

# Maths for Computer Science

## *Calculus*

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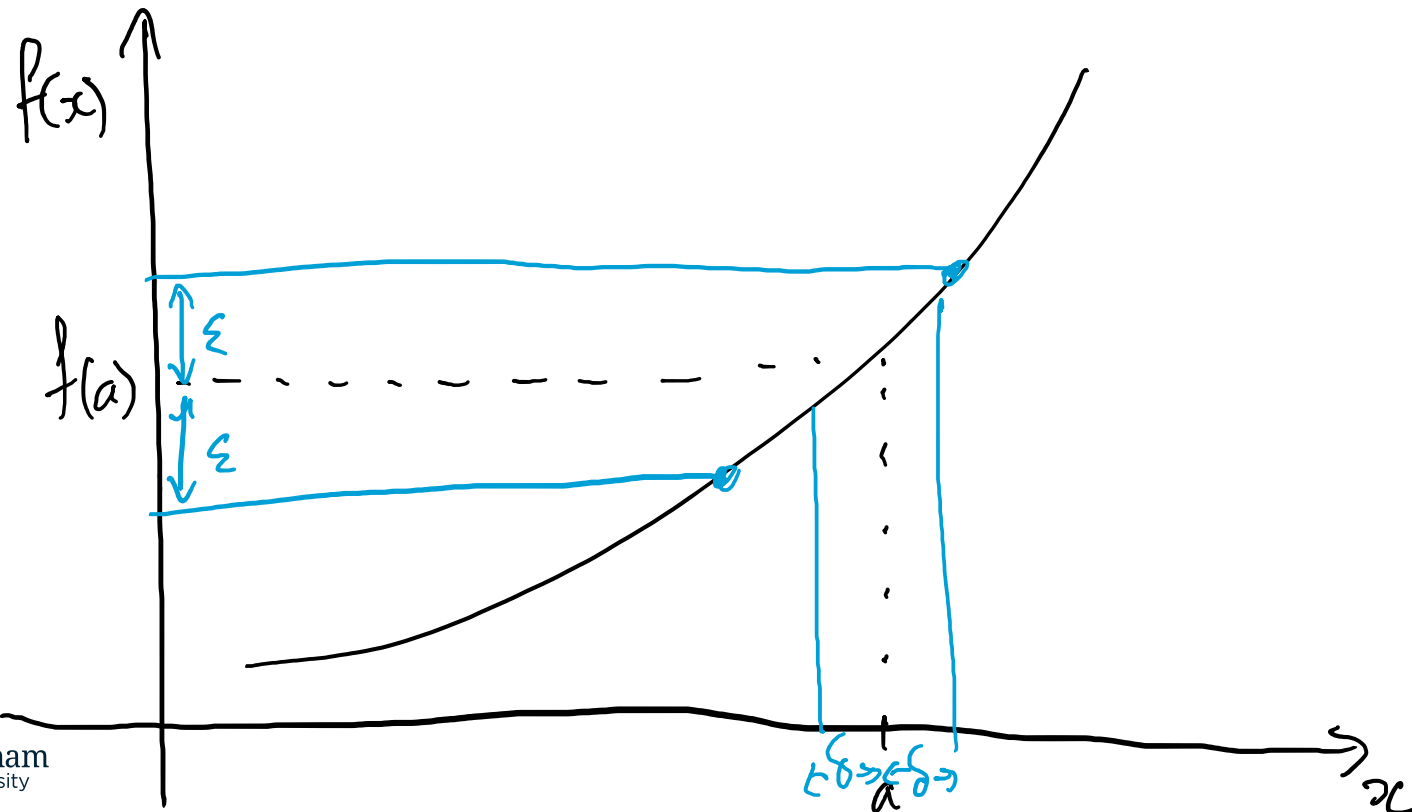
# Functions and limits



# Limits of functions

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to tend to the limit  $L$  as  $x$  tends to  $a$  if, and only if, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that:

