

The limit at a point (intuitive definition)

We say the limit as x approaches c of $f(x)$ is L

notation:

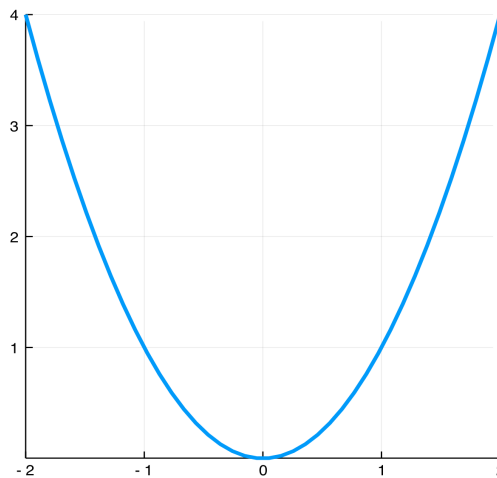
if when x is close to c $f(x)$ is close to L ,
and we can make $f(x)$ as close as we like to L by taking
 x sufficiently close to c .

Examples

$$f(x) = x^2$$

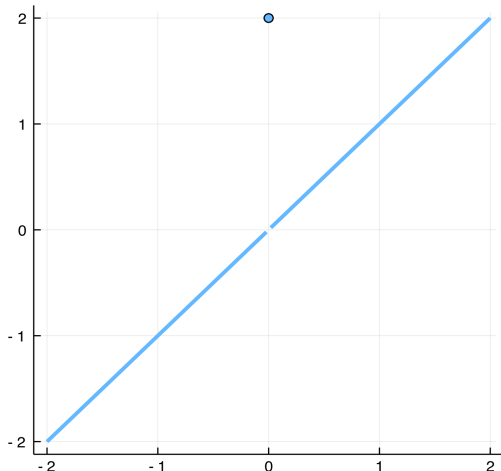
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \sqrt{2}} f(x)$$



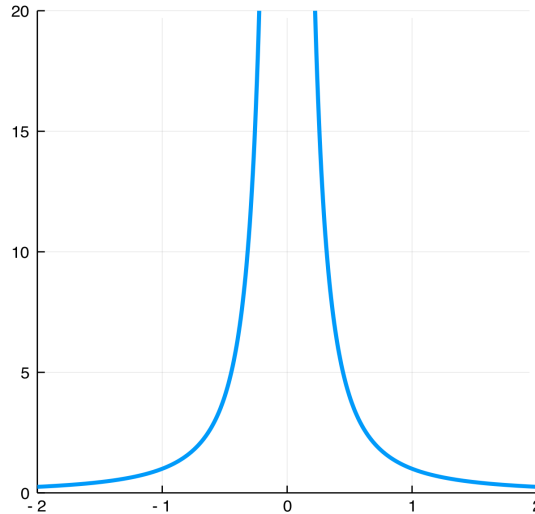
$$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} \end{cases}$$

(piecewise function)



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

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



this is an example of a function **diverging to infinity**:
 we say f diverges to infinity at c if we can make $f(x)$ as large as we like by taking x sufficiently close to c

notation:

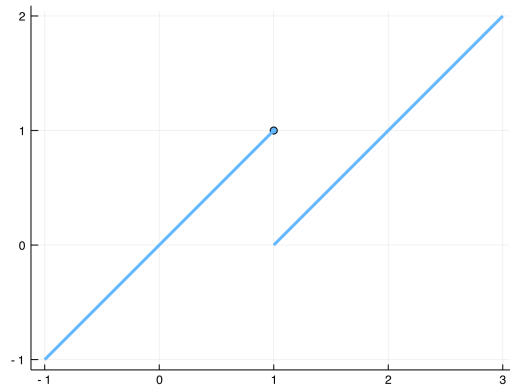
remember though:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \end{cases}$$

