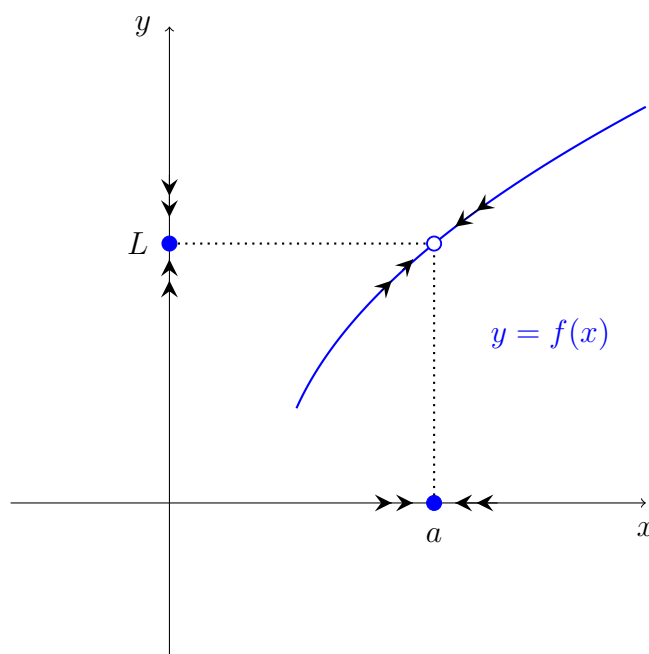


Chapter 7

Limits and Continuity

7.1 Limits – An informal treatment

We say that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ **exists** if we can find a number, say L , such that $f(x)$ gets very close to L , as x gets very close to a (from **both** sides). We write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$, and we say that the limit of $f(x)$, as x approaches a , is L . This is called a **two-sided** limit (since x approaches a from **both** sides).



Suppose that $f(x) = x + 3$. We will investigate the values of $f(x)$ when x is close to 2, so that we get an idea of the value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$.

x	$f(x)$
1.9	4.9
1.99	4.99
1.999	4.999

x	$f(x)$
2.1	5.1
2.01	5.01
2.001	5.001

As x gets close to 2 (from the left **and** from the right) then we see that $f(x)$ gets close to 5. Thus, we would expect that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 5$. This is indeed the value of the limit, but we shall soon state a result that allows us to calculate this kind of limit in a simple and mathematically correct manner.

Note also that $f(2) = 2 + 3 = 5$. So for $f(x) = x + 3$, we see that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = f(2)$.

Suppose that $f(x) = x^2 - x + 2$. We will investigate the values of $f(x)$ when x is close to 2, so that we get an idea of the value of $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$.

x	$f(x)$
1.9	3.71
1.99	3.9701
1.999	3.997001

x	$f(x)$
2.1	4.31
2.01	4.0301
2.001	4.003001

As x gets close to 2 (from the left **and** from the right) then we see that $f(x)$ gets close to 4. Thus, we would expect that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 4$. This is indeed the value of the limit, but we shall soon state a result that allows us to calculate this kind of limit in a simple and mathematically correct manner.

Note also that $f(2) = 2^2 - 2 + 2 = 4$. So for $f(x) = x^2 - x + 2$, we see that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = f(2)$.

In the two examples that we have seen so far, we could have obtained the answer for the limit $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ simply by substituting the number a into the function. That is, we have had

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

We state the following two results without proof:

Result 1. If f is a polynomial then

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

Result 2. If f and g are polynomials, with $g(a) \neq 0$, then

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

Example 1.

$$\begin{aligned} (a) \quad & \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} 3x \\ &= 3 \times 3 \\ &= 9 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} (b) \quad & \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{3x}{x+2} \\ &= \frac{3 \times 3}{3+2} \\ &= \frac{9}{5} \end{aligned}$$

Note that if f is **NOT** a polynomial (or a fraction of polynomials), then we **might** have

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

That is, it is possible that the limit **cannot** be found just by substituting the number a into the function. In particular, we should keep in mind that whenever we evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$, we are actually interested in the value of $f(x)$ for x **close** to a (but **not equal** to a).

Example 2. (a) Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x + 1)$.

(b) Consider the function $f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 1 & \text{if } x \neq 1 \\ \pi & \text{if } x = 1 . \end{cases}$

(i) Find $f(1)$.

(ii) Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$.

Solution: (a) Since $x + 1$ is a polynomial, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x + 1) &= 1 + 1 \\ &= 2 \end{aligned}$$

(b) (i) We have $f(1) = \pi$.

(ii) We have $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x + 1) = 1 + 1 = 2$.

