

MAS115 Calculus I

Week 4

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Revision

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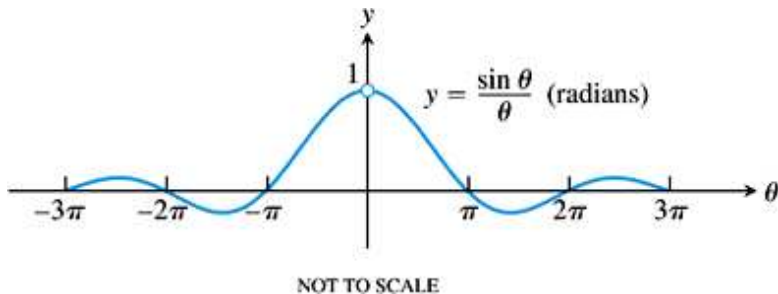
- $\epsilon - \delta$ definition of limit
- How to find δ for a given ϵ
- One-sided limits

Limits involving $\sin \theta / \theta$

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Theorem

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

Proof of $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1$

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Show that both right-hand and left-hand limits are equal to 1.

$$\sin \theta < \theta < \tan \theta$$

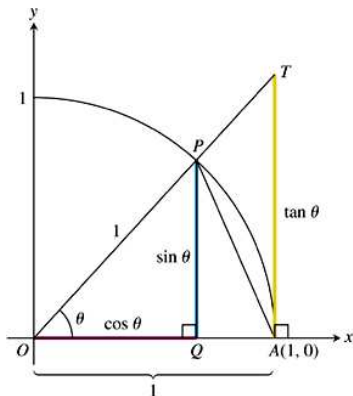
this implies

$$\cos \theta < \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} < 1$$

by Sandwich theorem (taking the limit as $\theta \rightarrow 0$)

$$1 \leq \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} \leq 1$$

Similarly, $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1$



Applications

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Compute

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos h - 1}{h} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - 2 \sin^2(h/2) - 1}{h} \\ &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(h/2)}{h/2} (-\sin h) \\ &= \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} (-1) \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin h \\ &= 1(-1)0 = 0\end{aligned}$$

Applications

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Compute

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin 2x}{5x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2}{5} \frac{\sin 2x}{2x} \\ &= \frac{2}{5} \lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} \\ &= \frac{2}{5} 1 = \frac{2}{5}\end{aligned}$$

Limits as x approaches infinity

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- Observation:

x approaching positive/negative infinity
is like

$1/x$ approaching zero from the right/left

- Change terminology in $\epsilon - \delta$ formulation:

There is a $\delta > 0$ such that for all $0 < 1/x < \delta \dots$
translates to

There is an $M > 0$ such that for all $x > M \dots$

Limits as x approaches infinity

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DEFINITIONS Limit as x approaches ∞ or $-\infty$

1. We say that $f(x)$ has the **limit L as x approaches infinity** and write

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

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

$$x > M \quad \Rightarrow \quad |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

2. We say that $f(x)$ has the **limit L as x approaches minus infinity** and write

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

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

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

Limit laws as x approaches infinity

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THEOREM 8 Limit Laws as $x \rightarrow \pm \infty$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Examples

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(a)

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(5 + \frac{1}{x} \right) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 5 + \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 5 + 0 = 5$$

(b)

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5x^2 + 8x - 3}{3x^2 + 2} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^2(5 + 8/x - 3/x^2)}{x^2(3 + 2/x^2)} \\ &= \frac{5 + \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 8/x - \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 3/x^2}{3 + \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 2/x^2} = \frac{5}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Examples

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(c)

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{11x + 2}{2x^3 - 1} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^3(11/x^2 - 2/x^3)}{x^3(2 - 1/x^3)} \\ &= \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 11/x^2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 2/x^3}{2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} 1/x^3} = 0\end{aligned}$$

