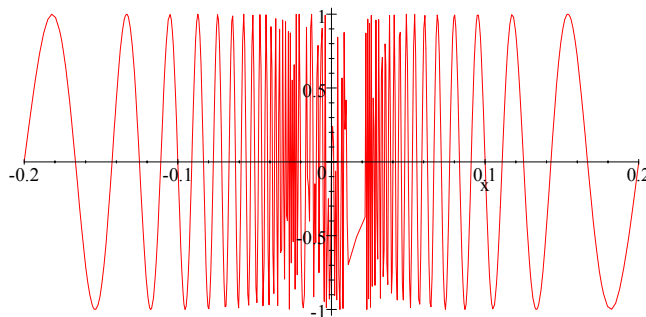
Example Consider the function

$$f(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}, \quad x \neq 0.$$

In order to find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$, we consider, as usual, the values of $f(x)$ at points very close to $x_0 = 0$ (from both sides):

x	$\sin \frac{1}{x}$
0.1	0
0.01	0
0.001	0
0.0001	0

On the basis of this table one may conjecture that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0$. However this conjecture is **FALSE** and it follows from the graph of $f(x)$, that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \frac{1}{x}$ **DOES NOT EXIST**:



$$f(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}$$

One Sided Limits

Sometimes one may be interested on the behavior of a function $f(x)$ as x approaches $x = a$ from the left (i.e. the left-hand limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$) or as x approaches a from the right (i.e. the right-hand limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$).

Example Consider the function $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$. The function is NOT defined to the left of $a = 0$. So one is just interested in $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sqrt{x}$, which is easily seen to be 0.

Example Consider the function

$$f(x) = \frac{|x|}{x} = \begin{cases} 1, & x > 0 \\ -1, & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

One easily sees that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = 1, \text{ while } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = -1.$$

Obviously the two-sided limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ Does Not Exist.

- Definition**
- Let $f(x)$ be a function, defined on $(-\infty, a)$. Then the **left-hand limit** of $f(x)$ as x approaches a from the left is L , if the values of $f(x)$ can be made as close as we like to L by taking the values of x sufficiently close to a (but less than a).
 - Let $f(x)$ be a function, defined on (a, ∞) . Then the **right-hand limit** of $f(x)$ as x approaches a from the right is L , if the values of $f(x)$ can be made as close as we like to L by taking the values of x sufficiently close to a (but larger than a).

Theorem Let $f(x)$ be a function defined on an open interval (x_1, x_2) with $x_1 < a < x_2$ (with the possible exception of $x = a$ itself). Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \text{ exists } \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x);$$

(i.e. the two-sided limit of $f(x)$ at $x = a$ exists if and only if, the one-sided limits exist and are equal). If this is the case, then

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

Example Consider

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 - 1, & x < 1 \\ 1 - x, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} (x^2 - 1) = 0;$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} (1 - x) = 0. \text{ Now } \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) \text{ does not exist, since } \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x).$$

Example Consider

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 - 1, & x < 2 \\ x - 1, & x \geq 2 \end{cases}$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} (x^2 - 1) = 3;$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} (x - 1) = 3.$$

Hence $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 3$, since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = 3 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x).$$

Vertical & Horizontal Asymptotes

Summary If the values of $f(x)$ increase without bound as x approaches a from the left or from the right, then we write

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

If the values of $f(x)$ increase without bound as x approaches a from both sides, then we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$.

If the values of $f(x)$ decrease without bound as x approaches a from both sides, then we write

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

If the values of $f(x)$ decrease without bound as x approaches a from the left or from the right, then we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty$.

Remark $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$ (respectively $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty$) does not mean that the function has a limit as x approaches a . It just tells us that the values of $f(x)$ are increasing (respectively decreasing) indefinitely as x approaches a .

Definition If

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \infty \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \infty,$$

then we say the graph of $f(x)$ has a **vertical asymptote** $x = a$.

Definition If

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L,$$

then we say the graph of $f(x)$ has a **horizontal asymptote** $y = L$.

- Remarks
1. If $f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ ($p(x)$, $q(x)$ polynomials) is a rational function, then the zeros of $q(x)$ are candidates for the values of x at which the graph of $f(x)$ has vertical asymptotes.
 2. An asymptote line to the graph of some function *may* intersect the graph of that function.
 3. The graph of a function $f(x)$ can have *at most* two horizontal asymptotes, while it can have infinite number of vertical asymptotes (e.g. $f(x) = \tan(x)$).

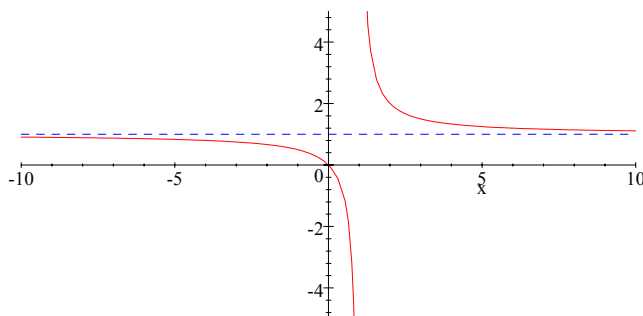
Example To find the vertical asymptotes for the graph of the rational function $f(x) = \frac{x-1}{x^2-1}$ we find the one-sided limits of $f(x)$ as x approaches 1 and -1 . We get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = \frac{1}{2}$$

while

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -1^-} f(x) = -\frac{1}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -1^+} f(x) = -\frac{1}{2}$$

So the graph of $f(x)$ has **one** vertical asymptote at $x = 1$ (there is no vertical asymptote at $x = -1$).



$$f(x) = \frac{x-1}{x^2-1}; y = 1$$

Summary If the values of $f(x)$

increase without bound as x increases without bound, then we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$;

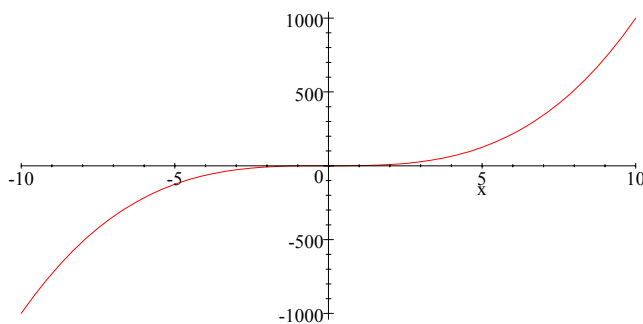
increase without bound as x decreases without bound, then we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = \infty$;

decrease without bound as x increases without bound, then we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = -\infty$;

decrease without bound as x decreases without bound, then we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty$.

Example Consider $f(x) = x^3$. From the graph of $f(x)$ it's clear that

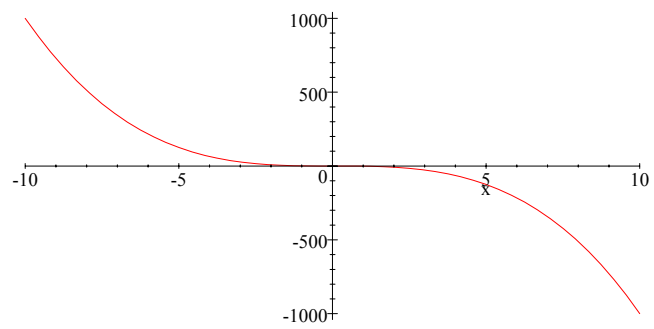
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty$$



$$f(x) = x^3$$

Example Consider $g(x) = x^3$. It's clear from the graph of $g(x)$ that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} g(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} g(x) = 0.$$

