



# Chapter 3: Limits and Continuity

## Part A: Limits



# Table of Contents



## ① Limits

## ② Limit Theorems

## ③ One-sided limits

# An Example

Consider  $f(x) = 2x + 5$ . What happens if we take values of  $x$  that approach 0? Here are some calculations.

$x$	1	0.1	0.01	0.001	0.0001	0.00001
$f(x)$	7	5.2	5.02	5.002	5.0002	5.00002

# An Example



Consider  $f(x) = 2x + 5$ . What happens if we take values of  $x$  that approach 0? Here are some calculations.

$x$	1	0.1	0.01	0.001	0.0001	0.00001
$f(x)$	7	5.2	5.02	5.002	5.0002	5.00002

We see that as  $x$  gets closer to 0,  $f(x)$  appears to be getting closer to 5. Can we control this? Can we get the output  $f(x)$  close to 5 within any required accuracy level, simply by making the input  $x$  appropriately close to 0?

# An Example



Consider  $f(x) = 2x + 5$ . What happens if we take values of  $x$  that approach 0? Here are some calculations.

$x$	1	0.1	0.01	0.001	0.0001	0.00001
$f(x)$	7	5.2	5.02	5.002	5.0002	5.00002

We see that as  $x$  gets closer to 0,  $f(x)$  appears to be getting closer to 5. Can we control this? Can we get the output  $f(x)$  close to 5 within any required accuracy level, simply by making the input  $x$  appropriately close to 0?

Suppose  $\epsilon$  is some positive number and we need  $f(x) = 2x + 5$  to be within  $\epsilon$  of 5. Now,

$$|(2x + 5) - 5| < \epsilon \iff |2x| < \epsilon \iff |x| < \epsilon/2.$$

# An Example



Consider  $f(x) = 2x + 5$ . What happens if we take values of  $x$  that approach 0? Here are some calculations.

$x$	1	0.1	0.01	0.001	0.0001	0.00001
$f(x)$	7	5.2	5.02	5.002	5.0002	5.00002

We see that as  $x$  gets closer to 0,  $f(x)$  appears to be getting closer to 5. Can we control this? Can we get the output  $f(x)$  close to 5 within any required accuracy level, simply by making the input  $x$  appropriately close to 0?

Suppose  $\epsilon$  is some positive number and we need  $f(x) = 2x + 5$  to be within  $\epsilon$  of 5. Now,

$$|(2x + 5) - 5| < \epsilon \iff |2x| < \epsilon \iff |x| < \epsilon/2.$$

Thus, if  $|x| < \epsilon/2$ , we are guaranteed that  $|f(x) - 5| < \epsilon$ .

# Definition of Limit



We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

# Definition of Limit



We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

Three observations about the definition of limit:

- 1 It sets up  $\delta$  as depending on  $\epsilon$ .



# Definition of Limit



We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

Three observations about the definition of limit:

- 1 It sets up  $\delta$  as depending on  $\epsilon$ .
- 2 We do not care about the value of  $f(p)$ , or even whether it is defined.

# Definition of Limit



We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

Three observations about the definition of limit:

- 1 It sets up  $\delta$  as depending on  $\epsilon$ .
- 2 We do not care about the value of  $f(p)$ , or even whether it is defined.
- 3 Since the definition is intended for situations where  $x$  can approach  $p$ , it should only be applied to such situations. So we shall only consider the limit of  $f$  at  $p$  if there is an  $\alpha > 0$  such that the open interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$  is contained in the domain of  $f$ , except perhaps for  $p$  itself.

# Definition of Limit



We say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

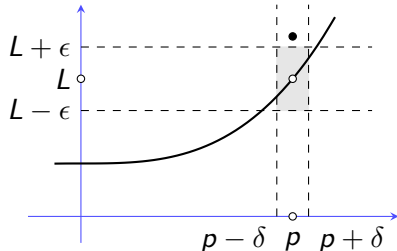
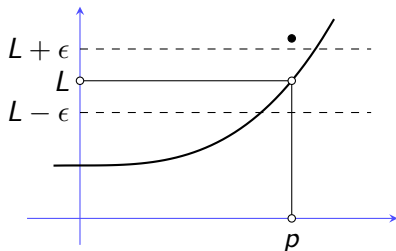
Three observations about the definition of limit:

- 1 It sets up  $\delta$  as depending on  $\epsilon$ .
- 2 We do not care about the value of  $f(p)$ , or even whether it is defined.
- 3 Since the definition is intended for situations where  $x$  can approach  $p$ , it should only be applied to such situations. So we shall only consider the limit of  $f$  at  $p$  if there is an  $\alpha > 0$  such that the open interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$  is contained in the domain of  $f$ , except perhaps for  $p$  itself.

