

MAS115 Calculus I

Week 3

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Revision: Composition, Scaling, Trigonometry

Lecture 7

Lecture 8

Lecture 9

- Composition of functions

Remember: $(f \circ g)(x)$ is different from $(f \cdot g)(x)$

- Scaling of functions: transform graph of

$$y = f(x)$$

to graph of

$$y = cf(ax + b) + d$$

- Trigonometric functions
 - Reading Assignment: Chapter 1.6

Periodic functions

Lecture 7

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DEFINITION **Periodic Function**

A function $f(x)$ is **periodic** if there is a positive number p such that $f(x + p) = f(x)$ for every value of x . The smallest such value of p is the **period** of f .

$$\sin(\theta + 2\pi) = \sin \theta$$

$$\cos(\theta + 2\pi) = \cos \theta$$

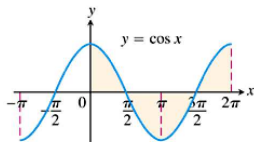
$$\tan(\theta + \pi) = \tan \theta$$

Graphs of trigonometric functions

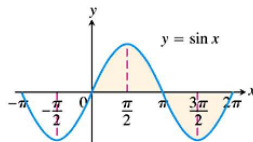
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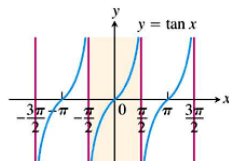
Lecture 9

Domain: $-\infty < x < \infty$ Range: $-1 \leq y \leq 1$ Period: 2π

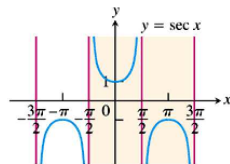
(a)

Domain: $-\infty < x < \infty$ Range: $-1 \leq y \leq 1$ Period: 2π

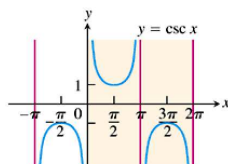
(b)

Domain: $x \neq \pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{3\pi}{2}, \dots$ Range: $-\infty < y < \infty$ Period: π

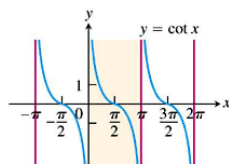
(c)

Domain: $x \neq \pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{3\pi}{2}, \dots$ Range: $y \leq -1$ and $y \geq 1$ Period: 2π

(d)

Domain: $x \neq 0, \pm \pi, \pm 2\pi, \dots$ Range: $y \leq -1$ and $y \geq 1$ Period: 2π

(e)

Domain: $x \neq 0, \pm \pi, \pm 2\pi, \dots$ Range: $-\infty < y < \infty$ Period: π

(f)

Trigonometric identities

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Read on your own:

- Symmetries
- Special values
- Addition formulae
- Double-angle and half-angle formulae
- Law of sines
- Law of cosines

Relevant for exercise class ...

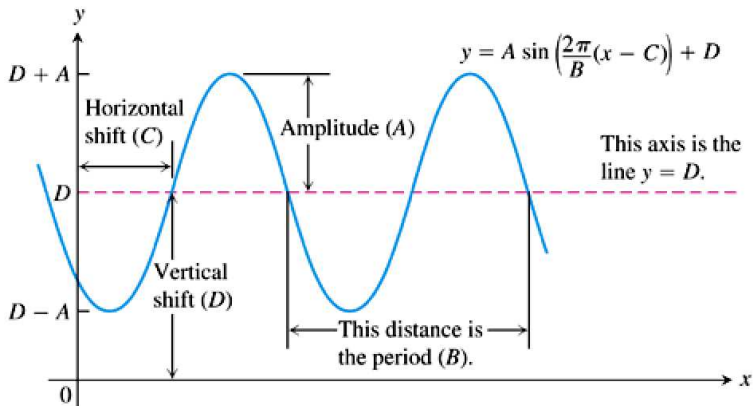
Shifting and scaling of trigonometric functions

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$$f(x) = A \sin \left[\frac{2\pi}{B}(x - C) \right] + D$$