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

one sided limits:

$$x \rightarrow 1 \text{ with } x < 1$$



$$x \rightarrow 1 \text{ with } x > 1$$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ exists \Leftrightarrow both one-sided limits exist and are equal.

the limit as $x \rightarrow \infty$

we write

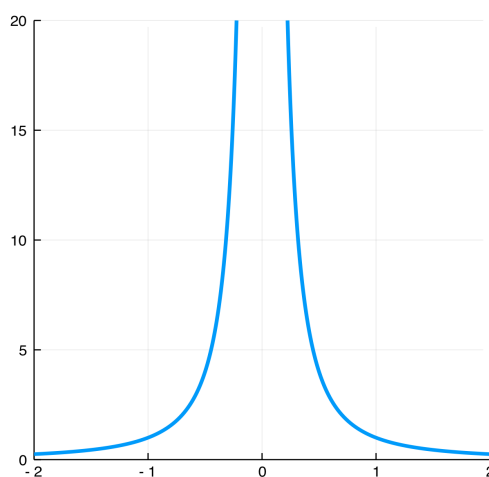
if we can make $f(x)$ as close

to L as we like by taking x sufficiently large.

similar.

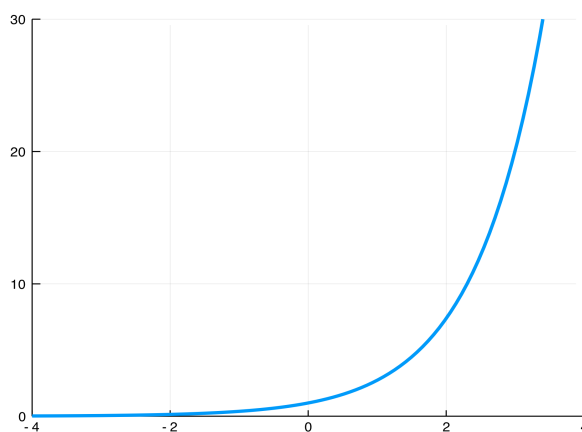
Examples

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



in fact: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^p} = 0$ for any constant $p > 0$

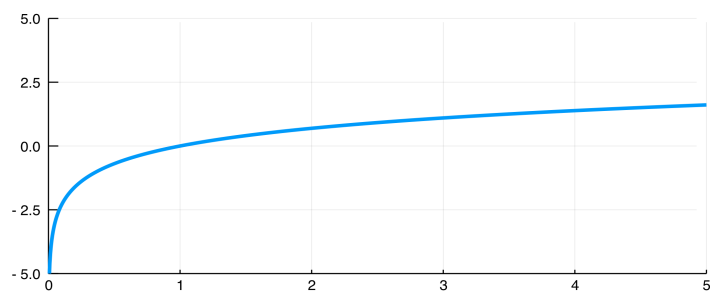
$$f(x) = e^x$$



$$f(x) = \ln x$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln x$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln x$$



Limit laws

If f and g are functions $(b,c) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $a \in (b,c)$ and the limits

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ both exist, then

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

- for any constant $k \in \mathbb{R}$

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

- $$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$$

- if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$, then

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

These laws also hold for one-sided limits $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-}$

and limits at infinity $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm \infty}$

Examples

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

2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} \frac{x^2}{\cos x}$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} x^2$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} \cos x$

Therefore

$$3. \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -2} \frac{x^2 + 2x}{x + 2}$$

$$4. \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 - 2x) \qquad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + 2x)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 - 2x + 1 + 2x)$$

$$5. \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 + 2x + 1}{2x^2 + x + 7} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty}$$

numerator:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty}$$

denominator:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty}$$

denominator $\neq 0$:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2 + 2x + 1}{2x^2 + x + 7}$$