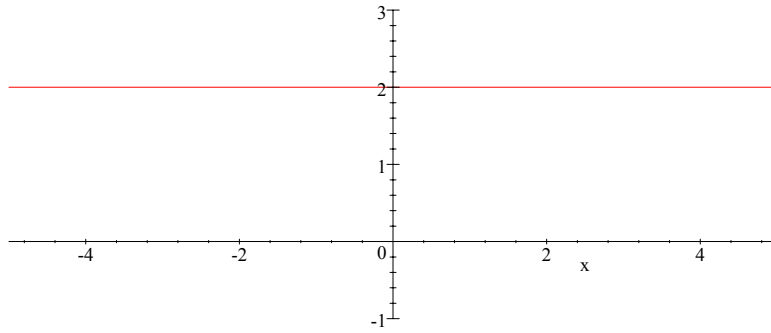


$$g(x) = x^3$$

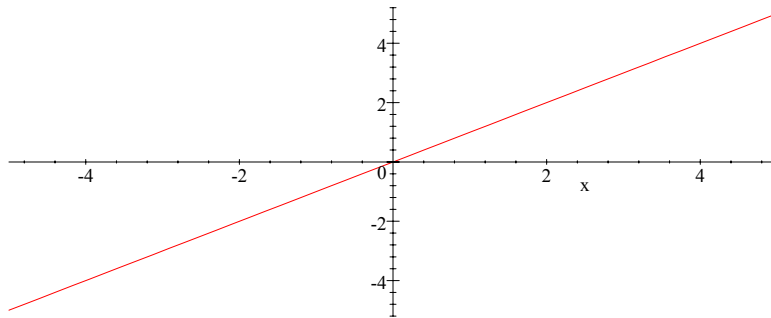
2.2. Computing Limits

Theorem *Let a and k be real numbers. Then:*

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} k = k.$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a.$



$$y = 2$$



$$y = x$$

Theorem Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and suppose that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_1 \text{ \& } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L_2.$$

Then:

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f + g)(x) = L_1 + L_2.$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f - g)(x) = L_1 - L_2.$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (fg)(x) = L_1 L_2.$
4. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f}{g}(x) = \frac{L_1}{L_2}, L_2 \neq 0.$
5. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{L_1}$ (provided $L_1 \geq 0$ if n is even).

Moreover these statements remain true for the one-sided limits as $x \rightarrow a^-$ or as $x \rightarrow a^+$.

Remark The converse of the previous theorem is not necessarily true!!

Corollary Let $a, k \in \mathbb{R}$.

1. If $f(x)$ is such that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} kf(x) = kL.$$

2. If $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x^n = a^n.$$

Theorem For any polynomial

$$p(x) = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + c_nx^n$$

and any real number $a \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} p(x) = c_0 + c_1 a + \dots + c_{n-1} a^{n-1} + c_n a^n = p(a).$$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^3 - 3x + 4) = 2^3 - 3 \cdot 2 + 4 = 2.$$

Theorem Consider the rational function

$$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} \text{ (where } p(x) \text{ and } q(x) \text{ are polynomials).}$$

For any $a \in \mathbb{R}$:

$q(a)$	$p(a)$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$
0	any real number	$\frac{p(a)}{q(a)}$
0	0	Doesn't Exist (of)
0	0	$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{p(x)/x^a}{q(x)/x^a}$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^3 - 3}{x^2 - 1} = \frac{2^3 - 3}{2^2 - 1} = \frac{11}{3}.$$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{x - 2} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2}{x - 2}.$$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^3 - 8}{x^2 - 4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{(x-2)(x^2+2x+4)}{(x-2)(x+2)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2+2x+4}{x+2} = \frac{12}{4} = 3.$$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x+1}-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(\sqrt{x+1}+1)}{(\sqrt{x+1}-1)(\sqrt{x+1}+1)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(\sqrt{x+1}+1)}{x+1-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(\sqrt{x+1}+1)}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\sqrt{x+1}+1) = 2.$$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\sqrt[3]{x}-1}{\sqrt{x}-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^{\frac{1}{3}}-1}{\sqrt{x}-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x^{\frac{1}{3}}-1)(x^{\frac{2}{3}}+x^{\frac{1}{3}}+1)}{(\sqrt{x}-1)(x^{\frac{2}{3}}+x^{\frac{1}{3}}+1)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x-1}{(x-1)(x^{\frac{2}{3}}+x^{\frac{1}{3}}+1)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{x^{\frac{2}{3}}+x^{\frac{1}{3}}+1} = \frac{2}{3}.$$

Example Let

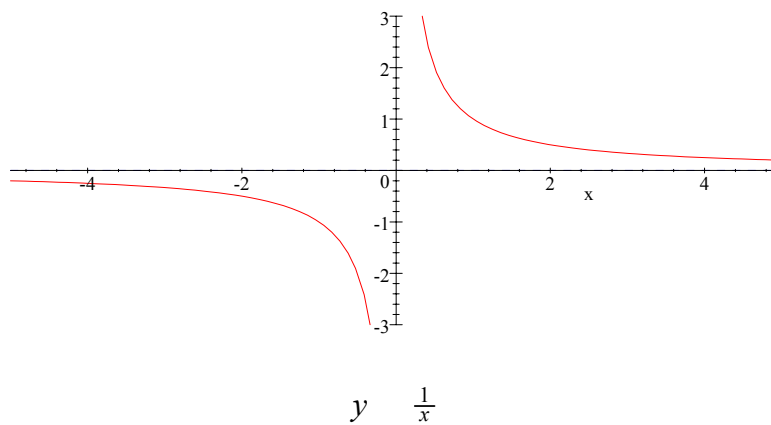
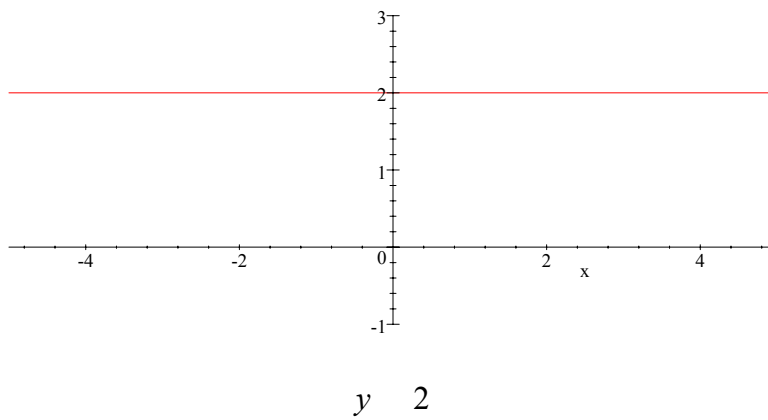
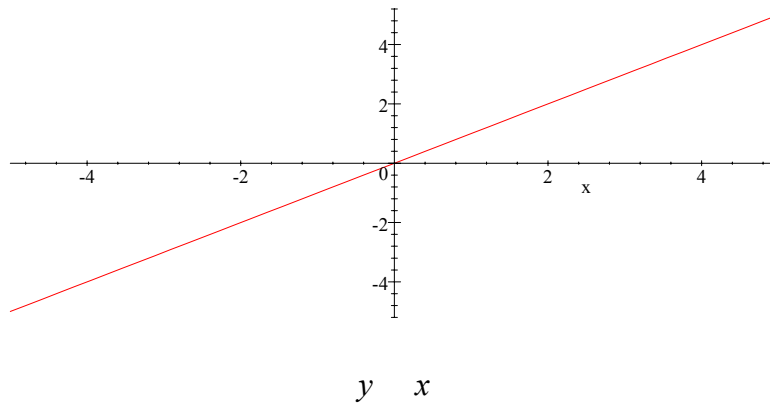
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x-1}, & x < 1 \\ x^3 - x + 1, & 1 < x < 4 \\ \sqrt{x-12}, & x > 4 \end{cases}$$

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{x-1} = \dots$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^3 - x + 1) = 1^3 - 1 + 1 = 1.$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$ Doesn't Exist.
4. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 4} (x^3 - x + 1) = 4^3 - 4 + 1 = 61.$
5. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \sqrt{x-12} = \sqrt{4-12} = 4$
6. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} f(x)$ Doesn't Exist.