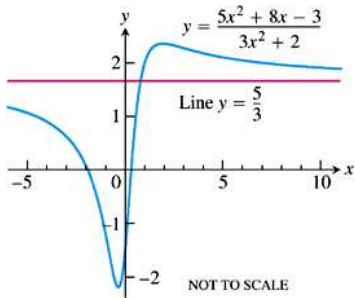
Examples

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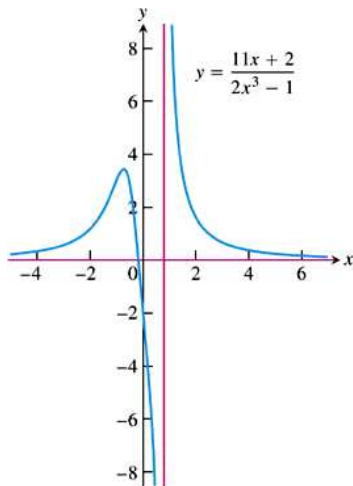
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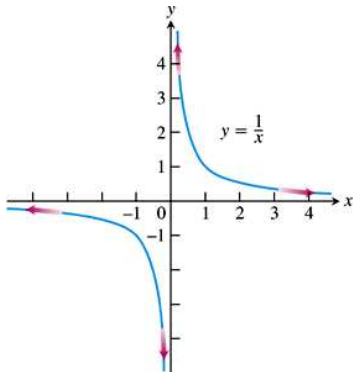
(b)



(c)



Horizontal asymptotes



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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$$

The graph approaches the line

$$y = 0$$

asymptotically; the line is an **asymptote** of the graph.

DEFINITION Horizontal Asymptote

A line $y = b$ is a **horizontal asymptote** of the graph of a function $y = f(x)$ if either

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = b \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = b.$$

Examples

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(a)

$$f(x) = 5 + \frac{1}{x}, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = 5$$

The curve has the line $y = 5$ as a horizontal asymptote.

(b)

$$f(x) = \frac{5x^2 + 8x - 3}{3x^2 + 2}, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = \frac{5}{3}$$

The curve has the line $y = 5/3$ as a horizontal asymptote.

(c)

$$f(x) = \frac{11x + 2}{2x^3 - 1}, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = 0$$

The curve has the line $y = 0$ as a horizontal asymptote.

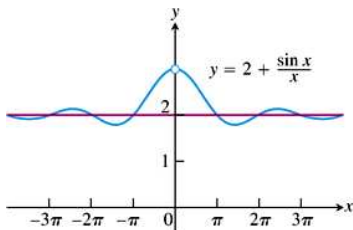
An application of the Sandwich Theorem

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Find the horizontal asymptote to $y = 2 + \frac{\sin x}{x}$:



- $\left| \frac{\sin x}{x} \right| \leq \left| \frac{1}{x} \right|$
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \left| \frac{1}{x} \right| = 0$
- Therefore, by the Sandwich Theorem,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 0$$

- Hence,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \left(2 + \frac{\sin x}{x} \right) = 2$$

Revision

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- $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta}$
- Limits as x approaches infinity
- Horizontal asymptotes

Oblique Asymptotes

If for a rational function $f(x) = p(x)/q(x)$ the degree of $p(x)$ is one greater than the degree of $q(x)$, polynomial division gives

$$f(x) = ax + b + r(x) \quad \text{with} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} r(x) = 0$$

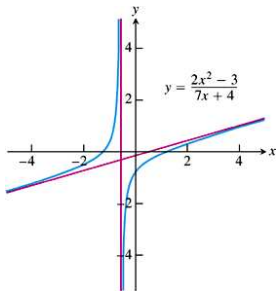
$y = ax + b$ is called an **oblique (slanted) asymptote**. Example:

$$f(x) = \frac{2x^2 - 3}{7x + 4} = \frac{2}{7}x - \frac{8}{49} + \frac{-115}{49(7x + 4)}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{-115}{49(7x+4)} = 0, \text{ so that}$$

$$y = \frac{2}{7}x - \frac{8}{49}$$

is an oblique asymptote of $f(x)$.

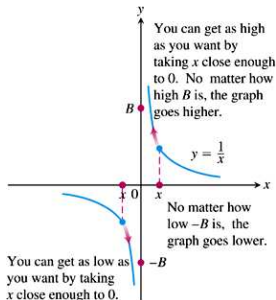


Infinite limits

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$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ has no limit as $x \rightarrow 0^+$. However, it is convenient to still say that $f(x)$ approaches ∞ as $x \rightarrow 0^+$. We write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$$

Similarly,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{1}{x} = -\infty$$

