

# CALCULUS I

## Chapter 2: Limits and Continuity

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Term 192

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# Introduction

- **Calculus** is the study of functions and their properties.
- Three important topics of Calculus will be looked at this semester
  - ① Limits of Functions;
  - ② Continuity of Functions;
  - ③ Differentiation of Functions;
- Throughout the semester we will study each of these topics in some detail.
- There are many applications to each of these topics; these also will be surveyed.
- **Limit** is the most fundamental concept of topics (1)-(3) above. The concepts of continuity, differentiation, and integration all depend on the limit process. This will be our first topic of study.

# Introduction

Motivating the concept of limit, we discuss three Fundamental Problem of Differential Calculus:

- 1 velocity;
- 2 slope of tangent lines;
- 3 rate of change of functions.

# Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

## Objectives

- 1 To compute the average and instantaneous speed for objects.
- 2 To compute the average rate of change of a function (or the secant line).
- 3 To find the instantaneous rate of change of a function (or the slope of the tangent line to the curve of the function).

## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

- In the late sixteenth century, **Galileo** discovered that a solid object dropped from rest (not moving) near the surface of the earth and allowed to fall freely will fall a distance proportional to the square of the time it has been falling.
- This type of motion is called **free fall**. It assumes negligible air resistance to slow the object down, and that gravity is the only force acting on the falling body.
- If  $y$  denotes the distance fallen after  $t$  seconds, then **Galileo's law** is

$$\begin{aligned}y &= 16t^2 \text{ feet} \\ &= 4.9t^2 \text{ meter,}\end{aligned}$$

where 16 (or 4.9) is the (approximate) constant of proportionality.

- A moving body's **average speed** during an interval of time is found by dividing the distance covered by the time elapsed.

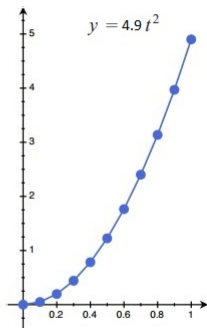
# Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

Drop a ball from the top of a building...

At time  $t$ , how far has the ball fallen?



time (s)	distance (m)
0.10	0.049
0.20	0.196
0.30	0.441
0.40	0.784
0.50	1.225
0.60	1.764
0.70	2.401
0.80	3.136
0.90	3.969
1.00	4.900



## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

- How fast is the ball falling at time  $t$ ?

### Definition (Average Speed)

The **average speed (velocity)** of the ball during a given time interval is the **change in distance**,  $\Delta y$ , divided by **the length of the time interval**,  $\Delta t$ .

- What is its average speed
  - 1 during the first 2 sec of fall? **Ans. 32 ft/sec.**
  - 2 during the 1-sec interval between second 1 and second 2? **Ans. 48 ft/sec.**



## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

- If we need to find the **instantaneous velocity** at a given time, say  $t_0$ , we may take a small time interval  $[t_0, t_0 + h]$  where  $h$  is "very small".
- The average velocity

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} = \frac{f(t_0 + h) - f(t_0)}{h}, \quad y = f(t)$$

will give us a good approximation of the velocity at  $t_0$ ; the smaller we take  $h$  the better approximation we get.

- In fact, we define the **(instantaneous) velocity** at time  $t$ , of an object  $P$ , as

$$v(t) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t + h) - f(t)}{h}.$$

## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

- We cannot use this formula to calculate the "instantaneous" speed at the exact moment  $t_0$  by simply substituting  $h = 0$ , because **we cannot divide by zero**.
- But we can use it to calculate average speeds over increasingly short time intervals starting at  $t_0 = 1$  and  $t_0 = 2$ .
- When we do so, we see a pattern.

## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

**TABLE 2.1** Average speeds over short time intervals

$$\text{Average speed: } \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} = \frac{16(t_0 + h)^2 - 16t_0^2}{h}$$

<b>Length of time interval <math>h</math></b>	<b>Average speed over interval of length <math>h</math> starting at <math>t_0 = 1</math></b>	<b>Average speed over interval of length <math>h</math> starting at <math>t_0 = 2</math></b>
1	48	80
0.1	33.6	65.6
0.01	32.16	64.16
0.001	32.016	64.016
0.0001	32.0016	64.0016

## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

- The average speed on intervals starting at  $t_0 = 1$  seems to approach a limiting value of 32 as the length of the interval decreases.
- This suggests that the rock is falling at a speed of 32 ft/sec at  $t_0 = 1$  sec.
- Lets confirm this algebraically.

- The average speeds over  $[t_0, t_0 + h]$  is given by

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} = \frac{16(t_0 + h)^2 - 16t_0^2}{h}$$

- If we set  $t_0 = 1$  and then expand the numerator and simplify, we find that

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} = 32 + 16h.$$

It is clear that the average speed has the limiting value  $32 + 16 \times 0 = 32$  ft/sec as  $h$  approaches 0.

- Similarly, setting  $t_0 = 2$  we get

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta t} = 64 + 16h.$$

As  $h$  gets closer and closer to 0, the average speed has the limiting value 64 ft/sec when  $t_0 = 2$  sec.

## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

- The average speed of a falling object is just an example of a more general idea which we discuss now.
- Given an arbitrary function  $y = f(x)$ , we calculate the average rate of change of  $y$  with respect to  $x$  over the interval  $[x_1, x_2]$  by dividing the change in the value of  $y$ ,  $\Delta y = f(x_2) - f(x_1)$  by the length  $\Delta x = x_2 - x_1 = h$  of the interval over which the change occurs.

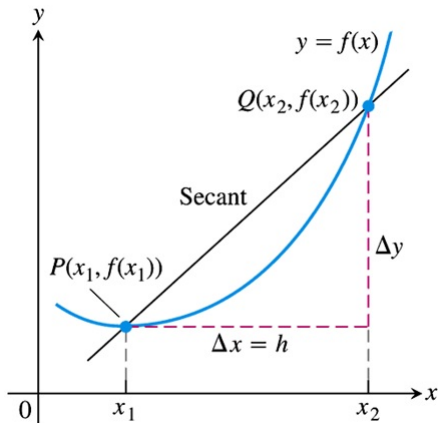
### Definition (Average rate of change)

The average rate of change of  $y = f(x)$  with respect to  $x$  over the interval  $[x_1, x_2]$  is

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} &= \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} \\ &= \frac{f(x_1 + h) - f(x_1)}{h}, \quad h \neq 0.\end{aligned}$$

## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

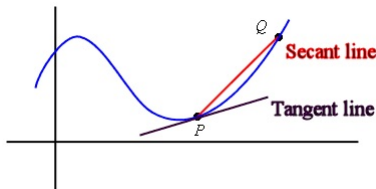
Geometrically, the rate of change of  $f$  over  $[x_1, x_2]$  is the slope of the line through the points  $P(x_1, f(x_1))$  and  $Q(x_2, f(x_2))$ .