Limits

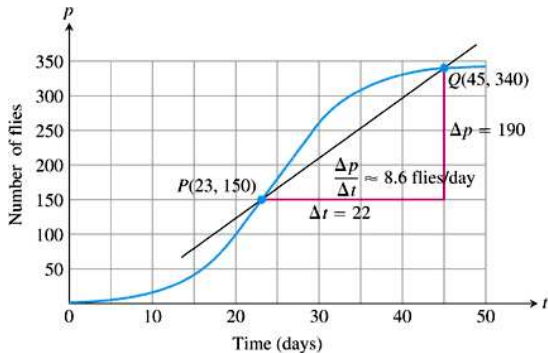
Average rate of change

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Growth of a fruit fly population



- Average rate of change over 22 days (day 23 to day 45)?
- Growth rate on day 23?

Average rate of change

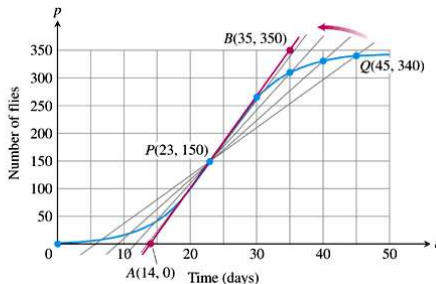
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Growth of a fruit fly population

Q	Slope of $PQ = \Delta p / \Delta t$ (flies/day)
(45, 340)	$\frac{340 - 150}{45 - 23} \approx 8.6$
(40, 330)	$\frac{330 - 150}{40 - 23} \approx 10.6$
(35, 310)	$\frac{310 - 150}{35 - 23} \approx 13.3$
(30, 265)	$\frac{265 - 150}{30 - 23} \approx 16.4$

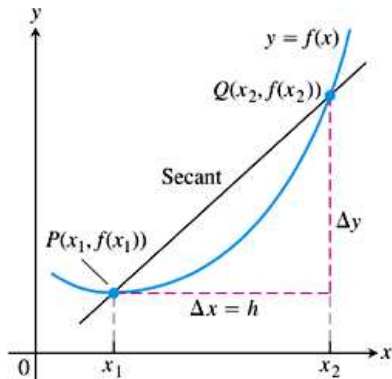


Average rate of change

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**DEFINITION** Average Rate of Change over an Interval

The **average rate of change** of $y = f(x)$ with respect to x over the interval $[x_1, x_2]$ is

$$\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x} = \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} = \frac{f(x_1 + h) - f(x_1)}{h}, \quad h \neq 0.$$

Animation!

Limits

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Lecture 9

To move from

- average rates of change

to

- instantaneous rates of change

we first of all need to consider

limits

Informal definition of a limit

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Definition (Limit (informal))

Let $f(x)$ be defined on an open interval about x_0 *except possibly at x_0 itself*. If $f(x)$ gets arbitrarily close to L (as close to L as we like) for all x sufficiently close to x_0 , we say that f approaches the **limit** L as x approaches x_0 , and we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L ,$$

which is read “the limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches x_0 .”

Why informal?

What does “arbitrarily close” and “sufficiently close” mean?

We'll deal with that later ...

Example

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Consider

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

with $x_0 = 1$

- $f(x)$ is not defined for $x_0 = 1$
- we can simplify for $x \neq 1$

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

- this suggests that

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

Example

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TABLE 2.2 The closer x gets to 1, the closer $f(x) = (x^2 - 1)/(x - 1)$ seems to get to 2

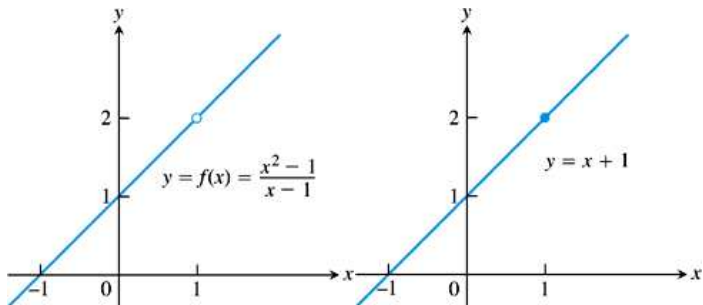
Values of x below and above 1	$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1} = x + 1, \quad x \neq 1$
0.9	1.9
1.1	2.1
0.99	1.99
1.01	2.01
0.999	1.999
1.001	2.001
0.999999	1.999999
1.000001	2.000001