2.3. Computing Limits (End Behavior)

Theorem Let $k \in \mathbb{R}$.

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} k = k$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} k = k$.
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x = \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x = -\infty$.
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$.



Theorem Suppose that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow L_1} f(x) = L_1 \text{ \& } \lim_{x \rightarrow L_2} g(x) = L_2.$$

Then:

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow L_1} (f + g)(x) = L_1 + L_2.$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow L_2} (f + g)(x) = L_1 + L_2.$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow L_1} (f - g)(x) = L_1 - L_2.$
4. $\lim_{x \rightarrow L_2} \frac{f}{g}(x) = \frac{L_1}{L_2}, L_2 \neq 0.$
5. $\lim_{x \rightarrow L_1} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{L_1}$ (provided $L_1 \geq 0$ if n is even).

Moreover these statements remain true for limits as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

Remark The converse of the previous theorem is not necessarily true!!

Corollary Let $p(x) = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_nx^n$ (where $c_n \neq 0$). Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} p(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} c_nx^n \text{ \& } \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} p(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} c_nx^n.$$

Theorem Let

$$f(x) = \frac{c_nx^n + \dots + c_1x + c_0}{d_mx^m + \dots + d_1x + d_0}, c_n \neq 0, d_m \neq 0.$$

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{c_nx^n}{d_mx^m},$$

namely

	$n > m$	$m > n$	$m = n$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$	$\frac{c_n}{d_m}$	0	or $\frac{c_n}{d_m}$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3x^2 + 4x + 2}{2x^2 + 5} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3x^2}{2x^2} = \frac{3}{2}.$$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2 + 5x + 2}{x^3 + 5x^2 + 3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2}{x^3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2}{x} = 0.$$

Example

$$\lim_x \frac{2x^3 - 5x + 2}{5x^2 - 5x + 3} \quad \lim_x \frac{2x^3}{5x^2}$$

$$\lim_x \frac{2}{5}x$$

and

$$\lim_x \frac{2x^3 - 5x + 2}{5x^2 - 5x + 3} \quad \lim_x \frac{2x^3}{5x^2}$$

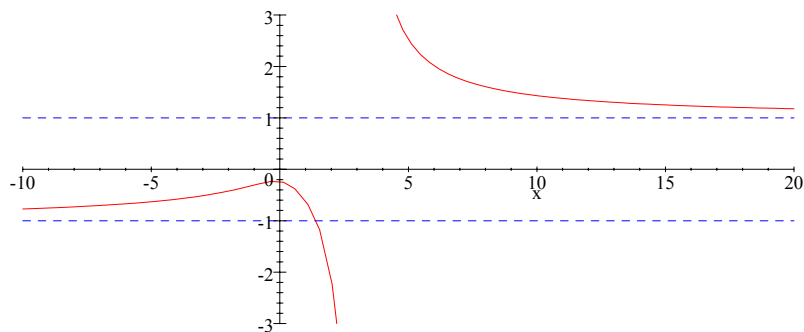
$$\lim_x \frac{2}{5}x$$

Example To evaluate $\lim_x \frac{\sqrt{4x^2 - 2}}{2x - 6}$ we divide by $\sqrt{x^2} = |x| = x$ (since $x > 0$) and get

$$\lim_x \frac{\sqrt{4x^2 - 2}}{2x - 6} = \lim_x \frac{\sqrt{4 - \frac{2}{x^2}}}{2 - \frac{6}{x}} = \frac{\sqrt{4 - 0}}{2 - 0} = 1.$$

To evaluate $\lim_x \frac{\sqrt{4x^2 - 2}}{2x - 6}$ we divide by $\sqrt{x^2} = |x| = x$ (since $x < 0$) and get

$$\lim_x \frac{\sqrt{4x^2 - 2}}{2x - 6} = \lim_x \frac{\sqrt{4 - \frac{2}{x^2}}}{2 - \frac{6}{x}} = \frac{\sqrt{4 - 0}}{2 - 0} = 1.$$



$$y = \frac{\sqrt{4x^2 - 2}}{2x - 6}$$

2.4. Limits (Discussed More Rigorously)

Example Let $f(x) = 2x$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 2.$$

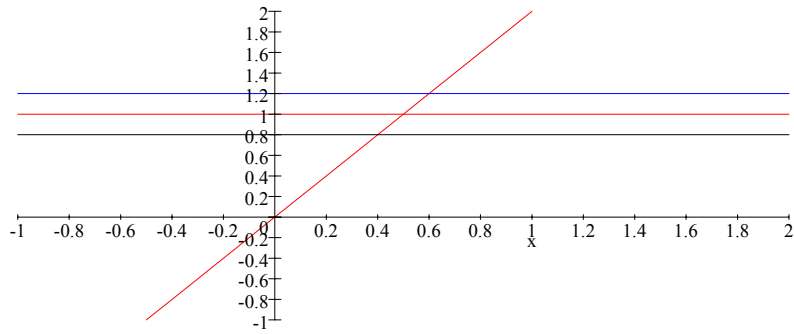
To see that consider the following argument:

For $\epsilon = 0.2$ we seek the largest possible δ (?), so that

$$\begin{array}{l} 0 < \delta < 1 \\ 0 < |x - 1| < \delta \\ 0 < |x - 1| < \delta \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} \implies \\ \implies \\ \implies \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{l} |f(x) - 2| < \epsilon \\ |2x - 2| < 0.2 \\ 2|x - 1| < 0.2 \end{array}$$

So we should choose $\delta = 0.1$. In general

$$\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$



$$y = 2x, \quad \epsilon = 0.2$$

Example Let $f(x) = x^2$. So $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 4$.

For $\epsilon = 1$ we seek the largest possible δ (?), so that

0	$ x - 2 $			$ f(x) - 4 $		
0	$ x - 2 $?	$ x^2 - 4 $		1
0	$ x - 2 $?	$ x - 2 x + 2 $		1

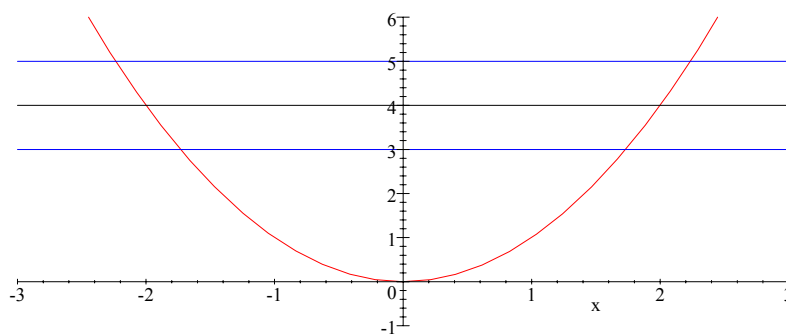
$|x^2 - 4| < 1 \iff |x - 2| < \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$ and $|x - 2| < 3$. So $\delta = \min\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}, 3\right\}$ (ignore $\sqrt{5}$).

To get this we should have

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \approx 0.26795 \quad \text{and} \quad 3 \approx 3.00000$$

Let $\delta_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$ and $\delta_2 = 3$ and choose

$$\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}.$$



$$y = x^2, \quad \delta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}$$

Definition Let $f(x)$ be defined in some open interval containing the real number c (f may not be defined at $x = c$ itself!). Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L,$$

if given any number $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - c| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Example Let $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} f(x) = 2$.