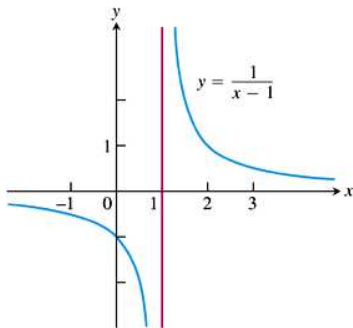
Careful: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$ really means that *the limit does not exist because $1/x$ becomes arbitrarily large and positive as $x \rightarrow 0^+$.*

Example: one-sided infinite limits

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

and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{x-1} = -\infty$$

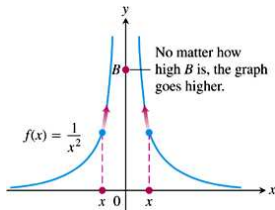
as $y = 1/(x-1)$ is just $y = 1/x$ shifted by one to the right.

Example: two-sided infinite limits

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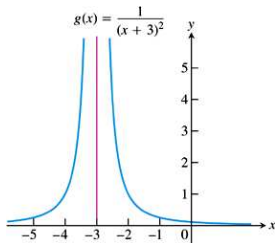
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$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} = \infty$$

as the values of $1/x^2$ are positive and become arbitrarily large as $x \rightarrow 0$.



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -3} \frac{1}{(x+3)^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x^2} = \infty$$

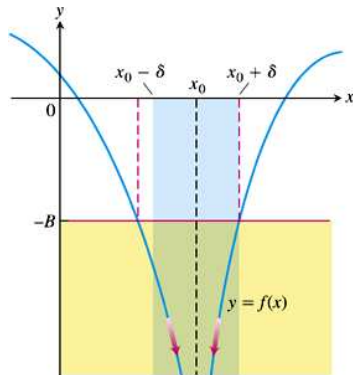
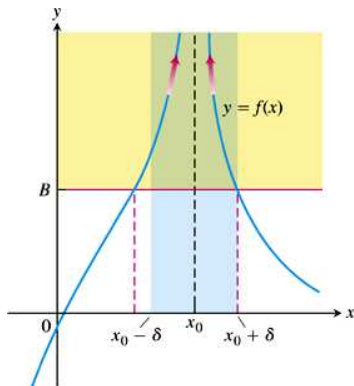
as $y = 1/(x+3)^2$ is just $y = 1/x^2$ shifted by three to the left.

Towards a precise definition

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Precise definition of infinite limits

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DEFINITIONS Infinity, Negative Infinity as Limits

1. We say that **$f(x)$ approaches infinity as x approaches x_0** , and write

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

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

$$0 < |x - x_0| < \delta \quad \Rightarrow \quad f(x) > B.$$

2. We say that **$f(x)$ approaches negative infinity as x approaches x_0** , and write

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

if for every negative real number $-B$ there exists a corresponding $\delta > 0$ such that for all x

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

Using the definition

Prove that

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

- given $B > 0$, find $\delta > 0$ such that

$$0 < |x - 0| < \delta \Rightarrow \frac{1}{x^2} > B$$

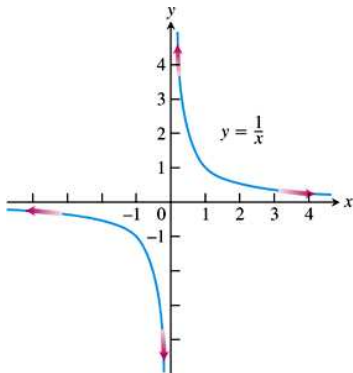
- choose $\delta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{B}}$ so that

$$0 < |x| < \delta \Rightarrow \frac{1}{x^2} > \frac{1}{\delta^2} = B$$

- Therefore, by definition,

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

Vertical asymptotes



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x} = \infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{1}{x} = -\infty$$

The graph approaches the line

$$x = 0$$

asymptotically; the line is an **asymptote** of the graph.

