

Chapter 3: Limits and Continuity

Part B: Continuity



Table of Contents



① Continuity

② Intermediate Value Theorem

③ Trigonometric Functions

Continuity at a point



A function f is said to be **continuous at** p if

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

Continuity at a point



A function f is said to be **continuous at** p if

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

Alternately, f is continuous at p if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there is a corresponding $\delta > 0$ such that $|x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - f(p)| < \epsilon$.

Failure of continuity



The following functions are not continuous at 0 because their limit does not exist at 0:

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{|x|} & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Failure of continuity



The following functions are not continuous at 0 because their limit does not exist at 0:

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{|x|} & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Next, we have functions which are not continuous at 0 because their limit at 0 does not equal their value at 0:

$$E(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad F(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x = 1/n, \ n \in \mathbb{N}, \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

(In both cases the limit is 0 but the function value is 1.)

Failure of continuity

The following functions are not continuous at 0 because their limit does not exist at 0:

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{|x|} & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Next, we have functions which are not continuous at 0 because their limit at 0 does not equal their value at 0:

$$E(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad F(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x = 1/n, \ n \in \mathbb{N}, \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

(In both cases the limit is 0 but the function value is 1.)

These functions are continuous at every point of \mathbb{R} :

$$f(x) = C, \quad g(x) = x, \quad h(x) = |x|.$$

Failure of continuity

The following functions are not continuous at 0 because their limit does not exist at 0:

$$H(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{|x|} & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

Next, we have functions which are not continuous at 0 because their limit at 0 does not equal their value at 0:

$$E(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0, \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad F(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x = 1/n, \ n \in \mathbb{N}, \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

(In both cases the limit is 0 but the function value is 1.)

These functions are continuous at every point of \mathbb{R} :

$$f(x) = C, \quad g(x) = x, \quad h(x) = |x|.$$

On the other extreme, the Dirichlet function is not continuous at any point!

Continuity of combinations of functions

Theorem 1

Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be continuous at p . Then the following functions are also continuous at p .

① $C f(x)$.

② $f(x) \pm g(x)$.

③ $f(x)g(x)$.

④ $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$, if $g(p) \neq 0$.

Continuity of combinations of functions

Theorem 1

Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be continuous at p . Then the following functions are also continuous at p .

① $C f(x)$.

③ $f(x)g(x)$.

② $f(x) \pm g(x)$.

④ $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$, if $g(p) \neq 0$.

Proof. We prove the last claim. The others are left as an exercise for the reader.

Continuity of combinations of functions

Theorem 1

Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be continuous at p . Then the following functions are also continuous at p .

① $C f(x)$.

③ $f(x)g(x)$.

② $f(x) \pm g(x)$.

④ $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$, if $g(p) \neq 0$.

Proof. We prove the last claim. The others are left as an exercise for the reader.

First, note that $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = g(p) \neq 0$, by continuity of $g(x)$ at $x = p$ and the given condition that $g(p) \neq 0$.

Continuity of combinations of functions

Theorem 1

Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be continuous at p . Then the following functions are also continuous at p .

① $C f(x)$.

③ $f(x)g(x)$.

② $f(x) \pm g(x)$.

④ $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$, if $g(p) \neq 0$.

Proof. We prove the last claim. The others are left as an exercise for the reader.

First, note that $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = g(p) \neq 0$, by continuity of $g(x)$ at $x = p$ and the given condition that $g(p) \neq 0$.

So, by the Algebra of Limits, $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x)} = \frac{f(p)}{g(p)}$. □

Polynomials and rational functions

Theorem 2

- 1 Any polynomial is continuous at every point of \mathbb{R} .
- 2 Any rational function is continuous at every point of its domain.

Polynomials and rational functions

Theorem 2

- 1 Any polynomial is continuous at every point of \mathbb{R} .
- 2 Any rational function is continuous at every point of its domain.

Proof. Let $a_0, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

Polynomials and rational functions



Theorem 2

- 1 Any polynomial is continuous at every point of \mathbb{R} .
- 2 Any rational function is continuous at every point of its domain.

Proof. Let $a_0, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

The functions $y = a_0$ and $y = x$ are continuous. By repeated application of (3) of the previous theorem, every function $y = x^i$ ($i \in \mathbb{N}$) is continuous.

Polynomials and rational functions

Theorem 2

- 1 Any polynomial is continuous at every point of \mathbb{R} .
- 2 Any rational function is continuous at every point of its domain.

Proof. Let $a_0, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

The functions $y = a_0$ and $y = x$ are continuous. By repeated application of (3) of the previous theorem, every function $y = x^i$ ($i \in \mathbb{N}$) is continuous.

By (1) of the previous theorem, every function $y = a_i x^i$ is continuous. So by (2), the polynomial $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$ is continuous.

Polynomials and rational functions

Theorem 2

- 1 Any polynomial is continuous at every point of \mathbb{R} .
- 2 Any rational function is continuous at every point of its domain.

Proof. Let $a_0, \dots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

The functions $y = a_0$ and $y = x$ are continuous. By repeated application of (3) of the previous theorem, every function $y = x^i$ ($i \in \mathbb{N}$) is continuous.

By (1) of the previous theorem, every function $y = a_i x^i$ is continuous. So by (2), the polynomial $\sum_{i=0}^n a_i x^i$ is continuous.

For continuity of rational functions, combine continuity of polynomials with part 4 of the previous theorem. □

One-sided Continuity

A function f is **left-continuous** at p if $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = f(p)$.

One-sided Continuity



A function f is **left-continuous** at p if $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = f(p)$.

It is **right-continuous** at p if $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = f(p)$.

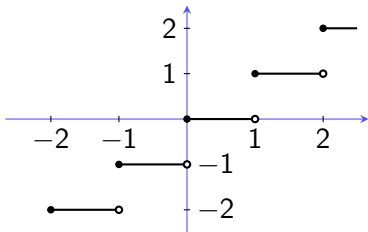
One-sided Continuity



A function f is **left-continuous** at p if $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = f(p)$.

It is **right-continuous** at p if $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = f(p)$.

Example: The greatest integer function is right-continuous at every point. It is left-continuous at all points except the integers.



One-sided and two-sided continuity

Theorem 3

A function f is continuous at p if and only if it is left and right-continuous at p .

One-sided and two-sided continuity

Theorem 3

A function f is continuous at p if and only if it is left and right-continuous at p .

Proof.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = f(p) \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = f(p) \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = f(p).$$

□

One-sided and two-sided continuity

Theorem 3

A function f is continuous at p if and only if it is left and right-continuous at p .