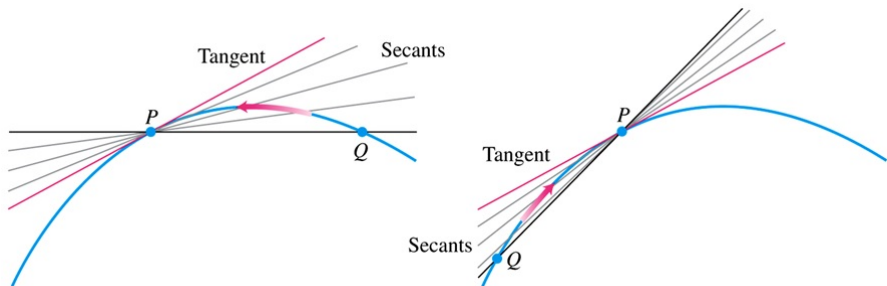
**Figure:** A secant to the graph  $y = f(x)$ . Its slope is  $\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$ , the average rate of change of  $f$  over the interval  $[x_1, x_2]$

## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

- A secant line of a curve is a line that intersects two or more points on the curve.
- It can be used to approximate the tangent to a curve, at some point  $P$ .
- If the secant to a curve is defined by two points,  $P$  and  $Q$ , with  $P$  fixed and  $Q$  variable, as  $Q$  approaches  $P$  along the curve, the direction of the secant approaches that of the tangent at  $P$ .
- As a consequence, one could say that the limit of the secant's slope, or direction, is that of the tangent line at the point  $P$ .



## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves



**Figure:** The tangent to the curve at  $P$  is the line through  $P$  whose slope is the limit of the secant slopes as  $Q \rightarrow P$  from either side.



## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

### Example

Find the slope of the curve  $y = f(x) = 2x^2 + 1$  at the point  $P(2, 9)$ .

The slope of the secant line through the point  $P(2, 9)$  and  $Q(2 + h, f(2 + h))$  is

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{f(2 + h) - f(2)}{(2 + h) - 2} = 8 + 2h.$$

As  $h$  gets closer and closer to 0 we see that the slope is 8.

### Definition

The equation

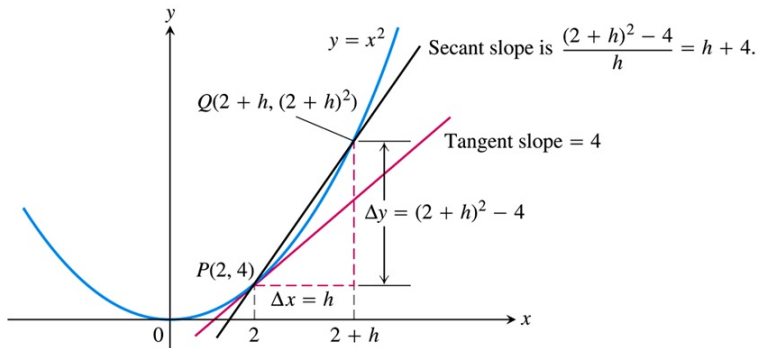
$$y = y_1 + m(x - x_1)$$

is the point-slope equation of the line that passes through the point  $(x_1, y_1)$  and has slope  $m$ .

## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

### Example

Find an equation of the tangent line to the parabola  $y = x^2$  at the point  $P(2, 4)$ .



**Figure:** Finding the slope of the parabola  $y = x^2$  at the point  $P(2, 4)$  as the limit of secant slopes

The tangent to the parabola at  $P(2, 4)$  is the line through  $P$  with slope 4:  $y = 4x - 4$ .

## Rates of Change and Tangents to Curves

### Example

Find the average rate of change of the function  $f(x) = 6x^3 + 6$  over the interval  $[-6, 6]$ .

**Ans. 216**

### Example

Find an equation for the line tangent to  $y = -5 - 7x^2$  at  $(-3, -68)$ . **Ans.  $y = 42x + 58$**

### Example

Find the slope of the curve  $y = x^2 - 3x - 2$  at the point  $P(2, -4)$  by finding the limit of the secant slopes through point  $P$ . Then find an equation of the tangent line to the curve at  $P(2, -4)$ . **Ans. 1,  $y = x - 6$**

# Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

## Objectives

- 1 To explain the meaning of a limit.
- 2 To use properties of limits to calculate limits.
- 3 To apply limit laws to find one-sided limits.
- 4 To use the squeeze (sandwich or pinching) theorem to evaluate limits.

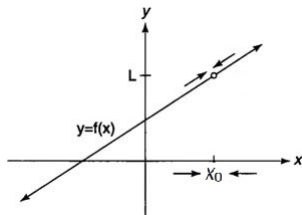
## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

- The limit of the function  $f(x)$  as  $x$  approaches to  $x_0$  is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L, \quad L \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Or,

$$f(x) \rightarrow L \text{ as } x \rightarrow x_0.$$



- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x) = 6$  means as  $x$  approaches to 3,  $f(x)$  approaches to 6.

# Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

- **One sided Limit:**

- ① Left-hand limit:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = L,$$

as  $x$  approaches  $x_0$  from the left,  $f(x)$  approaches  $L$ .

- ② Right-hand limit:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = L.$$

as  $x$  approaches  $x_0$  from the right,  $f(x)$  approaches  $L$ .

- In general,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  iff  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = L$ .

- If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$  does not exist.

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

- If  $f$  is the **identity function**  $f(x) = x$ , then for any value of  $x_0$ :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} x = x_0.$$

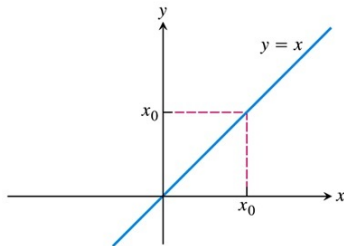


Figure: Identity function

- For example,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} x = 3.$$

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

- If  $f$  is the **constant function**  $f(x) = k$ , then for any value of  $x_0$ :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} k = k.$$

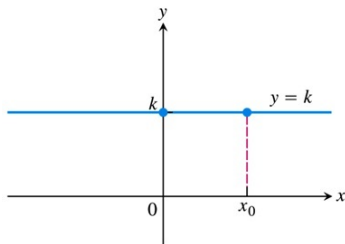


Figure: Constant function

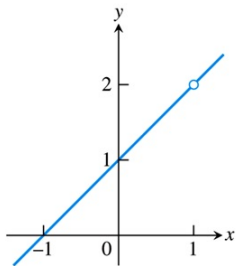
- For example,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -7} (4) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (4) = 4.$$

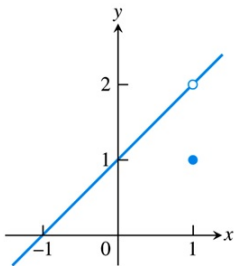


## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

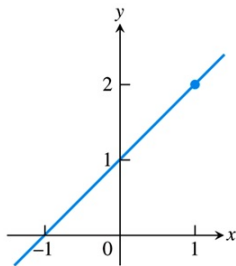
- The value of the function at the point  $x_0$  is not important when we want to find the limit of the function at  $x_0$ .
- For example, consider the following functions:



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



$$(b) g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}, & x \neq 1 \\ 1, & x = 1 \end{cases}$$



$$(c) h(x) = x + 1$$

**Figure:** The limits of  $f(x)$ ,  $g(x)$ , and  $h(x)$  all equal 2 as  $x$  approaches  $x_0 = 1$ . However, only  $h(x)$  has the same function value as its limit at  $x = 1$

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

- **Limits that do not exist:** limit may fail to exist at some points.
- For example, consider the following functions:

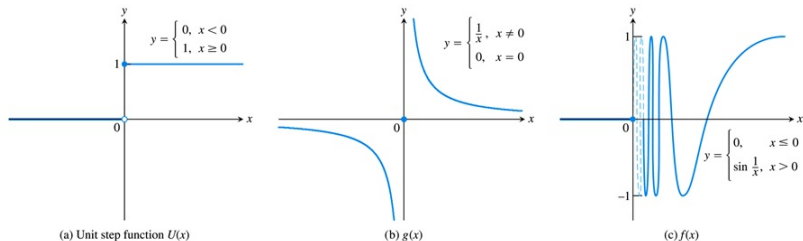


Figure: None of these functions has a limit as  $x$  approaches 0

- The function  $f(x) = \sqrt{x-1}$  has no limit at 1 because it is not defined from the left of 1.