DEFINITION Vertical Asymptote

A line $x = a$ is a **vertical asymptote** of the graph of a function $y = f(x)$ if either

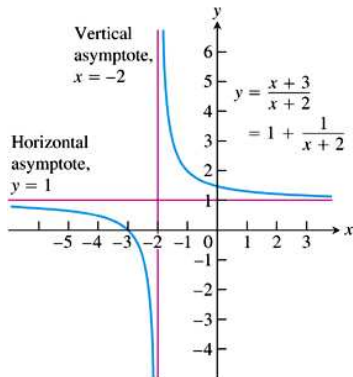
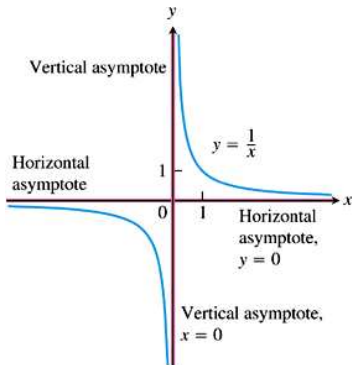
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \pm\infty \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \pm\infty.$$

Examples

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Example

Find the horizontal and vertical asymptotes of the graph of

$$f(x) = -\frac{8}{x^2 - 4}$$

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = 0$
- division by zero for $x = \pm 2$
if needed, rewrite:

$$-\frac{8}{x^2 - 4} = \frac{2}{x + 2} - \frac{2}{x - 2}$$

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow -2^-} f(x) = -\infty$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow -2^+} f(x) = \infty$
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = \infty$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) = -\infty$

Asymptotes are

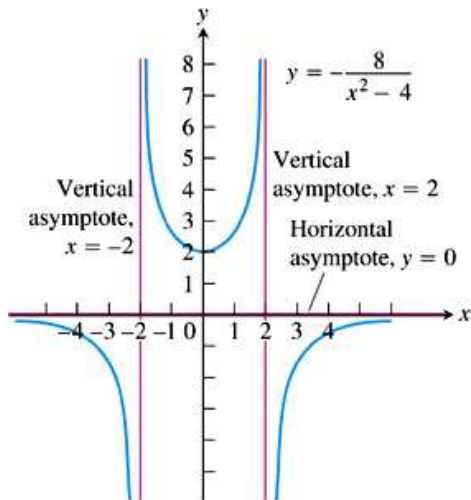
$$y = 0, \quad x = -2, \quad x = 2$$

Example

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Final example on asymptotes

Find the asymptotes of the graph of

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 3}{2x - 4}$$

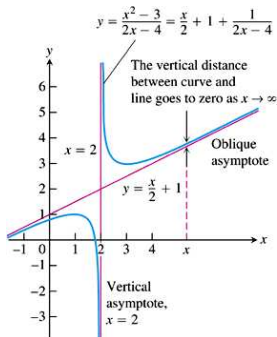
- rewrite [polynomial division]:

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{2} + 1 + \frac{1}{2x - 4}$$

Asymptotes are

$$y = \frac{x}{2} + 1, \quad x = 2$$

We say that $x/2 + 1$ **dominates** when x is large and that $1/(2x - 4)$ **dominates** when x is near 2.



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- Oblique asymptotes
- Infinite limits
- Vertical asymptotes

Continuity

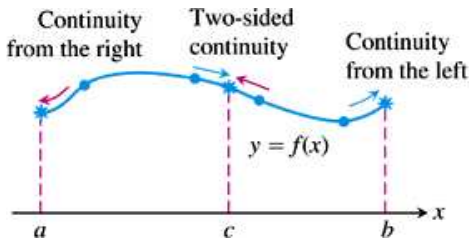
Continuity

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- Informally, any function whose graph can be sketched over its domain in one continuous motion, i.e. *without lifting the pen*, is an example of a continuous function.



Continuity

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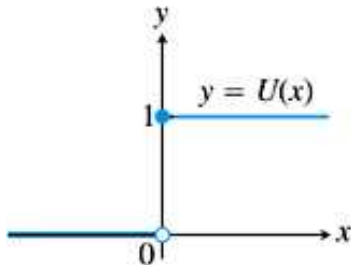
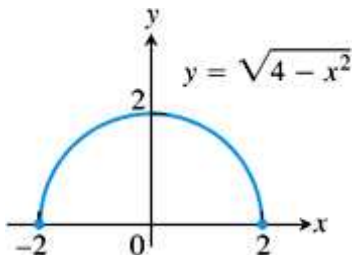
DEFINITION Continuous at a Point

Interior point: A function $y = f(x)$ is **continuous at an interior point c** of its domain if