The squeeze theorem

Let $f, g, h : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and suppose

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

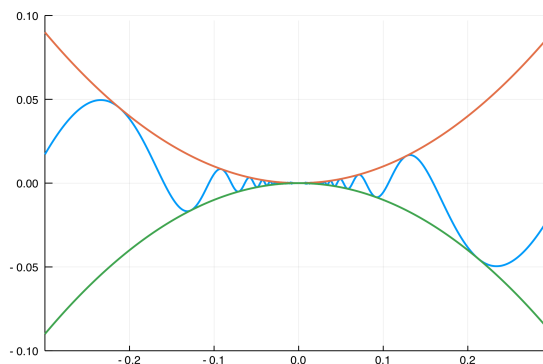
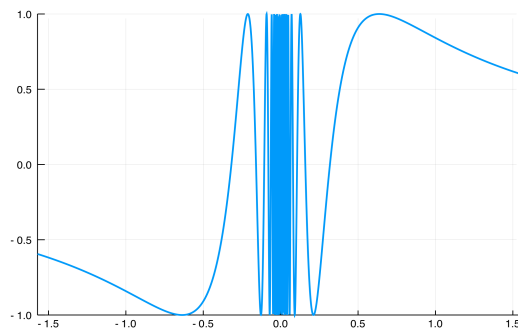
then

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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2$$

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

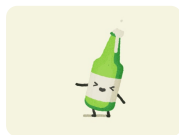
but x^2 dominates:



so

by the squeeze theorem

- a.k.a. "two policemen and a drunk" theorem



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



$$x^2, -x^2$$

The theorem also holds for limits at infinity $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty}$ or $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty}$

Example $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 \cos x}{x}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 \cos x}{x}$$

by the squeeze theorem.

First recall the intuitive definition:

if when x is close to c $f(x)$ is close to L ,
and we can make $f(x)$ as close as we like to L by taking
 x sufficiently close to c .

what exactly is meant by "close" and "as close as we like"?

The precise definition of a limit at a point:

if for all ϵ there exists δ such that

if $|x - c| < \delta$ then

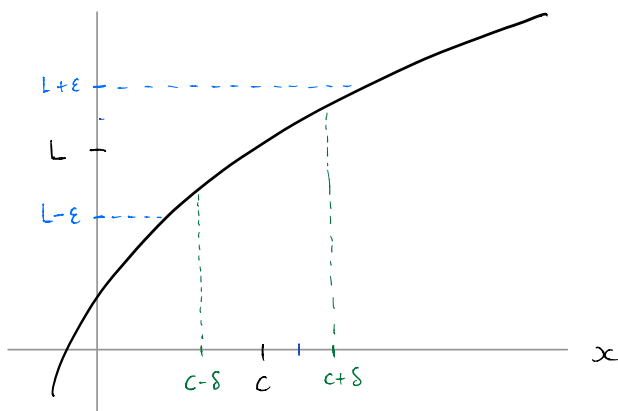
i.e.

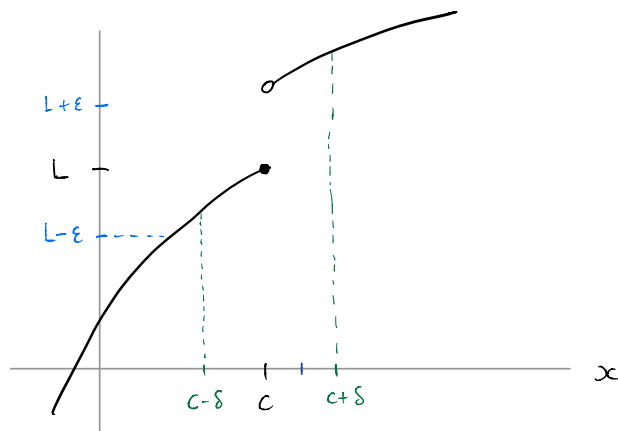
if $|x - c| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$

for ϵ, δ
small: " x is close to c " " $f(x)$ is close to L "

since it is for all ϵ , ϵ can be as small as we like and
a δ still exists — this captures the "as close as we like" part.

graphically





Example $f(x) = 2x$

expect $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$ - let's prove it

need to show:

Since we need to prove that for all ϵ there exists δ , we must find an expression for δ

As a first guess:

if $|x - c| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$
 \Rightarrow
 \Rightarrow
 \Rightarrow

this is close, but not quite what is needed ()

Can fix it by letting $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ instead:

if $|x - c| < \delta$ then $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$
 \Rightarrow
 \Rightarrow
 \Rightarrow

therefore, for all $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists δ (for example)
such that

i.e.