Example

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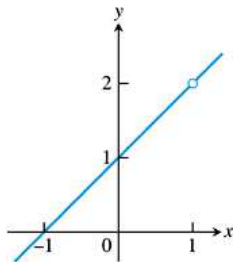


$f(x_0)$ is irrelevant!

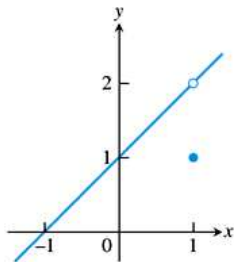
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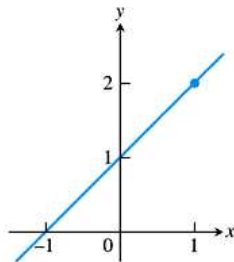
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$$(a) f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$$



$$(b) g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}, & x \neq 1 \\ 1, & x = 1 \end{cases}$$



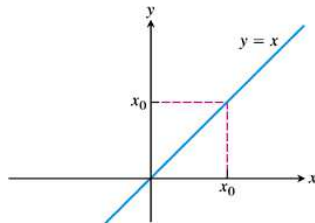
$$(c) h(x) = x + 1$$

Limits at every point

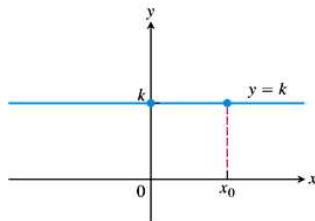
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(a) Identity function



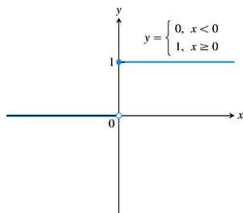
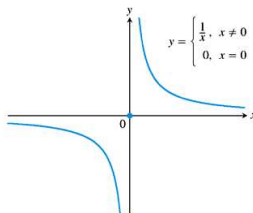
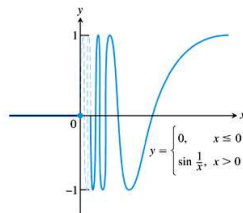
(b) Constant function

Limits can fail to exist

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(a) Unit step function $U(x)$ (b) $g(x)$ (c) $f(x)$

values that jump, become “larger”, or oscillate rapidly

Revision

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Lecture 8

Lecture 9

- Periodic functions
- Average rate of change
- Limits

Limit laws

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THEOREM 1 Limit Laws

If L , M , c and k are real numbers and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) = M, \quad \text{then}$$

1. *Sum Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$

The limit of the sum of two functions is the sum of their limits.

2. *Difference Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) - g(x)) = L - M$

The limit of the difference of two functions is the difference of their limits.

3. *Product Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = L \cdot M$

The limit of a product of two functions is the product of their limits.

4. *Constant Multiple Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (k \cdot f(x)) = k \cdot L$

The limit of a constant times a function is the constant times the limit of the function.

5. *Quotient Rule:* $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}, \quad M \neq 0$

The limit of a quotient of two functions is the quotient of their limits, provided the limit of the denominator is not zero.

6. *Power Rule:* If r and s are integers with no common factor and $s \neq 0$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x))^{r/s} = L^{r/s}$$

provided that $L^{r/s}$ is a real number. (If s is even, we assume that $L > 0$.)

The limit of a rational power of a function is that power of the limit of the function, provided the latter is a real number.