We may also write ' $f(x) \rightarrow L$  as  $x \rightarrow p$ ' for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$ .

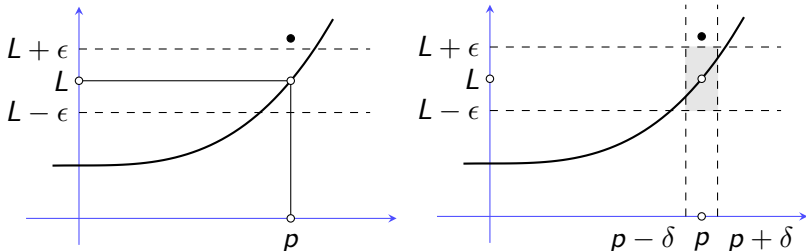
# Visualising Limits

The two stages in a limit process.



# Visualising Limits

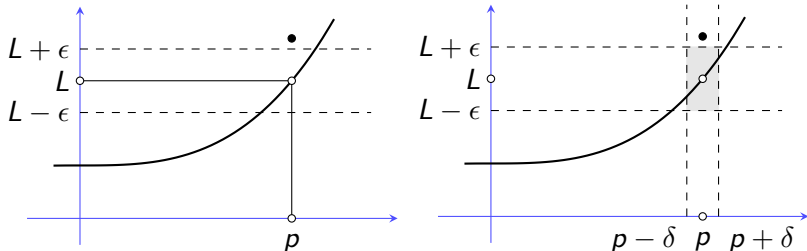
The two stages in a limit process.



In the first stage, we have a requirement to make the output  $f(x)$  lie between  $L - \epsilon$  and  $L + \epsilon$ .

# Visualising Limits

The two stages in a limit process.



In the first stage, we have a requirement to make the output  $f(x)$  lie between  $L - \epsilon$  and  $L + \epsilon$ .

In the second stage, we meet the requirement by finding a  $\delta$  such that input being between  $p - \delta$  and  $p + \delta$  guarantees that the output is between  $L - \epsilon$  and  $L + \epsilon$  (except perhaps at  $p$  itself).

# Uniqueness of Limit



## Theorem 1

*At most one number can satisfy the definition of the limit of a given function at a given point.*

# Uniqueness of Limit



## Theorem 1

*At most one number can satisfy the definition of the limit of a given function at a given point.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $L, M$  are two distinct numbers, both of which satisfy the definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ .



# Uniqueness of Limit

## Theorem 1

*At most one number can satisfy the definition of the limit of a given function at a given point.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $L, M$  are two distinct numbers, both of which satisfy the definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ .

Choose  $\epsilon = |M - L|/2$ .

# Uniqueness of Limit



## Theorem 1

*At most one number can satisfy the definition of the limit of a given function at a given point.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $L, M$  are two distinct numbers, both of which satisfy the definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ .

Choose  $\epsilon = |M - L|/2$ .

Then there are  $\delta_L, \delta_M > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_L \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon,$$

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_M \implies |f(x) - M| < \epsilon.$$

# Uniqueness of Limit



## Theorem 1

*At most one number can satisfy the definition of the limit of a given function at a given point.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $L, M$  are two distinct numbers, both of which satisfy the definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ .

Choose  $\epsilon = |M - L|/2$ .

Then there are  $\delta_L, \delta_M > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_L \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon,$$

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_M \implies |f(x) - M| < \epsilon.$$

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_L, \delta_M\}$  and  $x_0 \in (a - \delta, a + \delta)$ .

# Uniqueness of Limit



## Theorem 1

*At most one number can satisfy the definition of the limit of a given function at a given point.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $L, M$  are two distinct numbers, both of which satisfy the definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ .

Choose  $\epsilon = |M - L|/2$ .

Then there are  $\delta_L, \delta_M > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_L \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon,$$

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_M \implies |f(x) - M| < \epsilon.$$

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_L, \delta_M\}$  and  $x_0 \in (a - \delta, a + \delta)$ .