□

Definition of the limit at infinity

Given $f: (c, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ write $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$ if for all $\varepsilon > 0$

there exists b such that if $x \geq b$ then $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$

Definition of diverging to infinity

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \infty$ if for any $M > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$

such that if $x < a$ and $|x - a| < \delta$ then $f(x) > M$.

Diverging to infinity at infinity

$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$ if for any $M > 0$ there exists b such that

if $x \geq b$ then $f(x) > M$.

Example $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln x$

proof: given $M > 0$, let b

Note that:

for all $x > 0$ so $\ln x$ is an

increasing function. Therefore taking logs preserves the inequality:

$$x \geq b \Rightarrow$$

so

limits of vector valued functions

means as t gets close to c , $\underline{r}(t)$ gets close to \underline{L} ,
which means

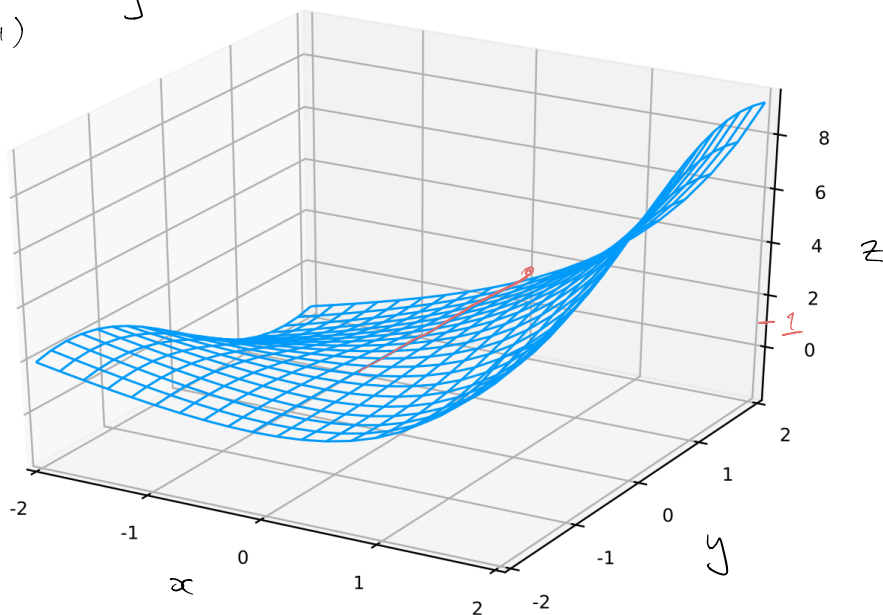
$$\text{so } \lim_{t \rightarrow c} \underline{r}(t) =$$

