

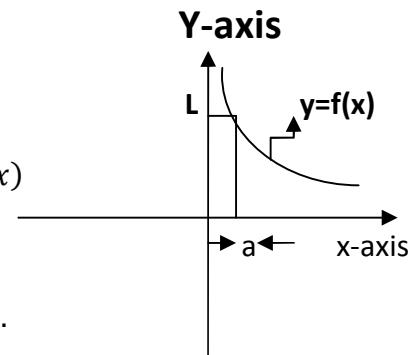
Lecture No. 2

Limits and Continuity

LIMITS OF FUNCTION:

Definitions:

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ Mean that when a value of (x) close to (a) $f(x)$ approaches the limiting value (l) .



$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$ Mean that (x) approaches (a) from the right.

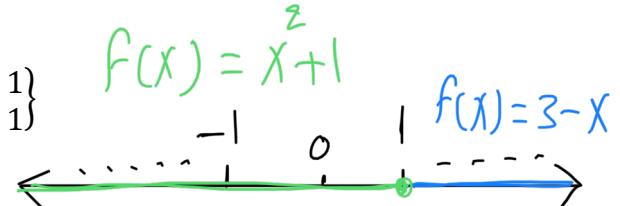
$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ Mean that (x) approaches (a) from the left.

Note: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ we say that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exist.

otherwise the limit doesn't exist.

Ex: Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$ where $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 + 1 & x \leq 1 \\ 3 - x & x > 1 \end{cases}$

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



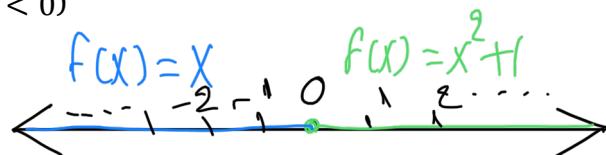
$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 3 - 1 = 2$

$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 2$, so the limit exist.

Ex: Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ where $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 + 1 & x \geq 0 \\ x & x < 0 \end{cases}$

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

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



$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x)$

$\therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ does't exist.

Note that – A function $F(t)$ has a limit at point C if and only if the right hand and the left hand limits at C exist and equal. In symbols:

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow C} F(t) = L \Leftrightarrow \lim_{t \rightarrow C^+} F(t) = L \text{ and } \lim_{t \rightarrow C^-} F(t) = L$$

Properties of Limits: خصائص النهايات

Let: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_1$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L_2$$

& K is a constant, then:

$$1) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) \pm g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L_1 + L_2$$

$$2) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) * g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) * \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$$

$$3) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right] = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)} \text{ but } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$$

$$4) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} K * f(x) = K * \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$$

$$5) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} K = K$$

$$6) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$$

$$7) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0 \text{ & } \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{x} = \infty$$

$$8) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x} = +\infty \text{ & } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{1}{x} = -\infty \text{ but } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} = 0$$

$$9) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x = 0 \text{ & } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x = 1 \text{ & } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \tan x = 0$$

$$10) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \text{ & } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\sin x} = 1$$

$$11) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan x}{x} = 1 \text{ & } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\tan x} = 1$$

$$12) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin \left(\frac{x^2}{\pi+x} \right) = \sin \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{x^2}{\pi+x} \right) \text{ Note: sine or cosine or any trigonometric functions is the same}$$

$$13) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)} \text{ & } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{x^n} = [\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{x}]^n$$

Note:

Undefined expression in limits:

$$\frac{0}{0}, \frac{\infty}{\infty}, 0 * \infty, \infty - \infty \text{ but we can say } \infty + \infty = \infty$$

THEOREM 2 Limits of Polynomials Can Be Found by Substitution

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

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

THEOREM 3 Limits of Rational Functions Can Be Found by Substitution If the Limit of the Denominator Is Not Zero

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

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

Example :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} \frac{x^3 + 4x^2 - 3}{x^2 + 5} = \frac{(-1)^3 + 4(-1)^2 - 3}{(-1)^2 + 5} = 0$$

Eliminating Zero Denominators Algebraically :

Theorem 3 applies only if the denominator of the rational function is not zero at the limit point c . If the denominator is zero, canceling common factors in the numerator and denominator may reduce the fraction to one whose denominator is no longer zero at c .