Given $\epsilon = 0.5$, we need to find δ , such that

$$0 < |x - 4| < \delta \implies |\sqrt{x} - 2| < 0.5$$

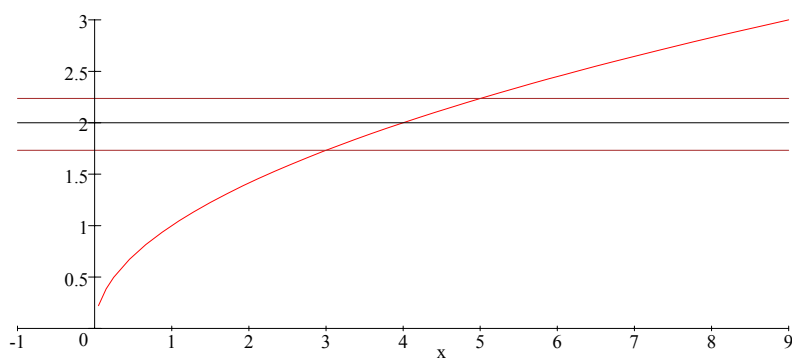
So if we restrict ourselves to $x \in (3, 5)$, then $|\sqrt{x} - 2| < m$ where $m = \sqrt{3} - 2$ and so

$$|x - 4| < |\sqrt{x} - 2| |\sqrt{x} + 2| < m |\sqrt{x} + 2|.$$

Choosing $\delta = \min\{1, m\}$, we get

$$0 < |x - 4| < \delta \implies |\sqrt{x} - 2| < \delta.$$

If $|\sqrt{x} - 2| < \delta$, then $|x - 4| < |\sqrt{x} - 2| |\sqrt{x} + 2| < \delta |\sqrt{x} + 2| < m$ (a contradiction).



$$f(x) = \sqrt{x}; y = \sqrt{3}; y = \sqrt{5}$$

Definition Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x)$ be a function defined in the open interval (a, b) for some real number b (f may not be defined at $x = a$). Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L,$$

if given any number $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$a < x - a < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Example Let $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$.

Given $\epsilon = 0.5$, take $\delta = 0.25$, such that

$$0 < x - 0 < \delta \implies |\sqrt{x} - 0| < 0.5.$$

Choose $\delta = 0.25$.

Definition Let $b \in \mathbb{R}$ and $f(x)$ be a function defined in the open interval (a, b) for some real number a (f may not be defined at $x = b$). Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = L,$$

if given any number $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a number $\delta > 0$ such that

$$b - \delta < x < b \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Example Let $f(x) = \sqrt{1-x}$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = 0.$$

Given $\epsilon > 0$, we seek the largest possible $\delta > 0$, so that

$$1 - \delta < x < 1 \implies |\sqrt{1-x} - 0| < \epsilon.$$

Notice that

$$1 - \delta < x < 1 \iff 1 - x < \delta \iff 0 < 1 - x < \delta \iff 0 < \sqrt{1-x} < \sqrt{\delta}.$$

So we may choose $\delta = \epsilon^2$.

Definition Let $f(x)$ be defined on (a, ∞) for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L,$$

if given any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N > 0$, such that

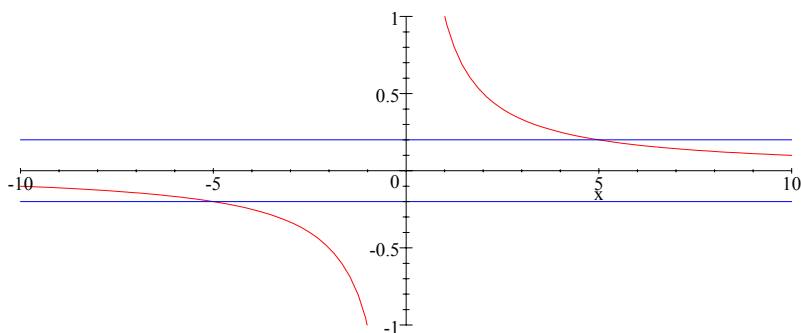
$$x > N \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Example Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$.

Given $\epsilon > 0$, take $N = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$ so that

$$x > N \implies \left| \frac{1}{x} - 0 \right| < \epsilon.$$

We may choose $N = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$.



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}, \quad \epsilon = 0.2$$

Definition Let $f(x)$ be defined on (a, b) for some $b \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L,$$

if given any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$, such that

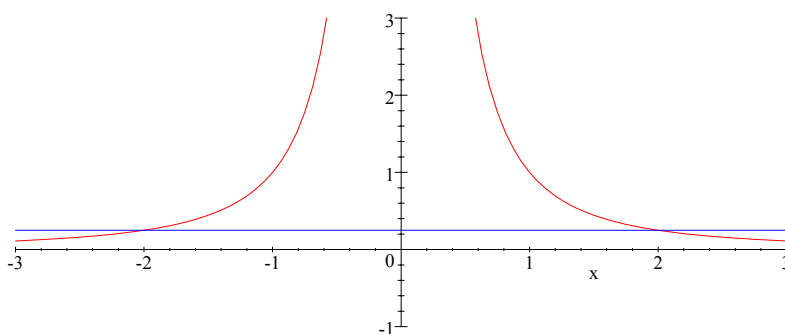
$$x \in (a, a + \delta) \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Example Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$.

Given $\epsilon > 0$, take $N = ?$ so that

$$x > N \implies \left| \frac{1}{x^2} - 0 \right| < \epsilon.$$

We may choose $N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}$.



$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}, \quad 0.25$$

Definition Let $f(x)$ be defined in some open interval containing a ($f(x)$ may be not defined at $x = a$). Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L,$$

if given any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ so that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Definition Let $f(x)$ be defined in some open interval containing a ($f(x)$ may be not defined at $x = a$). Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L,$$

if given any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ so that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Example Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2}$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \infty$.

Given $M > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ so that

$$0 < |x - 0| < \delta \implies \frac{1}{x^2} > M.$$

We may choose $\delta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M}}$.

Definition Let $f(x)$ be defined on (a, ∞) for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$, if given any $M > 0$ there exists $N > M > 0$ so that

$$x > N \implies M < f(x) < M + \epsilon.$$

2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$, if given any $M > 0$ there exists $N > M > 0$ so that

$$x > N \implies f(x) > M.$$

Definition Let $f(x)$ be defined on $(-\infty, b)$ for some $b \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$, if given any $M > 0$, there exists $N > M > 0$, such that

$$x < -N \implies M < f(x) < M + \epsilon.$$

2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty$, if given any $M > 0$ there exists $N > M > 0$ so that

$$x < -N \implies f(x) < -M.$$

Example Let $f(x) = x^3$.

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

Given $M > 0$, find $N > M$? so that

$$x > N \implies x^3 > M.$$

Choose $N = \sqrt[3]{M}$.

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

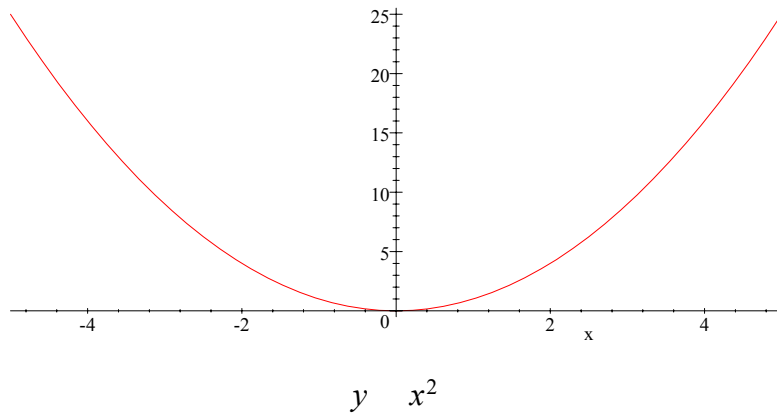
Given $M > 0$, find $N > M$? so that

$$x < -N \implies x^3 < -M.$$

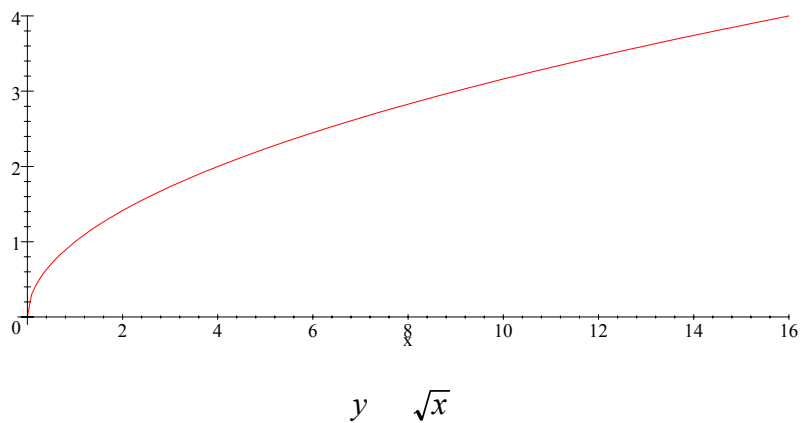
Choose $N = \sqrt[3]{M}$.