Proof.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = f(p) \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = f(p) \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = f(p).$$

□

For example, we can argue that the Heaviside step function $H(x)$ is not continuous at $x = 0$ because it is right continuous but not left continuous.

Types of discontinuity



Removable discontinuity: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists but does not equal $f(a)$.

We can make f continuous at a by changing its value at a to $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$.

Types of discontinuity



Removable discontinuity: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists but does not equal $f(a)$.

We can make f continuous at a by changing its value at a to $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$.

Jump discontinuity: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ exist but are not equal. The quantity $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ is called the **jump** of f at a .

Types of discontinuity



Removable discontinuity: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists but does not equal $f(a)$.

We can make f continuous at a by changing its value at a to $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$.

Jump discontinuity: $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ exist but are not equal. The quantity $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ is called the **jump** of f at a .

Essential discontinuity: Either $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ or $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ fails to exist.

Continuity on an interval

A function f is called **continuous on an interval** I if

- 1 f is continuous at every interior point of I ,
- 2 f is right-continuous at the left endpoint, if the left endpoint is in I ,
- 3 f is left-continuous at the right endpoint, if the right endpoint is in I .

Composition and Limits



Theorem 4

Let f and g be real functions such that their composition $g \circ f$ is defined on an interval (a, b) . Let $p \in (a, b)$ with $q = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$ and suppose g is continuous at q . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(f(x)) = g(q) = g\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)\right).$$

Composition and Limits



Theorem 4

Let f and g be real functions such that their composition $g \circ f$ is defined on an interval (a, b) . Let $p \in (a, b)$ with $q = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$ and suppose g is continuous at q . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(f(x)) = g(q) = g(\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)).$$

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$.

Composition and Limits



Theorem 4

Let f and g be real functions such that their composition $g \circ f$ is defined on an interval (a, b) . Let $p \in (a, b)$ with $q = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$ and suppose g is continuous at q . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(f(x)) = g(q) = g(\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)).$$

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$.

Since g is continuous at q there is a $\delta' > 0$ such that $|y - q| < \delta'$ implies $|g(y) - g(q)| < \epsilon$.

Composition and Limits



Theorem 4

Let f and g be real functions such that their composition $g \circ f$ is defined on an interval (a, b) . Let $p \in (a, b)$ with $q = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$ and suppose g is continuous at q . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(f(x)) = g(q) = g\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)\right).$$

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$.

Since g is continuous at q there is a $\delta' > 0$ such that $|y - q| < \delta'$ implies $|g(y) - g(q)| < \epsilon$.

There is a $\delta > 0$ such that $0 < |x - p| < \delta$ implies $|f(x) - q| < \delta'$.

Composition and Limits

Theorem 4

Let f and g be real functions such that their composition $g \circ f$ is defined on an interval (a, b) . Let $p \in (a, b)$ with $q = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)$ and suppose g is continuous at q . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(f(x)) = g(q) = g\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)\right).$$

Proof. Let $\epsilon > 0$.

Since g is continuous at q there is a $\delta' > 0$ such that $|y - q| < \delta'$ implies $|g(y) - g(q)| < \epsilon$.

There is a $\delta > 0$ such that $0 < |x - p| < \delta$ implies $|f(x) - q| < \delta'$.

Hence,

$$0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - q| < \delta' \implies |g(f(x)) - g(q)| < \epsilon.$$

Example

Calculate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{\frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}}$.

Example



Calculate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{\frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}}$.

We first note that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1} = 2$.

Example



Calculate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{\frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}}$.

We first note that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1} = 2$.

Since the square root function is continuous at 2 (we proved that for $a > 0$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{x} = \sqrt{a}$), we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sqrt{\frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}} = \sqrt{\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}} = \sqrt{2}.$$

Composition and continuity

Theorem 5

Let f and g be real functions such that their composition $g \circ f$ is defined on an interval (a, b) . Let $p \in (a, b)$ such that f is continuous at p and g is continuous at $f(p)$. Then $g \circ f$ is continuous at p .

Composition and continuity

Theorem 5

Let f and g be real functions such that their composition $g \circ f$ is defined on an interval (a, b) . Let $p \in (a, b)$ such that f is continuous at p and g is continuous at $f(p)$. Then $g \circ f$ is continuous at p .

Proof. $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(f(x)) = g(\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)) = g(f(p)).$

□

Continuity of monotone functions

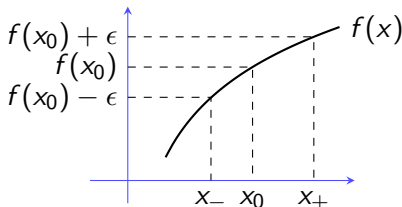
Theorem 6

If I, J are intervals and $f: I \rightarrow J$ is a surjective monotone function, then f is continuous on I .

Proof. We'll do the case when J is an open interval.

Let $x_0 \in I$ and let $\epsilon > 0$. We may assume that $f(x_0) \pm \epsilon \in J$.

Since f is surjective, there are $x_{\pm} \in I$ such that $f(x_-) = f(x_0) - \epsilon$ and $f(x_+) = f(x_0) + \epsilon$.



Take $\delta = \min\{x_0 - x_-, x_+ - x_0\}$.

Continuity of logarithms and exponentials

Theorem 7

All logarithms and exponential functions are continuous.

Continuity of logarithms and exponentials

Theorem 7

All logarithms and exponential functions are continuous.

Proof. They are monotonic bijections between intervals. □

Continuity of logarithms and exponentials

Theorem 7

All logarithms and exponential functions are continuous.

Proof. They are monotonic bijections between intervals. □

Task: Let $r \geq 0$. Show that the function x^r is continuous on $[0, \infty)$.

Indefinite integrals



Suppose I is an interval and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Fix a point $a \in I$. Then the function

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \quad (x \in I)$$

is called an **indefinite integral** of f .

Indefinite integrals



Suppose I is an interval and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Fix a point $a \in I$. Then the function

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \quad (x \in I)$$

is called an **indefinite integral** of f .

Example: Calculate the indefinite integral $F(x) = \int_0^x H(t) dt$ for the unit step function $H(t)$.

Indefinite integrals



Suppose I is an interval and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Fix a point $a \in I$. Then the function

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \quad (x \in I)$$

is called an **indefinite integral** of f .

Example: Calculate the indefinite integral $F(x) = \int_0^x H(t) dt$ for the unit step function $H(t)$.

$$x < 0 \implies \int_0^x H(t) dt = - \int_x^0 H(t) dt = - \int_x^0 0 dt = 0$$

$$x \geq 0 \implies \int_0^x H(t) dt = \int_0^x 1 dt = x$$

Indefinite integrals



Suppose I is an interval and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Fix a point $a \in I$. Then the function

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt \quad (x \in I)$$

is called an **indefinite integral** of f .

