

## Section 4.1: Limits of Real Valued Functions – Part C

Rather than calculating limits from the definition, in general one will use limit laws. In this section we state and prove some of these laws.

### **Theorem 4.3 (Limit Laws)**

Let  $a, c \in \mathbb{R}$  and suppose that the real functions  $f$  and  $g$  are defined in a deleted neighborhood of  $a$  and that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M \in \mathbb{R}$  both exist. Then

- a.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} c = c$ .
- b.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) + g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L + M$ .
- c.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) - g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L - M$ .
- d.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [cf(x)] = c \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = cL$ .
- e.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)g(x)] = \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right] \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \right] = LM$ .
- f. If  $M \neq 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}$ .
- g. If  $L \neq 0$  and  $M = 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  does not exist.
- h. If  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)^n] = \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right]^n = L^n$ .
- i.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$ .
- j. If  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x^n = a^n$ .
- k. If  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{x} = \sqrt[n]{a}$ . If  $n$  is even, we assume that  $a \geq 0$ .
- l. If  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{L}$ .
- m. If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} |f(x)| = 0$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$ .

### ***Proof***

The proofs are similar to those in Theorem 2.2 and we will only prove (b), (e) and (f).

$$(b) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) + g(x)] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L + M.$$

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then there are numbers  $\delta_1 > 0$  and  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that

- i.  $|f(x) - L| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$ ,
- ii.  $|g(x) - M| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$ .

Put  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ . For  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  we have  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$  and  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$  and therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
|(f(x) + g(x)) - (L + M)| &= |(f(x) - L) + (g(x) - M)| \\
&\leq |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M| \\
&< \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \\
&= \varepsilon.
\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $f(x) + g(x)$  converges to  $L + M$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ .

$$(e) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)g(x)] = \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right] \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \right] = LM.$$

We consider two cases: one special case to which then the general case is reduced.

**Case 1:**  $L = M = 0$ .

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then there are numbers  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$  such that

- i.  $|f(x) - L| = |f(x)| < 1$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$ ,
- ii.  $|g(x) - M| = |g(x)| < \varepsilon$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$ .

Put  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ . For  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  we have

$$|f(x)g(x) - 0| = |f(x) - 0| \cdot |g(x) - M| < 1 \cdot \varepsilon = \varepsilon.$$

**Case 2:**  $L$  and  $M$  are arbitrary.

Then

$$f(x)g(x) = (f(x) - L)(g(x) - M) + L(g(x) - M) + f(x)M.$$

(To see why this is true, simplify the right-hand side of the equation.)

Since  $f(x) \rightarrow L$  and  $g(x) \rightarrow M$ , we have

$$(f(x) - L) \rightarrow 0 \text{ and } (g(x) - M) \rightarrow 0 \tag{4.1}$$

as  $x \rightarrow a$  and it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
&\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [(f(x) - L)(g(x) - M) + L(g(x) - M) + f(x)M] \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - L)(g(x) - M) + \lim_{x \rightarrow a} L(g(x) - M) + \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)M && \text{by part (b)} \\
&= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - L)(g(x) - M) + L \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (g(x) - M) \right] + M \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right] && \text{by part (d)} \\
&= 0 + L \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (g(x) - M) \right] + M \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right] && \text{by (4.1) and Case 1} \\
&= 0 + L \cdot 0 + M \left[ \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right] && \text{by (4.1)}
\end{aligned}$$

$$= 0 + L \cdot 0 + ML$$

since  $f(x) \rightarrow L$

$$= LM.$$

$$(f) \quad \text{If } M \neq 0, \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}.$$