2.5. Continuity

Example $f(x) = x^2$



Example $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$

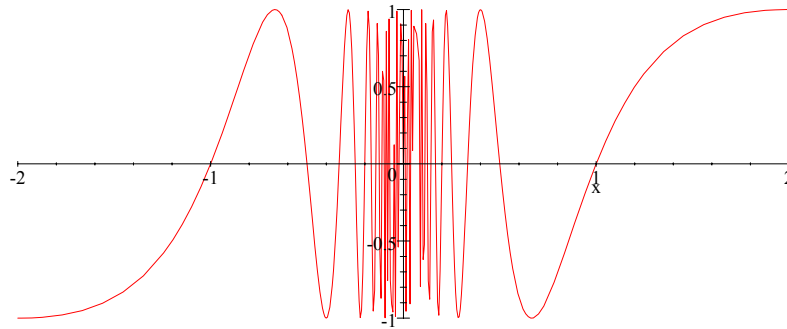


Definition A function $f(x)$ defined on an open interval containing c is continuous at $x = c$, if:

1. $f(c)$ is defined.
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ exists.
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$.

If one of the above conditions fails, then $f(x)$ has discontinuity at $x = c$.

Example $f(x) = \begin{cases} \sin \frac{1}{x} & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$



$$y = \begin{cases} \sin \frac{1}{x} & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

$f(x)$ is discontinuous at $x = 0$, since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ Doesn't Exist.

Theorem Polynomials

$p(x) = c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_nx^n, c_i \in \mathbb{R}$
are continuous everywhere.

Theorem Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be defined on an open interval containing c and assume them to be continuous at $x = c$. Then:

1. $f + g$ is continuous at $x = c$.
2. $f - g$ is continuous at $x = c$.
3. $f \cdot g$ is continuous at $x = c$.
4. $\frac{f}{g}$ is continuous at $x = c$, if $g(c) \neq 0$ (If $g(c) = 0$ then $\frac{f}{g}$ is discontinuous at $x = c$).

Remark The converse of the previous theorem may not be true.

Theorem A rational function $f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$ (where $p(x)$ and $q(x)$ are polynomials) is continuous on $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{c : q(c) = 0\}$.

Theorem *If*

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$; and
2. f is continuous at L ,

then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(g(x)) = f(L) = f(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)).$$

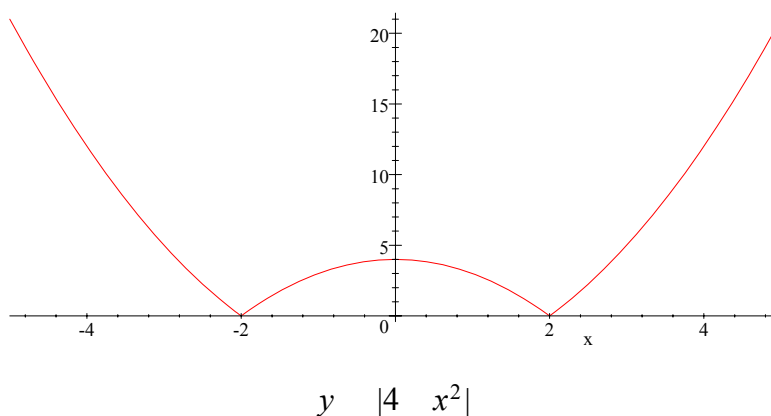
This result is also valid, if we replace \lim by any one of $\lim_{x \rightarrow a}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+}$ or $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty}$.

Theorem *Let f, g be functions such that $\text{Range } g \subseteq \text{Domain } f$.*

1. *If g is continuous at $x = c$ & f is continuous at $g(c)$, then $f \circ g$ is continuous at $x = c$.*
2. *If g is continuous everywhere and f is continuous at each point in $\text{Range } g$, then $f \circ g$ is continuous everywhere.*

Remark *If $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = a$, then $|f(x)|$ is continuous at $x = a$.*

Example *Let $f(x) = 4 - x^2$. Then $|f(x)| = |4 - x^2|$ is continuous everywhere.*



Definition Let $c \in \mathbb{R}$.

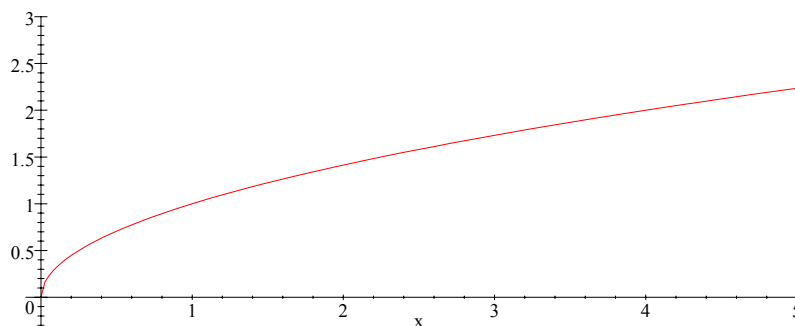
1. Let $f(x)$ be defined on $(c, b]$ for some $b \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $f(x)$ is continuous from the right at $x = c$, if

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

2. Let $f(x)$ be defined on $[a, c)$ for some $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $f(x)$ is continuous from the left at $x = c$, if

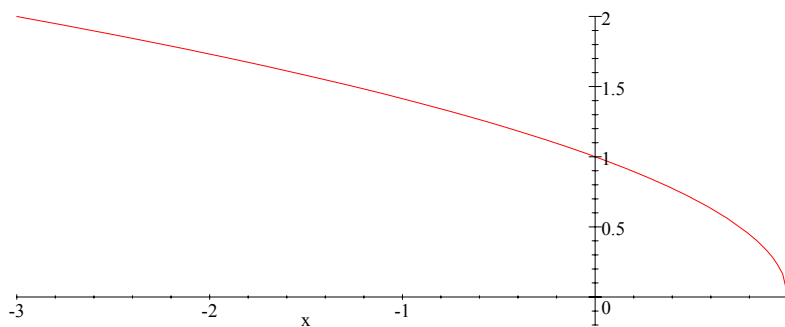
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = f(c).$$

Example $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ is continuous from the right at $x = c$.



$$y = \sqrt{x}$$

Example $f(x) = \sqrt{1-x}$ is continuous from the left at $x = 1$.

