

**Example.** Consider the function  $f(x) = \frac{\sqrt{x} - 2}{x - 4}$ . This function is clearly not defined at  $x = 4$ . What happens when  $x$  approaches 4?

Evaluate the function at numbers close to 4 and graph it on an interval around 4.

$x$	$\frac{\sqrt{x} - 2}{x - 4}$
4.1	
4.01	
4.001	
3.9	
3.99	
3.999	

It appears that  $f(x)$  gets closer and closer to \_\_\_\_\_ as  $x$  gets closer and closer to 4.

We write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{\sqrt{x} - 2}{x - 4} =$  \_\_\_\_\_ and say “the limit of  $\frac{\sqrt{x} - 2}{x - 4}$ , as  $x$  goes to 4, is \_\_\_\_\_.”

**Example.** Consider the function  $f(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}$ . What happens when  $x$  approaches 0?

Evaluate the function at numbers close to 0 and graph it on an interval around 0 (radian mode is what we use in calculus!).

$x$	$\frac{\sin x}{x}$

It appears that  $f(x)$  gets closer and closer to \_\_\_\_\_ as  $x$  gets closer and closer to 0, so

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} =$  \_\_\_\_\_ .

**Example.** Consider the function  $f(x) = \sin \frac{1}{x}$ . Where is its behavior interesting?  
 Evaluate the function at appropriate numbers and graph it on an appropriate interval.

$x$	$\sin \frac{1}{x}$

**Note.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists only if values of  $f(x)$  approach *a single number* as  $x$  goes to  $a$ .

**Example.** Graph the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 2 & \text{if } x > 1, \\ -x + 1 & \text{if } x < 1 \\ 2 & \text{if } x = 1. \end{cases}$$

What can you say about  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$ ?

Something can be salvaged, though: as  $x$  goes to 1 from left,  $f(x)$  approaches 0  
 as  $x$  goes to 1 from right,  $f(x)$  approaches 3

We write

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 3$$

and call these *one-sided limits*.

**Note.**  $f(1) = 2$ , but this does not matter when computing  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x)$  or  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x)$ .

In general, when trying to figure out  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ , *we only consider  $x$ 's close to  $a$ , but not equal to  $a$ .*  $f(a)$  may not even be defined, as in most of our examples.

**Example.** (*Accuracy.*) Investigate  $f(x) = (1 - x)^{\frac{1}{x}}$  when  $x \rightarrow 0$ .

- a) Sketch the graph of the function around the relevant point.
- b) What is the approximate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ , *accurate to six decimal points*? Write a table of values that will justify your answer.

**Example.** (*Trust Calculator?*) Investigate  $f(x) = \frac{5(\sqrt{x^3 + 4} - 2)}{x^3}$  when  $x \rightarrow 0$ .

- a) Sketch the graph of the function. From the graph and numerical evidence, what does  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$  appear to be?
- b) Compute the values of  $f(x)$  for  $x = 10^{-4}, 10^{-5}, \dots, 10^{-8}$ . Write the table of values here. What appears to be the limit now?
- c) Try to explain why a) and b) apparently give different answers. (Hint: enter  $1 + 10^{-14} - 1$  in your calculator. What is the exact value of this expression? What does the calculator say? What is happening?)

$x$	$\frac{5(\sqrt{x^3 + 4} - 2)}{x^3}$	$x$	$\frac{5(\sqrt{x^3 + 4} - 2)}{x^3}$
0.1		-0.1	
0.01		-0.01	
0.001		-0.001	
$10^{-4}$		$-10^{-4}$	
$10^{-5}$		$-10^{-5}$	
$10^{-6}$		$-10^{-6}$	
$10^{-7}$		$-10^{-7}$	
$10^{-8}$		$-10^{-8}$	

**Example.** (*Limit Laws.*) Let  $u \rightarrow 3$ ,  $v \rightarrow 5$ . What do  $u + v$ ,  $u - v$ ,  $u \cdot v$  and  $\frac{u}{v}$  approach?

$u$	$v$	$u + v$	$u - v$	$u \cdot v$	$u/v$
2.9	4.9				
2.99	4.99				
2.999	4.999				
2.9	5.1				
2.99	5.01				
2.999	5.001				
3.1	4.9				
3.01	4.99				
3.001	4.999				
3.1	5.1				
3.01	5.01				
3.001	5.001				

The table above justifies the following limit laws: if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$  exist, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \quad (1) \qquad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \quad (4)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) - g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \quad (2) \qquad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)} \text{ if } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0 \quad (5)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (cf(x)) = c \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \quad (3)$$

We also have the following two basic limits that are intuitively clear:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} c = c \quad (7) \qquad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a \quad (8)$$

**Example.** Use limit laws to find the following limits. Mark by number which limit law you are using at every step.

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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 + x}{4x - 1} =$$

The previous two examples show that, due to limit laws, calculating  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  amounts to plugging in  $x = a$  into the function  $f(x)$ , when the function is a polynomial or a rational function (in other words, when it is constructed using the operations  $+$ ,  $-$ ,  $*$ ,  $\div$ ).