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

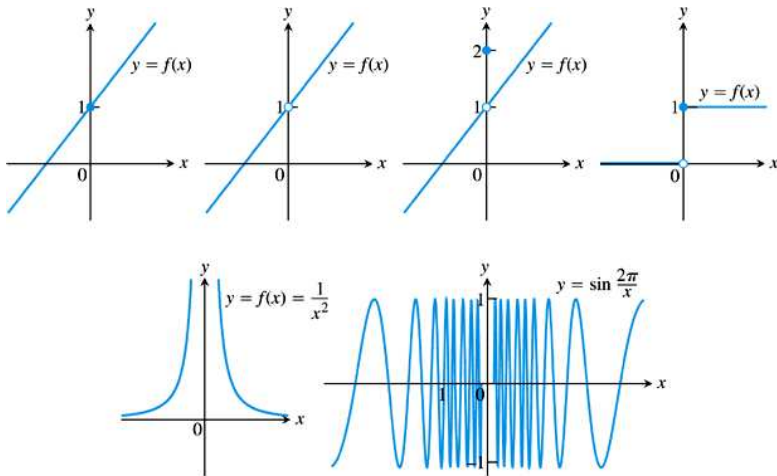
Endpoint: A function $y = f(x)$ is **continuous at a left endpoint a** or is **continuous at a right endpoint b** of its domain if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a) \quad \text{or} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow b^-} f(x) = f(b), \quad \text{respectively.}$$



Continuity

- If a function is not continuous at a point c , we say that f is **discontinuous** at c



Continuity at an interior point

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Continuity Test

A function $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = c$ if and only if it meets the following three conditions.

1. $f(c)$ exists (c lies in the domain of f)
2. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ exists (f has a limit as $x \rightarrow c$)
3. $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c)$ (the limit equals the function value)

- A function f is **right-continuous** at a point $x = c$ in its domain if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^+} f(x) = f(c)$
- A function f is **left-continuous** at a point $x = c$ in its domain if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c^-} f(x) = f(c)$
- Therefore: a function f is continuous at a point $x = c$ in its domain if and only if it is both right-continuous and left-continuous at c .

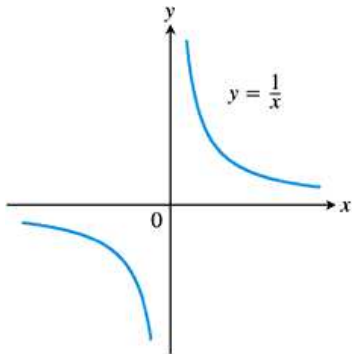
Continuous function

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- A function is **continuous on an interval** if and only if it is continuous at every point of the interval.
- A **continuous function** is a function that is continuous at every point of its domain.



- $y = 1/x$ is a continuous function.
(It is continuous at every point of its domain.)
- $y = 1/x$ is not continuous on $[-1, 1]$.

Properties of continuous functions

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Limit laws imply:

THEOREM 9 **Properties of Continuous Functions**

If the functions f and g are continuous at $x = c$, then the following combinations are continuous at $x = c$.

1. *Sums:* $f + g$
2. *Differences:* $f - g$
3. *Products:* $f \cdot g$
4. *Constant multiples:* $k \cdot f$, for any number k
5. *Quotients:* f/g provided $g(c) \neq 0$
6. *Powers:* $f^{r/s}$, provided it is defined on an open interval containing c , where r and s are integers

Example: Polynomials and rational functions are continuous.

Compositions of continuous functions

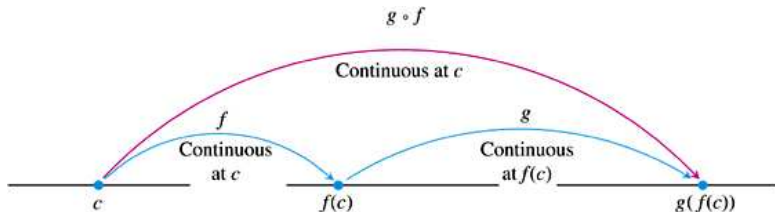
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THEOREM 10 **Composite of Continuous Functions**

If f is continuous at c and g is continuous at $f(c)$, then the composite $g \circ f$ is continuous at c .