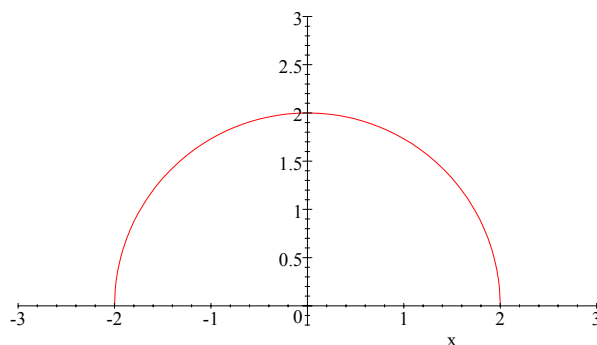


$$y = \sqrt{1-x}$$

Definition A function $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$, if it's continuous at each $c \in [a, b]$. It's continuous on $[a, b]$, if

1. f is continuous on (a, b) .
2. f is continuous from the right at $x = a$.
3. f is continuous from the left at $x = b$.

Example $f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ is continuous on $[-2, 2]$.



$$f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$$

Definition A function $f(x)$ is

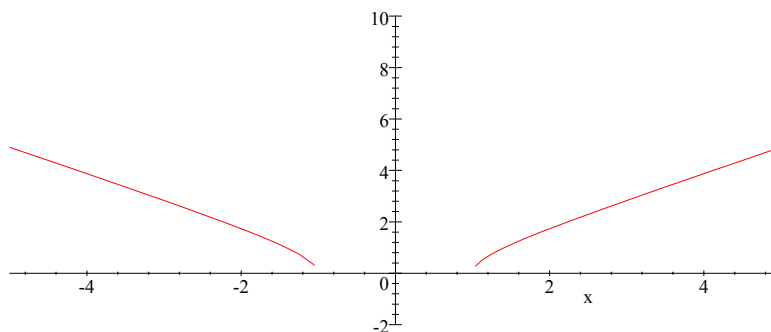
continuous on (a, b) , if f is continuous at each $c \in (a, b)$.

continuous on $[a, b)$, if f is continuous on (a, b) and f is continuous from the right at a (i.e. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$).

continuous on $(a, b]$, if f is continuous at each $c \in (a, b)$ and f is continuous from the left at b (i.e. $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(b)$).

continuous on $[a, b]$, if f is continuous at each $c \in (a, b)$ and f is continuous at a from the right and at b from the left (i.e. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(b)$).

Example $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$ is continuous on $[-1, -1] \cup [1, 1]$.

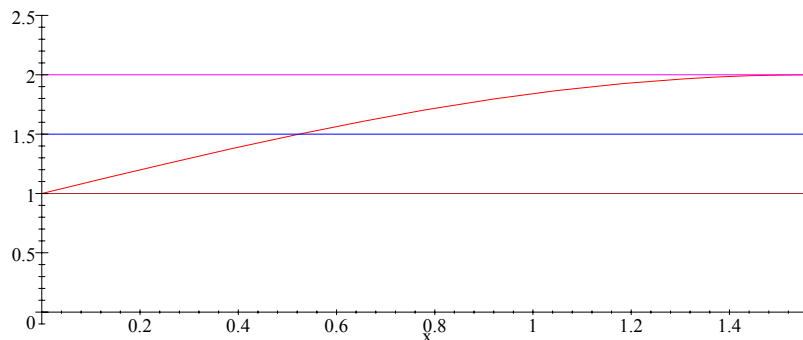


$$y = \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$$

Intermediate Value Theorem

Theorem Let $f(x)$ be continuous on $[a, b]$. If k is any real number between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, inclusive, then there exists at least one $c \in [a, b]$, such that $f(c) = k$.

Example Let $f(x) = \sin x + 1$ and consider the interval $[0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$



$$f(x) = \sin x + 1; y = 1.5$$

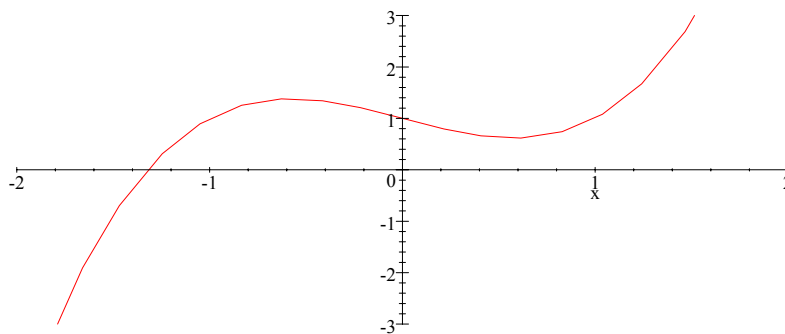
Then $f(x)$ is continuous on $[0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$. Since $f(0) = 1.5 < f(\frac{\pi}{2}) = 2$, there exists at least one $c \in [0, \frac{\pi}{2}]$, such that $f(c) = 1.5$; indeed $c = \frac{\pi}{6}$.

Corollary Let $f(x)$ be continuous on $[a, b]$ with $f(a) \cdot f(b) < 0$ (i.e. $f(a)$ & $f(b)$ have different signs). Then there exists at least one $c \in [a, b]$ such that $f(c) = 0$.

Example The function

$$f(x) = x^3 - x + 1$$

is continuous on the closed interval $[-2, 1]$. Moreover $f(-2) = -5$ and $f(1) = 1$. So f has at least one root in $[-2, 1]$.



$$y = x^3 - x + 1$$

In fact $x^3 - x + 1 = 0$ has exactly one real root

$$\left\{ x = \frac{1}{6} \sqrt[3]{(108 - 12\sqrt{69})} - \frac{2}{\sqrt[3]{(108 + 12\sqrt{69})}}, 1.3247 \right\},$$

Theorem (Fundamental Theorem of Algebra).

Any polynomial equation over \mathbb{R}

$$c_0 + c_1x + \dots + c_nx^n = 0 \quad c_0, \dots, c_n \in \mathbb{R}, c_n \neq 0 \quad \#$$

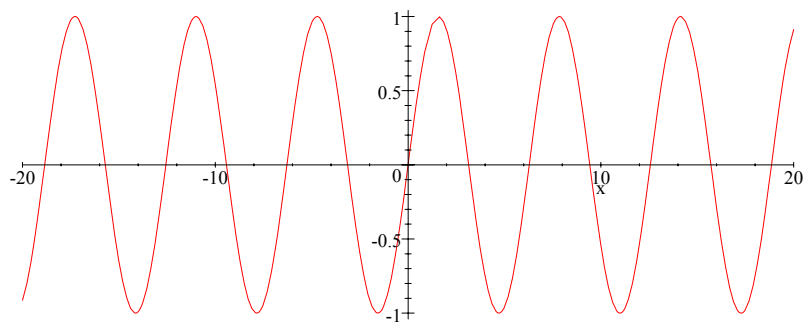
has exactly n roots (counting multiplicity) in the set of complex numbers

$$\mathbb{C} = \{a + bi : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } i = \sqrt{-1}\}.$$

Moreover, if $r = a + bi$ is a root of (ref: n-eqn), then its conjugate $\bar{r} = a - bi$ is also root of (ref: n-eqn).

Remark A polynomial equation of odd degree over \mathbb{R} has at least one real root.

2.6. Limits and Continuity of Trigonometric Functions



$$y = \sin x$$

Domain \mathbb{R} ,

Range $[-1, 1]$

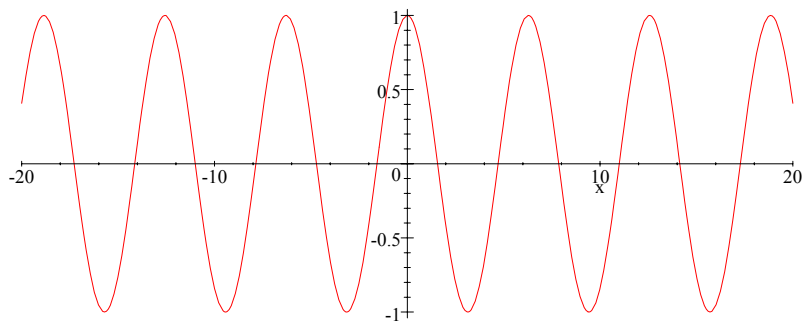
periodic with *principal period* 2π .