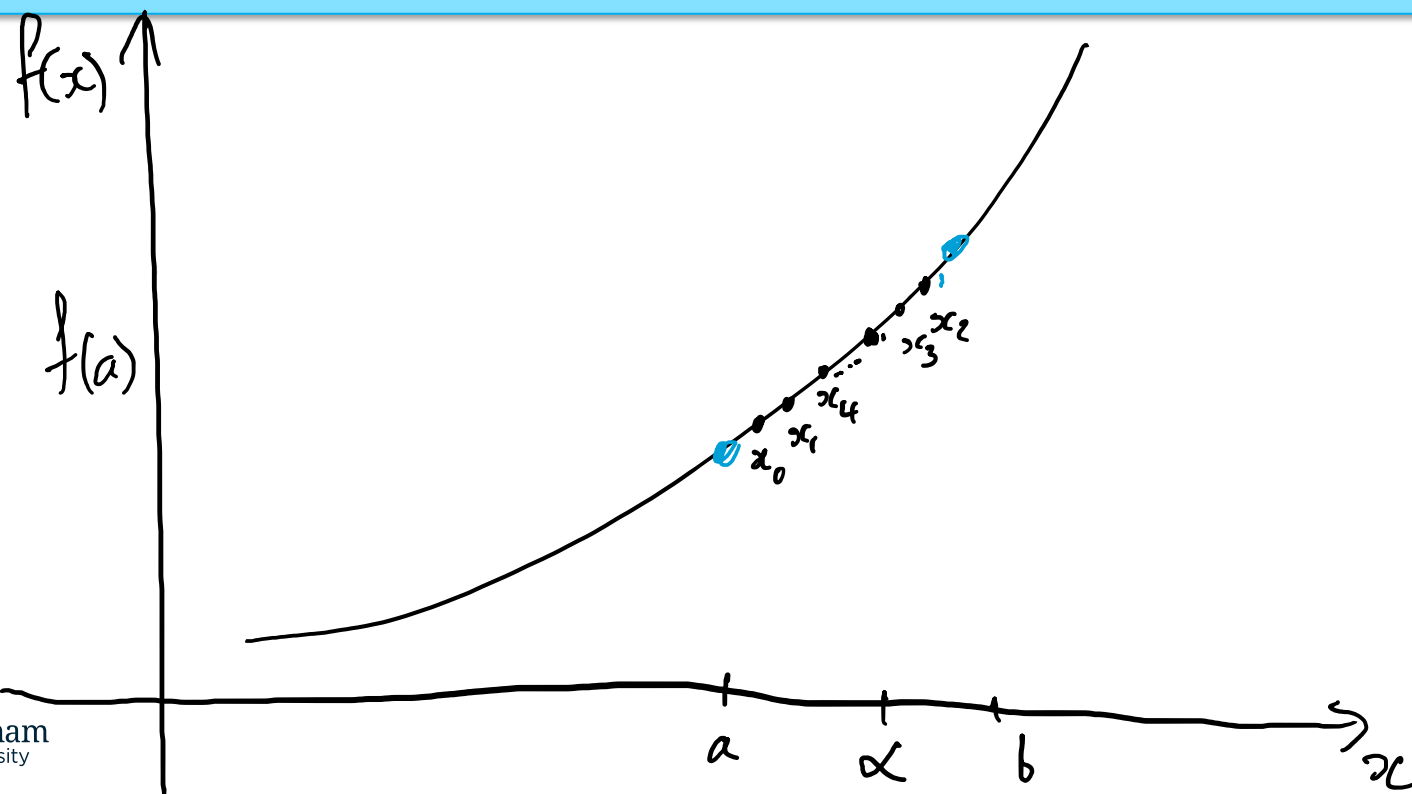
$$\forall x: 0 < |x - a| < \delta \text{ we have } |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$



# Connecting sequences and functions

Let  $f(x)$  be a function defined on some real interval  $(a, b)$ , and let  $\{x_n\}$  be a sequence of real values such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = \alpha \in (a, b)$ .

Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \alpha} f(x) = L$  exists if and only if for every such sequence  $\{x_n\}$  the sequence  $\{f(x_n)\}$  converges to the limit  $L$ .



# Limits of functions

For “nice” functions this may all seem redundant.