**Direct substitution property.** If  $f(x)$  is a polynomial or a rational function, and  $f(a)$  is defined, then

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

**Note.** This property is true also for functions  $\sin$ ,  $\cos$ ,  $\sqrt[n]{\quad}$ . Two other general rules are

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x))^n = \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right)^n \quad (10)$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)} \quad (11)$$

**Examples.**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \sqrt[3]{\frac{3x-1}{x^2-x+4}} =$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} \frac{\cos x}{x - \sin x} =$$

**Examples.** What if evaluation gives us an undefined number?

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

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{3}}{x - 3} =$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{5(\sqrt{x^3 + 4} - 2)}{x^3} =$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \left( \frac{4}{x^2 - 4} - \frac{1}{x - 2} \right) =$$

**Example.** What if limit laws do not apply and algebra is not possible?

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

**Squeeze Theorem.** If  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  on some interval around  $a$  (except maybe at  $a$ )

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

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

*Graphical “proof”.*

Use the squeeze theorem to find the limit of the previous example.

**Example.** Use the squeeze theorem to show  $\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta} = 1$ .

**Examples.** More trigonometric limits.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(6x)}{x} =$$

$$\lim_{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos \theta - 1}{\theta} =$$

A function is continuous at a point  $a$  if the graph of  $f$  does not have a break at  $a$ .

This definition captures the idea:

**Definition.** A function  $f$  is continuous at  $a$  if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ .

**Note.** Three things are needed for a function to be continuous at  $a$ .

1)  $f$  is defined at  $a$ .

2)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists (and is a real number).

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

(Read about the various types of discontinuities in the book.)



**Definition.** A function  $f$  is continuous on an interval if it is continuous at every point of that interval.

**Graphically.** A function is continuous on an interval if its graph on that interval can be drawn without lifting pencil from paper.

**Theorem.** If  $f$  and  $g$  are continuous at  $a$  (or an interval), then the following functions are continuous at  $a$  (or an interval):

$$f + g, f - g, f \cdot g, \frac{f}{g} \text{ (if } g(a) \neq 0\text{)}$$

*Proof for one of the functions.*

**Theorem.** Polynomials, rational functions, root functions, exponential functions and logarithmic functions are continuous where they are defined.

*Proof.*

**Theorem.** If  $f$  is continuous at  $b$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = b$ , then

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

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \sin \frac{x^2 - 5x + 6}{x - 3} =$

**Theorem.** If  $g$  is continuous at  $a$  and  $f$  is continuous at  $g(a)$ , then  $f \circ g$  is continuous at  $a$ .

**Example.**  $e^{\tan x}$  is continuous wherever it is defined since it is a composite of  $e^x$  and  $\tan x$ , functions that are continuous wherever they are defined.

In the same way, using two previous theorems, any *single* formula is continuous wherever it is defined. For example,

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sin x + 4x^{\frac{2}{5}}}{2^x \cdot \ln x}} \text{ is continuous wherever it is defined.}$$

Most physical phenomena are described by continuous functions (unbroken graphs).

**Examples.** Temperature and position as functions of time.

**Examples.**

If  $T(8) = 55^\circ\text{F}$  and  $T(11) = 75^\circ\text{F}$ , at some time between 8 and 11, temperature was  $65^\circ\text{F}$ .

Traveling along a road from point  $A$  to point  $B$  we must pass through every point  $E$  between them.

**Intermediate Value Theorem.** Suppose  $f$  is continuous on the closed interval  $[a, b]$  and  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ . If  $N$  is any number between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , then there exists a number  $c$  in  $(a, b)$  such that  $f(c) = N$ .

*Graphical “proof”.*

**Example.** Show that the equation  $x^3 - 2x^2 + 3x + 1 = 0$  has a solution in the interval  $[-1, 1]$ . Then find an interval of width 0.01 that contains the solution.