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examples :

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

$$= \frac{1+2}{1} = 3$$

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$$2. \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} - 10}{x^2}$$

$$(a-b)(a+b) = a^2 - b^2$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} - 10}{x^2} \times \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10}{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 100 - 100}{x^2(\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2}{x^2(\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10)}$$

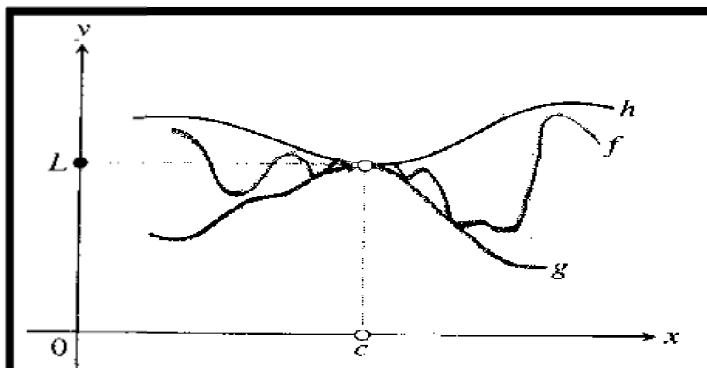
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{0+100} + 10} = \frac{1}{20} = 0.05$$

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



The graph of f is
sandwiched between the graphs of g and h .

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E=example :

$$1 - \frac{x^2}{4} \leq u(x) \leq 1 + \frac{x^2}{2} \quad \text{for all } x \neq c$$

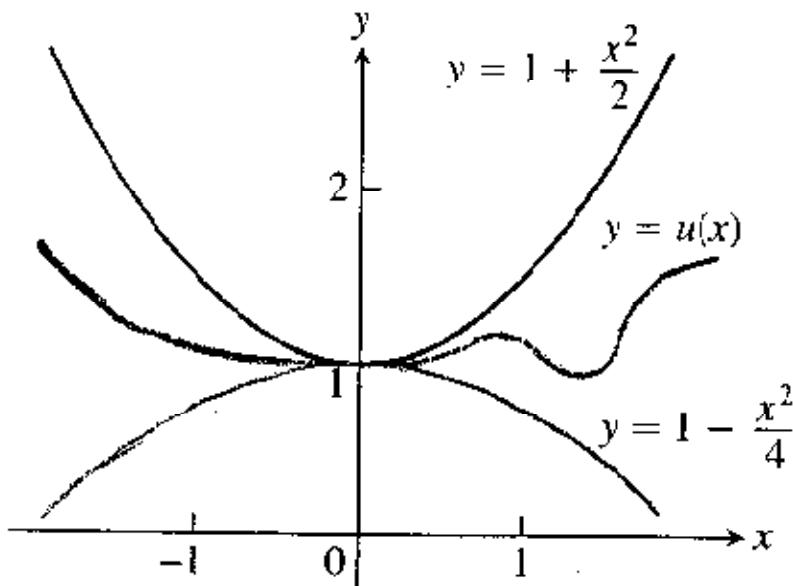
find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} u(x)$.

Solution:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{4} \right) = \left(1 - \frac{0}{4} \right) = 1$$

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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} u(x) = 1$$



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

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

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DEFINITIONS Limit as x approaches ∞ or $-\infty$

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

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

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

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

The basic facts to be verified by applying the formal definition

which are: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} k = k$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$

THEOREM Limit Laws as $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$

If L , M , and k , are real numbers and

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

1. *Sum Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$

2. *Difference Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} (f(x) - g(x)) = L - M$

3. *Product Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = L \cdot M$

4. *Constant Multiple Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} (k \cdot f(x)) = k \cdot L$

5. *Quotient Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}, \quad M \neq 0$

6. *Power Rule:* If r and s are integers with no common factors, $s \neq 0$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} (f(x))^{r/s} = L^{r/s}$$

provided that $L^{r/s}$ is a real number. (If s is even, we assume that $L > 0$.)