□

Note that in Example 2(b), the limit **CANNOT** be found just by substituting $x = 1$ into $f(x)$. That is, in Example 2(b) we have

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

Suppose we need to calculate

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

where $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ are polynomials. If $f(a) = 0$ and $g(a) = 0$, then it is useful to

(a) factorise $f(x)$ and/or $g(x)$, and

(b) cancel terms,

in order to calculate $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$.

Example 3.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{(x + 2)(x - 2)}{x - 2} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x + 2) \\ &= 2 + 2 \\ &= 4 \end{aligned}$$

Note that in Example 3, the limit **CANNOT** be found just by substituting $x = 2$ into $f(x)$ (since that would give 0 in the denominator of the fraction). That is, in Example 3, we have

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

(since $f(2)$ is **not** defined).

Example 4.

(a)

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + 5x}{x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(x + 5)}{x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (x + 5) \\ &= 0 + 5 \\ &= 5 \end{aligned}$$

(b)

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(3 + h)^2 - 9}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{9 + 6h + h^2 - 9}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{6h + h^2}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (6 + h) \\ &= 6 + 0 \\ &= 6 \end{aligned}$$

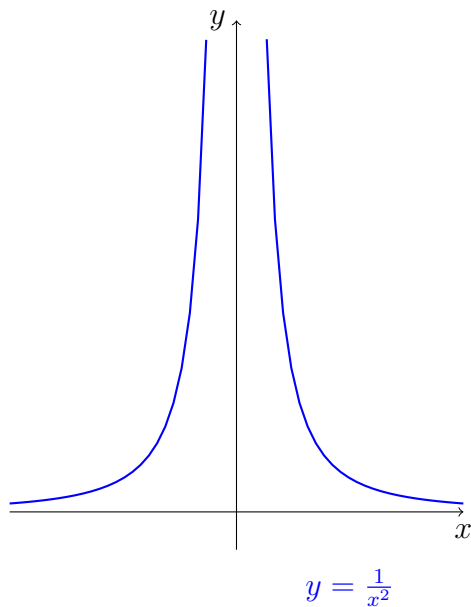
We now state (without proof) an important result, that you need to know:

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$

From this result, we are able to deduce important results regarding the derivatives of trigonometric functions.

Note: As usual, when we write $\sin x$ we are treating x as if it is an angle measured in radians, not degrees. The above limit when x is measured in degrees is a number that is not as simple as 1. This is one reason that mathematicians prefer radians to degrees.

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



Note that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ **does not exist**, because $\frac{1}{x^2}$ does **not** approach any particular number as x gets closer and closer to 0 . In fact, we see from the above graph that as $x \rightarrow 0$ we have $\frac{1}{x^2} \rightarrow \infty$.

We write $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} = \infty$ (even though we have already stated that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2}$ does not exist).

In general, we write

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

if $f(x)$ gets arbitrarily large (i.e. “goes to ∞ ”) as x gets closer and closer to a . However we must remember that when we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ **does not exist** (since ∞ is **not a number**).

Similarly, if $\lim_{x \rightarrow b} g(x) = -\infty$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow b} g(x)$ does not exist.

Exercises

Evaluate each of the following limits:

$$(a) \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (5x + 3)$$

$$(b) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |x|$$

$$(c) \lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} \cos x$$

$$(d) \lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{x^2 - 16}{x - 4}$$

$$(e) \lim_{x \rightarrow -2} \frac{x^3 + 8}{x + 2}$$

$$(f) \lim_{t \rightarrow 4} \frac{\sqrt{t} - 2}{t - 4}$$

Limit Laws

Suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ and that c is a constant. Then

1. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) + g(x)] = L + M$
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x) - g(x)] = L - M$
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)g(x)] = LM$
4. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}$ provided $M \neq 0$.
5. if $M = 0$ and $L \neq 0$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ does not exist.
6. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [cf(x)] = cL$
7. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} c = c$.
8. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$.

From these laws, we can derive many rules for calculating limits. For example, we can use these laws to show the following results (which were stated on page 3).

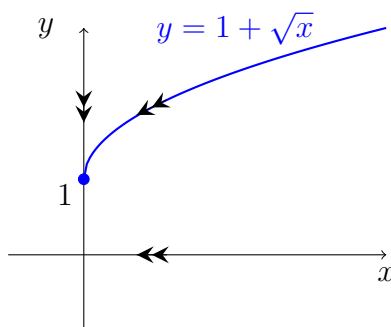
- Each **polynomial** f satisfies $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.
- Similarly, if f and g are polynomials such that $g(a) \neq 0$ then
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(a)}{g(a)}.$$

7.2 One-sided Limits

When we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$, we only consider x -values which are **less** than a . This is called a **left-hand** limit. We say that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ **exists**, and that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ if there is a number L such that $f(x)$ gets very close to L , as x gets very close to a **from the left**.