Example: Calculate the indefinite integral $F(x) = \int_0^x H(t) dt$ for the unit step function $H(t)$.

$$x < 0 \implies \int_0^x H(t) dt = - \int_x^0 H(t) dt = - \int_x^0 0 dt = 0$$

$$x \geq 0 \implies \int_0^x H(t) dt = \int_0^x 1 dt = x$$

$$\text{Hence } F(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ x & \text{if } x \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

Continuity of indefinite integrals

Theorem 8

Suppose I is an interval, $a \in I$, and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is continuous on I .

Continuity of indefinite integrals

Theorem 8

Suppose I is an interval, $a \in I$, and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is continuous on I .

Proof. For any $x, p \in I$ we have

$$F(x) - F(p) = \int_a^x f(t) dt - \int_a^p f(t) dt = \int_p^x f(t) dt.$$

Continuity of indefinite integrals

Theorem 8

Suppose I is an interval, $a \in I$, and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is continuous on I .

Proof. For any $x, p \in I$ we have

$$F(x) - F(p) = \int_a^x f(t) dt - \int_a^p f(t) dt = \int_p^x f(t) dt.$$

Suppose p is not the right endpoint of I .

Continuity of indefinite integrals

Theorem 8

Suppose I is an interval, $a \in I$, and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is continuous on I .

Proof. For any $x, p \in I$ we have

$$F(x) - F(p) = \int_a^x f(t) dt - \int_a^p f(t) dt = \int_p^x f(t) dt.$$

Suppose p is not the right endpoint of I .

Then, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $[p, p + \delta] \subseteq I$.

Continuity of indefinite integrals

Theorem 8

Suppose I is an interval, $a \in I$, and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is continuous on I .

Proof. For any $x, p \in I$ we have

$$F(x) - F(p) = \int_a^x f(t) dt - \int_a^p f(t) dt = \int_p^x f(t) dt.$$

Suppose p is not the right endpoint of I .

Then, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $[p, p + \delta] \subseteq I$.

Since f is integrable on $[p, p + \delta]$ it is bounded there.

Continuity of indefinite integrals

Theorem 8

Suppose I is an interval, $a \in I$, and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is continuous on I .

Proof. For any $x, p \in I$ we have

$$F(x) - F(p) = \int_a^x f(t) dt - \int_a^p f(t) dt = \int_p^x f(t) dt.$$

Suppose p is not the right endpoint of I .

Then, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $[p, p + \delta] \subseteq I$.

Since f is integrable on $[p, p + \delta]$ it is bounded there.

Hence there is a positive number M such that $-M \leq f(x) \leq M$ for every $x \in [p, p + \delta]$.

Continuity of indefinite integrals

Theorem 8

Suppose I is an interval, $a \in I$, and $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is integrable on every $[\alpha, \beta] \subseteq I$. Then $F(x) = \int_a^x f(t) dt$ is continuous on I .

Proof. For any $x, p \in I$ we have

$$F(x) - F(p) = \int_a^x f(t) dt - \int_a^p f(t) dt = \int_p^x f(t) dt.$$

Suppose p is not the right endpoint of I .

Then, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $[p, p + \delta] \subseteq I$.

Since f is integrable on $[p, p + \delta]$ it is bounded there.

Hence there is a positive number M such that $-M \leq f(x) \leq M$

for every $x \in [p, p + \delta]$. Now for $p < x < p + \delta$,

$$-M(x - p) = \int_p^x (-M) dt \leq \int_p^x f(t) dt \leq \int_p^x M dt = M(x - p).$$

Continuity of indefinite integrals

(proof continued)

By the Sandwich Theorem, we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} |F(x) - F(p)| = 0$.

Therefore $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} F(x) = F(p)$.

Continuity of indefinite integrals

(proof continued)

By the Sandwich Theorem, we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} |F(x) - F(p)| = 0$.

Therefore $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} F(x) = F(p)$.

Similarly, we check that if p is not the left endpoint of I then f is left-continuous at p .

Continuity of indefinite integrals

(proof continued)

By the Sandwich Theorem, we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} |F(x) - F(p)| = 0$.

Therefore $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} F(x) = F(p)$.

Similarly, we check that if p is not the left endpoint of I then f is left-continuous at p .

This establishes the continuity of f on I . □

Table of Contents



① Continuity

② Intermediate Value Theorem

③ Trigonometric Functions

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



Theorem 9

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a)f(b) < 0$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = 0$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



Theorem 9

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a)f(b) < 0$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = 0$.

Proof. Assume that $f(x)$ is never zero.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



Theorem 9

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a)f(b) < 0$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = 0$.

Proof. Assume that $f(x)$ is never zero. Let $a_0 = a$ and $b_0 = b$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1

Theorem 9

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a)f(b) < 0$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = 0$.

Proof. Assume that $f(x)$ is never zero. Let $a_0 = a$ and $b_0 = b$. Let c_0 be the midpoint of $[a_0, b_0]$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



Theorem 9

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a)f(b) < 0$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = 0$.

Proof. Assume that $f(x)$ is never zero. Let $a_0 = a$ and $b_0 = b$. Let c_0 be the midpoint of $[a_0, b_0]$. Define

$$[a_1, b_1] = \begin{cases} [a_0, c_0] & \text{if } f(a_0)f(c_0) < 0, \\ [c_0, b_0] & \text{if } f(b_0)f(c_0) < 0. \end{cases}$$

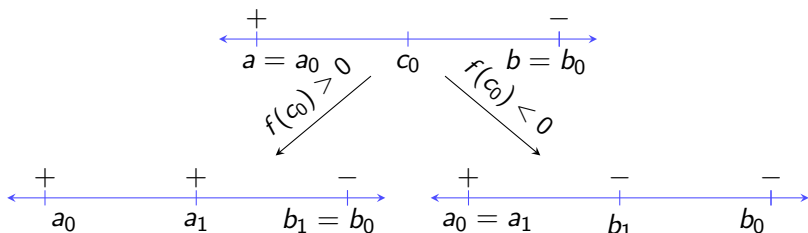
Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1

Theorem 9

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and $f(a)f(b) < 0$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = 0$.

Proof. Assume that $f(x)$ is never zero. Let $a_0 = a$ and $b_0 = b$. Let c_0 be the midpoint of $[a_0, b_0]$. Define

$$[a_1, b_1] = \begin{cases} [a_0, c_0] & \text{if } f(a_0)f(c_0) < 0, \\ [c_0, b_0] & \text{if } f(b_0)f(c_0) < 0. \end{cases}$$



Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

We have $f(a_1)f(b_1) < 0$, so we repeat this process with $[a_1, b_1]$ replacing $[a_0, b_0]$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

We have $f(a_1)f(b_1) < 0$, so we repeat this process with $[a_1, b_1]$ replacing $[a_0, b_0]$.