$\sin(-x) = -\sin x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$, i.e. $f(x) = \sin x$ is an *odd function* and its graph is symmetric about the origin.

$\sin x = 0$ $x = n\pi$ where n is an integer.

Continuous at all $c \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sin x = \sin c \text{ for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$



$$y = \cos x$$

Domain $(-\infty, \infty)$,

Range $[-1, 1]$,

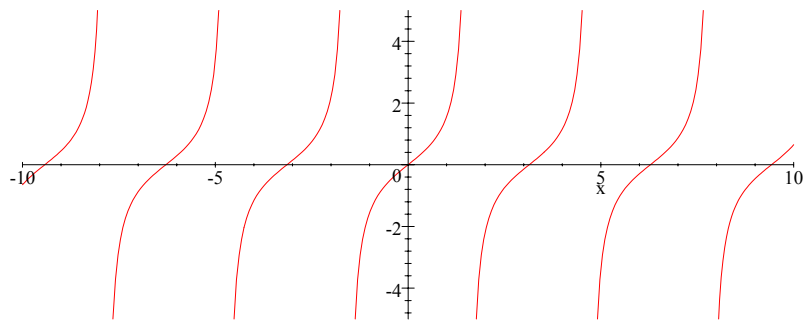
periodic with principal period 2π .

$\cos x = 0$ $x = n\frac{\pi}{2}$, where n is an odd integer.

$\cos(-x) = \cos x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$; hence $f(x) = \cos x$ is an *even function* and its graph is symmetric about the y -axis.

Continuous at all $c \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \cos x = \cos c \text{ for all } c \in \mathbb{R}.$$



$$y = \tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$$

Domain $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{n\frac{\pi}{2} : n \text{ is an odd integer}\}$.

Range \mathbb{R} ,

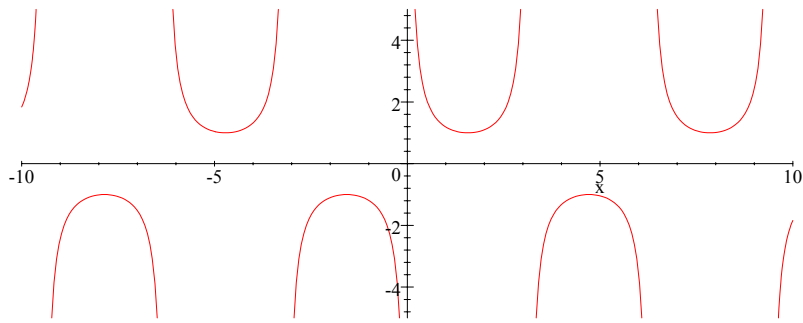
periodic with principal period π .

$\tan x = 0 \iff \sin x = 0 \iff x = n\pi$, where n is an integer.

$\tan(-x) = -\tan x$ for all x in Domain $\tan x$; hence $f(x) = \tan x$ is an *odd function* and its graph is symmetric about the origin.

Continuous at all $c \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{n\frac{\pi}{2} : n \text{ is an integer}\}$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \tan x = \tan c \text{ for all } c \text{ in Domain } \tan x.$$



$$y = \csc x = \frac{1}{\sin x}$$

Domain $\mathbb{R} \setminus n\pi : n \text{ is an integer}$.

Range $(-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$,

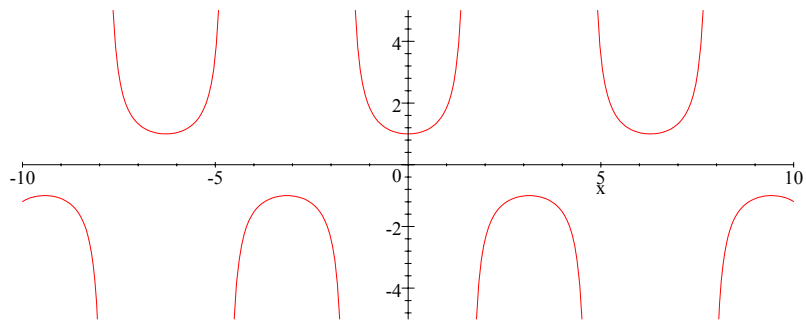
$\csc x \neq 0$ for all x in Domain $\csc x$.

periodic with principal period 2π .

$\csc(-x) = -\csc x$, hence $f(x) = \csc x$ is an *odd function* and its graph is symmetric about the origin.

Continuous at all $c \in \mathbb{R} \setminus n\pi : n \text{ is an integer}$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \csc x = \csc c \text{ for all } c \in \text{Domain } \csc x.$$



$$y = \sec x = \frac{1}{\cos x}$$

Domain $\mathbb{R} \setminus \frac{n\pi}{2} : n \text{ is an odd integer}$.

Range $(-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$,

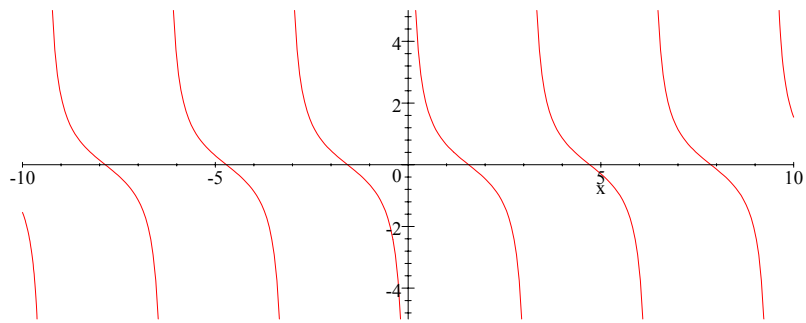
$\sec x \neq 0$ for all $x \in \text{Domain } \sec x$.

periodic with principal period 2π .

$\sec x = \frac{1}{\cos x}$, hence $f(x) = \sec x$ is an *even function* and its graph is symmetric about the y -axis.

Continuous at all $c \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \frac{n\pi}{2} : n \text{ is an odd integer}$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sec x = \sec c \text{ for all } c \in \text{Domain } \sec x.$$



$$y = \cot x = \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$$

Domain $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{n\pi : n \text{ is an integer}\}$.

Range \mathbb{R} ,

periodic with principal period π .

$\cot x = 0$ at $x = n\frac{\pi}{2}$ where n is an odd integer.

Continuous at all $c \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{n\pi : n \text{ is an integer}\}$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \cot x = \cot c \text{ for all } c \in \text{Domain } \cot x.$$

Summary

	$\sin x$	$\cos x$	$\tan x$
Domian	\mathbb{R}	\mathbb{R}	$\mathbb{R} \setminus n\frac{\pi}{2} \quad n \text{ odd integer}$
Range	$[-1, 1]$	$[-1, 1]$	\mathbb{R}
Continuity	cts on \mathbb{R}	cts on \mathbb{R}	cts on its domain
Roots x-intercepts)	$n\pi \quad n \text{ integer}$	$n\frac{\pi}{2} \quad n \text{ odd integer}$	$n\pi \quad n \text{ integer}$
y-intercept	0	1	0
Principal Period	2π	2π	
Symmetries	origin (odd)	y -axis (even)	origin (odd)
Vertcial Asymptotes	NONE	NONE	$x = n\frac{\pi}{2}, n \text{ odd integer}$

	$\sec x$	$\csc x$	$\cot x$
Domian	$\mathbb{R} \setminus n\frac{\pi}{2} \quad n \text{ odd integer}$	$\mathbb{R} \setminus n\pi \quad n \text{ integer}$	$\mathbb{R} \setminus n\pi \quad n \text{ integer}$
Range	$[-1, -1] \cup [1, 1]$	$[-1, -1] \cup [1, 1]$	\mathbb{R}
Continuity	cts on its domain	cts on its domain	cts on its domain
Roots x-intercepts)	NEVER	NEVER	$n\frac{\pi}{2} \quad n \text{ odd integer}$
y-intercept	1	_____	_____
Principal Period	2π	2π	
Symmetries	y -axis (even)	origin (odd)	origin (odd)
Vertcial Asymptotes	$x = n\frac{\pi}{2}, n \text{ odd integer}$	$x = n\pi, n \text{ integer}$	$x = n\pi, n \text{ integer}$

Example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sin \frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1}$$

$$\sin \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1}$$

$$\sin \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x - 1 \cdot x^2 + x - 1}{x - 1}$$

$$\sin \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 + x - 1$$

$$\sin 3 = 0.14112.$$

Theorem (Squeezing Theorem)

1. Let (a, b) be an open interval containing a real number c and f, g, h be functions satisfying

$$g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x) \text{ for all } x \in (a, b) \setminus \{c\}.$$

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = L = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$.

