

Handouts - week 2

1 Continuity and limits of functions

Terminology: Consider an arbitrary $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and an arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$.

- The open interval $(a - \varepsilon, a + \varepsilon)$ is called the ε -neighbourhood of the point a . We denote it by $O_\varepsilon(a)$.
- The intervals $O_\varepsilon^+(a) = [a, a + \varepsilon)$ and $O_\varepsilon^-(a) = (a - \varepsilon, a]$ are referred to as a *right* and a *left* ε -neighbourhood of a , respectively.
- Neighbourhoods of the point a from which a itself is excluded are called *punctured* (sometimes *deleted*). Namely, $\mathcal{P}_\varepsilon(a) = O_\varepsilon(a) \setminus \{a\}$ denotes the *punctured* ε -neighbourhood of a , $\mathcal{P}_\varepsilon^+(a) = (a, a + \varepsilon)$ denotes the *punctured right* ε -neighbourhood of a and $\mathcal{P}_\varepsilon^-(a) = (a - \varepsilon, a)$ denotes the *punctured left* ε -neighbourhood of a .
- If x takes values arbitrarily close to a , we say x *approaches* a (or x *tends to* a) and we write $x \rightarrow a$. Similarly one defines the notation $x \rightarrow a+$, $x \rightarrow a-$, $x \rightarrow +\infty$, $x \rightarrow -\infty$.

1.1 Continuity of a function

Definition 1 Let f be a real function of one real variable defined in a neighbourhood of a . We say that f is continuous at $a \in D(f)$ if

$$\forall O_\varepsilon(f(a)) \exists O_\delta(a) : f(O_\delta(a)) \subseteq O_\varepsilon(f(a)).$$

Equivalently,

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 : |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \varepsilon.$$

Definition 2 We say that f is continuous on an open interval (a, b) if it is continuous at each point of (a, b) .

Definition 3 We say that a function f is

- continuous from the right (right-hand side continuous) at a point $a \in D(f)$ if

$$\forall O_\varepsilon(f(a)) \exists O_\delta^+(a) : f(O_\delta^+(a)) \subseteq O_\varepsilon(f(a)),$$

- continuous from the left (left-hand side continuous) at a point $a \in D(f)$ if

$$\forall O_\varepsilon(f(a)) \exists O_\delta^-(a) : f(O_\delta^-(a)) \subseteq O_\varepsilon(f(a)).$$

Definition 4 We say that a function f is continuous on a closed interval $[a, b]$ if it is

- continuous at each point of (a, b) ,
- continuous from the right at the point a ,
- continuous from the left at the point b .

Theorem 1 Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let f and g be functions continuous at a . Then the functions $|f|$, $f \pm g$, $f \cdot g$ are continuous at a . Further, if $g(a) \neq 0$ then $\frac{f}{g}$ is continuous at a .

Theorem 2 If a function $y = f(x)$ is continuous at a point $x = a$ and a function $z = g(y)$ is continuous at the point $y = f(a)$, then the composition $(g \circ f)(x)$ is continuous at point $x = a$.

1.2 Limit of a function

Definition 5 Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $f : D(f) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function defined in a punctured neighbourhood of a . We say that the limit of the function $f(x)$ as x approaches a is equal to $A \in \mathbb{R}$ (or that the function f has the limit A at a) and we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = A$ if

$$\forall O_\varepsilon(A) \exists \mathcal{P}_\delta(a) : f(\mathcal{P}_\delta(a)) \subset O_\varepsilon(A)$$

or equivalently

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 : 0 < |x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - A| < \varepsilon$$

Theorem 3 A function has at a given point at most one limit.

The following theorems are useful for calculating the limits:

Theorem 4 Function f is continuous at a point $a \in D(f)$ if and only if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$.

Theorem 5 Let $f : D(f) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g : D(g) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$\exists \mathcal{P}(a) : (\forall x \in \mathcal{P}(a) : f(x) = g(x)) \Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x).$$

Theorem 6 (so-called Squeeze or Sandwich theorem) Let the following conditions hold:

- $\forall x \in \mathcal{P}(a) : g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$,
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x)$,

then there exists $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ and it equals $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$.

Theorem 7 Let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = A \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = B \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$(i) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \pm g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = A \pm B,$$

$$(ii) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = A \cdot B,$$

$$(iii) \text{ if } B \neq 0 \text{ then } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)} = \frac{A}{B}.$$

Theorem 8 Let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = A \in \mathbb{R}$ and let f be a function continuous at A . Then

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

Remark 1 $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} [f(x)]^{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} e^{g(x) \ln f(x)}$

1.3 One-sided limits of a function

Definition 6 Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $f : D(f) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be such that a punctured right neighbourhood of a is contained in $D(f)$. We say that f has the right-sided limit $A \in \mathbb{R}$ at the point a ($\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = A$) if

$$\forall O_\varepsilon(A) \exists \mathcal{P}_\delta^+(a) : f(\mathcal{P}_\delta^+(a)) \subset O_\varepsilon(A).$$

Definition 7 Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and let $f : D(f) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be such that a punctured left neighbourhood of a is contained in $D(f)$. We say that f has the left-sided limit $A \in \mathbb{R}$ at the point a ($\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = A$) if

$$\forall O_\varepsilon(A) \exists \mathcal{P}_\delta^-(a) : f(\mathcal{P}_\delta^-(a)) \subset O_\varepsilon(A).$$

Theorem 9 $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists if and only if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$. Then

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

The theorems stated above for two-sided limits hold for one-sided limits as well.