First consider  $f(x) = 1$ . Since  $M \neq 0$  and  $g(x) \rightarrow M$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ , there is  $\delta_0 > 0$  such that

$$|g(x) - M| < \frac{|M|}{2}$$

for  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_0$ . Then, for  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_0$

$$\begin{aligned} |g(x)| &= |M + (g(x) - M)| \\ &\geq |M| - |g(x) - M| \\ &\geq |M| - \frac{|M|}{2} \\ &= \frac{|M|}{2} \end{aligned}$$

which implies

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{L}{M} \right| &= \left| \frac{1}{g(x)} - \frac{1}{M} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{M - g(x)}{g(x)M} \right| \\ &= \frac{|g(x) - M|}{|g(x)| \cdot |M|} \\ &\leq \frac{|g(x) - M|}{\left(\frac{|M|}{2}\right) \cdot |M|} \\ &= \frac{2|g(x) - M|}{|M|^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Now let  $\varepsilon > 0$  and  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$  implies

$$|g(x) - M| \leq \frac{|M|^2}{2} \varepsilon.$$

(To get this use  $\left| \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} - \frac{L}{M} \right| \leq \frac{2|g(x) - M|}{|M|^2} \leq \varepsilon$ .)

Put  $\delta = \min\{\delta_0, \delta_1\}$ . It follows for  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  that

$$\left| \frac{1}{g(x)} - \frac{1}{M} \right| \leq \frac{2|g(x) - M|}{|M|^2} < \frac{2 \cdot \frac{|M|^2}{2} \varepsilon}{|M|^2} = \varepsilon.$$

(This gives us  $\frac{1}{g(x)} \rightarrow \frac{1}{M}$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ .)

The general case now follows with (d):

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left[ f(x) \cdot \frac{1}{g(x)} \right] = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{1}{g(x)} = L \cdot \frac{1}{M} = \frac{L}{M}. \quad \blacksquare$$

**Note:** For (f) and (g), if both  $L = 0$  and  $M = 0$ , then we have an indeterminate form – use L'Hopital.

Recall that a polynomial function is of the form

$$f(x) = b_n x^n + b_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + b_2 x^2 + b_1 x + b_0$$

with  $b_i \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and  $n$  any nonnegative integer. A rational function is of the form

$$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$$

with  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  polynomials. We then have the following as a consequence of Theorem 2.2.

#### Corollary 4.1

*If  $f$  is a polynomial or a rational function and  $a$  is in the domain of  $f$ , then*

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

#### Corollary 4.2

*All the limit rules in Theorem 4.3 remain true if  $x \rightarrow a$  is replaced by any of the following:  $x \rightarrow a^+$ ,  $x \rightarrow a^-$ ,  $x \rightarrow \infty$  and  $x \rightarrow -\infty$ .*

#### Proof

For  $x \rightarrow a^+$  and  $x \rightarrow a^-$  one just has to replace  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  with  $0 < x - a < \delta$  and  $-\delta < x - a < 0$ , respectively, in the proof of each of the statements.

For  $x \rightarrow \infty$  and  $x \rightarrow -\infty$ , the proofs are very similar to those for sequences. ■

Similar rules hold if the functions have infinite limits. We state some of the results for  $x \rightarrow a$ , observing that there are obvious extensions as in Corollary 4.2.

#### Theorem 4.4

*Assume that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then*

- (a)  $f(x) + g(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ .
- (b)  $f(x) + h(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ .
- (c)  $f(x)g(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ .
- (d)  $f(x)h(x) \rightarrow \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } c > 0 \\ -\infty & \text{if } c < 0 \end{cases}$  as  $x \rightarrow a$ .

**Proof**

We prove (c) and leave the other parts as exercises.

Let  $A > 0$ . Then there are  $\delta_1 > 0$  and  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that

- i.  $f(x) > 1$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$ ,
- ii.  $g(x) > A$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$ .

With  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$  it follows for  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$  that

$$f(x)g(x) > 1 \cdot A = A. \quad \blacksquare$$

**Theorem 4.5 (Sandwich Theorem)**

Let  $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty, -\infty\}$  and assume that  $f$ ,  $g$  and  $h$  are real functions defined in a deleted neighborhood of  $a$ . If  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  for  $x$  in a deleted neighborhood of  $a$  and

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

then

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

**Proof**

Note that  $L \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty, -\infty\}$ . We will prove this theorem in the case  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $L \in \mathbb{R}$ . The other cases are left as an exercise.