2. Let a be a (positive) real and f, g, h be functions satisfying

$$g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x) \text{ for all } x \in (0, a).$$

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} g(x) = L = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} h(x)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = L$.

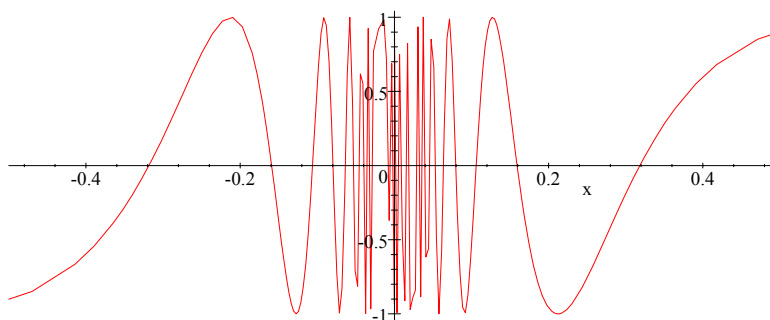
3. Let b be a (negative) real number and f, g, h be functions satisfying

$$g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x) \text{ for all } x \in (b, 0).$$

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} g(x) = L = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} h(x)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = L$.

Example

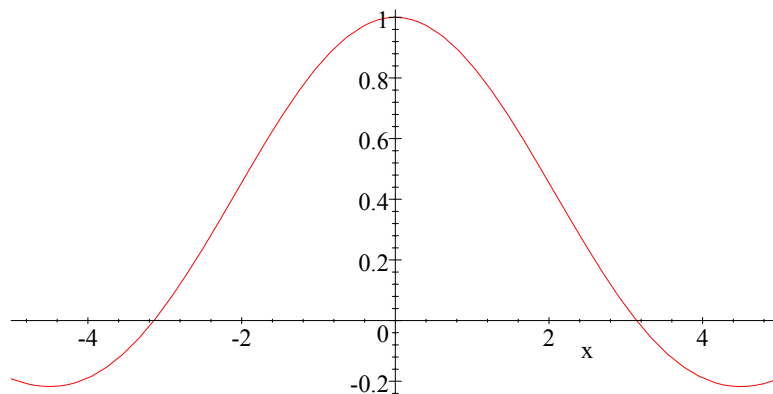
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin \frac{1}{x} \text{ Doesn't Exist.}$$



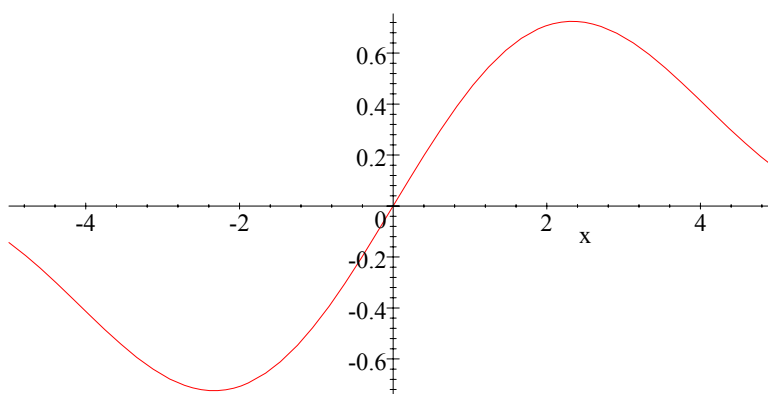
$$y = \sin \frac{1}{x}$$

Theorem

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x} = 0.$$



$$f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$$



$$f(x) = \frac{1 - \cos x}{x}$$

Example

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan 3x}{2x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\frac{3}{2} \frac{\tan 3x}{3x}}{\frac{3}{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 3x}{3x} \frac{1}{\cos 3x}} \\ &= \frac{\frac{3}{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 3x}{3x}}{\frac{3}{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\cos 3x}} \\ &= \frac{\frac{3}{2} \lim_{u \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin u}{u}}{\frac{3}{2} \frac{1}{\cos 0}} \\ &= \frac{\frac{3}{2} \cdot 1 \cdot 1}{\frac{3}{2}}. \end{aligned}$$

Example For all $x \neq 0$

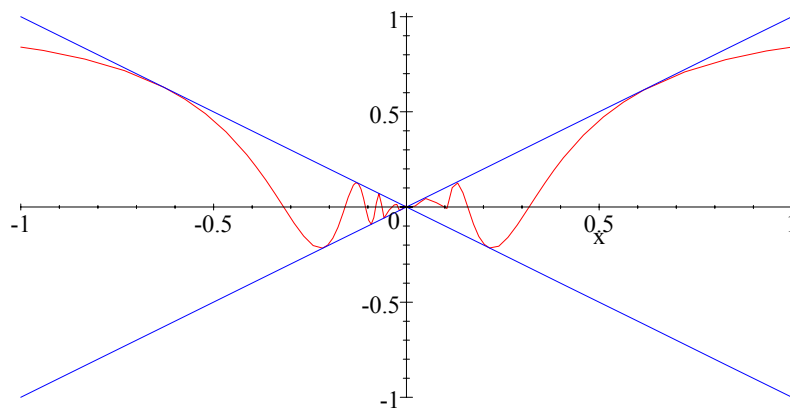
$$-|x| \leq x \sin \frac{1}{x} \leq |x|.$$

Since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} -|x| = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |x| = 0,$$

we conclude (using the squeezing theorem) that

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



$$f(x) = x \sin \frac{1}{x}; \quad y = |x|, \quad y = -|x|$$

Example For all $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ we have

$$-1 \leq \sin x \leq 1.$$

So

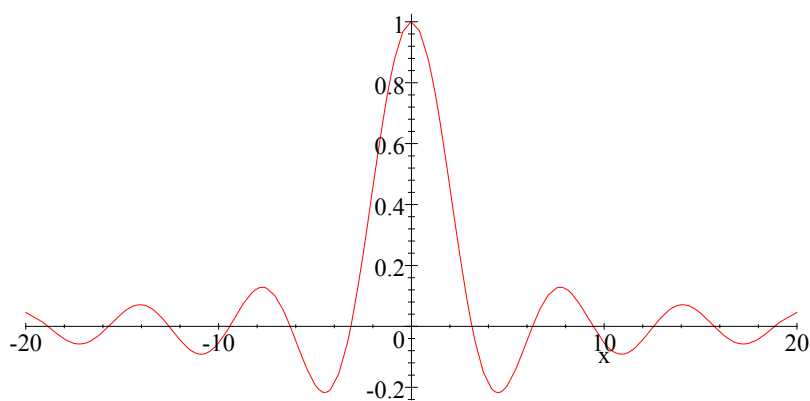
$$-\frac{1}{|x|} \leq \frac{\sin x}{x} \leq \frac{1}{|x|}.$$

Since

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{|x|} = +\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} -\frac{1}{|x|} = -\infty,$$

we conclude that

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



$$f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$$