Theorem 10 Let $f : D(f) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $g : D(g) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

- (i) f has at a at most one left-sided (right-sided) limit.
- (ii) f is left-hand (right-hand) side continuous at a if and only if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = f(a)$ ($\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$).
- (iii) If $f = g$ on a punctured left (right) neighbourhood of a , then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} g(x)$ ($\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} g(x)$).
- (iv) Squeeze theorem:
If $\forall x \in \mathcal{P}^\pm(a) : g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} h(x)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} g(x)$.
- (v) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} (f(x) \pm g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} g(x)$
- (vi) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = (\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} f(x)) / (\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} g(x))$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} g(x) \neq 0$
- (vii) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} g(x) = A \in \mathbb{R}$ and f is left-hand (right-hand) side continuous at A , then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^\pm} f(g(x)) = f(A)$.

1.4 Limits involving infinity

Till now we have studied the limits $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$, where $a, L \in \mathbb{R}$. Such limits are referred to as the *proper limits at proper points*. If $a = \pm\infty$, one considers the limits at plus/minus infinity. One can refer to them as *limits at improper points*. If $L = \pm\infty$, one says that the function $f(x)$ *diverges* at a . One calls such limits *improper*.

Definitions of improper limits of functions at proper/improper points are identical to the definition of proper limits of functions at proper points. However, one needs to recall that open (punctured) neighbourhoods of $-\infty$ are open intervals $(-\infty, a)$, $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ and that open (punctured) neighbourhoods of ∞ are open intervals (a, ∞) , $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\}$. To make it clear we state the respective definitions below.

Definition 8 *Improper limits at proper points*

Let a function f be defined on a neighbourhood $\mathcal{P}(a)$ of $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

- (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$ if $\forall K > 0 \exists \mathcal{P}_\delta(a) \forall x \in \mathcal{P}_\delta(a) : f(x) > K$,
- (ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty$ if $\forall L < 0 \exists \mathcal{P}_\delta(a) \forall x \in \mathcal{P}_\delta(a) : f(x) < L$.

Remark 2 By considering $\mathcal{P}_\delta^+(a)$ or $\mathcal{P}_\delta^-(a)$ instead of $\mathcal{P}_\delta(a)$ in Definition 8, one defines the respective one-sided improper limits at proper points.

Definition 9 *Proper limits at improper points*

- (i) Let $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\}$ and let f be a function such that $(a, \infty) \subseteq D(f)$. We say that f has the proper limit $L \in \mathbb{R}$ at ∞ and write $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = L$ if $\forall O_\varepsilon(L) \exists b > 0 \forall x > b : f(x) \in O_\varepsilon(L)$.
- (ii) Let $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ and let f be a function such that $(-\infty, a) \subseteq D(f)$. We say that f has the proper limit L at $-\infty$ and write $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = L \in \mathbb{R}$ if $\forall O_\varepsilon(L) \exists b < 0 \forall x < b : f(x) \in O_\varepsilon(L)$.

Definition 10 *Improper limits at improper points*

- (i) Let $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ and let f be a function such that $(-\infty, a) \subseteq D(f)$. We say that f has the improper limit $+\infty$ at $-\infty$ and write $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = \infty$ if $\forall K > 0 \exists b < 0 \forall x < b : f(x) > K$.

- (ii) Let $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ and let f be a function such that $(-\infty, a) \subseteq D(f)$. We say that f has the improper limit $-\infty$ at $-\infty$ and write $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} f(x) = -\infty$ if $\forall L < 0 \exists b < 0 \forall x < b : f(x) < L$.
- (iii) Let $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\}$ and let f be a function such that $(a, \infty) \subseteq D(f)$. We say that f has the improper limit $+\infty$ at $+\infty$ and write $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \infty$ if $\forall K > 0 \exists b > 0 \forall x > b : f(x) > K$.
- (iv) Let $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{-\infty\}$ and let f be a function such that $(a, \infty) \subseteq D(f)$. We say that f has the improper limit $-\infty$ at $+\infty$ and write $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = -\infty$ if $\forall L < 0 \exists b > 0 \forall x > b : f(x) < L$.

The following theorems are useful for calculating (im)proper limits of functions at (im)proper points.