Examples

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- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (x^3 - 4x - 2) = c^3 - 4c - 2$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{x^4 + x^2 - 1}{x^2 + 5} = \frac{c^4 + c^2 - 1}{c^2 + 5}$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -2} \sqrt{4x^2 - 3} = \sqrt{4(-2)^2 - 3} = \sqrt{13}$

So sometimes you can just “plug in the value of x ”

Some consequences

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THEOREM 2 Limits of Polynomials Can Be Found by Substitution

If $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} P(x) = P(c) = a_n c^n + a_{n-1} c^{n-1} + \cdots + a_0.$$

**THEOREM 3 Limits of Rational Functions Can Be Found by Substitution
If the Limit of the Denominator Is Not Zero**

If $P(x)$ and $Q(x)$ are polynomials and $Q(c) \neq 0$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} = \frac{P(c)}{Q(c)}.$$

Eliminating a common factor

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

- substitution of $x = 1$?
- algebraic simplification:

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

- therefore

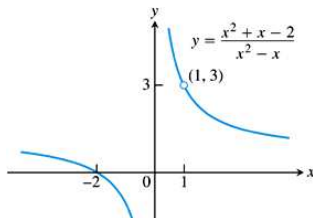
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 + x - 2}{x^2 - x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x + 2}{x} = 3$$

Eliminating a common factor

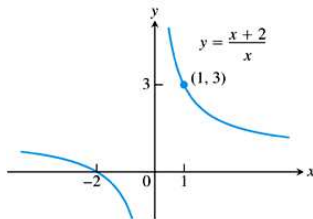
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Lecture 9



(a)



(b)

Creating and cancelling a common factor

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$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} - 10}{x^2}$$

- substitution of $x = 0$?
- algebraic simplification (**trick**):

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} - 10}{x^2} &= \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} - 10}{x^2} \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10}{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10} \\ &= \frac{(x^2 + 100) - 100}{x^2(\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10} \end{aligned}$$

- therefore

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} - 10}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 100} + 10} = \frac{1}{20}$$

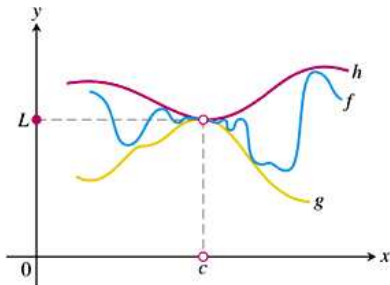
The Sandwich Theorem

THEOREM 4 The Sandwich Theorem

Suppose that $g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$ for all x in some open interval containing c , except possibly at $x = c$ itself. Suppose also that

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

Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$.



Application

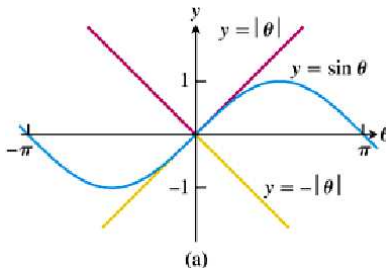
Show that $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \sin \theta = 0$

- From the definition of $\sin \theta$ it follows that

$$-|\theta| \leq \sin \theta \leq |\theta|$$

- We have $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} (-|\theta|) = \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} |\theta| = 0$
- Using the sandwich theorem, we therefore conclude

$$\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \sin \theta = 0$$



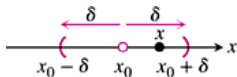
Trying to be more precise

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- We have used informal phrases such as “sufficiently close” — what do they mean?
- A picture might help ...



- Let's be precise: instead of
“For x sufficiently close to x_0 ...”

write

“There is a $\delta > 0$ such that for all $0 < |x - x_0| < \delta$...”

Revisiting the definition

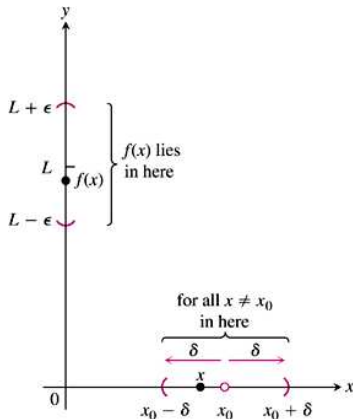
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Let $f(x)$ be defined on an open interval about x_0 *except possibly at x_0 itself*. If $f(x)$ gets arbitrarily close to L for all x sufficiently close to x_0 , we say that f approaches the limit L as x approaches x_0 , and we write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L.$$



The precise definition of a limit

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DEFINITION **Limit of a Function**

Let $f(x)$ be defined on an open interval about x_0 , except possibly at x_0 itself. We say that the **limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches x_0 is the number L** , and write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L,$$

if, for every number $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a corresponding number $\delta > 0$ such that for all x ,

$$0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Animation!