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Examples.

$$1. \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(5 + \frac{1}{x} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 5 + \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 5 + 0 = 5$$

$$2. \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\pi\sqrt{3}}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \pi\sqrt{3} \cdot \frac{1}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \pi\sqrt{3} \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = \pi\sqrt{3} \cdot 0.0 = 0$$

Limits at Infinity of Rational Functions:

Example: (Numerator & Denominator of same Degree)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5x^2 + 8x - 3}{3x^2 + 2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5 + \left(\frac{8}{x}\right) - \left(\frac{3}{x^2}\right)}{3 + \left(\frac{2}{x^2}\right)} = \frac{5 + 0 - 0}{3 + 0} = \frac{5}{3}$$

Example: (Degree of Numerator less than Degree of Denominator)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{11x + 2}{2x^3 - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\left(\frac{11}{x^2}\right) + \left(\frac{2}{x^3}\right)}{2 - \left(\frac{1}{x^3}\right)} = \frac{0 + 0}{2 - 0} = 0$$

Example: (Degree of Numerator greater than degree of Denominator)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{2x^2 - 3}{7x + 4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{(2x) - \left(\frac{3}{x}\right)}{7 + \left(\frac{4}{x}\right)} = \frac{2(-\infty) - 0}{7 + 0} = -\infty$$

Examples:

$$1) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x - \sqrt{x^2 + 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x - \sqrt{x^2 + 1} \times \frac{x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}}{x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 - (x^2 + 1)}{x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}}$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{-1}{x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1}} = -\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{1}{x}}{\frac{x}{x} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}} = \frac{0}{1 + \sqrt{1 + 0}} = -\frac{0}{2} = 0$$

$$2) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sqrt[3]{x} - \sqrt[5]{x}}{\sqrt[3]{x} + \sqrt[5]{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - \left(\frac{x^{\frac{1}{5}}}{x^{\frac{1}{3}}}\right)}{1 + \left(\frac{x^{\frac{1}{5}}}{x^{\frac{1}{3}}}\right)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - \left(\frac{1}{x^{\frac{2}{15}}}\right)}{1 + \left(\frac{1}{x^{\frac{2}{15}}}\right)} = \frac{1 - 0}{1 + 0} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

$$3) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{\frac{2 + 3x}{1 + 5x}} = \sqrt{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 + 3x}{1 + 5x}} = \sqrt{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\frac{2}{x} + \frac{3x}{x}}{\frac{1}{x} + \frac{5x}{x}}} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{5}}$$



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4) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^6 - 64}{x - 2}$

$$x^5 + 2x^4 + 4x^3 + 8x^2 + 16x + 32$$

$$\begin{array}{r}
 x^6 - 64 \\
 \hline
 \mp x^6 \pm 2x^5 \leftarrow x^5(x-2) \\
 \hline
 2x^5 - 64 \\
 \mp 2x^5 \pm 4x^4 \leftarrow 2x^4(x-2) \\
 \hline
 4x^4 - 64 \\
 \mp 4x^4 \pm 8x^3 \leftarrow 4x^3(x-2) \\
 \hline
 8x^3 - 64 \\
 \mp 8x^3 \pm 16x^2 \leftarrow 8x^2(x-2) \\
 \hline
 16x^2 - 64 \\
 \mp 16x^2 \pm 32x \leftarrow 16x(x-2) \\
 \hline
 \cancel{32x - 64} \\
 \mp \cancel{32x} \pm \cancel{64} \leftarrow 32(x-2) \\
 \hline
 0 & 0
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^6 - 64}{x - 2} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^5 + 2x^4 + 4x^3 + 8x^2 + 16x + 32 \\
 &= 2^5 + 2(2^4) + 4(2^3) + 8(2^2) + 16(2) + 32 = 192
 \end{aligned}$$