Then  $|f(x_0) - L| < \epsilon$  and  $|f(x_0) - M| < \epsilon$ .

# Uniqueness of Limit



## Theorem 1

*At most one number can satisfy the definition of the limit of a given function at a given point.*

*Proof.* Suppose  $L, M$  are two distinct numbers, both of which satisfy the definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ .

Choose  $\epsilon = |M - L|/2$ .

Then there are  $\delta_L, \delta_M > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_L \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon,$$

$$0 < |x - a| < \delta_M \implies |f(x) - M| < \epsilon.$$

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_L, \delta_M\}$  and  $x_0 \in (a - \delta, a + \delta)$ .

Then  $|f(x_0) - L| < \epsilon$  and  $|f(x_0) - M| < \epsilon$ . Hence,

$$|M - L| \leq |M - f(x_0)| + |f(x_0) - L| < \epsilon + \epsilon = |M - L|,$$

which gives the impossible statement  $|M - L| < |M - L|$ .



# Basic Examples

Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x$ .

# Basic Examples

Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x$ .

This amounts to asking “What does  $x$  approach when  $x$  approaches  $a$ ?”

# Basic Examples



Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x$ .

This amounts to asking “What does  $x$  approach when  $x$  approaches  $a$ ?”

Obviously, our response has to be that it will approach  $a$ , that is,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a.$$



# Basic Examples



Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x$ .

This amounts to asking “What does  $x$  approach when  $x$  approaches  $a$ ?”

Obviously, our response has to be that it will approach  $a$ , that is,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a.$$

Let us work it out with the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  formulation, for practice.

# Basic Examples



Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x$ .

This amounts to asking “What does  $x$  approach when  $x$  approaches  $a$ ?”

Obviously, our response has to be that it will approach  $a$ , that is,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a.$$

Let us work it out with the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  formulation, for practice.

We start by considering an  $\epsilon > 0$ . We need to find a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - a| < \delta \implies |x - a| < \epsilon$ . Clearly  $\delta = \epsilon$  will work.

# Basic Examples



Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x$ .

This amounts to asking “What does  $x$  approach when  $x$  approaches  $a$ ?”

Obviously, our response has to be that it will approach  $a$ , that is,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a.$$

Let us work it out with the  $\epsilon$ - $\delta$  formulation, for practice.

We start by considering an  $\epsilon > 0$ . We need to find a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|x - a| < \delta \implies |x - a| < \epsilon$ . Clearly  $\delta = \epsilon$  will work.

Task: Let  $f(x) = c$  be a constant function. Show that

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

# Example of $y = x^2$



Consider the limit of  $y = x^2$  at  $x = 2$ . A natural guess is that  $x^2 \rightarrow 2^2 = 4$  as  $x \rightarrow 2$ . We test this for some values of  $\epsilon > 0$ .

# Example of $y = x^2$



Consider the limit of  $y = x^2$  at  $x = 2$ . A natural guess is that  $x^2 \rightarrow 2^2 = 4$  as  $x \rightarrow 2$ . We test this for some values of  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Suppose  $\epsilon = 0.5$ . We need  $\delta > 0$  such that  $x \in (2 - \delta, 2 + \delta)$  implies  $x^2 \in (4 - 0.5, 4 + 0.5) = (3.5, 4.5)$ .

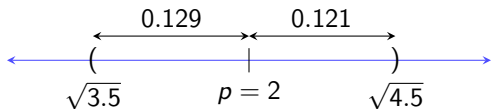
# Example of $y = x^2$



Consider the limit of  $y = x^2$  at  $x = 2$ . A natural guess is that  $x^2 \rightarrow 2^2 = 4$  as  $x \rightarrow 2$ . We test this for some values of  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Suppose  $\epsilon = 0.5$ . We need  $\delta > 0$  such that  $x \in (2 - \delta, 2 + \delta)$  implies  $x^2 \in (4 - 0.5, 4 + 0.5) = (3.5, 4.5)$ .

We note that the function maps  $(\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$  into  $(3.5, 4.5)$ . The interval  $(\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$  contains 2 but is not centered on it.



