

## II - Limits, Continuity and the Derivative

We shall Consider functions

$f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $I$  is an interval which could be open / closed bounded or unbounded. Here is a list:

$$I = \mathbb{R} = (-\infty, \infty)$$

$$I = [a, \infty) \text{ or } (-\infty, a]$$

$$I = (a, \infty) \text{ or } (-\infty, a)$$

$$I = (a, b) \text{ or } [a, b] \text{ or } (a, b] \text{ or } [a, b)$$

$a, b$  are finite and  $a \leq b$ .

$$[a, b] = \{a\} \text{ if } a = b \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Conventions.} \\ (a, b) \text{ is empty if } a = b. \end{array} \right\}$$

We now define  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$

When  $p \in I$  or  $p$  is an end point of  $I$   
in case  $I = (-\infty, a)$   $p$  could be a  
in case  $I = (a, b)$  then  $p$  could be  $a, b$   
etc;

Def.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = l$  (a real number)

if the following condition holds.

Whenever  $(x_n)$  is a sequence in  $I$

Converging to  $p$  (with  $x_n \neq p \forall n$ )

The Corresponding Seq  $(f(x_n))$  converges to  $l$

Note that  $l$  is supposed to be a fixed real no.

That is to say for EVERY choice of the seq  $(x_n)$  converging to  $p$  (as described above)

The

Corresponding sequences  $(f(x_n))$  converges to the SAME limit  $l$

Example:  $f(x) = x^2 + 1$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) \text{ exists } = p^2 + 1$$

let  $x_n \rightarrow p$ . Examine  $\lim f(x_n)$

$$= \lim_n ((x_n)^2 + 1) = p^2 + 1$$

So For EVERY seq  $(x_n)$  conv. to  $p$ .

The corresp. seq  $(f(x_n))$  converges to  $p^2 + 1$

So  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$  exists and  $= p^2 + 1$

Exercise: Show that if  $f(x)$  is any polynomial,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$  exists and  $= f(p)$

Show that if  $f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$  is a rational function.

Then at any point  $p$  s.t  $Q(p) \neq 0$   
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$  exists and  $= \frac{P(p)}{Q(p)}$ .

Example: Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be given by

$$f(x) = \sin \frac{\pi[x]}{2|x|} \text{ if } x \neq 0$$

$$= 0 \text{ if } x = 0.$$

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Let us take  $x_n = y_n \rightarrow 0$

$$f(x_n) = \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \left( \frac{y_n}{y_n} \right) = 0$$

So  $\lim f(x_n) = 0$ .

However, taking  $x_n = -\frac{1}{an}$

$$\text{we get } f(x_n) = \sin \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot an [-y_n] \right) (-1) \\ = -\sin(n\pi/2) \text{ and this}$$

Sequence does not converge to 0.

So  $\lim f(x)$  doesn't exist.

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

Formulate a Sandwich-thm for  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$ .

$x \rightarrow p$

Given 3 functions  $f, g, h : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

assume  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x) \quad \forall x \in I$

$p \in I$  or  $p$  is an endpoint of  $I$ .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x)$  both exist and  
 $x \rightarrow p$  are equal to  $l$

Then,

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x)$  also exists and =  $l$ .

Ex: Prove this using the Sandwich-thm for sequences.

Thm: Suppose  $f, g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $p \in I$   
(or  $p$  is an endpoint of  $I$ )

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x)$  exists =  $l, m$   
respectively

Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) + g(x))$  exists  $= l + m$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x)g(x))$  exists  $= lm$

The usual rules for limits that  
is familiar to you can be proved using the  
corresponding results for sequences.

Def. Let  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function  
and  $p \in I$

(In case  $I = (a, b)$ ) then  $p$  cannot be  
a or b), we say  $f$  is continuous at  
 $p$  if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$  exists and  $= f(p)$ .

Again, if  $f, g: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are cont. at  
 $p \in I$  then  $f+g, fg$  are also continuous  
at  $p$ . Discuss the result for quotients  
Need to add the further cond.  
that  $g(x) \neq 0$  throughout  $I$ .

So polynomials are continuous and  
rational functions are continuous on their  
domains ( $= \mathbb{R}$  minus zeros of the  
denominator)

$e^x$  and  $\log x$  are continuous  
on  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $(0, \infty)$  respectively.