Thus, we create a sequence of intervals $[a_n, b_n]$ such that

$$[a_0, b_0] \supset [a_1, b_1] \supset [a_2, b_2] \supset \cdots$$

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

We have $f(a_1)f(b_1) < 0$, so we repeat this process with $[a_1, b_1]$ replacing $[a_0, b_0]$.

Thus, we create a sequence of intervals $[a_n, b_n]$ such that

$$[a_0, b_0] \supset [a_1, b_1] \supset [a_2, b_2] \supset \cdots$$

The endpoints a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots and b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots are arranged as follows:

$$a_0 \leq a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \cdots \leq b_2 \leq b_1 \leq b_0.$$

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

We have $f(a_1)f(b_1) < 0$, so we repeat this process with $[a_1, b_1]$ replacing $[a_0, b_0]$.

Thus, we create a sequence of intervals $[a_n, b_n]$ such that

$$[a_0, b_0] \supset [a_1, b_1] \supset [a_2, b_2] \supset \cdots$$

The endpoints a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots and b_0, b_1, b_2, \dots are arranged as follows:

$$a_0 \leq a_1 \leq a_2 \leq \cdots \leq b_2 \leq b_1 \leq b_0.$$

From the Completeness Axiom we obtain a number c such that $a_n \leq c \leq b_n$ for every n .

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)
Suppose $f(c) > 0$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

Suppose $f(c) > 0$.

There is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \implies f(x) > 0$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

Suppose $f(c) > 0$.

There is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \implies f(x) > 0$.

Note that $b_n - a_n = \frac{b - a}{2^n} < \frac{b - a}{n}$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

Suppose $f(c) > 0$.

There is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \implies f(x) > 0$.

Note that $b_n - a_n = \frac{b - a}{2^n} < \frac{b - a}{n}$.

By the Archimedean Property, there is N such that $b_N - a_N < \delta$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

Suppose $f(c) > 0$.

There is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \implies f(x) > 0$.

Note that $b_n - a_n = \frac{b - a}{2^n} < \frac{b - a}{n}$.

By the Archimedean Property, there is N such that $b_N - a_N < \delta$.

Since $c \in [a_N, b_N]$, this implies $[a_N, b_N] \subset (c - \delta, c + \delta)$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

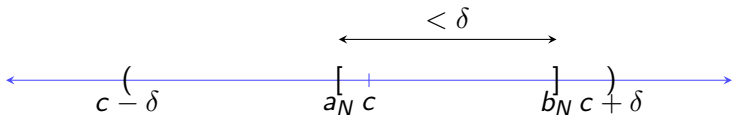
Suppose $f(c) > 0$.

There is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \implies f(x) > 0$.

Note that $b_n - a_n = \frac{b - a}{2^n} < \frac{b - a}{n}$.

By the Archimedean Property, there is N such that $b_N - a_N < \delta$.

Since $c \in [a_N, b_N]$, this implies $[a_N, b_N] \subset (c - \delta, c + \delta)$.



Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

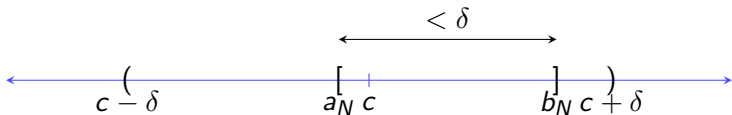
Suppose $f(c) > 0$.

There is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \implies f(x) > 0$.

Note that $b_n - a_n = \frac{b - a}{2^n} < \frac{b - a}{n}$.

By the Archimedean Property, there is N such that $b_N - a_N < \delta$.

Since $c \in [a_N, b_N]$, this implies $[a_N, b_N] \subset (c - \delta, c + \delta)$.



We have a contradiction since f changes sign on $[a_N, b_N]$ but not on $(c - \delta, c + \delta)$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 1



(proof continued)

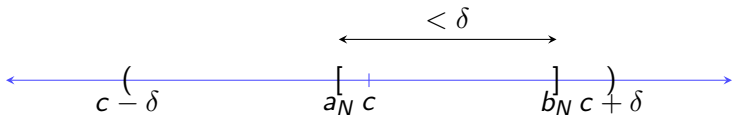
Suppose $f(c) > 0$.

There is a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \implies f(x) > 0$.

Note that $b_n - a_n = \frac{b - a}{2^n} < \frac{b - a}{n}$.

By the Archimedean Property, there is N such that $b_N - a_N < \delta$.

Since $c \in [a_N, b_N]$, this implies $[a_N, b_N] \subset (c - \delta, c + \delta)$.



We have a contradiction since f changes sign on $[a_N, b_N]$ but not on $(c - \delta, c + \delta)$.

The $f(c) < 0$ case similarly leads to a contradiction. □

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$.

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

x	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	39	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	39

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

x	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	39	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	39

The sign changes show there are solutions in the intervals $(-4, -3)$, $(-2, -1)$, $(-1, 0)$ and $(1, 2)$.

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

x	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	39	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	39

The sign changes show there are solutions in the intervals $(-4, -3)$, $(-2, -1)$, $(-1, 0)$ and $(1, 2)$.

We can shrink these intervals further by employing the **bisection method**.

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

x	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	39	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	39

The sign changes show there are solutions in the intervals $(-4, -3)$, $(-2, -1)$, $(-1, 0)$ and $(1, 2)$.

We can shrink these intervals further by employing the **bisection method**.

For example, consider the $(1, 2)$ interval.

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

x	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	39	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	39

The sign changes show there are solutions in the intervals $(-4, -3)$, $(-2, -1)$, $(-1, 0)$ and $(1, 2)$.

We can shrink these intervals further by employing the **bisection method**.

For example, consider the $(1, 2)$ interval.

The value of $f(x)$ at its midpoint is $f(1.5) = 10.8 > 0$.

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

x	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	39	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	39

The sign changes show there are solutions in the intervals $(-4, -3)$, $(-2, -1)$, $(-1, 0)$ and $(1, 2)$.

We can shrink these intervals further by employing the **bisection method**.

For example, consider the $(1, 2)$ interval.

The value of $f(x)$ at its midpoint is $f(1.5) = 10.8 > 0$.

Therefore there is a solution in $(1, 1.5)$.

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

x	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	39	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	39

The sign changes show there are solutions in the intervals $(-4, -3)$, $(-2, -1)$, $(-1, 0)$ and $(1, 2)$.