limits of functions of two variables

means as (x, y) gets close to the point (a, b) ,
 $f(x, y)$ gets close to L

Example

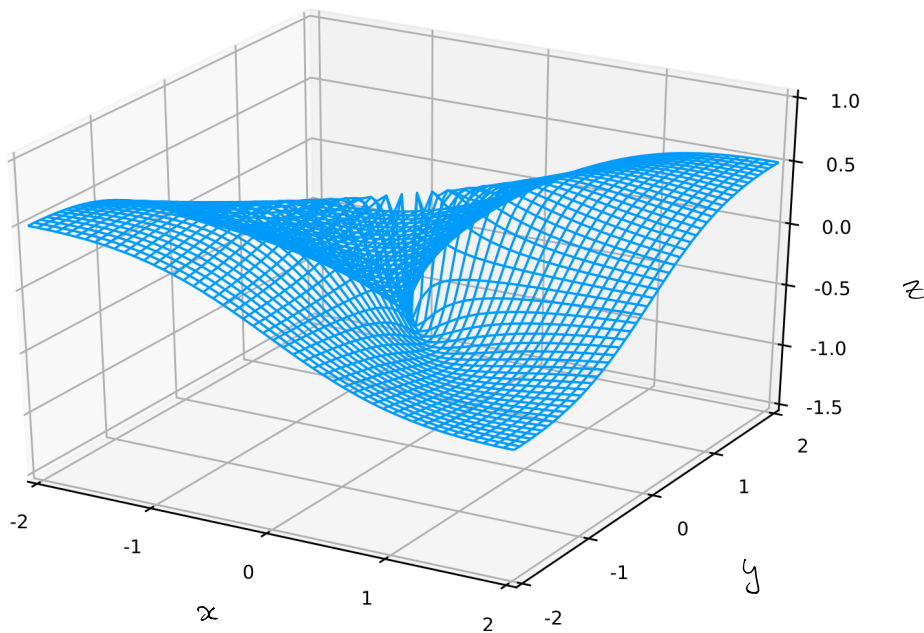
$$\lim_{(x, y) \rightarrow (0, -1)} (e^x + x \sin y) =$$



Example

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \setminus \{(0,0)\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x,y) = \frac{xy}{x^2+y^2}$$

$$\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y) = ?$$



More formally: $\lim_{\underline{x} \rightarrow \underline{c}} f(\underline{x}) = L$ requires that for every curve

$\underline{r}(t)$ with

for the above example, consider

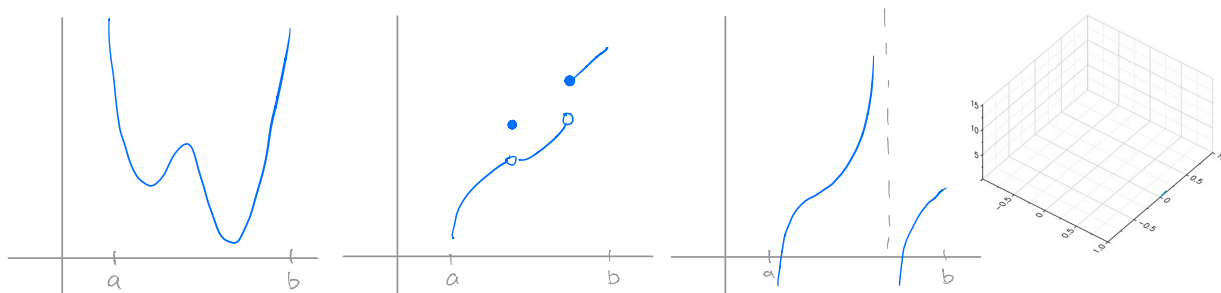
$$f(\underline{r}_1(t)) =$$

compare this with

$$f(\underline{r}_2(t)) =$$

so the limit doesn't exist.

Recall: a function $f: (a,b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **continuous** on (a,b) if you can draw its graph without taking your pen off the page



conts

the points of discontinuity are points where $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ doesn't exist or where $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \neq f(c)$

So we say f is **continuous at c** if

f is **continuous** if it is continuous at every point in its domain.

this definition extends easily to multivariable functions (defining continuity in terms of drawing the graph does not!)