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then there are  $\delta_1$  and  $\delta_2$  such that

- i.  $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_1$ ,
- ii.  $|h(x) - L| < \varepsilon$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta_2$ .

Put  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ . Then, for  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ ,

$$L - \varepsilon < f(x) < L + \varepsilon$$

and

$$L - \varepsilon < h(x) < L + \varepsilon$$

gives

$$L - \varepsilon < f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x) < L + \varepsilon.$$

Hence  $|g(x) - L| < \varepsilon$  if  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ . ■

### Theorem 4.6

Let  $f$  be defined on an interval  $(a, b)$ , where  $a = -\infty$  and  $b = \infty$  are allowed. With the convenient notation  $a^+ = -\infty$  if  $a = -\infty$  and  $b^- = \infty$  if  $b = \infty$ , we obtain

(a) If  $f$  is increasing, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = \sup\{f(x) : x \in (a, b)\}$$

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \inf\{f(x) : x \in (a, b)\}.$$

(b) If  $f$  is decreasing, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = \inf\{f(x) : x \in (a, b)\}$$

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \sup\{f(x) : x \in (a, b)\}.$$

### Proof

Since all four cases have similar proofs, we only prove (a) in the case  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Let  $L = \sup\{f(x) : x \in (a, b)\}$

**Case 1:**  $L \in \mathbb{R}$

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By Theorem 1.6 there is  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $L - \varepsilon < f(c)$ . Put  $\delta = b - c > 0$ . Now let  $b - \delta < x < b$ , i.e.,  $x \in (c, b)$ . Then  $c < x$  gives  $f(c) \leq f(x)$  since  $f$  is increasing and  $f(x) \leq L$  for all  $x \in (c, b) \subset (a, b)$  by definition of the supremum, so that

$$L - \varepsilon < f(c) \leq f(x) \leq L < L + \varepsilon$$

for these  $x$ . This means  $f(x) \rightarrow L$  as  $x \rightarrow b^-$  by definition.

**Case 2:**  $L = \infty$

In this case,  $\{f(x) : x \in (a, b)\}$  is not bounded above. Therefore, for each  $A \in \mathbb{R}$  there is  $c \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(c) > A$ . Since  $f$  is increasing, it follows for all  $x \in (c, b)$  that  $A < f(c) \leq f(x)$ . Therefore  $f(x) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $x \rightarrow b^-$ . ■

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## Tutorial 4.1 – Part C

1. Prove the following:
  - a. The remainder of the Limit Laws in Theorem 4.3.
  - b. Corollary 4.1.
  - c. The remainder of Theorem 4.4.

- d. The other cases for Theorem 4.5.
  - e. The other cases for Theorem 4.6.
2. Let  $n$  be a positive integer. Prove that
- a.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^n = \infty$
  - b.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x^n = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ -\infty & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$
  - c.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^{-n} = \infty$
  - d.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} x^{-n} = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } n \text{ is even,} \\ -\infty & \text{if } n \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$
- 3.
- a. Let  $f, g$  be defined in a deleted neighborhood of  $a$  and assume that  $f(x) < g(x)$  for all  $x$  in a deleted neighborhood of  $a$ . Show that if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$  exist, then  $L \leq M$ .
  - b. Give examples for  $L < M$  and for  $L = M$  in (a).
  - c. Formulate and prove the result corresponding to (a) for one-sided limits.
4. Using rules for limits, determine the behavior of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  tends to the given limit:
- a.  $f(x) = \frac{4x}{3-x}$  as  $x \rightarrow 3^-$ .
  - b.  $f(x) = \frac{(x-4)(x-1)}{x-2}$  as  $x \rightarrow 2^+$ .
  - c.  $f(x) = \frac{2x+1}{x^2-x}$  as  $x \rightarrow 0^+$ .

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