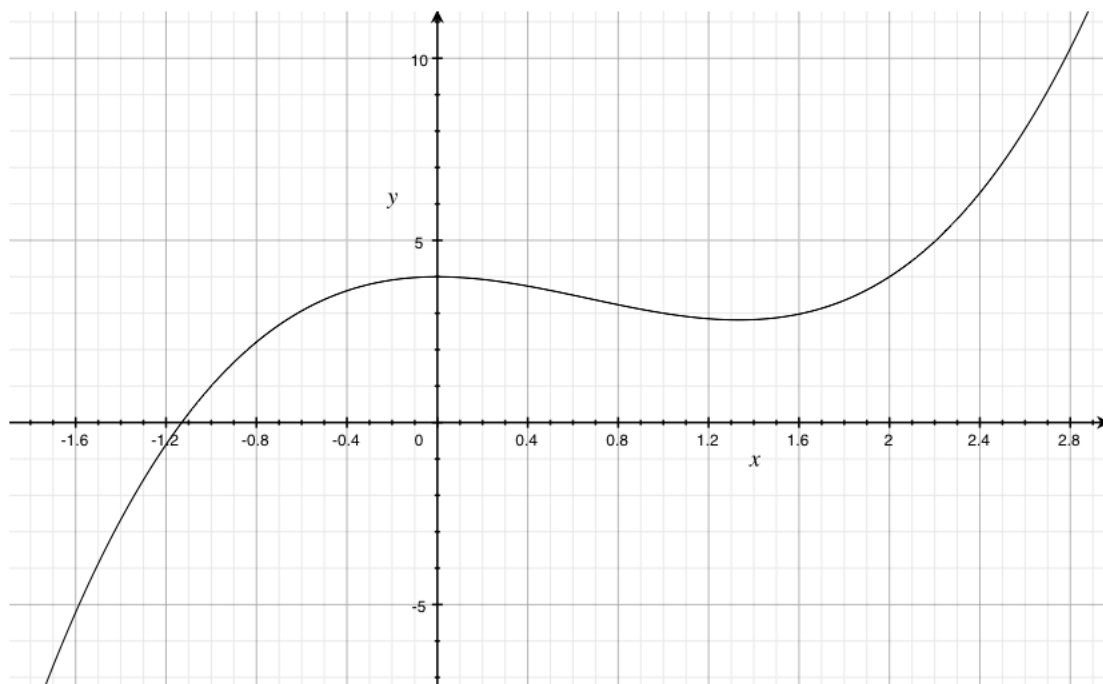
E.g.  $f(x) = x^3 - 2x^2 + 4$

$$f(2) = 8 - 8 + 4 = 4$$

As  $x \rightarrow 2$  from below,  $f(x)$  gets smoothly closer and closer to 4. Likewise, as  $x \rightarrow 2$  from above,  $f(x)$  gets smoothly closer and closer to 4.

We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 4$ .

But what do we mean by a “nice” function?



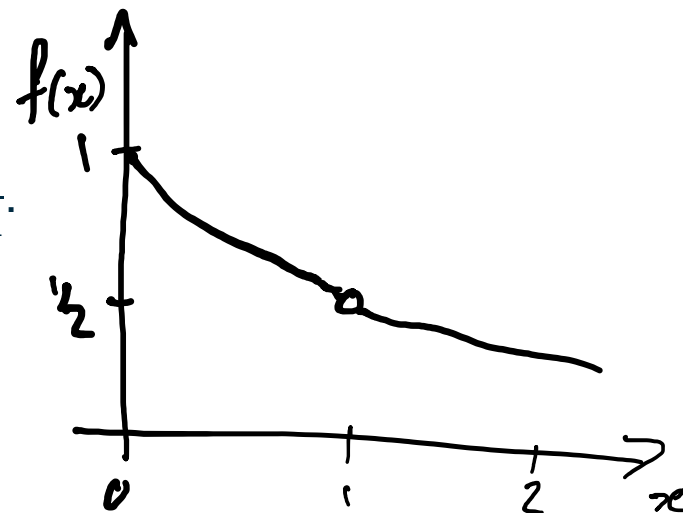
# Limits of functions

E.g.  $f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x}-1}{x-1}$ , for  $x \neq 1$ .