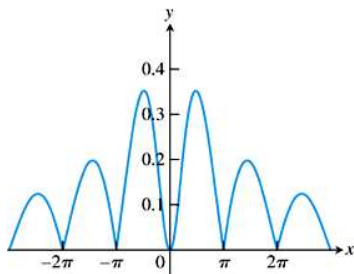
Example

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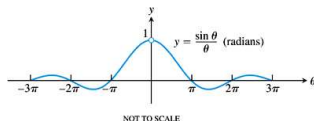
$$y = \left| \frac{x \sin x}{x^2 + 2} \right| \text{ is everywhere continuous}$$



- $f(x) = \frac{x \sin x}{x^2 + 2}$ is continuous (why?)
- $g(x) = |x|$ is continuous (why?)
- therefore $y = g \circ f(x)$ is continuous

Continuous extension to a point

$$f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x} \quad \text{for } x \neq 0$$



is defined and continuous for all $x \neq 0$. As $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1$, it makes sense to *define* a new function

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin x}{x} & \text{for } x \neq 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

Definition

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = L$ exists, but $f(c)$ is not defined, we define a new function

$$F(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) & \text{for } x \neq c \\ L & \text{for } x = c \end{cases}$$

$F(x)$ is continuous at c , and is called the **continuous extension** of $f(x)$ to c .

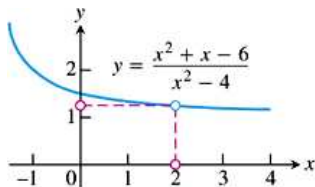
Example

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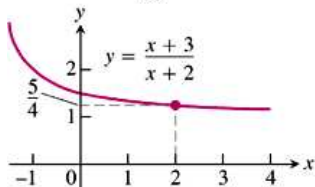
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$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 + x - 6}{x^2 - 4}$$



(a)



(b)

For $x \neq 2$, $f(x)$ is equal to

$$F(x) = \frac{x + 3}{x + 2}$$

$F(x)$ is the continuous extension of $f(x)$ to $x = 2$, as

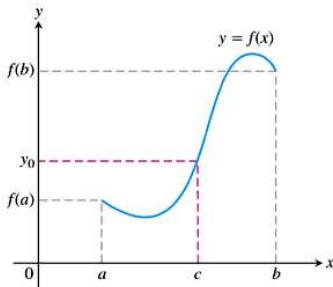
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = \frac{5}{4} = F(2)$$

The Intermediate Value Theorem

A function has the **intermediate value property** if whenever it takes on two values, it also takes on all the values in between.

THEOREM 11 The Intermediate Value Theorem for Continuous Functions

A function $y = f(x)$ that is continuous on a closed interval $[a, b]$ takes on every value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$. In other words, if y_0 is any value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, then $y_0 = f(c)$ for some c in $[a, b]$.

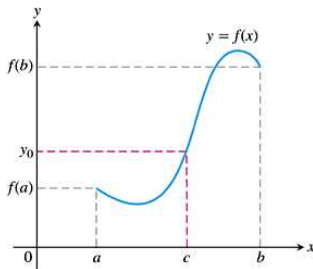


The Intermediate Value Theorem

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- Geometrical interpretation: any horizontal line $y = y_0$ crossing the y-axis between the numbers $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ will cross the curve $y = f(x)$ at least once over the interval $[a, b]$.
- Continuity is essential: if f is discontinuous at any point of the interval, then the function may “jump” and miss some values.

Consequences

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- Connectivity: the graph of a continuous function over an interval is *connected*, i.e. a single, unbroken curve without any breaks or jumps.
- Root-finding: A solution of the equation $f(x) = 0$ is called a **root** of the equation or **zero** of f .

If $f(x)$ is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ have opposite sign, then $f(x) = 0$ has roots on $[a, b]$.

Application

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Lecture 12

Show that the equation

$$x^3 - 15x + 1 = 0$$

has three roots in the interval $[-4, 4]$:

- Use $f(x) = x^3 - 15x + 1$ and compute a few values:
 $f(-4) = -3$, $f(-3) = 19$, $f(-2) = 23$, $f(-1) = 15$, $f(0) = 1$, $f(1) = -13$, $f(2) = -21$,
 $f(3) = -17$, and $f(4) = 5$.
- Notice that

$$f(-4) < 0 < f(-3)$$

$$f(0) > 0 > f(1)$$

$$f(3) < 0 < f(4)$$

- Therefore there are three roots in the interval $[-4, 4]$.
More precisely, the roots are in the intervals $[-4, -3]$, $[0, 1]$, and $[3, 4]$.

The End