Note:  $0 \notin$  domain of  $\log x$

It is incorrect to say  $\log x$  is  
discontinuous at the origin. Question of  
continuity at  $p$  arises only if  $p \in$  domain

Ex: Discuss the points at which the function  $f(x) = 10x - [10x]$  is not continuous (Tutorial problem)

(A) Thm Suppose  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous at the point  $p \in I$ :  $f(p) > 0$ . Then there is a  $c > 0$  such that  $f(x)$  is positive for all  $x \in (p-c, p+c)$ .  
Note:  $c$  is small enough that  $(p-\frac{c}{2}, p+\frac{c}{2}) \subset I$ .  
In case  $p$  is the left endpoint of  $I$ , then the conclusion should be modified as  $f(x)$  is positive for all  $x \in [p, p+c)$  ctc;

proof is EASY:

Suppose no such  $c$  exists.  
Then  $c = \gamma_n$  doesn't work. That is, for some  $x_n \in (p-\gamma_n, p+\gamma_n)$   $f(x_n) \leq 0$ . This is so for all  $n \geq 1$ .  
 $x_n \rightarrow p$ . So continuity of  $f$  implies  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(p)$   
 $\lim_n f(x_n) = f(p)$   
But LHS  $\leq 0$  (since  $f(x_n) \leq 0$  for all  $n$ )  
RHS  $> 0$

Contradiction

We now discuss two more theorems that we call theorem (B) and theorem (C)

Theorem B: Let  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be cont.

Then  $f$  is bounded on  $[a, b]$

That is the set  $\{ |f(x)| / a \leq x \leq b \}$  is bounded (note:  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}, a \leq b$ )

is cont and

Theorem C: If  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , is such that  $f(a), f(b)$  have opposite signs  
namely  $f(a) \cdot f(b) < 0$

Then there is a point  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(c) = 0$ .

Remarks: From Thm C - the intermediate value theorem follows at once. Discuss.

Call  $I_0 = [a, b]$

Intervals in this discussion will be closed and bounded.

Thm B says a cont. function on a closed bounded interval is bounded. (values with)

Thm C says if  $f$  assumes opp. signs at the endpoints - then  $f$  must vanish somewhere in the interval.

Although the two theorems appear dissimilar it is remarkable that the two can be proved by the Same Method

Known as the Method of bisection.

Bisect  $I_0$  at its midpoint  $\frac{1}{2}(a+b)$

Look at the two halves

$$I'_0 = \left[ a, \frac{a+b}{2} \right]; I''_0 = \left[ \frac{a+b}{2}, b \right]$$

proof by Contradiction.

Suppose  $\neg \text{Thm B} \wedge \neg \text{Thm C}$  is false.

Then,

for  $\neg \text{Thm B}$ ,  $f$  must fail to be bounded  
in  $I_0'$  or  $I_0''$  (or both).

For  $\neg \text{Thm C}$ ,  $f$  does not vanish in  $I_0'$  or  $I_0''$

In particular  $f\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right) \neq 0$

So  $f$  must take (values with) opp signs  
at endpoints of  $I_0'$  or  $I_0''$

Let  $I_1$  be the one ( $I_0'$  or  $I_0''$ ) on  
which  $f$  is unbounded ( $\neg \text{Thm B}$ )

$I_1$  be the one for which  $f$  takes opp.  
Sign at the endpoints ( $\neg \text{Thm C}$ )

We can now repeat the process with  $I_1$ ,

Bisect it at the midpoint and select-

that half  $I_2$  such that

$f$  is unbdd on  $I_2$  ( $\neg \text{Thm B}$ )

$f$  takes (values of) opp. Signs at endpoints of  $I_2$

...

$I_0 \supset I_1 \supset I_2 \supset \dots$

The left endpoints  $a_j$  of  $I_j$  form a  
right by

monotone increasing / dec. seq.

Both converge but their limits must  
be Equal (why?)

Say  $b$ .

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Thus  $a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \dots \leq p \leq \dots \leq b_2 \leq b_1 \leq b_0$

Now, for Thm B:  $f$  is unbounded on  $I_n$   
So  $n$  is not an upper bound for  $|f(x)|$   
So  $\exists$  a point  $c_n \in I_n$  such that  
 $|f(c_n)| \geq n$

For Thm C: Simply take  $c_n = \frac{1}{2}(a_n + b_n)$   
or any point in  $[a_n, b_n]$  for that

Then  $a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n \quad \forall n$   
 $\Rightarrow \lim_n c_n = p \quad (\text{Sandwich-Thm})$

By Continuity  $(f(c_n))$  converges to  $f(p)$ .

For Thm B:  $|f(c_n)| \geq n$  and this  
denies the convergence of  
 $(f(c_n))$  to  $f(p)$ . (Contradiction)

For Thm C:  $f(a_n), f(b_n) < 0 \quad \forall n$   
 $a_n \rightarrow p, b_n \rightarrow p, f$  continuous  
 $\Rightarrow f(p)^2 \leq 0$   
 $\Rightarrow f(p) = 0$ . Contradiction

Since we have assumed  $f$  does not vanish  
in  $[a, b]$

Both theorems have been established.

Thm D: Let  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be cont.  
 $M = \sup \{f(x) / a \leq x \leq b\}$  and  
 $m = \inf \{f(x) / a \leq x \leq b\}$   
( $M, m$  exist thanks to Thm B)

M and m are both attained  
namely  $\exists c, d \in [a, b]$  such that  
 $f(c) = m, f(d) = M$

proof: Suppose M is NOT attained  
i.e.  $f(x) < M \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$

Then

$g(x) = \frac{1}{M - f(x)}$  is cont. on  $[a, b]$   
and positive!

so  $g(x)$  is bounded above by Thm B.  
let  $\mu$  be the upper bound.