We can rewrite  $f(x)$  as  $f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x}-1}{(\sqrt{x}-1)(\sqrt{x}+1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}+1}$ .

from which it is clear that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,

even though  $f(1)$  is not even defined.



Note that the definition of the limit at  $a$  is about the behaviour of  $f$  close to  $a$  but not actually at  $a$ .

E.g. we could define  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{x}-1}{x-1}, & x \neq 1 \\ 5, & x = 1 \end{cases}$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \neq f(1)$ .

# An important limit

Consider  $f(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ .

Clearly the area of PQR is larger than the area of the segment PSR which is larger than the area of the triangle PSR:

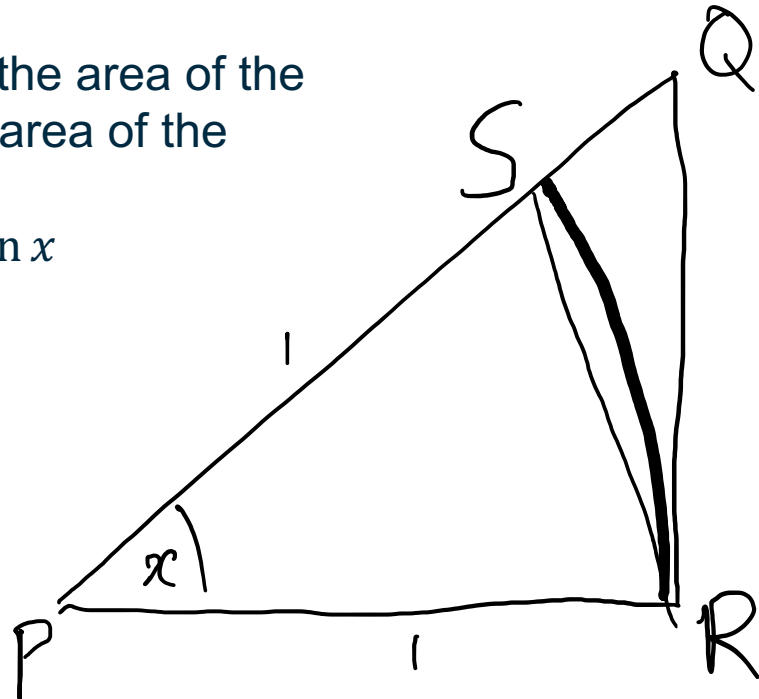
$$\frac{1}{2} \tan x > \frac{1}{2} x > \frac{1}{2} \sin x$$

( $x$  is in radians)

Hence  $1/\cos x > x/\sin x > 1$ .

As  $x$  tends to zero  $1/\cos x$  tends to 1, so  $x/\sin x$  is squeezed between two things both tending to 1 and must converge to 1.

Therefore  $\sin x/x$  also tends to 1.



# General squeezing theorem

Let  $\{u_n\}$ ,  $\{v_n\}$  and  $\{w_n\}$  be sequences such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = L = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n$  and  $u_i \leq w_i \leq v_i$  for all  $i$ .

Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} w_n = L$  also.

Let  $f$ ,  $g$  and  $h$  be functions such that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \alpha = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g$  and  $f(x) \leq h(x) \leq g(x)$  for all  $x$  some neighbourhood of  $a$ .

Then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = \alpha$  also.



# Limits: arithmetic

Let  $\{u_n\}$  and  $\{v_n\}$  be sequences such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} u_n = L$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} v_n = M$ .

Then

- $\{u_n + v_n\}$  is a sequence such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (u_n + v_n) = L + M$ .
- $\{u_n v_n\}$  is a sequence such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (u_n v_n) = LM$ .
- $\left\{\frac{u_n}{v_n}\right\}$  is a sequence such that, provided  $M \neq 0$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{u_n}{v_n}\right) = \frac{L}{M}$ .