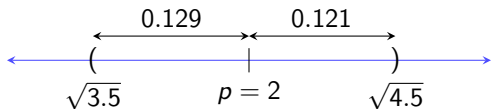
# Example of $y = x^2$



Consider the limit of  $y = x^2$  at  $x = 2$ . A natural guess is that  $x^2 \rightarrow 2^2 = 4$  as  $x \rightarrow 2$ . We test this for some values of  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Suppose  $\epsilon = 0.5$ . We need  $\delta > 0$  such that  $x \in (2 - \delta, 2 + \delta)$  implies  $x^2 \in (4 - 0.5, 4 + 0.5) = (3.5, 4.5)$ .

We note that the function maps  $(\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$  into  $(3.5, 4.5)$ . The interval  $(\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$  contains 2 but is not centered on it.



$\delta = \sqrt{4.5} - 2 = 0.121$  works, since  $(2 - \delta, 2 + \delta) \subset (\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$ .

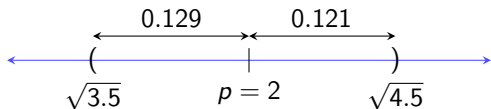
# Example of $y = x^2$



Consider the limit of  $y = x^2$  at  $x = 2$ . A natural guess is that  $x^2 \rightarrow 2^2 = 4$  as  $x \rightarrow 2$ . We test this for some values of  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Suppose  $\epsilon = 0.5$ . We need  $\delta > 0$  such that  $x \in (2 - \delta, 2 + \delta)$  implies  $x^2 \in (4 - 0.5, 4 + 0.5) = (3.5, 4.5)$ .

We note that the function maps  $(\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$  into  $(3.5, 4.5)$ . The interval  $(\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$  contains 2 but is not centered on it.



$\delta = \sqrt{4.5} - 2 = 0.121$  works, since  $(2 - \delta, 2 + \delta) \subset (\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$ .

Consider  $\epsilon = 0.01$ . Can you confirm that  $\delta = \sqrt{4.01} - 2$  meets the requirements?



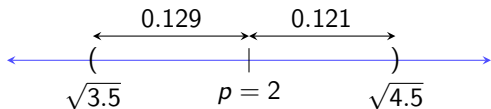
# Example of $y = x^2$



Consider the limit of  $y = x^2$  at  $x = 2$ . A natural guess is that  $x^2 \rightarrow 2^2 = 4$  as  $x \rightarrow 2$ . We test this for some values of  $\epsilon > 0$ .

Suppose  $\epsilon = 0.5$ . We need  $\delta > 0$  such that  $x \in (2 - \delta, 2 + \delta)$  implies  $x^2 \in (4 - 0.5, 4 + 0.5) = (3.5, 4.5)$ .

We note that the function maps  $(\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$  into  $(3.5, 4.5)$ . The interval  $(\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$  contains 2 but is not centered on it.



$\delta = \sqrt{4.5} - 2 = 0.121$  works, since  $(2 - \delta, 2 + \delta) \subset (\sqrt{3.5}, \sqrt{4.5})$ .

Consider  $\epsilon = 0.01$ . Can you confirm that  $\delta = \sqrt{4.01} - 2$  meets the requirements?

Generally, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , take  $\delta = \min\{2 - \sqrt{4 - \epsilon}, \sqrt{4 + \epsilon} - 2\}$ .

# Characterisations of Limit



## Theorem 2

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - L) = 0 \iff \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(p + h) = L.$$

# Characterisations of Limit



## Theorem 2

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - L) = 0 \iff \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(p + h) = L.$$

*Proof.* We simply match the definitions of the three limits:

# Characterisations of Limit

## Theorem 2

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - L) = 0 \iff \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(p + h) = L.$$

*Proof.* We simply match the definitions of the three limits:

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$ : For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

# Characterisations of Limit

## Theorem 2

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - L) = 0 \iff \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(p + h) = L.$$

*Proof.* We simply match the definitions of the three limits:

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$ : For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - L) = 0$ : For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |(f(x) - L) - 0| < \epsilon$ .

# Characterisations of Limit

## Theorem 2

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - L) = 0 \iff \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(p + h) = L.$$

*Proof.* We simply match the definitions of the three limits:

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$ : For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - L) = 0$ : For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |(f(x) - L) - 0| < \epsilon$ .
- $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(p + h) = L$ : For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |h| < \delta \implies |f(p + h) - L| < \epsilon$ .