Similarly, when we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$, we only consider x -values which are **greater** than a . This is called a **right-hand** limit.

Let us consider how we might find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (1 + \sqrt{x})$.



From the graph, it appears that as x approaches 0 from the right, then y approaches 1. That is, $1 + \sqrt{x}$ approaches 1.

So it seems that

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

This is in fact correct. It turns out that the square root function is another example of a function whose limits are found simply by substitution. That is we can calculate the above limit as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (1 + \sqrt{x}) &= 1 + \sqrt{0} \\ &= 1 + 0 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Example 5. Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3^-} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3^+} f(x)$ where

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 2 & \text{if } x \leq 3 \\ 4 & \text{if } x > 3. \end{cases}$$

Solution: We have

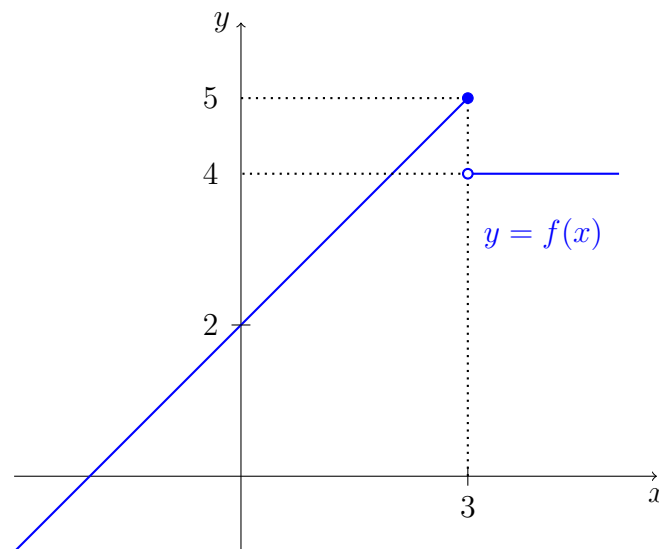
$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^-} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^-} (x + 2) \\ &= 3 + 2 \\ &= 5 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^+} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^+} 4 \\ &= 4. \end{aligned}$$

□

Note that we can guess that these are the correct limits by looking at the function's graph:



Result 3. Let f be a function that is defined for all numbers near the number a^* . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L.$$

From this result, we deduce that

if the one-sided limits are **not equal** to each other
then the two-sided limit does not exist.

We also deduce that

if one (or both) of the one-sided limits does not exist,
then the two-sided limit also does not exist.

Example 6. Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x)$ where $f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 2 & \text{if } x \leq 3 \\ 4 & \text{if } x > 3. \end{cases}$

Solution: In Example 5 we saw that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 3^-} f(x) = 5 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^+} f(x) = 4.$$

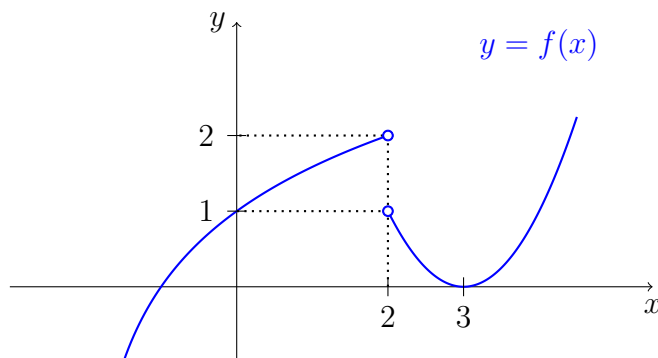
Since

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

then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x)$ does **not** exist. □

If you are given the graph of a function but you are not given a rule for the function, then you may use the graph to evaluate limits.

Example 7. Consider the function f whose graph is given below.



*This means that there is a positive number ϵ such that $(a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon) \setminus \{a\} \subseteq \text{dom}(f)$.

(a) From the graph we see that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = 2$

(b) From the graph we see that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) = 1$

(c) We conclude that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$ does **not** exist because

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x)$$

Example 8. Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ where $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 + 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (x^2 + 1) \\ &= 0^2 + 1 \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} (1) \\ &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

We see that

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

and therefore

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

□

Exercises

1. Consider the function $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 + 1 & \text{for } x \geq 2 \\ 2x - 1 & \text{for } x < 2 \end{cases}$

(a) Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x)$.

(b) Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x)$.

(c) Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$.