Revision

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Lecture 9

- Limit laws
- Some useful “tricks”
- $\epsilon - \delta$ definition of limit

The precise definition of a limit

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DEFINITION **Limit of a Function**

Let $f(x)$ be defined on an open interval about x_0 , except possibly at x_0 itself. We say that the **limit of $f(x)$ as x approaches x_0 is the number L** , and write

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Animation!

How to find δ for a given ϵ

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How to Find Algebraically a δ for a Given f , L , x_0 , and $\epsilon > 0$

The process of finding a $\delta > 0$ such that for all x

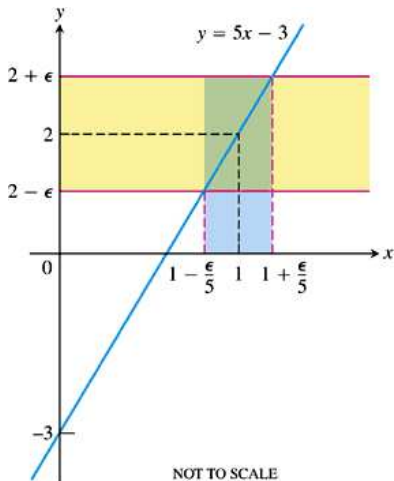
$$0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$$

can be accomplished in two steps.

1. *Solve the inequality $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ to find an open interval (a, b) containing x_0 on which the inequality holds for all $x \neq x_0$.*
2. *Find a value of $\delta > 0$ that places the open interval $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ centered at x_0 inside the interval (a, b) . The inequality $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ will hold for all $x \neq x_0$ in this δ -interval.*

Example

Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1}(5x - 3) = 2$:



Example

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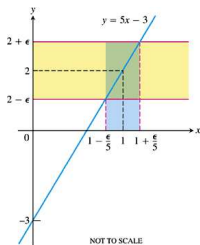
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Show that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1}(5x - 3) = 2$:

$$1. \quad |f(x) - L| < \epsilon:$$

$$\begin{aligned} |(5x - 3) - 2| < \epsilon &\Leftrightarrow |5x - 5| < \epsilon \\ &\Leftrightarrow |x - 1| < \frac{1}{5}\epsilon \end{aligned}$$



Therefore

$$(a, b) = \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon}{5}, 1 + \frac{\epsilon}{5}\right)$$

2. Find δ : Choose $\delta = \frac{1}{5}\epsilon$. Then

$$(1 - \delta, 1 + \delta) = \left(1 - \frac{\epsilon}{5}, 1 + \frac{\epsilon}{5}\right)$$

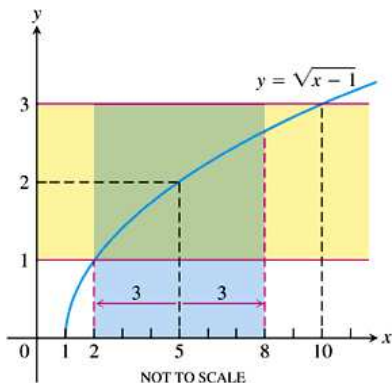
Example

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Find a $\delta > 0$ such that $|\sqrt{x-1} - 2| < 1$ for all $0 < |x-5| < \delta$:



Example

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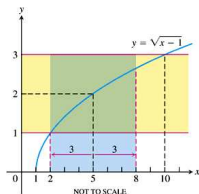
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Find a $\delta > 0$ such that $|\sqrt{x-1} - 2| < 1$ for all $0 < |x-5| < \delta$:

$$1. \quad |f(x) - L| < \epsilon:$$

$$\begin{aligned} |\sqrt{x-1} - 2| < \epsilon &\Leftrightarrow 1 < \sqrt{x-1} < 3 \\ &\Leftrightarrow 2 < x < 10 \end{aligned}$$