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

**THEOREM 1—Limit Laws** If  $L$ ,  $M$ ,  $c$ , and  $k$  are real numbers and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = M, \quad \text{then}$$

1. *Sum Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$
2. *Difference Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) - g(x)) = L - M$
3. *Constant Multiple Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (k \cdot f(x)) = k \cdot L$
4. *Product Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = L \cdot M$
5. *Quotient Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}, \quad M \neq 0$
6. *Power Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x)]^n = L^n, \quad n \text{ a positive integer}$
7. *Root Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{L} = L^{1/n}, \quad n \text{ a positive integer}$

(If  $n$  is even, we assume that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L > 0$ .)

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

### Example

Evaluate the following limits:

①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^3 + 4x^2 - 3)$ . **Ans.** 21

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \left( \frac{x^4 + x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 5} \right)$ . **Ans.**  $\frac{1}{6}$

③  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -2} \sqrt{4x^2 - 3}$ . **Ans.**  $\sqrt{13}$

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

### **THEOREM 2—Limits of Polynomials**

If  $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} P(x) = P(c) = a_n c^n + a_{n-1} c^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$

### **THEOREM 3—Limits of Rational Functions**

If  $P(x)$  and  $Q(x)$  are polynomials and  $Q(c) \neq 0$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{P(c)}{Q(c)}.$$

# Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

## Example

Evaluate the following limits:

①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} \left( \frac{x^3 + 4x^2 - 3}{x^2 + 5} \right)$ . **Ans.**  $\frac{0}{6} = 0$

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2}$ . **Ans.** *DNE*

③  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{|x|}{x}$ . **Ans.** *DNE*

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

### Example

If  $[\cdot]$  denotes the greatest integer function, let  $f(x) = [x - 2]$  find,

① Sketch the graph of  $f(x)$ .

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x)$ . **Ans.** 0

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

④  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$ . **Ans.** DNE

⑤  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3.1} f(x)$ . **Ans.** 1

# Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

## Indeterminate forms

- To evaluate limits of the form  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  we may substitute directly, and if the substitution leads to  $\frac{0}{0}$ , we say that the form is **indeterminate**.
- To handle these cases, we need further manipulations, such as **algebraic manipulation** or use other techniques.
- Some examples of these algebraic manipulations are the following.



## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

### Example

Evaluate the following limits:

$$\textcircled{1} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 + x - 2}{x^2 - x}. \text{ Ans. } 3$$

$$\textcircled{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x-1}{x^3-1}. \text{ Ans. } \frac{1}{3}$$

Recall:  $(u^3 - v^3) = (u - v)(u^2 + uv + v^2)$ .

$$\textcircled{3} \lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{x-4}{\sqrt{x}-2}. \text{ Ans. } 4$$

$$\textcircled{4} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x^2+100}-10}{x^2}. \text{ Ans. } \frac{1}{20}$$

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

**THEOREM 4—The Sandwich Theorem** Suppose that  $g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$  for all  $x$  in some open interval containing  $c$ , except possibly at  $x = c$  itself. Suppose also that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} h(x) = L.$$

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

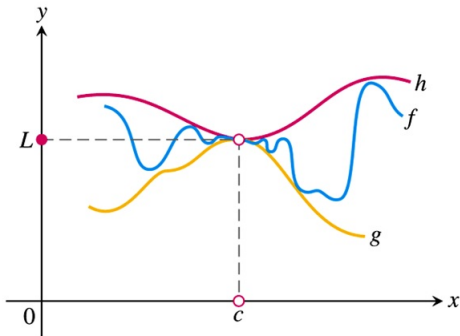
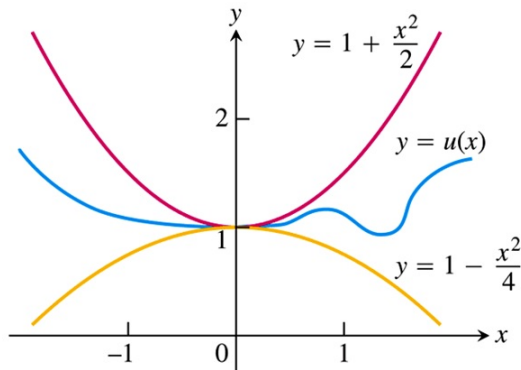


Figure: The graph of  $f$  is sandwiched between the graphs of  $g$  and  $h$

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

### Example

Given that  $1 - \frac{x^2}{4} \leq u(x) \leq 1 + \frac{x^2}{2}$  for all  $x \neq 0$ , find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} u(x)$ , no matter how complicated  $u$  is.



**Figure:** Any function  $u(x)$  whose graph lies in the region between  $y = 1 + \frac{x^2}{2}$  and  $1 - \frac{x^2}{4}$  has limit 1 as  $x \rightarrow 0$

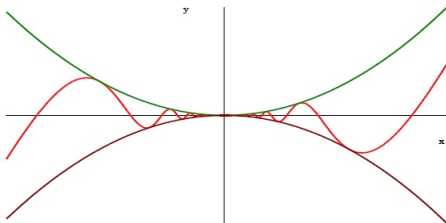
# Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

## Example

Evaluate the limit if exists:

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

Recall: the sine function is always bounded in absolute value by 1, so  $-1 \leq \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \leq 1$ .



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

## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

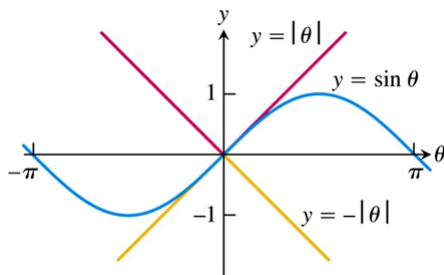
### Example

The Sandwich Theorem (also called the Squeeze Theorem or the Pinching Theorem) helps us to establish several important limit rules:

- $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \sin \theta = 0$ .

Recall:

$$-|\theta| \leq \sin \theta \leq |\theta| \text{ for all } \theta.$$



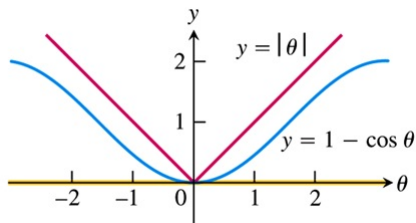
# Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

## Example

•  $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \cos \theta = 1$ .

Recall:

$$0 \leq 1 - \cos \theta \leq |\theta| \text{ for all } \theta.$$



## Limit of a Function and Limit Laws

### Example

- If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} |f(x)| = 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = 0$ .

Recall: for any function  $f(x)$  we have

$$-|f(x)| \leq f(x) \leq |f(x)|.$$

**THEOREM 5** If  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  for all  $x$  in some open interval containing  $c$ , except possibly at  $x = c$  itself, and the limits of  $f$  and  $g$  both exist as  $x$  approaches  $c$ , then

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

# The Precise Definition of a Limit

## Objectives

- 1 To define the limit using  $\epsilon - \delta$  definition.
- 2 To find  $\delta$  algebraically for given  $\epsilon$ .



# The Precise Definition of a Limit

## Example

Consider the function  $y = 2x - 1$  near  $x_0 = 4$ . Intuitively it appears that  $y$  is close to 7 when  $x$  is close to 4, so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4}(2x - 1) = 7$ . However, how close to  $x_0 = 4$  does  $x$  have to be so that  $y = 2x - 1$  differs from 7 by, say, less than 2 units?