2. Evaluate the following limits.

(a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (2x - 5)$

(b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$

(c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{x^2 - 16}{x - 4}$

(d) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{2x + 1}{x + 2}$

(e) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$ where $f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x - 1 & \text{for } x \geq 2 \\ x^2 - 1 & \text{for } x < 2 \end{cases}$

(f) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x)$ where $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{for } x < 3 \\ 3x - 1 & \text{for } x \geq 3 \end{cases}$

7.3 Continuity

We say that a function f is **continuous** at $x = a$ if

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

In fact this single equation actually involves **three** conditions.

In particular, $f(x)$ is **continuous** at $x = a$ if

- (i) $f(a)$ is defined; and
- (ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists; and
- (iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

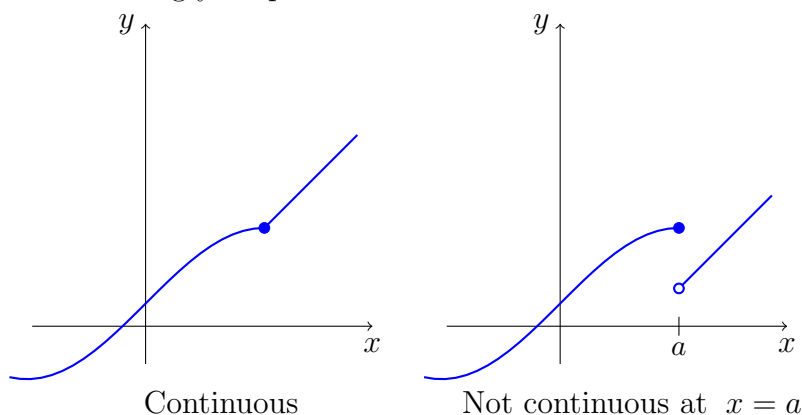
If one or more of these three properties does **not** hold, then $f(x)$ is **discontinuous** at $x = a$.

When we just say that f is **continuous** (without stating a particular x -value) then we mean that f is continuous at **every** point in its domain.

Note:

Roughly speaking f is continuous at $x = a$ if we do **not** need to lift our pens at $x = a$ when we are sketching a graph of $y = f(x)$. If we **do** need to lift our pen at $x = a$ when we are sketching the graph of $y = f(x)$ then f is discontinuous at $x = a$.

Note however, that **if we are asked to explain** why a function is continuous (or discontinuous) at a particular point, then we **must** refer to the conditions (i), (ii) and (iii) given above. It is **not** good enough to just talk about lifting your pen.



Example 9. (a) Consider the function $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2}$.

Is f continuous at $x = 2$?

That is, does $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = f(2)$?

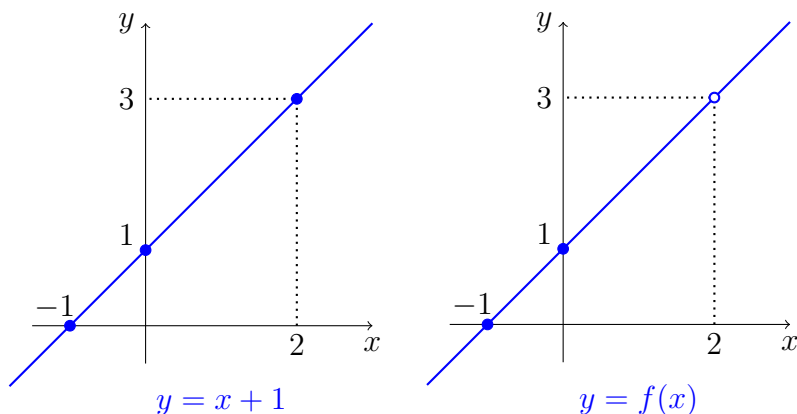
Solution: Note that $f(2)$ is **not** defined (since we cannot have 0 for the denominator of a fraction).

Thus f is **not** continuous at $x = 2$. □

Note that

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

but with $\text{dom}(f) = \mathbf{R} \setminus \{2\}$.



We see that we have to lift our pen at $x = 2$ to jump over the hole in the graph of $y = f(x)$. (We are **not** allowed to trace around the “outside” of the hole.)

(In contrast, we do *not* need to lift our pen on the $y = x + 1$ graph, since $y = x + 1$ is continuous everywhere.)

(b) Consider the function $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 + 1 & \text{for } x \geq 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x < 0 \end{cases}$.

Is f continuous at $x = 0$?

That is, does $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = f(0)$?

Solution: (i) $f(0) = 0^2 + 1 = 1$.