$\therefore g(x) \leq \mu$  for all  $x \in [a, b]$

$\therefore 0 < \frac{1}{M - f(x)} \leq \mu \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$

$\therefore M - f(x) \geq \frac{1}{\mu} > 0.$

$$f(x) \leq M - \frac{1}{\mu} \leq M$$

This is a contradiction since M is the  
LEAST upper bound!

Examples:  $f(x) = 1-x : 0 \leq x \leq 1$

$M = \sup f = 1 \quad (\sup = l.u.b)$

$m = \inf f = 0 \quad (\inf = g.l.b)$

M attained at  $x=0$ ; m attained at  $x=1$   
Both l.u.b and g.l.b attained at the  
end points.

Example:  $f(x) = x(1-x) : 0 \leq x \leq 1$

$g.l.b f = 0$  attained at  
both end points.

l.u.b f attained at  $x = \frac{1}{2}$

Note:  $f'(\frac{1}{2}) = 0$  :  $f'(0) \neq 0$   
 $f'(1) \neq 0$ .

In the first example also  $f'(0) \neq 0$ ;  $f'(1) \neq 0$   
So if the l.u.b or g.l.b is attained  
in the open interval  $(a, b)$  at point p  
then  $f'(p) = 0$

If l.u.b / g.l.b attained at an endpoint-  
the derivative need not be zero at that  
point.

Ex:  $f(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}$  ;  $\frac{1}{3} \leq x \leq 1$

Find all points where f attains  
it l.u.b and g.l.b.

The Derivative: Here we shall

assume f is defined on an open  
interval  $(a, b)$  ( $a = -\infty$ , and/or  $b = +\infty$ ) is  
allowed.

We say  $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable  
at  $p \in (a, b)$  if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x) - f(p)}{x - p} \text{ exists in}$$

which case the limit is denoted by  $f'(p)$   
or  $Df(p)$  called the derivative of  
f at the point p.

If the derivative exists at each  $p \in (a, b)$   
we say f is differentiable

throughout  $(a, b)$  we get -Then the new function  $f': (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  assigning to each  $x \in (a, b)$  -the derivative  $f'(x)$ .

If  $f'$  is differentiable at  $p \in (a, b)$  its derivative will be denoted by  $f''(p)$  -The Second derivative at  $p$ .

Successive derivatives can be defined inductively.

Rules of Calculus for derivatives.

If  $f, g: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are differentiable at  $p$  -then  $f+g$ ,  $fg$  are also diff. at  $p$  and further

$$(f+g)'(p) = f'(p) + g'(p)$$

$$(fg)'(p) = f(p)g'(p) + f'(p)g(p)$$

Leibnitz' rule.

In case  $g(x) \neq 0$  in an interval  $(p-c, p+c)$  -then  $\frac{f}{g}$  which is defined on

$(p-c, p+c)$  is also differentiable at  $p$  and -the quotient rule holds:

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)'(p) = \frac{g(p)f'(p) - f(p)g'(p)}{(g(p))^2}$$

The Chain Rule:

If  $f: (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable at  $p \in (a, b)$  and  $g$  is defined on an open interval  $J$  containing image of  $f$  and  $g$  is differentiable at  $f(p)$

Then the Composite  $(g \circ f)$  is differentiable at  $p$  and  $(g \circ f)'(p) = g'(f(p)) f'(p)$   
 (Chain Rule).

Note:  $f$  diff. at  $p \Rightarrow f$  is cont. at  $p$ .

The  $n$ th derivative of  $f$  at  $p$  is denoted by  $D^n f(p)$ .

Exercise: Is the function  $\frac{\log(x+1)}{\sin x} = f(x)$   
 defined on  $(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$   
 differentiable at the origin?  $f(0) = 1$   
 Calculate the derivative.

Compute  $D^n f(0)$  when  $f(x) = \frac{(x^2-1)^n}{2^n n!}$

Prove that if  $f, g$  are both  $n$ -times diff. at  $p$  then

$$(D^n f g)(p) = {}^n C_0 D^n f(p) g(p) + {}^n C_1 D^{n-1} f(p) g'(p) + \dots + {}^n C_n f(p) D^n g(p)$$

This will be called generalized Leibnitz' rule.

Prove that  $D^n \sin x = \sin(x + n\pi/2)$

Ex. Suppose  $y = \exp(b \tan^{-1} x) = f(x)$

$$(1+x^2)y'' + (2x-1)y' = 0$$

Find a formula connecting

$$D^{n+2} f(0), D^n f(0) \text{ and } D^{n+1} f(0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ans: } & D^{n+2} f(0) + n(n+1) D^n f(0) \\ & = D^{n+1} f(0) \end{aligned}$$

(I hope I have done the algebra correctly!)

J. Edwards. Diff Calc. p 90 (1886)