# Characterisations of Limit



## Theorem 2

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - L) = 0 \iff \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(p + h) = L.$$

*Proof.* We simply match the definitions of the three limits:

- $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$ : For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .
- $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - L) = 0$ : For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |(f(x) - L) - 0| < \epsilon$ .
- $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(p + h) = L$ : For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |h| < \delta \implies |f(p + h) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The first two are identical. The first can be converted to the third, and conversely, by the substitution  $x = p + h$ .



# Zero Limit



## Theorem 3

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0.$$



# Zero Limit

## Theorem 3

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0.$$

*Proof.* The definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0$  is:

For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that

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

# Zero Limit



## Theorem 3

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0.$$

*Proof.* The definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0$  is:

For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that

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

Now note that  $||f(x)| - 0| = |f(x) - 0|$ . □

## Zero Limit



## Theorem 3

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0.$$

*Proof.* The definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0$  is:

For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that

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

Now note that  $||f(x)| - 0| = |f(x) - 0|$ . □

## Theorem 4

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

# Zero Limit



## Theorem 3

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0.$$

*Proof.* The definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0$  is:

For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that

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

Now note that  $||f(x)| - 0| = |f(x) - 0|$ . □

## Theorem 4

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

*Proof.* The triangle inequality gives  $||f(x)| - |M|| \leq |f(x) - M|$ .

# Zero Limit



## Theorem 3

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0.$$

*Proof.* The definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0$  is:

For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that

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

Now note that  $||f(x)| - 0| = |f(x) - 0|$ . □

## Theorem 4

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

*Proof.* The triangle inequality gives  $||f(x)| - |M|| \leq |f(x) - M|$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = M$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - M| < \epsilon.$$

# Zero Limit



## Theorem 3

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = 0 \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0.$$

*Proof.* The definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} |f(x)| = 0$  is:

For every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that

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

Now note that  $||f(x)| - 0| = |f(x) - 0|$ . □

## Theorem 4

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

*Proof.* The triangle inequality gives  $||f(x)| - |M|| \leq |f(x) - M|$ .

Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = M$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - M| < \epsilon$ . The same  $\delta$  works for  $|f(x)|$  since  $|f(x) - M| < \epsilon$  implies  $||f(x)| - |M|| \leq |f(x) - M| < \epsilon$ . □ ↻ 🔍

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 1



Consider the signum function,  $\text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 1



Consider the signum function,  $\operatorname{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{sgn}(x) = L$ .



# Non-existence of Limit: Example 1



Consider the signum function,  $\operatorname{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{sgn}(x) = L$ . Consider  $\epsilon = 1$ .

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 1



Consider the signum function,  $\operatorname{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{sgn}(x) = L$ . Consider  $\epsilon = 1$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x| < \delta \implies |\operatorname{sgn}(x) - L| < 1$ .

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 1



Consider the signum function,  $\operatorname{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{sgn}(x) = L$ . Consider  $\epsilon = 1$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x| < \delta \implies |\operatorname{sgn}(x) - L| < 1$ .

Then  $|\operatorname{sgn}(\delta/2) - L| < 1$  and  $|\operatorname{sgn}(-\delta/2) - L| < 1$ .

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 1



Consider the signum function,  $\text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \text{sgn}(x) = L$ . Consider  $\epsilon = 1$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x| < \delta \implies |\text{sgn}(x) - L| < 1$ .

Then  $|\text{sgn}(\delta/2) - L| < 1$  and  $|\text{sgn}(-\delta/2) - L| < 1$ .

Therefore, by triangle inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{sgn}(\delta/2) - \text{sgn}(-\delta/2)| &\leq |\text{sgn}(\delta/2) - L| + |\text{sgn}(-\delta/2) - L| \\ &< 1 + 1 = 2. \end{aligned}$$

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 1



Consider the signum function,  $\text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \text{sgn}(x) = L$ . Consider  $\epsilon = 1$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x| < \delta \implies |\text{sgn}(x) - L| < 1$ .

Then  $|\text{sgn}(\delta/2) - L| < 1$  and  $|\text{sgn}(-\delta/2) - L| < 1$ .

Therefore, by triangle inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} |\text{sgn}(\delta/2) - \text{sgn}(-\delta/2)| &\leq |\text{sgn}(\delta/2) - L| + |\text{sgn}(-\delta/2) - L| \\ &< 1 + 1 = 2. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand, using the definition of  $\text{sgn}(x)$ , we have

$$|\text{sgn}(\delta/2) - \text{sgn}(-\delta/2)| = |1 - (-1)| = 2.$$

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 1



Consider the signum function,  $\operatorname{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x > 0. \end{cases}$

Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{sgn}(x) = L$ . Consider  $\epsilon = 1$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x| < \delta \implies |\operatorname{sgn}(x) - L| < 1$ .