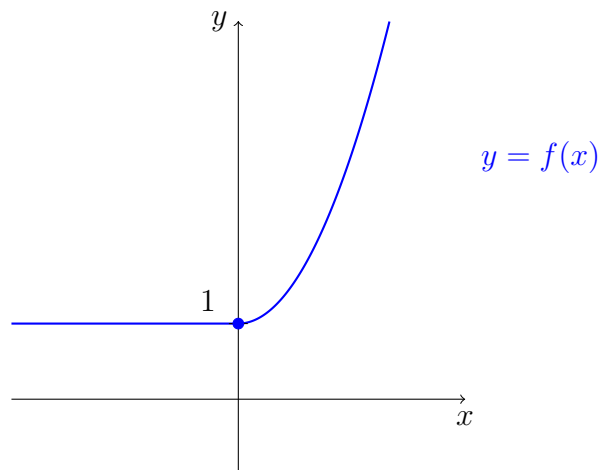
(ii) We saw in Example 8 that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ exists, with $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 1$.

(iii) We see from (i) and (ii) above that

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

Thus f is continuous at $x = 0$.

□



Note: We can draw the graph of $y = f(x)$ without having to lift our pens.

(c) Consider the function $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{for } x < 3 \\ 3x - 1 & \text{for } x \geq 3. \end{cases}$

Is f continuous at $x = 3$?

That is, does $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x) = f(3)$?

Solution: (i)

$$\begin{aligned} f(3) &= 3 \times 3 - 1 \\ &= 8 \end{aligned}$$

(ii)

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^+} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^+} (3x - 1) \\ &= 3 \times 3 - 1 \\ &= 8 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^-} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^-} (x^2) \\ &= 3^2 \\ &= 9 \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x)$ does not exist, because $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3^+} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 3^-} f(x)$.

Therefore f is not continuous at $x = 3$ because $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x)$ does not exist.

□

(d) Consider the function $f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 2 & \text{for } x \neq 1 \\ 4 & \text{for } x = 1. \end{cases}$

Is f continuous at $x = 1$?

That is, does $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = f(1)$?

Solution: (i) $f(1) = 4$ (This is clear from the definition of the function.)

(ii)

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x + 2) \\ &= 1 + 2 \\ &= 3 \end{aligned}$$

(iii) We see that

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

Therefore f is not continuous at $x = 1$.

□

Exercises

State whether the following functions are continuous. If a point of discontinuity occurs, explain why it is a point of discontinuity.

(a) $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 & \text{for } x > 0 \\ x & \text{for } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$

(b) $f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 + 1 & \text{for } x > 0 \\ x & \text{for } x \leq 0 \end{cases}$

(c) $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2-1}{x-1} & \text{for } x \neq 1 \\ 2 & \text{for } x = 1 \end{cases}$

(d) $f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x - 3 & \text{for } x \leq 2 \\ x^2 - 2x & \text{for } x > 2 \end{cases}$

Continuity Laws

Suppose that the functions f and g are continuous at a , and that c is a constant. Then

- $f + g$ is continuous at a .
- $f - g$ is continuous at a .
- fg is continuous at a .
- if $g(a) \neq 0$ then $\frac{f}{g}$ is continuous at a .
- cf is continuous at a .

It can be shown that the functions $h_1(x) = c$ and $h_2(x) = x$ are continuous everywhere. Then, by using the above laws, it can be shown that

each **polynomial** is continuous everywhere

It can also be shown that for all **polynomials** f and g , we have

$\frac{f}{g}$ is continuous at each point a such that $g(a) \neq 0$

Two other useful results concerning continuity are as follows:

- If g is continuous at a , and f is continuous at $g(a)$, then the composite function $f \circ g$ is continuous at a .
Recall that $f \circ g$ is the function defined by $f \circ g(x) = f(g(x))$.
- The square root function $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ is continuous on its domain.

Note (not examinable): a formal definition of limit only chooses values of x in the domain of the function $f(x)$, and so, for example

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sqrt{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sqrt{x} = 0.$$

7.4 Answers to Chapter 7 Exercises

7.1:

- | | | |
|-------|--------|-------------------|
| (a) 8 | (b) 0 | (c) -1 |
| (d) 8 | (e) 12 | (f) $\frac{1}{4}$ |

7.2:

- | | | |
|-------------------|-------|-------------------------------|
| 1. (a) 3 | (b) 5 | (c) The limit does not exist. |
| 2. (a) -3 | (b) 2 | (c) 8 |
| (d) $\frac{5}{4}$ | (e) 3 | (f) The limit does not exist. |

7.3:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--|
| (a) Continuous everywhere. | (b) Discontinuous at $x = 0$, since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ does not exist. |
| (c) Continuous everywhere. | (d) Discontinuous at $x = 2$, since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$ does not exist. |