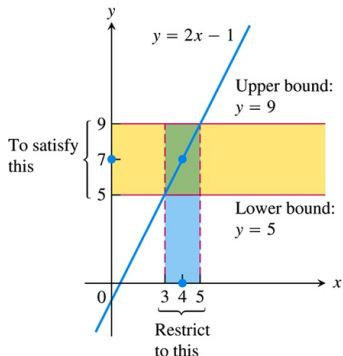


Figure: Keeping  $x$  within 1 unit of  $x_0 = 4$  will keep  $y$  within 2 units of  $y_0 = 7$

## The Precise Definition of a Limit

**Informal Definition:** The limit of a function  $f(x)$  is  $L$  as  $x$  approaches  $x_0$ , written  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$ , means that as  $x$  gets closer and closer (but not equal) to  $x_0$ , the values of  $f(x)$  get closer and closer to  $L$ . That is, we can make  $f(x)$  arbitrarily close to  $L$  by choosing  $x$  very close to  $x_0$ . If no such  $L \in \mathbb{R}$  exist, we say that the limit does not exist (DNE).

### Definition (The Precise Definition of a Limit)

Let  $f(x)$  be defined on an open interval about  $x_0$  except possibly at  $x_0$  itself. We say that the limit of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  approaches  $x_0$  is the number  $L$ , and write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L,$$

if, for every number  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a corresponding number  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $x$ ,

$$0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

# The Precise Definition of a Limit

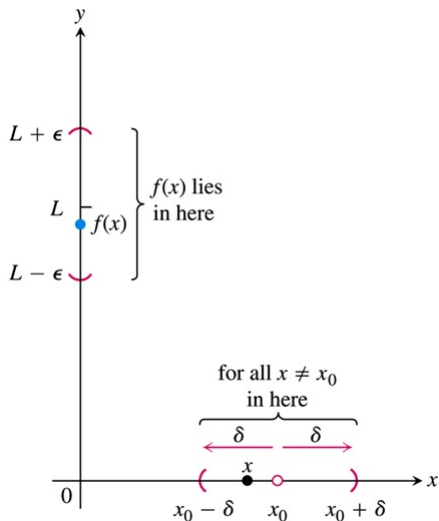


Figure: The relation of  $\delta$  and  $\epsilon$  in the definition of limit

## The Precise Definition of a Limit

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$  means:

- You can get  $f(x)$  as **close as you want** ( $\epsilon$ ) to  $L$  by making  $x$  sufficiently close to  $x_0$ .
- You tell me how close you want  $f(x)$  to be to  $L$  (give positive number  $\epsilon$ ), I will find another number  $\delta$  where if  $x$  is within  $\delta$  of  $x_0$ , then  $f(x)$  will be within  $\epsilon$  of  $L$ .
- Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find  $\delta > 0$  such that if

$$|x - x_0| < \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

# The Precise Definition of a Limit

## Example

Use  $\epsilon - \delta$  definition to prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (5x - 3) = 2$ .

- ① For a any given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we need to find a  $\delta > 0$  so that the following will be true:

$$|(5x - 3) - 2| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad |x - 1| < \delta.$$

- ② The first inequality can be simplified a little.

$$5|x - 1| < \epsilon.$$

- ③ So, the definition of the limit requires that,

$$|x - 1| < \frac{\epsilon}{5} \quad \text{whenever} \quad |x - 1| < \delta.$$

- ④ Therefore,

$$|(5x - 3) - 2| < \epsilon \quad \text{iff} \quad |x - 1| < \frac{\epsilon}{5}.$$

- ⑤ Taking  $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{5}$  (or any other smaller number) proves that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (5x - 3) = 2$ .

## The Precise Definition of a Limit

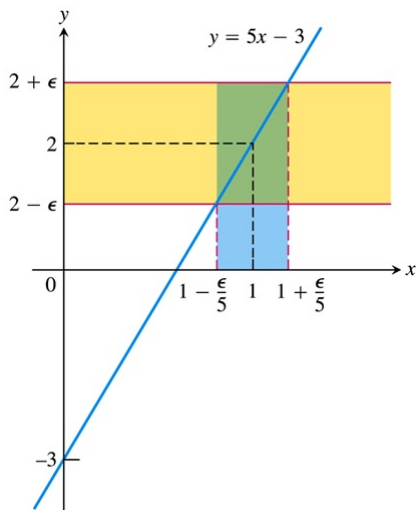


Figure: If  $f(x) = 5x - 3$ , then  $0 < |x - 1| < \frac{\epsilon}{5}$  guarantees that  $|(5x - 3) - 2| < \epsilon$

# The Precise Definition of a Limit

## Example

Use  $\epsilon - \delta$  definition to prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0$ .

- ① For a any given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we need to find a  $\delta > 0$  so that the following will be true:

$$|x^2 - 0| < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad |x - 0| < \delta.$$

- ② The first inequality can be simplified a little.

$$|x^2| = |x|^2 < \epsilon.$$

- ③ So, the definition of the limit requires that,

$$|x| < \sqrt{\epsilon} \quad \text{whenever} \quad |x| < \delta.$$

- ④ Therefore,

$$|x^2 - 0| < \epsilon \quad \text{iff} \quad |x - 0| < \sqrt{\epsilon}.$$

- ⑤ Taking  $\delta = \sqrt{\epsilon}$  (or any other smaller number) proves that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0$ .

# The Precise Definition of a Limit

## Example

Use the graph of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  to find the largest number of  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $|x - 1| < \delta$  then  $|f(x) - 1| < 0.1$ .

- $L + \epsilon = \frac{11}{10}$  and  $L - \epsilon = \frac{9}{10}$ .
- $f(x_1) = \frac{9}{10} \implies x_1 = \frac{10}{9}$ .
- $f(x_2) = \frac{11}{10} \implies x_2 = \frac{10}{11}$ .
- Then,  $\delta_1 = \left| \frac{10}{9} - 1 \right| = \frac{1}{9}$ , and  $\delta_2 = \left| 1 - \frac{10}{11} \right| = \frac{1}{11}$ .
- Therefore,  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\} = \frac{1}{11}$ .



## The Precise Definition of a Limit

### Example

Use the graph of  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  to find the largest number of  $\delta$  such that  $|\sqrt{x} - 2| < 0.4$  whenever  $0 < |x - 4| < \delta$ . **Ans.**  $\delta = 1.44$

### Example

For  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 5} 2\sqrt{x+1} = 2$ , find a  $\delta > 0$  that works for  $\epsilon = 1$ . That is, find  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x - 5| < \delta$  then  $|\sqrt{x-1} - 2| < 1$ . **Ans.**  $0 < \delta \leq 3$

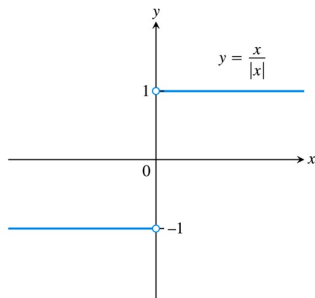
# One-Sided Limits

## Objective

- 1 To apply limit laws to find one-sided limits.

## One-Sided Limits

- We know that some functions has no limits at a point.
- For example, the function  $f(x) = \frac{x}{|x|}$  has no limit at 0 because it does not approach a real number at 0; i. e.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$  does not exist. But it is clear that as  $x$  approaches 0 from the right the values of the function are approaching 1, while if  $x$  approaches 0 from the left the values of the function are approaching -1.