We can shrink these intervals further by employing the **bisection method**.

For example, consider the $(1, 2)$ interval.

The value of $f(x)$ at its midpoint is $f(1.5) = 10.8 > 0$.

Therefore there is a solution in $(1, 1.5)$.

This process can be repeated for greater accuracy.

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

x	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	39	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	39

The sign changes show there are solutions in the intervals $(-4, -3)$, $(-2, -1)$, $(-1, 0)$ and $(1, 2)$.

We can shrink these intervals further by employing the **bisection method**.

For example, consider the $(1, 2)$ interval.

The value of $f(x)$ at its midpoint is $f(1.5) = 10.8 > 0$.

Therefore there is a solution in $(1, 1.5)$.

This process can be repeated for greater accuracy.

$f(1.25) = 3.3 \implies$ solution is in $(1, 1.25)$.

Solving equations



Consider the equation $x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1 = 0$. We calculate the values of $f(x) = x^4 + 4x^3 + x^2 - 6x - 1$ at various points.

x	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	39	-1	-1	3	-1	-1	39

The sign changes show there are solutions in the intervals $(-4, -3)$, $(-2, -1)$, $(-1, 0)$ and $(1, 2)$.

We can shrink these intervals further by employing the **bisection method**.

For example, consider the $(1, 2)$ interval.

The value of $f(x)$ at its midpoint is $f(1.5) = 10.8 > 0$.

Therefore there is a solution in $(1, 1.5)$.

This process can be repeated for greater accuracy.

$f(1.25) = 3.3 \implies$ solution is in $(1, 1.25)$.

$f(1.125) = 0.81 \implies$ solution is in $(1, 1.125)$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 2

Theorem 10

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and L is a value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, i.e., $f(a) < L < f(b)$ or $f(b) < L < f(a)$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = L$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 2



Theorem 10

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and L is a value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, i.e., $f(a) < L < f(b)$ or $f(b) < L < f(a)$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = L$.

Proof. Suppose $f(a) < L < f(b)$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 2



Theorem 10

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and L is a value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, i.e., $f(a) < L < f(b)$ or $f(b) < L < f(a)$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = L$.

Proof. Suppose $f(a) < L < f(b)$.

Define $g: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $g(x) = f(x) - L$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 2



Theorem 10

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and L is a value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, i.e., $f(a) < L < f(b)$ or $f(b) < L < f(a)$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = L$.

Proof. Suppose $f(a) < L < f(b)$.

Define $g: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $g(x) = f(x) - L$.

Then $g(a) = f(a) - L < 0$ and $g(b) = f(b) - L > 0$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 2



Theorem 10

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and L is a value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, i.e., $f(a) < L < f(b)$ or $f(b) < L < f(a)$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = L$.

Proof. Suppose $f(a) < L < f(b)$.

Define $g: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $g(x) = f(x) - L$.

Then $g(a) = f(a) - L < 0$ and $g(b) = f(b) - L > 0$.

Hence there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $g(c) = 0$, and $f(c) = g(c) + L = L$.

Intermediate Value Theorem, ver. 2



Theorem 10

Suppose f is continuous on $[a, b]$ and L is a value between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, i.e., $f(a) < L < f(b)$ or $f(b) < L < f(a)$. Then there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = L$.

Proof. Suppose $f(a) < L < f(b)$.

Define $g: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by $g(x) = f(x) - L$.

Then $g(a) = f(a) - L < 0$ and $g(b) = f(b) - L > 0$.

Hence there is a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that $g(c) = 0$, and $f(c) = g(c) + L = L$.

The case $f(b) < L < f(a)$ is handled in a similar manner. □

Table of Contents



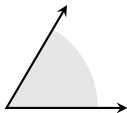
① Continuity

② Intermediate Value Theorem

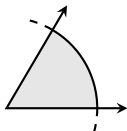
③ Trigonometric Functions

Angles

We define an angle to be a region bounded by two rays with a common starting point, as shown below.



To measure the angle we draw a unit circle whose centre is the meeting point of the rays. We take twice the area enclosed by this circle within the angle, and call that the radian measure of the angle. Thus the full circle corresponds to 2π radians while a right angle corresponds to $\pi/2$ radians.

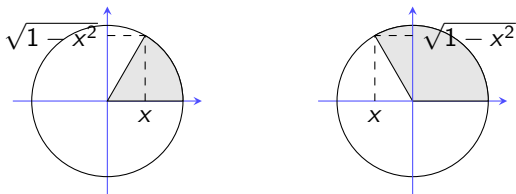


Radians

We have allotted a real number in $[0, 2\pi]$ to each angle. We show that every such number really is the radian measure of some angle.

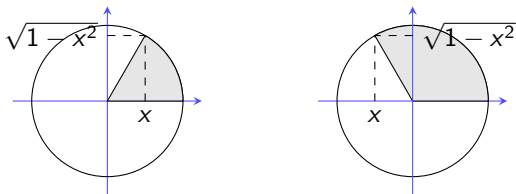
Radians

We have allotted a real number in $[0, 2\pi]$ to each angle. We show that every such number really is the radian measure of some angle. Consider any $x \in [-1, 1]$. We create a corresponding angle:



Radians

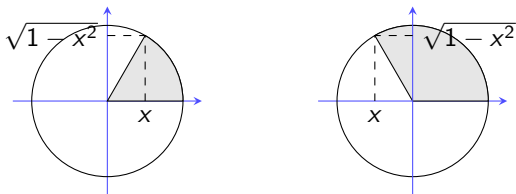
We have allotted a real number in $[0, 2\pi]$ to each angle. We show that every such number really is the radian measure of some angle. Consider any $x \in [-1, 1]$. We create a corresponding angle:



Let $R(x)$ be the radian measure of this angle.

Radians

We have allotted a real number in $[0, 2\pi]$ to each angle. We show that every such number really is the radian measure of some angle. Consider any $x \in [-1, 1]$. We create a corresponding angle:



Let $R(x)$ be the radian measure of this angle. The function $R: [-1, 1] \rightarrow [0, \pi]$ is defined by

$$R(x) = x\sqrt{1-x^2} + 2 \int_x^1 \sqrt{1-t^2} dt.$$

Radians



R is continuous, $R(-1) = \pi$ and $R(1) = 0$.

Radians



R is continuous, $R(-1) = \pi$ and $R(1) = 0$.

By the intermediate value theorem, R takes every value between 0 and π .

Radians



R is continuous, $R(-1) = \pi$ and $R(1) = 0$.

By the intermediate value theorem, R takes every value between 0 and π .

Task: Show that every number between π and 2π is also the radian measure of an angle.