**Example.** Consider the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  around 0.

$x$	$\frac{1}{x}$

We see that  $f(x)$  does not approach any *real* number as  $x$  approaches 0 from either side, so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{1}{x}$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{1}{x}$  do not exist. However, they do not exist in a particular way, namely:

As  $x \rightarrow 0^+$ ,  $\frac{1}{x}$  grows without bound (“goes to  $\infty$ ”)

As  $x \rightarrow 0^-$ ,  $\frac{1}{x}$  drops without bound (“goes to  $-\infty$ ”)

This behavior is written as:

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

In general, the table above justifies that

$$\frac{1}{\text{small positive}} = \text{large positive}$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{small negative}} = \text{large negative}$$

so if  $f(x)$  is any expression,

$$\text{if } f(x) \rightarrow 0 \text{ and } f(x) > 0 \text{ (written as } f(x) \rightarrow 0^+), \text{ then } \frac{1}{f(x)} \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\text{if } f(x) \rightarrow 0 \text{ and } f(x) < 0 \text{ (written as } f(x) \rightarrow 0^-), \text{ then } \frac{1}{f(x)} \rightarrow -\infty$$

These facts are written in shorthand as  $\frac{1}{0^+} = \infty$  and  $\frac{1}{0^-} = -\infty$

**Example.** Find the limits.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} \frac{1}{6 - 3x} =$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} \frac{1}{6 - 3x} =$$

**Note.** When  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$   
(or  $-\infty$ , or same in the case  
of a one-sided limit), then  
the line  $x = a$  is a vertical  
asymptote of the graph of  $f$ .

**Example.** Consider the functions of type  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^c}$ , ( $c > 0$ ) and see what happens to values of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  grows without bound.

$x$	$\frac{1}{x}$	$\frac{1}{x^2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$	$\frac{1}{x^c}$

In all cases, values of  $f(x)$  approach 0, so we write  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x^c} = 0$  for  $c > 0$ . This is true, essentially, because:

$$\frac{1}{\text{large positive}} = \text{small positive}$$

$$\frac{1}{\text{large negative}} = \text{small negative}$$

which gives rise to this shorthand:  $\frac{1}{\infty} = 0$  and  $\frac{1}{-\infty} = 0$ .

**Note.** When  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$  (or  $x \rightarrow -\infty$ ), then the line  $y = L$  is a horizontal asymptote of the graph of  $f$ .

**Quintessential Example.**

$$f(x) = \arctan x$$

**Example.** Consider the functions of type  $f(x) = x^n$ ,  $n > 0$  integer, and see what happens to values of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  grows without bound by evaluating and by observing the graphs. More generally, consider functions of type  $f(x) = x^c$ ,  $c > 0$ .

$x$	$x^2$	$x^3$	$\sqrt{x}$	$x^c$

We see:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^n = \infty \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} x^n = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } n \text{ is even} \\ -\infty & \text{if } n \text{ is odd} \end{cases} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^c = \infty \quad \left( \begin{array}{l} c, n > 0 \\ n \text{ an integer} \end{array} \right)$$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (x^3 - 5x^2 + 3x + 10) =$

**Note.** For a general polynomial  $P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} P(x) = \pm\infty$ , which depends on the degree and the sign of  $a_n$ .

Show this statement for  $n$  odd,  $a_n < 0$ ,  $x \rightarrow \infty$ .

Thus the graphs of polynomials have one of these general shapes:

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{5x^2 - 3x + 1}{2x^2 + 4x + 3} =$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2 - 7x + 1}{x^3 + 1} =$

**Extended limit laws.**

$$\frac{1}{0^+} = \infty \qquad \frac{1}{0^-} = -\infty \qquad \frac{L}{\pm\infty} = 0$$

$$L \cdot \infty = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } L > 0 \\ -\infty & \text{if } L < 0 \end{cases} \qquad \begin{array}{l} \infty + \infty = \infty \\ \infty \cdot \infty = \infty \end{array} \qquad \begin{array}{l} L + \infty = \infty \\ L - \infty = -\infty \end{array}$$

Keeping in mind these are shorthand for statements about limits, write out what  $L \cdot \infty = \infty$  ( $L > 0$ ) means.

Missing from the list of extended limit laws are the expressions

$$\infty - \infty \qquad 0 \cdot \infty \qquad \frac{\infty}{\infty} \qquad \frac{0}{0}$$

These are called *indeterminate forms*, because the limit cannot be determined just by knowing the limits of  $f$  and  $g$ .

**Example.** Show that  $0 \cdot \infty$  is indeterminate by providing examples of functions  $f$  and  $g$  so that in each example  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x) = \infty$ , but  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)g(x)$  varies. (Think simple.)