- Which means that the limit of the function may exist from one side of the point  $x_0$ .
- So, we may define the limit of the function from one side.

# One-Sided Limits

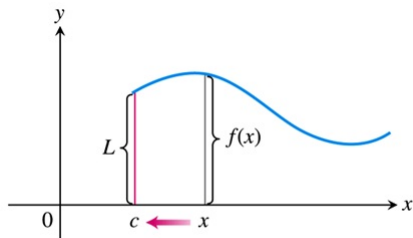
## Informal Definitions:

- ① If  $f(x)$  is defined on an interval  $(c, b)$  and approaches a number  $L$  as  $x$  approaches  $c$  from within that interval (from the right), then  $f$  has a right-hand limit  $L$  at  $c$ , and we write

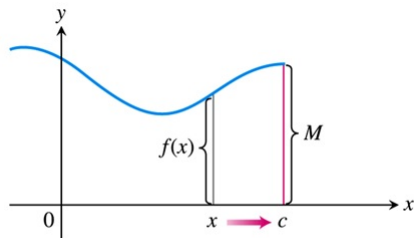
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = L.$$

- ② Similarly, if  $f(x)$  is defined on an interval  $(a, c)$  and approaches a number  $M$  as  $x$  approaches  $c$  from within that interval (from the left), then  $f$  has a left-hand limit  $M$  at  $c$ , and we write

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



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

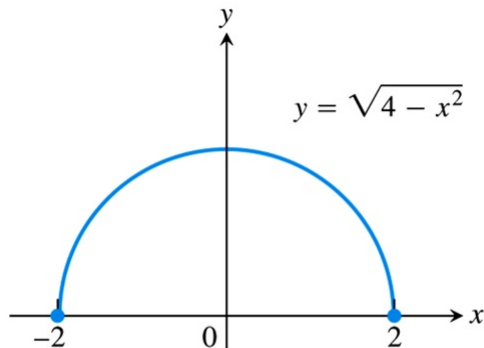


(b)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = M$

## One-Sided Limits

### Example

Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ . Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -2^+} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x)$ .



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \sqrt{4 - x^2} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -2^+} \sqrt{4 - x^2} = 0$$

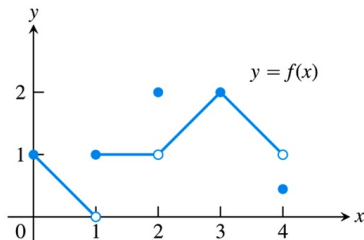
# One-Sided Limits

**THEOREM 6** A function  $f(x)$  has a limit as  $x$  approaches  $c$  if and only if it has left-hand and right-hand limits there and these one-sided limits are equal:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = L.$$

## Example

Consider the function  $f(x)$  whose graph is given in the figure.



Find:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x)$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x)$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x)$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x)$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x)$ .

# One-Sided Limits

## Definition

- We say that  $f(x)$  has right-hand limit  $L$  at  $x_0$ , and write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = L$$

if for every number  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a corresponding number  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $x$

$$x_0 < x < x_0 + \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Or

$$0 < x - x_0 < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

- We say that  $f(x)$  has left-hand limit  $L$  at  $x_0$ , and write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = L$$

if for every number  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a corresponding number  $\delta > 0$  such that for all  $x$

$$x_0 - \delta < x < x_0 \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Or

$$0 < x_0 - x < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

# One-Sided Limits

## Example

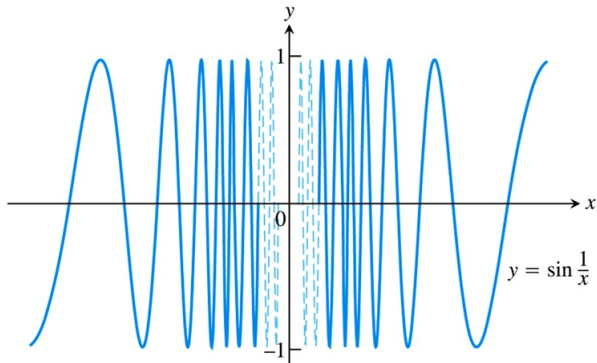
Prove that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \sqrt{x-1} = 0$ .

- Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we want to find  $\delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < x - 1 < \delta$  then  $|\sqrt{x-1} - 0| < \epsilon$ .
- $|\sqrt{x-1} - 0| < \epsilon$  iff  $0 < \sqrt{x-1} - 0 < \epsilon$  iff  $0 < \sqrt{x-1} < \epsilon$  iff  $0 < x - 1 < \epsilon^2$ .
- Thus, taking  $\delta = \epsilon^2$  proves that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \sqrt{x-1} = 0$ .



## One-Sided Limits

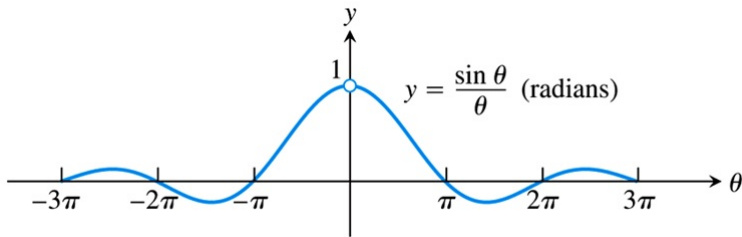
- We have seen before that the limit does not always exist.
- Similarly, the one sided limit may not exist also.
- For example,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sin \frac{1}{x}$  does not exist and also  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \sin \frac{1}{x}$ , since the graph oscillates between -1 and 1 as you can see in the figure.



# One-Sided Limits

## Limits Involving $\frac{\sin \theta}{\theta}$ .

- If we look at the graph of  $\frac{\sin \theta}{\theta}$ , we see that the values of the function tend to 1 as  $\theta$  approaches 0.



**Figure:** The graph of  $f(\theta) = \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta}$  suggests that the right- and left-hand limits as  $\theta$  approaches 0 are both 1

- In fact we have the following theorem.

# One-Sided Limits

## THEOREM 7

$$\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1 \quad (\theta \text{ in radians})$$

## Example

Evaluate the following limits if exist.

①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x}$ . **Ans.** 0

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 2x}{5x}$ . **Ans.**  $\frac{2}{5}$

③  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan t \sec 2t}{3t}$ . **Ans.**  $\frac{1}{3}$

# One-Sided Limits

## Example

Evaluate the following limits if exist.

①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 3x}{x}$ . **Ans. 3**

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x - \sin x}{x}$ . **Ans. 1**

③  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x \cot x$ . **Ans. 1**

④  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 3x}{\sin 2x}$ . **Ans.  $\frac{3}{2}$**

⑤  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 - x + \sin x}{2x}$ . **Ans. 0**

# Continuity

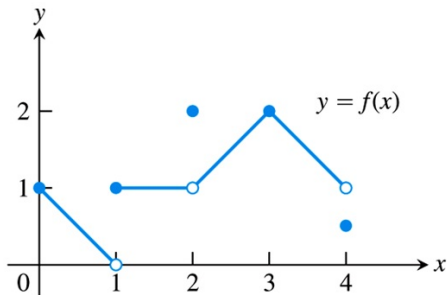
## Objective

- 1 To define the continuous function at a number  $a$  and on an interval.
- 2 To examine the conditions of continuity from one side and from both sides.
- 3 To recognize the number of discontinuity and its type.
- 4 To apply some laws to show continuity.
- 5 To use the Intermediate Value Theorem (IVT) as a property of continuity.