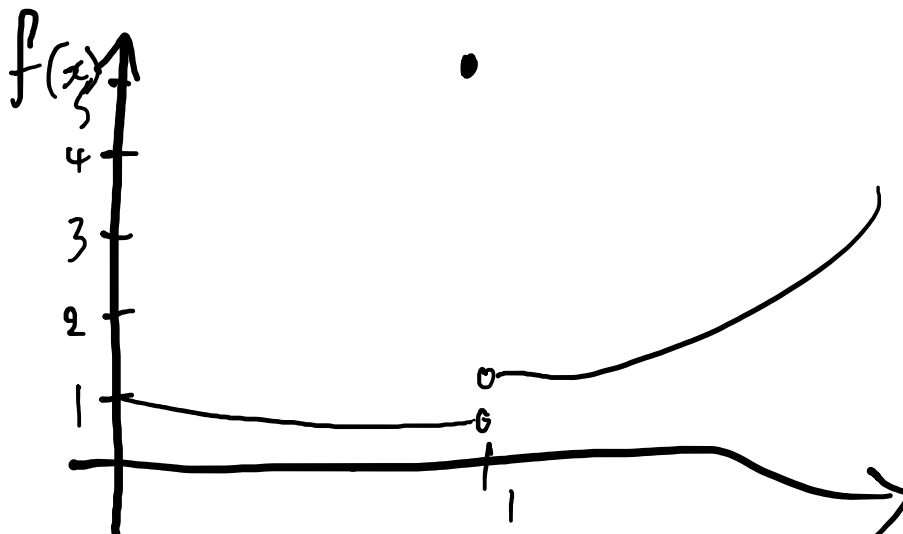
# One sided limits of functions

We could have a perfectly valid function that has a break in it.

$$\text{E.g. } f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sqrt{x}-1}{x-1}, & x < 1 \\ 5, & x = 1 \\ x^2, & x > 1 \end{cases}$$

then the limit as  $x$  approaches 1 from below is different from the limit as  $x$  approaches 1 from above. And both are different from  $f(1)$ .

We write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 1$  for the limits 'from below' and 'above'.



# One sided limits of functions

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to have a left hand limit  $L_-$  as  $x$  tends to  $a$  from below if, and only if, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that:

$$\forall x: 0 < a - x < \delta \text{ we have } |f(x) - L_-| < \epsilon.$$

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to have a right hand limit  $L_+$  as  $x$  tends to  $a$  from above if, and only if, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that:

$$\forall x: 0 < x - a < \delta \text{ we have } |f(x) - L_+| < \epsilon.$$

# Continuity

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said be continuous at  $x = a$  if

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

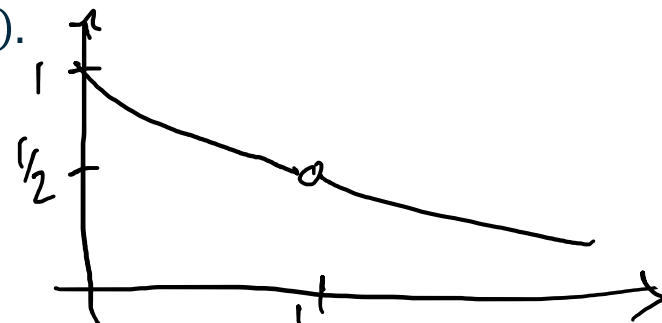
b)  $f(a) = L$ .

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said be continuous on an interval  $(a, b)$  if it is continuous at all points in the interval.

**Example:**  $f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x}-1}{x-1}$ , for  $x \neq 1$ .

Continuous on  $(0,1)$  and on  $(1, \infty)$ . Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = \frac{1}{2}$ , we can define  $f(1) = \frac{1}{2}$  and then  $f(x)$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$ .

This is called a **removable discontinuity**.



# Continuity

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said be continuous at  $x = a$  if

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

b)  $f(a) = L$ .

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said be continuous on an interval  $(a, b)$  if it is continuous at all points in the interval.

**Example:**  $f(x) = |x|$ . Continuous on  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = 0$ , and  $f(0) = 0$ .