Sine and Cosine



Consider the ray in the xy -plane created by rotating the positive x -axis counterclockwise through an angle of t radians.

Sine and Cosine



Consider the ray in the xy -plane created by rotating the positive x -axis counterclockwise through an angle of t radians.

This ray cuts the unit circle with centre at origin at exactly one point, (x, y) .

Sine and Cosine



Consider the ray in the xy -plane created by rotating the positive x -axis counterclockwise through an angle of t radians.

This ray cuts the unit circle with centre at origin at exactly one point, (x, y) .

We define $\cos t = x$ and $\sin t = y$.

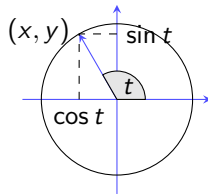
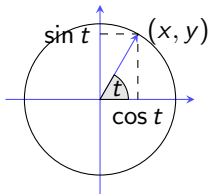
Sine and Cosine

Consider the ray in the xy -plane created by rotating the positive x -axis counterclockwise through an angle of t radians.

This ray cuts the unit circle with centre at origin at exactly one point, (x, y) .

We define $\cos t = x$ and $\sin t = y$.

The figures below illustrate the definitions for an acute and an obtuse angle respectively.



Properties of sine and cosine



- Since $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is a point on the unit circle, we have $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.

Properties of sine and cosine



- Since $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is a point on the unit circle, we have $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.
- $\cos t, \sin t \in [-1, 1]$.

Properties of sine and cosine



- Since $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is a point on the unit circle, we have $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.
- $\cos t, \sin t \in [-1, 1]$.
- Let $y \in [-1, 1]$.

Properties of sine and cosine



- Since $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is a point on the unit circle, we have $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.
- $\cos t, \sin t \in [-1, 1]$.
- Let $y \in [-1, 1]$.
Then $x = \sqrt{1 - y^2}$ is defined and (x, y) is on the unit circle.

Properties of sine and cosine



- Since $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is a point on the unit circle, we have $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.
- $\cos t, \sin t \in [-1, 1]$.
- Let $y \in [-1, 1]$.
Then $x = \sqrt{1 - y^2}$ is defined and (x, y) is on the unit circle.
Let t be the angle between the positive x -axis and the ray emanating from origin and passing through (x, y) .

Properties of sine and cosine

- Since $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is a point on the unit circle, we have $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.
- $\cos t, \sin t \in [-1, 1]$.
- Let $y \in [-1, 1]$.
Then $x = \sqrt{1 - y^2}$ is defined and (x, y) is on the unit circle.
Let t be the angle between the positive x -axis and the ray emanating from origin and passing through (x, y) .
By the definition of the sine function, $\sin t = y$.

Properties of sine and cosine



- Since $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is a point on the unit circle, we have $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.
- $\cos t, \sin t \in [-1, 1]$.
- Let $y \in [-1, 1]$.
Then $x = \sqrt{1 - y^2}$ is defined and (x, y) is on the unit circle.
Let t be the angle between the positive x -axis and the ray emanating from origin and passing through (x, y) .
By the definition of the sine function, $\sin t = y$.
Therefore, $\sin: [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ is onto.

Properties of sine and cosine



- Since $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is a point on the unit circle, we have $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.
- $\cos t, \sin t \in [-1, 1]$.
- Let $y \in [-1, 1]$.
Then $x = \sqrt{1 - y^2}$ is defined and (x, y) is on the unit circle.
Let t be the angle between the positive x -axis and the ray emanating from origin and passing through (x, y) .
By the definition of the sine function, $\sin t = y$.
Therefore, $\sin: [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ is onto.
- Similarly, $\cos: [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ is also onto.

Properties of sine and cosine



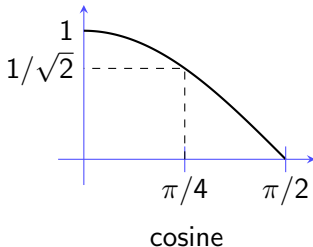
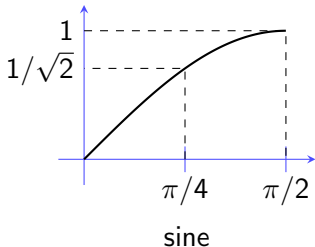
- Since $(\cos t, \sin t)$ is a point on the unit circle, we have $\cos^2 t + \sin^2 t = 1$.
- $\cos t, \sin t \in [-1, 1]$.
- Let $y \in [-1, 1]$.
Then $x = \sqrt{1 - y^2}$ is defined and (x, y) is on the unit circle.
Let t be the angle between the positive x -axis and the ray emanating from origin and passing through (x, y) .
By the definition of the sine function, $\sin t = y$.
Therefore, $\sin: [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ is onto.
- Similarly, $\cos: [0, 2\pi] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$ is also onto.
- By symmetry, $\sin(\pi/2 - t) = \cos t$ for every $t \in [0, \pi/2]$.

Graphs

The following values of sine and cosine are obvious:

x	0	$\pi/2$	π	$3\pi/2$	2π
$\sin x$	0	1	0	-1	0
$\cos x$	1	0	-1	0	1

Task: Show that $\sin(\pi/4) = \cos(\pi/4) = 1/\sqrt{2}$.



Graphs



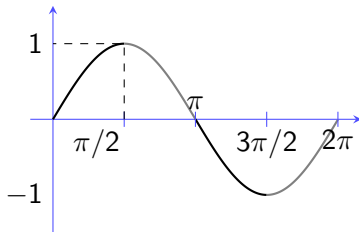
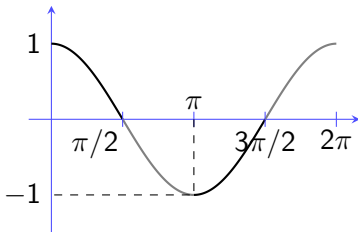
Task: $\cos(\pi - t) = \cos(\pi + t) = -\cos t$, for every $t \in [0, \pi]$.
 $\sin(\pi - t) = -\sin(\pi + t) = \sin t$, for every $t \in [0, \pi]$

Graphs

Task: $\cos(\pi - t) = \cos(\pi + t) = -\cos t$, for every $t \in [0, \pi]$.