# Continuity

## Example

Find the points at which the function  $f$  is continuous and the points at which  $f$  is not continuous.



The function  $f$  is continuous at every point in its domain  $[0, 4]$  except at  $x = 1$ ,  $x = 2$ , and  $x = 4$ .

# Continuity

Points at which  $f$  is continuous:

$$\text{At } x = 0, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = f(0).$$

$$\text{At } x = 3, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x) = f(3).$$

$$\text{At } 0 < c < 4, c \neq 1, 2, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c).$$

Points at which  $f$  is not continuous:

$$\text{At } x = 1, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) \text{ does not exist.}$$

$$\text{At } x = 2, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 1, \text{ but } 1 \neq f(2).$$

$$\text{At } x = 4, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 4^-} f(x) = 1, \text{ but } 1 \neq f(4).$$

$$\text{At } c < 0, c > 4, \quad \text{these points are not in the domain of } f.$$

# Continuity

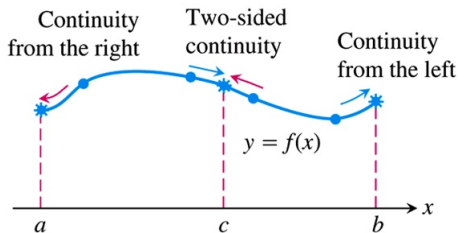
## Definition

- ① **Interior Point:** A function  $y = f(x)$  is continuous at an interior point  $c$  of its domain if

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

- ② **End Point:** A function  $y = f(x)$  is continuous at a left endpoint  $a$  or is continuous at a right endpoint  $b$  of its domain if

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





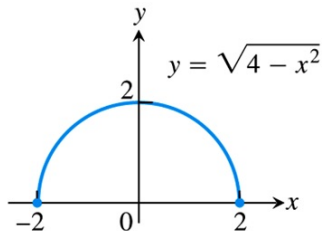
# Continuity

- If  $f$  is not continuous at  $c$ , it is said to be **discontinuous** at  $c$ .
- Also we say that  $f$  is **left continuous** if it is continuous from the left, and it is **right continuous** if it is continuous from the right at  $c$ .
- Note that  $f$  is continuous at  $c$  if it is left and right continuous at  $c$ .

# Continuity

## Example

Consider the function  $f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ .

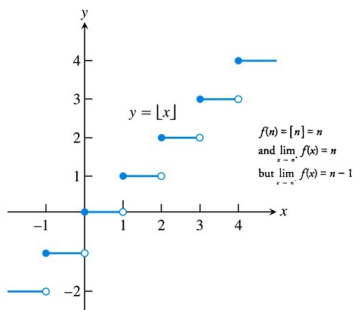


- It is continuous at every point of the interval  $(-2, 2)$ .
- It is left continuous at 2.
- It is right continuous at  $-2$ .
- Therefore, it is continuous at every point of its domain  $[-2, 2]$ .

# Continuity

## Example

Consider the function  $f(x) = [x]$ .



- 1 It is discontinuous at the integers ( $\lim_{x \rightarrow n^+} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow n^-} f(x)$ ).
- 2 It is right continuous at the integers ( $\lim_{x \rightarrow n^+} f(x) = f(n) = n$ ).
- 3 It is not left continuous at the integers ( $\lim_{x \rightarrow n^-} f(x) = n - 1 \neq f(n) = n$ ).

# Continuity

## Continuity Test

A function  $f(x)$  is continuous at an interior point  $x = c$  of its domain if and only if it meets the following three conditions.

- 1  $f(c)$  exists ( $c$  lies in the domain of  $f$ ).
- 2  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$  exists ( $f$  has a limit as  $x \rightarrow c$ ).
- 3  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$  (the limit equals the function value).

If any of the three conditions is NOT satisfied at a number  $b$ , then  $b$  is called a number of discontinuity of the function  $f$ .

# Continuity

## Example

Find all values of  $A$  and  $B$  which will make  $f$  continuous everywhere.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 - A & \text{if } x < 1 \\ A + Bx & \text{if } 1 \leq x \leq 2 \\ B - x^2 & \text{if } x > 2 \end{cases},$$

For  $f$  to be continuous everywhere we need it to be continuous at  $x = 1$  and  $x = 2$ .

- At  $x = 1$ :  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = f(1)$  implies  $2A + B = 1$ .
- At  $x = 2$ :  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) = f(2)$  implies  $A + B = -4$ .
- $A = 5$  and  $B = -9$ .

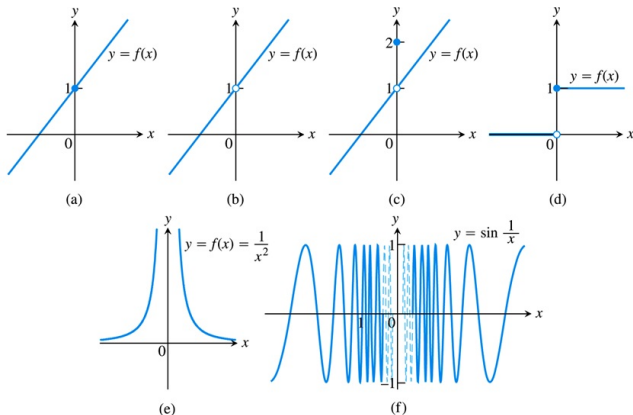
# Continuity

## Types of Discontinuities

- 1 **Removable discontinuity:** if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists at  $a$  but  $f$  is discontinuity at  $a$ .  
(may be not defined or defined outside the graph)
- 2 **Jump discontinuity:** if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$  both exist but are not equal.
- 3 **Infinite discontinuity:** if the left- and right-hand limits are infinite; they may be both positive, both negative, or one positive and one negative.
- 4 **Oscillating discontinuity:** if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  DNE because  $f$  oscillates too much close to  $a$ .

# Continuity

## Example



The function in figure (a) is continuous, in (b) and (c) has removable discontinuity at 0, in (d) has jump discontinuity, in (e) has infinite discontinuity and in (f) has oscillating discontinuity.

## Continuity

### Example

Let  $f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{2x+9} - \sqrt{x+9}}{2x}$ . What kind of discontinuity does  $f$  have at  $x = 0$ ? Justify.

### Example

Let

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 - 1 & \text{if } -1 \leq x < 0 \\ 2x & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \\ -2x + 4 & \text{if } 1 < x < 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } 2 < x < 3 \end{cases},$$

Is  $f$  continuous at  $x = 2$ ? If it is not continuous, what type of discontinuity does it have?



# Continuity

## Definition (Continuous Functions)

A function  $f$  is said to be continuous on an interval, if it is continuous at every point of the interval.

## Example

- 1 Consider the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ .
  - It is a continuous function because it is continuous at every point of its domain  $(-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$ .
  - The point  $x = 0$  is a point of discontinuity of  $f$ .
  - It is discontinuous on any interval containing  $x = 0$ .
- 2 The identity function  $f(x)$  and constant functions are continuous everywhere.

**THEOREM 8—Properties of Continuous Functions** If the functions  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous at  $x = c$ , then the following combinations are continuous at  $x = c$ .

1. *Sums:*  $f + g$
2. *Differences:*  $f - g$
3. *Constant multiples:*  $k \cdot f$ , for any number  $k$
4. *Products:*  $f \cdot g$
5. *Quotients:*  $f/g$ , provided  $g(c) \neq 0$
6. *Powers:*  $f^n$ ,  $n$  a positive integer
7. *Roots:*  $\sqrt[n]{f}$ , provided it is defined on an open interval containing  $c$ , where  $n$  is a positive integer

# Continuity

The following functions are continuous on every number in their domain.