**Example:**  $g(x) = \frac{d|x|}{dx}$ . I.e.  $g(x) = \begin{cases} -1, & x < 0 \\ \text{undefined}, & x = 0 \\ 1, & x > 0 \end{cases}$

Continuous everywhere except  $x = 0$ .  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} g(x) = -1 \neq 1 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} g(x)$ .

So this is **not** removable.

# Continuity and limit arithmetic

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be functions such that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ .

Then

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x)g(x)) = LM$ .
- Provided  $M \neq 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left( \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right) = \frac{L}{M}$ .

Let  $f$  and  $g$  be functions continuous at  $x = a$ .

Then

- $(f(x) + g(x))$ ,  $f(x)g(x)$ , and, provided  $M \neq 0$ ,  $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  are continuous at  $x = a$ .

# Intermediate Value Theorem

Let  $f(x)$  be a function that is **continuous** on an interval  $(a, b)$ , then for any value  $v$  that lies between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , there is some value  $x^* \in (a, b)$  such that  $f(x^*) = v$ .

**Proof:** Consider the point  $x_1 = \frac{1}{2}(a + b)$ . If  $f(x_1) = v$  we are done. If not, either  $v$  is between  $f(a)$  and  $f(x_1)$  or it is between  $f(x_1)$  and  $f(b)$ . In the former case define  $a_1 = a, b_1 = x_1$ , in the latter,  $a_1 = x_1, b_1 = b$ .

Now  $f$  is continuous on  $(a_1, b_1)$  and  $v$  that lies between  $f(a_1)$  and  $f(b_1)$ . We repeat the process for intervals  $(a_2, b_2), (a_3, b_3), \dots$  and observe that  $\{a_n\}$  is an increasing sequence bounded above and  $\{b_n\}$  is a decreasing sequence bounded below. Also  $\{(b_n - a_n)\}$  converges to 0, so

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{a_n\} = x^* = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \{b_n\}, \text{ and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(a_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(b_n) = f(x^*).$$

Since  $v$  is between  $f(a_n)$  and  $f(b_n)$  for all  $n$ ,  $f(x^*) = v$ .

# Limit at $\pm\infty$

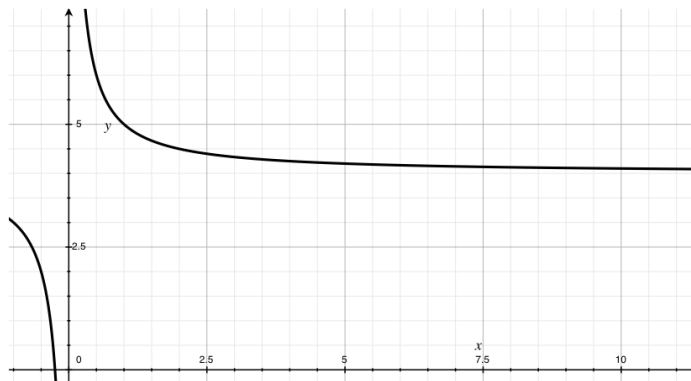
A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to have a limit  $L$  as  $x$  tends to  $+\infty$  if and only if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $N > 0$  such that:

$$\forall x: N < x \text{ we have } |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to have a limit  $L$  as  $x$  tends to  $-\infty$  if and only if for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a  $N < 0$  such that:

$$\forall x: x < N \text{ we have } |f(x) - L| < \epsilon.$$

**Example:**  $f(x) = \left(4 - \frac{1}{x}\right)$  we say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(4 + \frac{1}{x}\right) = 4$ .





# Limit of $\pm\infty$

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to have a limit  $+\infty$  at  $x = a$  if and only if for any  $N > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that:

$$\forall x: 0 < |a - x| < \delta \text{ we have } f(x) > N.$$

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to have a limit  $-\infty$  at  $x = a$  if and only if for any  $N > 0$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that:

$$\forall x: 0 < |a - x| < \delta \text{ we have } f(x) < -N.$$

**Example:**  $f(x) = \left(4 - \frac{1}{x}\right)$  we say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \left(4 + \frac{1}{x}\right) \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \left(4 + \frac{1}{x}\right) \rightarrow -\infty$ .