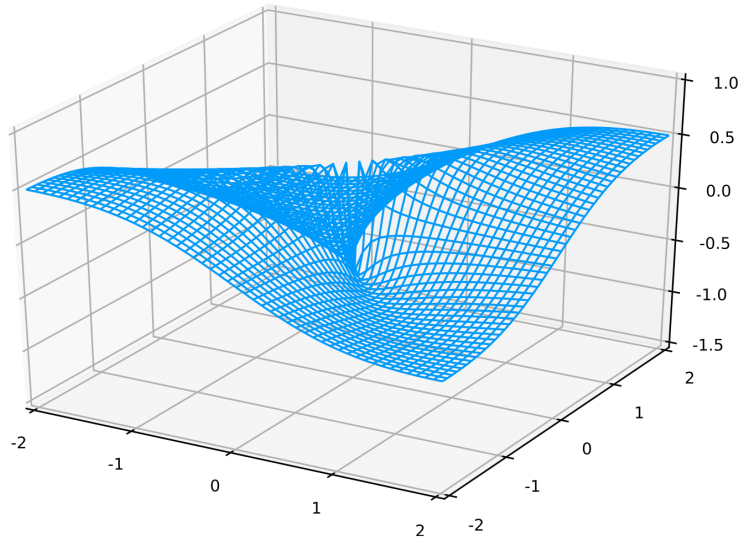
Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then f is **continuous at c** if $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow c} f(x,y) = f(c)$ i.e.

Example $f(x,y) = \frac{xy}{x^2+y^2}$ is not defined at $(0,0)$

define

$$g(x,y) = \begin{cases} 0.5 & \text{if } (x,y) = (0,0) \\ \frac{xy}{x^2+y^2} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

is g continuous?



intuitively: not continuous at \mathcal{O} - there is tearing

formally: not continuous: $\lim_{(x,y) \rightarrow (0,0)} f(x,y)$ doesn't exist so $\neq f(0,0)$.

for a vector valued function $\underline{r}(t)$, the condition for continuity at c

implies:

$$\left(\lim_{t \rightarrow c} r_1(t), \lim_{t \rightarrow c} r_2(t), \lim_{t \rightarrow c} r_3(t) \right) = (r_1(c), r_2(c), r_3(c))$$

i.e. each coordinate function is continuous.

STANDARD CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS

polynomials

$$P: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad P(x) =$$

where $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$
are fixed.

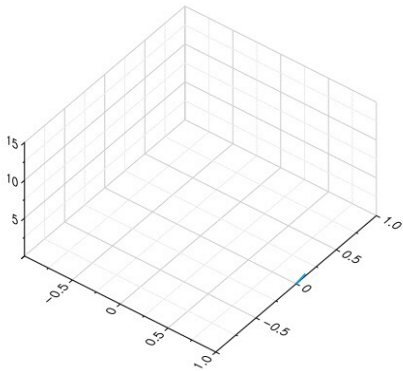
$P(x), Q(x)$ polynomials, $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ is continuous except where $Q(x) = 0$

and \sin, \cos are continuous on \mathbb{R}

e^x is continuous on \mathbb{R}

\ln is continuous on its domain

Examples $\vec{r}(t) = (\cos t, \sin t, t)$



$$r_1(t) = \cos t \quad \text{continuous on } \mathbb{R}$$

$$r_2(t) = \sin t \quad \text{"}$$

$$r_3(t) = t \quad \text{"}$$

therefore $\vec{r}(t)$ is continuous on \mathbb{R}

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x, y) = x$$

so f is continuous on \mathbb{R}^2

Some properties of continuous multivariable functions

If $f, g: D \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are both continuous at $\underline{c} \in D$ then

1. $af(\underline{x}) + bg(\underline{x})$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$, and $f(\underline{x})g(\underline{x})$ are continuous at \underline{c}
2. if $g(\underline{c}) \neq 0$ then $\frac{f(\underline{x})}{g(\underline{x})}$ is continuous at \underline{c}

(see Theorem 2.22 in the course reader)

Example

$$f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$$

is continuous on \mathbb{R}^2 (see above)

by similar arguments
are all continuous on \mathbb{R}^2 , so applying properties 1. and 2.
above we have that $f(x, y) = \frac{xy}{x^2 + y^2}$ is continuous on \mathbb{R}^2
except at $(0, 0)$.