Theorem 11 Let a function f be defined on a neighbourhood $\mathcal{P}(a)$ of $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

- (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a-} f(x) = \infty$
- (ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty \Leftrightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a-} f(x) = -\infty$

Theorem 12 Let f and g be functions such that $f = g$ on a neighbourhood $\mathcal{P}(a)$ of $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$.

Theorem 13 Let $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) = A \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} g(x) = B \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

- (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} (f(x) \pm g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) \pm \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} g(x) = A \pm B$,
- (ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} g(x) = A \cdot B$,
- (iii) if $B \neq 0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow \pm\infty} g(x)} = \frac{A}{B}$.

Theorem 14 Consider functions f and g defined on a neighbourhood $\mathcal{P}(a)$ of $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$.

- (i) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \infty$.
- (ii) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = -\infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = -\infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \infty$.
- (iii) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = -\infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = -\infty$.
- (iv) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = A \in \mathbb{R}, A > 0$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \pm\infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = \pm\infty$.
- (v) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = A \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \pm\infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$.

The rules to calculate limits according to Theorem 14 can be easily remembered in the following form:

$\infty + \infty = \infty$	$-\infty \cdot \infty = -\infty$
$\infty \cdot \infty = \infty$	$A \cdot \infty = \infty$ when $A > 0$
$-\infty + (-\infty) = -\infty$	$A \cdot (-\infty) = -\infty$ when $A > 0$
$-\infty \cdot (-\infty) = \infty$	$\frac{A}{\pm\infty} = 0$ when $A \in \mathbb{R}$

Theorem 15 Let f be a function bounded on a neighbourhood $\mathcal{P}(a)$ of $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$. Then the following holds:

- (i) if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \pm\infty$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$,
- (ii) if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) = 0$.

Theorem 16 Consider functions f and g defined on a neighbourhood $\mathcal{P}(a)$ of $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$. Let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = A > 0$ and let $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$.

(i) If $g(x) > 0$ on $\mathcal{P}(a)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = +\infty$.

(ii) If $g(x) < 0$ on $\mathcal{P}(a)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = -\infty$.

(iii) If the function g takes positive and negative values on every neighbourhood $\mathcal{P}(a)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ does not exist.

Mnemonics for Theorem 16:

$\frac{A}{0_+} = +\infty$ when $A > 0$	$\frac{A}{0_-} = -\infty$ when $A > 0$
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Theorem 17 Squeeze or Sandwich theorem:

Let $a \in \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty, -\infty\}$ and let the functions f, g, h be defined on a neighbourhood $\mathcal{P}(a)$.

- If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\forall x \in \mathcal{P}(a) : g(x) \leq f(x) \leq h(x)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$.
- If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty$ and $\forall x \in \mathcal{P}(a) : g(x) \leq f(x)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$.
- If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = -\infty$ and $\forall x \in \mathcal{P}(a) : f(x) \leq h(x)$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = -\infty$.

Note that the following expressions are indefinite, they depend on instances.

$\infty - \infty$	$0 \cdot \infty$	$\frac{\infty}{\infty}$	$\frac{0}{0}$	1^∞	0^0	∞^0
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1.5 Limits of sequences

Definition 11 We define a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ to be a function whose domain is a subset of \mathbb{N} (or more generally of \mathbb{Z}) and whose codomain is \mathbb{R} . Namely, $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty : n \in \mathbb{N} \mapsto a_n \in \mathbb{R}$. The values a_n are called the elements (or terms, members) of the sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$, n is called the index of the element a_n .

Examples:

Arithmetic sequence: $a_n = a_1 + (n-1)d$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $d \in \mathbb{R}$ is a common difference

Geometric sequence: $a_n = a_1 \cdot q^{n-1}$, where $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $q \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is a common ratio (or quotient)

Definition 12 We say that a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ has a limit A , i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = A$, if

- in case $A \in \mathbb{R}$: $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \geq n_0 : a_n \in O_\epsilon(A)$,
- in case $A = +\infty$: $\forall K > 0 \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \geq n_0 : a_n > K$,
- in case $A = -\infty$: $\forall L < 0 \exists n_0 \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \geq n_0 : a_n < L$.

A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is called convergent if it has a proper limit, i.e. $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

A sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is called divergent if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \pm\infty$ or if $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ does not exist.

Definition 13 Consider a sequence $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$.

- (i) If $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : a_n < a_{n+1}$, we say that $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is increasing.
- (ii) If $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : a_n \leq a_{n+1}$, we say that $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is non-decreasing.
- (iii) If $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : a_n > a_{n+1}$, we say that $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is decreasing.
- (iv) If $\forall n \in \mathbb{N} : a_n \geq a_{n+1}$, we say that $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ is non-increasing.

Theorem 18 A decreasing or non-increasing sequence is bounded above. An increasing or non-decreasing sequence is bounded below.

Theorem 19 A monotone sequence has always limit. If the sequence is bounded, then the limit is proper.

Remark 3 One can prove that there exists a limit of the sequence $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{n})^n$. This limit is used to define Euler's number e .