Note :

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 3}{2x - 4}$$

$$\frac{\cancel{x^2}}{2\cancel{x}} = \frac{x}{2}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 \frac{x}{2} + 1 \\
 \hline
 \mp x^2 + 2x \\
 \hline
 2x - 3
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 x \\
 \hline
 2x - 4
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
 1 \\
 \hline
 \mp 2x \pm 4
 \end{array}$$

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 3}{2x - 4} = \underbrace{\frac{x}{2} + 1}_{\text{g.w.}} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2x - 4}}_{\text{algebra}}$$

Continuity:

DEFINITION Continuous at a Point

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

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

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

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

If a function f is not continuous at a point c , we say that f is discontinuous at c and c is a point of discontinuity of f .

Note that c need not be in the domain of f .

Continuity Test

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

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

Example: The function $y = \frac{1}{x}$ is continuous at every value of x except $x = 0$. It has a point of discontinuity at $x = 0$.

THEOREM Properties of Continuous Functions

If the functions f and g are continuous at $x = c$, then the following combinations are continuous at $x = c$.

- Sums:* $f + g$
 - Differences:* $f - g$
 - Products:* $f \cdot g$
 - Constant multiples:* $k \cdot f$, for any number k
 - Quotients:* f/g provided $g(c) \neq 0$
 - Powers:* $f^{r/s}$, provided it is defined on an open interval containing c , where r and s are integers

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

This shows that $f + g$ is continuous.

THEOREM: Composite of Continuous Functions

If f is continuous at c and g is continuous at c , then the composite $g \circ f$ is continuous at c .

The following types of functions are continuous at every point in their domains:

1 – Polynomials.

2 – Rational functions: They have points of discontinuity at the zero of their denominators.

3 – Root functions: ($y = \sqrt[n]{x}$, n a positive integer greater than 1).

4 – Trigonometric functions.

5 – Inverse trigonometric functions.

6 – Exponential functions.

7 – Logarithmic functions.

Note: The inverse function of any continuous function is continuous.

Examples:

$$1) f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{2x^2+x-3}{x-1} & x \neq 1 \\ 2 & x = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$1 - f(1) = 2$$

$$2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{2x^2 + x - 3}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(2x+3)(x-1)}{(x-1)} = 2(1) + 3 = 5$$

$$3 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) \neq f(1)$$

$\therefore f(x)$ discontinuous at $x = 1$.

$$2) f(x) = \begin{cases} 3 + x & x \leq 1 \\ 3 - x & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

$$1 - f(1) = 3 + 1 = 4$$

$$2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} 3 + x = 3 + 1 = 4$$

$$3 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} 3 - x = 3 - 1 = 2 \quad \therefore \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} 3 + x \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} 3 - x$$

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$\therefore f(x)$ discontinuous at $x = 1$.

$$3) f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x-2} & x \neq 2 \\ 3 & x = 2 \end{cases}$$

$$f(2) = 3 \quad \& \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{x-2} = \frac{1}{0} = \infty \quad \therefore \text{no limit , } f(x) \text{ discontinuous.}$$

$$4) f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2-16}{x-4} & x \neq 4 \\ 9 & x = 4 \end{cases}$$

$$f(4) = 9, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{x^2-16}{x-4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{(x-4)(x+4)}{(x-4)} = 8, \quad f(4) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 4} f(x)$$

$\therefore f(x)$ discontinuous at $x = 4$.

$$5) f(x) = \begin{cases} |x-3| & x \neq 3 \\ 2 & x = 3 \end{cases}$$

$$f(3) = 2, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^+} (x-3) = 3-3=0, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^-} -(x-3) = 0$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 3^+} (x-3) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^-} -(x-3) = 0$$

but $f(3) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x)$

$\therefore f(x)$ discontinuous at $x = 3$.