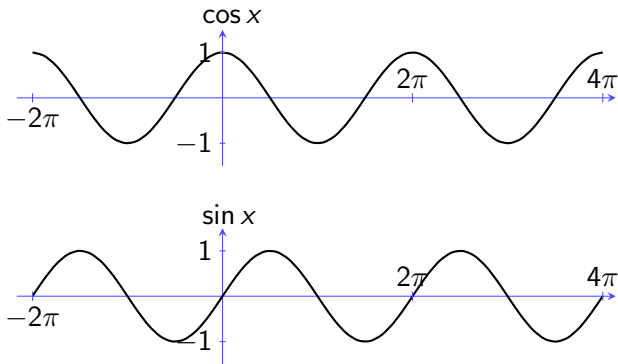
$$\sin(\pi - t) = -\sin(\pi + t) = \sin t, \text{ for every } t \in [0, \pi]$$

With the help of these identities, we can visualize the graphs over $[0, 2\pi]$, using the pieces for $[0, \pi/2]$ as building blocks:

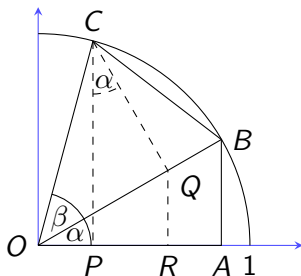


Graphs

The domains can be extended on each side of $[0, 2\pi]$ by setting $\sin(x + 2\pi) = \sin x$ and $\cos(x + 2\pi) = \cos x$:

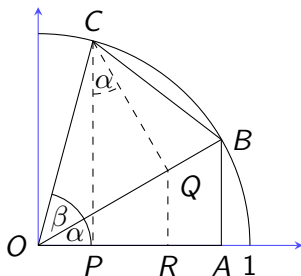


An angle sum identity



In this figure, CP and QR are perpendicular to OA , while CQ is perpendicular to OB .

An angle sum identity



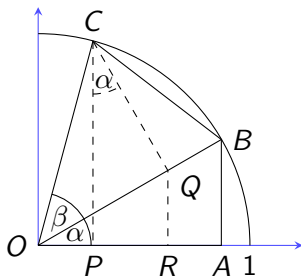
In this figure, CP and QR are perpendicular to OA , while CQ is perpendicular to OB .

We have the following calculations:

$$OQ = \cos \beta \implies OR = \cos \alpha \cos \beta,$$

$$CQ = \sin \beta \implies PR = \sin \alpha \sin \beta.$$

An angle sum identity



In this figure, CP and QR are perpendicular to OA , while CQ is perpendicular to OB .

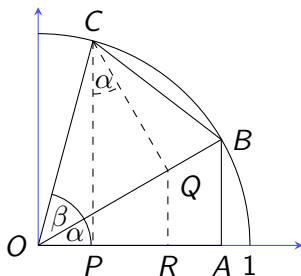
We have the following calculations:

$$OQ = \cos \beta \implies OR = \cos \alpha \cos \beta,$$

$$CQ = \sin \beta \implies PR = \sin \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Hence, $\cos(\alpha + \beta) = OP = OR - PR = \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta$.

An angle sum identity



In this figure, CP and QR are perpendicular to OA , while CQ is perpendicular to OB .

We have the following calculations:

$$OQ = \cos \beta \implies OR = \cos \alpha \cos \beta,$$

$$CQ = \sin \beta \implies PR = \sin \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Hence, $\cos(\alpha + \beta) = OP = OR - PR = \cos \alpha \cos \beta - \sin \alpha \sin \beta$.

Our figure is only valid for $0 \leq \alpha, \beta$ and with $\alpha + \beta \leq \pi/2$. The identity can be extended to arbitrary α, β by other appropriate figures.

Other angle sum identities



The other sum of angle identities can be obtained from this one.

Other angle sum identities



The other sum of angle identities can be obtained from this one.

Replacing β by $-\beta$ gives

$$\cos(\alpha - \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta + \sin \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Other angle sum identities

The other sum of angle identities can be obtained from this one.

Replacing β by $-\beta$ gives

$$\cos(\alpha - \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta + \sin \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Replacing α by $\pi/2 - \alpha$ and β by $-\beta$ gives

$$\sin(\alpha + \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Other angle sum identities

The other sum of angle identities can be obtained from this one.

Replacing β by $-\beta$ gives

$$\cos(\alpha - \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta + \sin \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Replacing α by $\pi/2 - \alpha$ and β by $-\beta$ gives

$$\sin(\alpha + \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Substituting β by $-\beta$ in the previous identity gives

$$\sin(\alpha - \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta - \cos \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Other angle sum identities

The other sum of angle identities can be obtained from this one.

Replacing β by $-\beta$ gives

$$\cos(\alpha - \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta + \sin \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Replacing α by $\pi/2 - \alpha$ and β by $-\beta$ gives

$$\sin(\alpha + \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Substituting β by $-\beta$ in the previous identity gives

$$\sin(\alpha - \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta - \cos \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Task: Show that $\sin \pi/6 = \cos \pi/3 = 1/2$,

$$\cos \pi/6 = \sin \pi/3 = \sqrt{3}/2.$$

Other angle sum identities



The other sum of angle identities can be obtained from this one.

Replacing β by $-\beta$ gives

$$\cos(\alpha - \beta) = \cos \alpha \cos \beta + \sin \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Replacing α by $\pi/2 - \alpha$ and β by $-\beta$ gives

$$\sin(\alpha + \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta + \cos \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Substituting β by $-\beta$ in the previous identity gives

$$\sin(\alpha - \beta) = \sin \alpha \cos \beta - \cos \alpha \sin \beta.$$

Task: Show that $\sin \pi/6 = \cos \pi/3 = 1/2$,

$$\cos \pi/6 = \sin \pi/3 = \sqrt{3}/2.$$

Task: Prove the **half-angle formulas**:

$$\cos 2x = \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x = 1 - 2 \sin^2 x = 2 \cos^2 x - 1,$$

$$\sin 2x = 2 \cos x \sin x.$$

Law of Sines

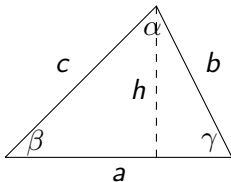


Theorem 11

Consider a triangle whose sides have lengths a , b , c , and the corresponding opposite angles are α , β , γ . Then

$$\frac{\sin \alpha}{a} = \frac{\sin \beta}{b} = \frac{\sin \gamma}{c}.$$

Proof. Take a as the base of the triangle and let h be the height.



We have $h = c \sin \beta = b \sin \gamma$,
hence $\frac{\sin \beta}{b} = \frac{\sin \gamma}{c}$.

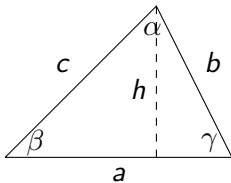
Law of Sines

Theorem 11

Consider a triangle whose sides have lengths a , b , c , and the corresponding opposite angles are α , β , γ . Then

$$\frac{\sin \alpha}{a} = \frac{\sin \beta}{b} = \frac{\sin \gamma}{c}.$$

Proof. Take a as the base of the triangle and let h be the height.