Therefore

$$(a, b) = (2, 10)$$

2. Find δ : Choose $\delta = 3$. Then

$$(5 - \delta, 5 + \delta) = (2, 8) \subset (2, 10)$$

One-sided limits

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- To have a *limit* L as $x \rightarrow c$, a function f must be defined on both sides of c (**two-sided limit**)
- If f fails to have a limit as $x \rightarrow c$, it may still have a **one-sided limit** if the approach is only from the right (*right-hand limit*) or from the left (*left-hand limit*)
- We write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = L \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = M$$

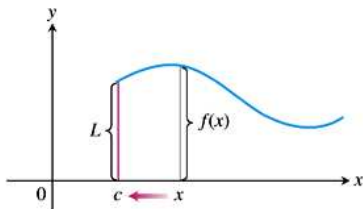
- The symbol $x \rightarrow c^+$ means that we only consider values of x greater than c . The symbol $x \rightarrow c^-$ means that we only consider values of x less than c .

One-sided limits and limits at infinity

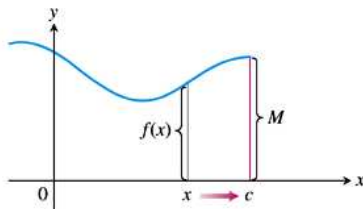
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$$(a) \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = L$$



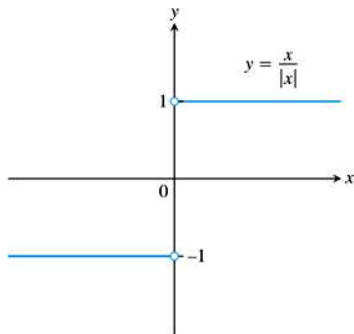
$$(b) \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = M$$

Examples

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$$f(x) = \frac{x}{|x|}$$

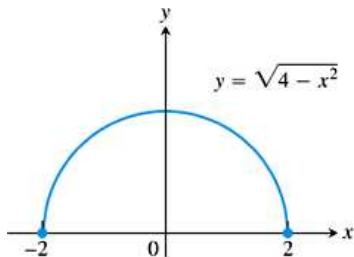
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = 1$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = -1$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$
does not exist

Examples

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Lecture 8

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$$f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$$

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = 0$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x)$
does not exist
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -2^-} f(x)$
does not exist
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -2^+} f(x) = 0$

Connection between limits and one-sided limits

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THEOREM 6

A function $f(x)$ has a limit as x approaches c if and only if it has left-hand and right-hand limits there and these one-sided limits are equal:

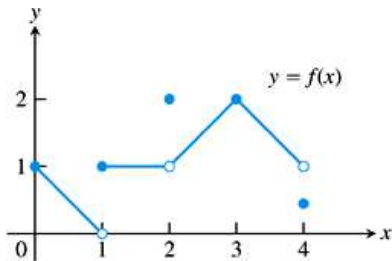
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = L.$$

Example

Lecture 7

Lecture 8

Lecture 9



c	$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x)$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x)$
0	n.a.	n.a.	1
1	n.a.	0	1
2	1	1	1
3	2	2	2
4	n.a.	1	n.a.

Precise definitions of one-sided limits

DEFINITIONS Right-Hand, Left-Hand Limits

We say that $f(x)$ has **right-hand limit** L at x_0 , and write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x) = L$$

if for every number $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a corresponding number $\delta > 0$ such that for all x

$$x_0 < x < x_0 + \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

We say that f has **left-hand limit** L at x_0 , and write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x) = L$$

if for every number $\epsilon > 0$ there exists a corresponding number $\delta > 0$ such that for all x

$$x_0 - \delta < x < x_0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

Limit laws, theorems for limits of polynomials and rational functions, and the sandwich theorem all hold for one-sided limits.