

# LIMIT

## LIMIT

$x(t)$ : position function

$t_0$ : given

The average velocity from  $t_0$  to  $t_0 + \Delta t$  is  $\frac{x(t_0 + \Delta t) - x(t_0)}{\Delta t}$  if the

average velocity close to a value when  $\Delta t$  close to 0, we call the value  
function  $\xrightarrow{\text{limit}} \text{value}$

is the instantaneous velocity at time  $t_0$ .

Def.  $f(x)$  is defined for  $x$  near  $a$ . If the function  $f(x)$  close to  $L$  when  $x$  close to  $a$ , then we write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  or  $f(x) \rightarrow L$  as  $x \xrightarrow{\text{close to}} a$ .

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

- guess  $L$
- prove  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$
- $L = f(a)$ ?

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \stackrel{?}{=} L = f(a)$  NO

Proof:

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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x-1}{x^2-1} = \frac{1}{2} \neq f(1)$$

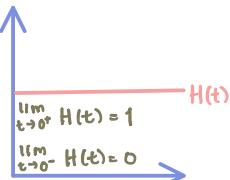
$$f(1) = \frac{1-1}{1^2-1} \text{ is NOT defined}$$

2.  $f(a) = L \stackrel{?}{=} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  NO

Proof:

$$H(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ 1, & t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$H(0) = 1$$



When  $t$  approach 0 from right/left,  $H(t)$  approach 1/0.

$\therefore \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} H(t)$  does NOT exist.

Def. //one-sided limit if  $f(x)$  close to  $L$  when  $x$  close to  $a$  from right/left

we write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$  /  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ .

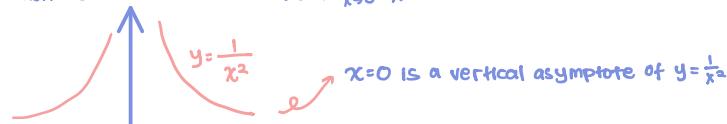
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \left. \begin{array}{l} \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L \end{array} \right\} \text{if and only if}$$

$$\text{Ex. } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} ?$$

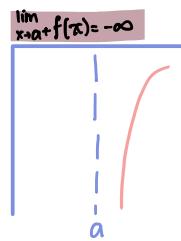
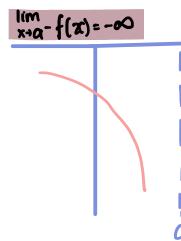
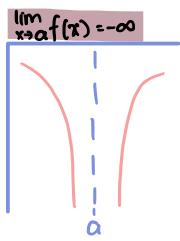
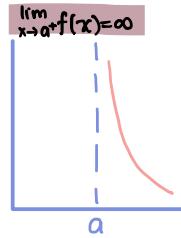
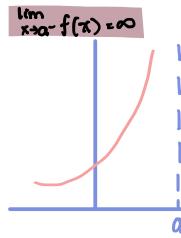
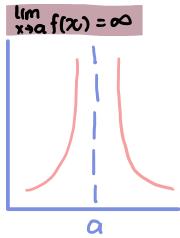
Sol. When  $x$  close to zero, we observe  $\frac{1}{x^2}$  is increasing and we bounded.

Then we denote this behaviour  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} = \infty$ .



Def.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = \infty$  /  $-\infty$  means  $f(x)$  can be made arbitrarily large/negative

large by taking  $x$  sufficiently close to  $a$ .



Def. The vertical line  $x=a$  is called the asymptote of the curve  $y=f(x)$  if one of the following holds:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \pm \infty$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \pm \infty$ .

Ex. Find the vertical asymptotes of  $f(x) = \tan x$

Sol.  $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$  we know  $\cos x = 0$  for  $x = \frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi$ ,  $\cos x > 0$ . Thus,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2})^-} \tan x = \lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2})^+} \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} = +\infty$$

$\overbrace{>0}^{>0} \rightarrow 0$

$x = \frac{\pi}{2}$  is a vertical asymptote of  $f(x) = \tan x$ .

$n$  is even: The proof is the same with  $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$

$n$  is odd: When  $x < \frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi$  and close to  $\frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi$ ,  $\cos x < 0$ ,  $\sin x < 0$ .

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi)^-} \tan x = \lim_{x \rightarrow (\frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi)^+} \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} = +\infty$$

$x = \frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi$  where  $n$  is an integer are all the vertical asymptote of  $f(x) = \tan x$ .

## COMPUTING USING LIMIT LAWS.

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  exist

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

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

3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)}$ , if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$  //  $c$  is a constant

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

5.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}$ , if  $n$  is even,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \geq 0$ .

Prop. If  $f$  is a polynomial or a rational function, and  $a$  is in the domain of  $f$ , then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$  is defined.

1. If  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_1 x + a_0$  where  $n$  is a positive integer, we call it the polynomial.