We have $h = c \sin \beta = b \sin \gamma$,
hence $\frac{\sin \beta}{b} = \frac{\sin \gamma}{c}$.

Similarly, taking b as the base,
we get $\frac{\sin \gamma}{c} = \frac{\sin \alpha}{a}$.

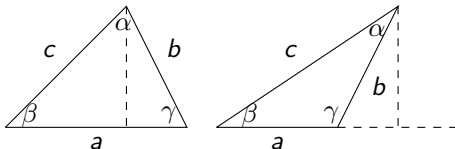
Law of Cosines

Theorem 12

Consider a triangle whose sides have lengths a , b , c , and the corresponding opposite angles are α , β , γ . Then

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \gamma.$$

Proof. Take the side a as the base of the triangle. We show two cases below, depending on whether any base angle is obtuse.

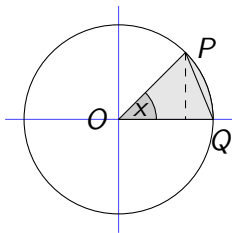


We have $a = c \cos \beta + b \cos \gamma$ in both cases. Hence,
 $a^2 = ac \cos \beta + ab \cos \gamma$. Similarly, $b^2 = ab \cos \gamma + bc \cos \alpha$. So,

$$c^2 = ac \cos \beta + bc \cos \alpha.$$

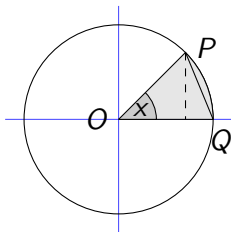
$$a^2 + b^2 = 2ab \cos \gamma + ac \cos \beta + bc \cos \alpha = c^2 + 2ab \cos \gamma.$$

Limits at zero



The circle has radius 1.

Limits at zero



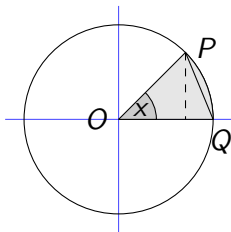
The circle has radius 1.
For $0 < x < \pi/2$ we have

$$0 < \text{Area}(\triangle OPQ) < \text{Area}(\text{sector } OPQ)$$

$$\implies 0 < \frac{1}{2} \sin x < \frac{x}{2}$$

$$\implies 0 < \sin x < x.$$

Limits at zero



The circle has radius 1.
For $0 < x < \pi/2$ we have

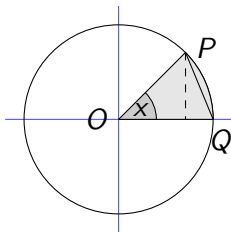
$$0 < \text{Area}(\triangle OPQ) < \text{Area}(\text{sector } OPQ)$$

$$\implies 0 < \frac{1}{2} \sin x < \frac{x}{2}$$

$$\implies 0 < \sin x < x.$$

The Sandwich Theorem gives $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sin x = 0$.

Limits at zero



The circle has radius 1.
For $0 < x < \pi/2$ we have

$$0 < \text{Area}(\triangle OPQ) < \text{Area}(\triangle OPQ)$$

$$\implies 0 < \frac{1}{2} \sin x < \frac{x}{2}$$

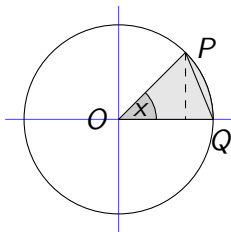
$$\implies 0 < \sin x < x.$$

The Sandwich Theorem gives $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sin x = 0$.

Since $\sin x$ is an odd function, we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \sin x = - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sin x = 0.$$

Limits at zero



The circle has radius 1.
For $0 < x < \pi/2$ we have

$$0 < \text{Area}(\triangle OPQ) < \text{Area}(\nabla OPQ)$$

$$\implies 0 < \frac{1}{2} \sin x < \frac{x}{2}$$

$$\implies 0 < \sin x < x.$$

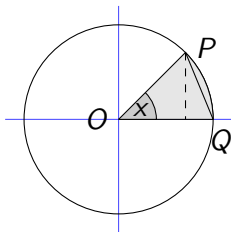
The Sandwich Theorem gives $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sin x = 0$.

Since $\sin x$ is an odd function, we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \sin x = - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sin x = 0.$$

Both the one-sided limits being 0, we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x = 0$.

Limits at zero



The circle has radius 1.
For $0 < x < \pi/2$ we have

$$0 < \text{Area}(\triangle OPQ) < \text{Area}(\text{sector } OPQ)$$

$$\implies 0 < \frac{1}{2} \sin x < \frac{x}{2}$$

$$\implies 0 < \sin x < x.$$

The Sandwich Theorem gives $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sin x = 0$.

Since $\sin x$ is an odd function, we get

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \sin x = - \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \sin x = 0.$$

Both the one-sided limits being 0, we have $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x = 0$.

Apply the half-angle formula: $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(1 - 2 \sin^2 \frac{x}{2}\right) = 1$.

Continuity



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\sin a \cos h + \cos a \sin h) = \sin a,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\cos a \cos h - \sin a \sin h) = \cos a.$$

Continuity



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\sin a \cos h + \cos a \sin h) = \sin a,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\cos a \cos h - \sin a \sin h) = \cos a.$$

Thus the sine and cosine functions are continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Continuity



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\sin a \cos h + \cos a \sin h) = \sin a,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\cos a \cos h - \sin a \sin h) = \cos a.$$

Thus the sine and cosine functions are continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Task: Calculate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sin \left(\frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x^2 - 1} \right)$.

Continuity



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\sin a \cos h + \cos a \sin h) = \sin a,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\cos a \cos h - \sin a \sin h) = \cos a.$$

Thus the sine and cosine functions are continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Task: Calculate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sin\left(\frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x^2 - 1}\right)$.

Recall the other four trigonometric functions:

$$\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}, \quad \cot x = \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}, \quad \sec x = \frac{1}{\cos x}, \quad \csc x = \frac{1}{\sin x}.$$

Continuity



$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\sin a \cos h + \cos a \sin h) = \sin a,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos(a + h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\cos a \cos h - \sin a \sin h) = \cos a.$$

Thus the sine and cosine functions are continuous on \mathbb{R} .

Task: Calculate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sin\left(\frac{x^2 - 2x + 1}{x^2 - 1}\right)$.

Recall the other four trigonometric functions:

$$\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}, \quad \cot x = \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}, \quad \sec x = \frac{1}{\cos x}, \quad \csc x = \frac{1}{\sin x}.$$

By the properties of continuity, these functions are continuous at every point of their domains.