- Polynomials,
- Rational functions,
- Root functions,
- Trigonometric functions,
- Inverse trigonometric functions,
- Exponential functions,
- Logarithmic functions.

# Continuity

## Example

- The polynomial  $f(x) = 3x^3 + x^2 - 1$  is continuous on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .
- The rational function  $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$  is continuous at every number  $a$  where  $Q(a) \neq 0$ . For example,  $f(x) = \frac{x^2+1}{x-1}$  is continuous everywhere except at  $x = 1$ .
- The function  $f(x) = |x - 1|$  is continuous everywhere.
- The function  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is continuous on  $[0, \infty)$ .
- The functions  $f(x) = \sin x$  and  $g(x) = \cos x$  are continuous on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .
- The function  $f(x) = \tan x$  is continuous on all real numbers except when  $x = n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}$ , where  $n$  is an integer.

# Continuity

## Example

If  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous at  $x = 3$  with  $f(3) = 5$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} [2f(x) - g(x)] = 4$ . Find  $g(3)$ .

**Ans.**  $g(3) = 6$

## Remark

The inverse  $f^{-1}(x)$  of a continuous function is continuous on its domain. The reason is that the graph of the inverse function is obtained by reflecting the graph of  $f(x)$  about the line  $y = x$ . Thus if the graph of  $f(x)$  does not have a break, so does the graph of  $f^{-1}(x)$ .

# Continuity

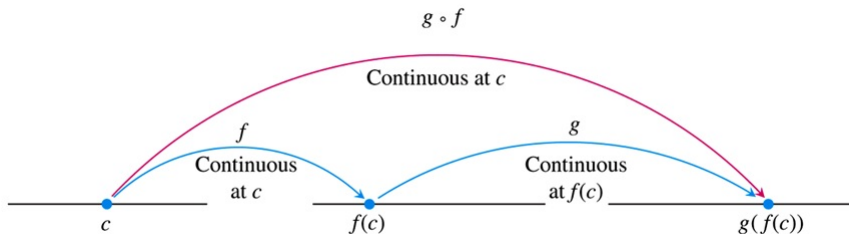
## Example

Where is  $f(x) = \frac{\ln x + \tan^{-1} x}{x^2 - 1}$  continuous?

- $\ln x$  is continuous for all  $x > 0$ .
- $\tan^{-1} x$  is continuous for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- $x^2 - 1$  is continuous for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- $f(x)$  is not defined on  $(-\infty, 0] \cup \{1\}$ .

Therefore,  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(0, 1) \cup (1, \infty)$ .

**THEOREM 9—Composite of Continuous Functions** If  $f$  is continuous at  $c$  and  $g$  is continuous at  $f(c)$ , then the composite  $g \circ f$  is continuous at  $c$ .



# Continuity

## Example

Show that the following functions are continuous on their domains.

$$① f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 - 2x - 5}.$$

$$② f(x) = \left| \frac{x-2}{x^2-2} \right|.$$

$$③ f(x) = \left| \frac{x \sin x}{x^2+2} \right|.$$

$$④ f(x) = \ln(1 + \sin x).$$



# Continuity

**THEOREM 10—Limits of Continuous Functions** If  $g$  is continuous at the point  $b$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = b$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(f(x)) = g(b) = g(\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)).$$

## Example

Evaluate the following limits.

①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \cos(2x + \sin(\frac{3\pi}{2} + x))$ . **Ans.**  $-1$

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{1-x}{1-x^2}\right)$ . **Ans.**  $\frac{\pi}{6}$

③  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{x+1} e^{\tan x}$ . **Ans.**  $1$

## Continuity

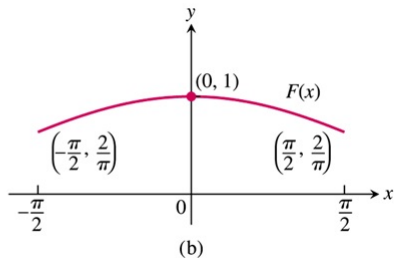
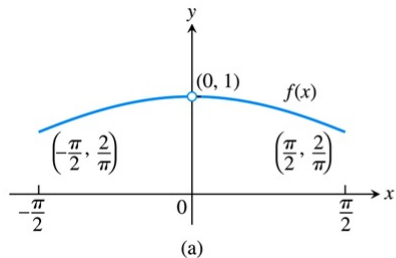
### Continuous extension to a point:

- The function  $f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$  is continuous at every point except  $x = 0$ .
- It is like the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ .
- But the function  $\frac{\sin x}{x}$  has a finite limit as  $x \rightarrow 0$ .
- It is therefore possible to extend the function's domain to include the point  $x = 0$  in such a way that the extended function is continuous at  $x = 0$ .
- We define a new function

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin x}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases},$$

- Now, the function  $F(x)$  is continuous at  $x = 0$  because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = F(0)$ .

# Continuity



# Continuity

## Definition

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$  exists but  $f(c)$  is not defined, then the function

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{if } x \text{ is in the domain of } f \\ L & \text{if } x = c \end{cases},$$

is called the continuous extension of  $f(x)$  to  $x = c$ .

## Remark

We may extend rational function  $f(x)$  to make it continuous at  $c$  by canceling common factors  $(x - c)$  from the numerator and denominator.

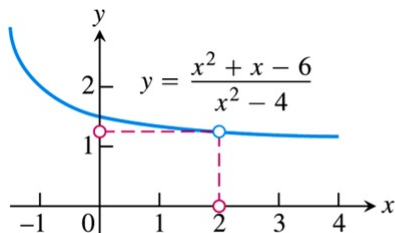
# Continuity

## Example

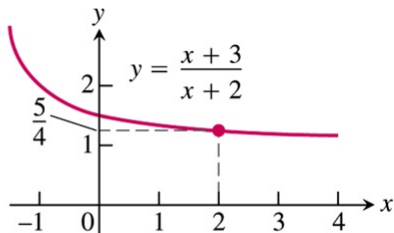
Show that

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 + x - 6}{x^2 - 4}, \quad x \neq 2$$

has a continuous extension to  $x = 2$  and find that extension.



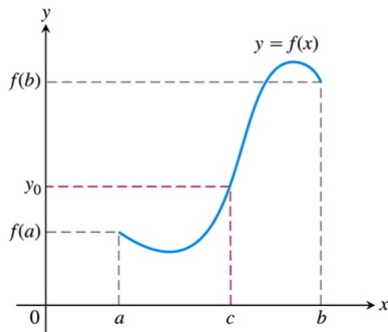
(a)



(b)

# Continuity

**THEOREM 11—The Intermediate Value Theorem for Continuous Functions** If  $f$  is a continuous function on a closed interval  $[a, b]$ , and if  $y_0$  is any value between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , then  $y_0 = f(c)$  for some  $c$  in  $[a, b]$ .



# Continuity

- A function is said to have the Intermediate Value Property if whenever it takes on two values, it also takes on all the values in between.
- The IVT says that the graph of a continuous function on a closed interval cannot have a break over that interval.
- Geometrically, the IVT says that any horizontal line  $y = y_0$  crossing the  $y$ -axis between the numbers  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  will cross the curve  $y = f(x)$  at least once over the interval  $[a, b]$ .
- If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$  and if  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$  are nonzero and have opposite signs, then there is at least one solution of  $f(x) = 0$  in the interval  $(a, b)$ .

# Continuity

## Example

Consider the function  $f(x) = x^2 - 1$  on the interval  $[-1, 3]$ .