2. If  $f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$  where  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are polynomial, we call it the rational function.

$$\text{Ex. (a)} \lim_{x \rightarrow 5} (2x^2 - 3x + 4) = 2 \cdot 25 - 3 \cdot 5 + 4 = 39$$

$$\text{(b)} \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^3 + 2x^2 - 1}{5 - 3x} = \frac{-8 + 8 - 1}{5 + 6} = \frac{-1}{11}$$

$p(x), q(x)$ : polynomials

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = \frac{p(a)}{q(a)}, \text{ if } q(a) \neq 0$$

If  $q(a) = 0$ ,

1.  $p(a) \neq 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = +\infty$  or  $-\infty$ , does not exist.  
 Ex:  $\begin{array}{l} p=1 \\ q=x^2 \end{array}$     $\begin{array}{l} p=1 \\ q=-x^2 \end{array}$     $\begin{array}{l} p=1 \\ q=x \end{array}$

2.  $p(a) = 0$

Prop. If  $f(x) = g(x)$  when  $x \neq a$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{p_i(x)}{q_i(x)}$  where

$p_i$  and  $q_i$  satisfy  $p_i(x) = (x-a)p_i(x)$  and  $q_i(x) = (x-a)q_i(x)$ .

$$\text{Ex. } \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$$

Sol. When  $x=1$ ,  $x^2 - 1 = 0$ , and  $x-1=0$

$$x^2 - 1 = (x-1)(x+1)$$

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

$$\text{Ex. } \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{t^2 + 9} - 3}{t^2} \quad // a^2 - b^2 = (a-b)(a+b)$$

Sol. When  $t=0$ ,  $\sqrt{t^2 + 9} - 3 = 0$  and  $t^2 = 0$ .

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{t^2 + 9} - 3}{t^2} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{t^2 + 9} - 3}{t^2} \times \frac{\sqrt{t^2 + 9} + 3}{\sqrt{t^2 + 9} + 3} = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{t^2 + 9 - 9}{t^2(\sqrt{t^2 + 9} + 3)} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$\text{Ex. } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{|x|}{x} \text{ does not exist}$$

$$\text{Proof. } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{|x|}{x} \text{ for } x > 0, |x| = x \text{ so } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{|x|}{x} = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{|x|}{x} \text{ for } x < 0, |x| = -x \text{ so } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{|x|}{x} = -1$$

$$\text{Since } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{|x|}{x} = 1 \neq -1 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{|x|}{x}, \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{|x|}{x} \text{ does not exist.}$$

//  $[x]$  or  $[x]$  or  $\lfloor x \rfloor$  greatest integer function; the largest integer that is less than  $x$ .

//  $\lceil x \rceil$  least integer function; the smallest integer that is more than  $x$ .

// Ex. (1)  $\lceil -2.5 \rceil = -2$

$$(2) \lfloor \pi \rfloor = 3$$

1. If  $f(x) \leq g(x)$  when  $x$  is near  $a$  and both  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  exist, then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ .

Ex. Assume  $f(x) \leq 0$  when  $x$  is near  $a$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists. By (1),  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq 0$ .

2. Squeeze Theorem

2. If  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  when  $x$  is near  $a$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L$   
 find

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

Ex. Show  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0$

Proof. First we know that  $-1 \leq \sin \frac{1}{x} \leq 1$ . So we have  $\boxed{-x^2 \leq x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} \leq x^2}$

Also, we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (-x^2) = 0 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2$ . By Squeeze Theorem,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} = 0.$$

## Precise Definition

If  $f(x)$  is arbitrarily close to  $L$  by restricting  $x$  to be sufficiently close to  $a$ ,

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ . For every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \delta > 0$  such that if  $0 < |x-a| < \delta$  then  $|f(x)-L| < \epsilon$ .

To show  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ , given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , our goal is to find  $\delta > 0$  such that the statement  $\text{if } 0 < |x-a| < \delta \text{ then } |f(x)-L| < \epsilon$  holds.

Known:  $a, f(x), L, \epsilon$

Unknown:  $\delta$

1. Observe the relation between  $|f(x)-L|$  and  $|x-a|$ .

2. Use the relation found in 1 to guess  $\delta$ .

3. Show the  $\delta$  works.

Ex. Show  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} x^2 = 9$

Proof.  $|x^2 - 9| = |x-3||x+3|$

For  $|x-3| < 1$ , we have  $2 < x < 4$  and  $5 < x+3 < 7$  so  $|x^2 - 9| < 7|x-3|$ . Since we want  $|x^2 - 9| < \epsilon$ , we ask for  $|x-3| < \frac{\epsilon}{7}$ . Now we take  $\delta = \min\{1, \frac{\epsilon}{7}\}$ .

If  $0 < |x-3| < \delta$ , then  $|x^2 - 9| = |x-3||x+3| < 7|x-3|$

↓  
since  $|x-3| < \delta < 1 \rightarrow |x+3| < 7$

$$7\delta \leq 7 \cdot \frac{\epsilon}{7} = \epsilon$$

$$\hookrightarrow \delta = \min\{1, \frac{\epsilon}{7}\}$$

Therefore,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} x^2 = 9$ .

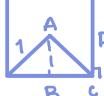
$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty / -\infty$  means that for every  $N > 0 / N < 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

if  $0 < |x-a| < \delta$ , then  $f(x) > N / f(x) < N$ .

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

Proof. For  $x > 0$ , since  $\bar{AB} < \bar{AC} < \bar{DC}$  we have  $\sin x < x < \tan x$ . It shows us

$$1 < \frac{x}{\sin x} < \frac{1}{\cos x} \rightarrow 1 > \frac{\sin x}{x} > \cos x$$

 Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} 1 = 1$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \cos x = 1$  by Squeeze Theorem, we obtain  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$ . It remains to show  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$ . Set

$$y = -x. \text{ As } x \rightarrow 0^-, \text{ we have } y \rightarrow 0^+$$

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

From the results shown in the above, we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$ .

Corollary:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin ax}{bx} = \frac{a}{b}$

Proof.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin ax}{bx} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{a}{b} \cdot \frac{\sin ax}{ax} = \frac{a}{b} \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin ax}{ax} = \frac{a}{b}$