- $f(-1) = 0$  and  $f(3) = 8$ .
- The number 2 is between 0 and 8.
- We need to find a number  $x$  between -1 and 3 such that  $f(x) = 2$ .
- The existence of such a number is guaranteed by the IVT.
- The condition  $f(x) = 2$  implies that  $x^2 - 1 = 2$  or  $x = \sqrt{3}$ .



# Continuity

## Example

Show that there is a root of the equation  $x^3 - x - 1 = 0$  between 1 and 2.

- $f(x) = x^3 - x - 1$  is continuous everywhere, particularly on the interval  $[1, 2]$ .
- $f(1) = -1 < 0$ .
- $f(2) = 5 > 0$ .
- By IVT there is a zero of  $f$  between 1 and 2.

# Continuity

## Example

Consider the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x-1} & \text{if } x \neq 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases},$$

- $f(x)$  is defined on the closed interval  $[0, 2]$ .
- $f(0) = -1 < 0$ .
- $f(2) = 1 > 0$ .
- Note that  $\frac{1}{3}$  is between  $-1$  and  $1$ , but there is no number  $c \in [0, 2]$  such that  $f(c) = \frac{1}{3}$ .
- This does not contradict the IVT since  $f$  is not continuous at  $x = 1$ .

# Continuity

## Example

Show that the graph of  $y = \sqrt{2x + 5}$  and  $y = 4 - x^2$  have an intersection point.

- We need to show that  $\sqrt{2x + 5} = 4 - x^2$  has a solution.
- Or  $\sqrt{2x + 5} + x^2 - 4 = 0$  has a root.
- Let  $f(x) = \sqrt{2x + 5} + x^2 - 4$ .
- $f(0) = \sqrt{5} - 4 < 0$  and  $f(2) = 3 > 0$ .
- Note that  $y_0 = 0$  is between  $f(0)$  &  $f(2)$  and  $f$  is continuous on  $[0, 2]$ .
- By IVT there is a  $c \in [0, 2]$  such that  $f(c) = 0$ .
- Therefore, the two graphs intersect at  $x = c$ .

# Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

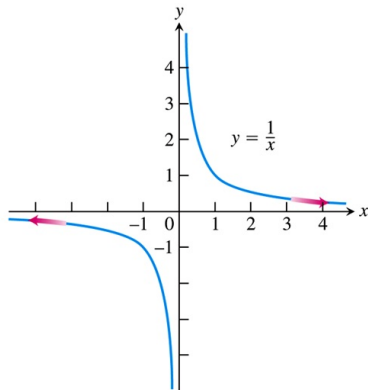
## Objective

- 1 To define the limit as  $x$  gets infinitely large or infinitely small.
- 2 To find horizontal and vertical asymptotes for a given function.
- 3 To derive a general rule to compute horizontal asymptotes for rational functions.
- 4 To determine limits at the infinity for polynomials and for indeterminate cases.

## Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

### Example

- The function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  is defined for all  $x \neq 0$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 0$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = 0$ .



# Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

## Definition

- ① We say that  $f(x)$  has the limit  $L$  as  $x$  approaches infinity and write

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

if, for every number  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a corresponding number  $M$  such that for all  $x$

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

- ② We say that  $f(x)$  has the limit  $L$  as  $x$  approaches minus infinity and write

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

if, for every number  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a corresponding number  $N$  such that for all  $x$

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

## Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

Intuitively,

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  if, as  $x$  moves increasingly far from the origin in the positive direction,  $f(x)$  gets arbitrarily close to  $L$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L$  if, as  $x$  moves increasingly far from the origin in the negative direction,  $f(x)$  gets arbitrarily close to  $L$ .

# Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

## Example

Show that

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

- Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we want to find  $M$  such that for all  $x$

$$x > M \implies |f(x) - 0| < \epsilon.$$

- $\left| \frac{1}{x} - 0 \right| < \epsilon$  iff  $-\frac{1}{\epsilon} < x < \frac{1}{\epsilon}.$

- Taking  $M = \frac{1}{\epsilon}$  (or any larger positive number) proves that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0.$

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

- Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we want to find  $N$  such that for all  $x$

$$x < N \implies |f(x) - 0| < \epsilon.$$

- $\left| \frac{1}{x} - 0 \right| < \epsilon$  iff  $-\frac{1}{\epsilon} < x < \frac{1}{\epsilon}.$

- Taking  $N = -\frac{1}{\epsilon}$  (or any number less than  $-\frac{1}{\epsilon}$ ) proves that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0.$



## Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

**THEOREM 12** All the limit laws in Theorem 1 are true when we replace  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c}$  by  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty}$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty}$ . That is, the variable  $x$  may approach a finite number  $c$  or  $\pm\infty$ .

### Example

Evaluate the following limits:

①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(5 + \frac{1}{x}\right)$ .

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{\pi\sqrt{3}}{x^2}$

## Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

### Remark

To evaluate the limit of a rational function as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$  we first divide the numerator and denominator by the highest power of  $x$  in the denominator. The result then depends on the degrees of the polynomials involved.

### Example

Evaluate the following limits:

①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5x^2 + 8x - 3}{3x^2 + 2}$ . **Ans.**  $\frac{5}{3}$

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{11x + 2}{2x^3 - 1}$ . **Ans.** 0

## Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

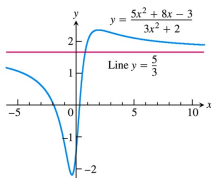
### Definition

A line  $y = b$  is a **horizontal asymptote** of the graph of a function  $y = f(x)$  if either

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

### Example

Consider the function  $f(x) = \frac{5x^2 + 8x - 3}{3x^2 + 2}$ .



- The graph of  $f(x)$  has the line  $y = \frac{5}{3}$  as a horizontal asymptote on both the right and the left because

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \frac{5}{3} \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = \frac{5}{3}$$

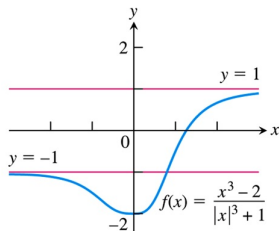
## Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

### Example

Find the horizontal asymptotes of the graph of

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

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 1$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -1$ .
- The horizontal asymptotes are  $y = \pm 1$ .



## Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

### Example

- 1 The function  $f(x) = \frac{x+2}{x}$  has a horizontal asymptote  $y = 1$  because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = 1$ .
- 2 The function  $f(x) = e^x$  has a horizontal asymptote  $y = 0$  because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = 0$ .
- 3 The function  $f(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}$  has a horizontal asymptote  $y = 0$  because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = 0$ .
- 4 The function  $f(x) = x \sin \frac{1}{x}$  has a horizontal asymptote  $y = 1$  because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = 1$ .
- 5 The function  $f(x) = \tan^{-1} x$  has two horizontal asymptotes,  $y = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$  because  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

## Limits Involving Infinity; Asymptotes of Graphs

### Example

Using the Sandwich Theorem, find the horizontal asymptote of the curve

$$f(x) = 2 + \frac{\sin x}{x}.$$

- We are interested in the behavior as  $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$ .
- $-1 \leq \sin x \leq 1 \implies 0 \leq |\sin x| \leq 1 \implies 0 \leq \left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| \leq \left| \frac{1}{x} \right|$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \left| \frac{1}{x} \right| = 0$ .
- By the Sandwich Theorem  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| = 0$ .
- Therefore,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} 2 + \frac{\sin x}{x} = 2$ .
- So, the line  $y = 2$  is a horizontal asymptote of the curve on both left and right.