Then  $|\operatorname{sgn}(\delta/2) - L| < 1$  and  $|\operatorname{sgn}(-\delta/2) - L| < 1$ .

Therefore, by triangle inequality,

$$\begin{aligned} |\operatorname{sgn}(\delta/2) - \operatorname{sgn}(-\delta/2)| &\leq |\operatorname{sgn}(\delta/2) - L| + |\operatorname{sgn}(-\delta/2) - L| \\ &< 1 + 1 = 2. \end{aligned}$$

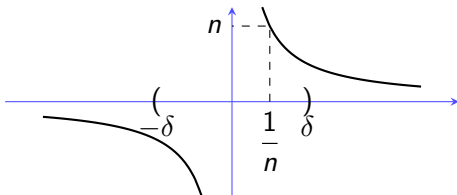
On the other hand, using the definition of  $\operatorname{sgn}(x)$ , we have

$$|\operatorname{sgn}(\delta/2) - \operatorname{sgn}(-\delta/2)| = |1 - (-1)| = 2.$$

This equality contradicts the previous inequality. So  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{sgn}(x)$  does not exist.

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 2

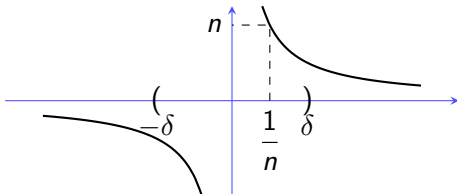
Define  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(x) = 1/x$  when  $x \neq 0$ .



Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = L$  and consider  $\epsilon = 1/2$ .

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 2

Define  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(x) = 1/x$  when  $x \neq 0$ .



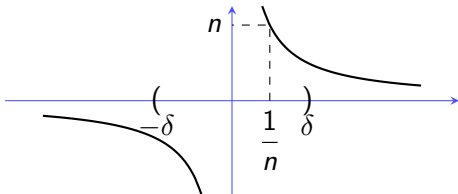
Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = L$  and consider  $\epsilon = 1/2$ .

Now take any  $\delta > 0$ . By the Archimedean property,  $(-\delta, \delta)$  contains points of the form  $1/n$  and  $1/(n+1)$  with  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .



# Non-existence of Limit: Example 2

Define  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by  $f(0) = 0$  and  $f(x) = 1/x$  when  $x \neq 0$ .



Suppose  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = L$  and consider  $\epsilon = 1/2$ .

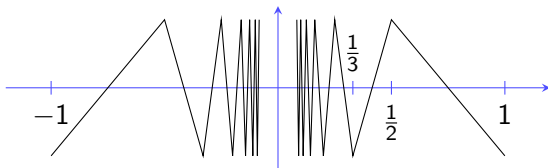
Now take any  $\delta > 0$ . By the Archimedean property,  $(-\delta, \delta)$  contains points of the form  $1/n$  and  $1/(n+1)$  with  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Then  $f(1/(n+1)) - f(1/n) = 1$  and so it is impossible that both  $f(1/(n+1))$  and  $f(1/n)$  are within a distance  $\epsilon = 1/2$  of  $L$ .

# Non-existence of Limit: Example 3

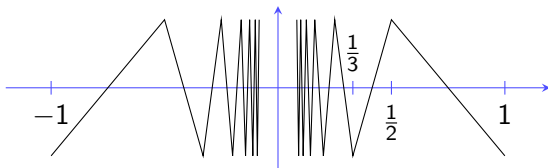


Let  $S: [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by  $S(1/n) = (-1)^n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and let its graph be a straight line on each interval between these points. Further, let  $S(0) = 0$ .



# Non-existence of Limit: Example 3

Let  $S: [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by  $S(1/n) = (-1)^n$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and let its graph be a straight line on each interval between these points. Further, let  $S(0) = 0$ .



In any  $(-\delta, \delta)$  interval,  $S$  takes both the values  $\pm 1$  and so we can argue as in the previous two examples to show that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} S(x)$  does not exist.

# Limit and function value



Let  $f(x) = 0$  when  $x \neq 0$  and  $f(0) = 1$ . We will show that  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$ .

# Limit and function value



Let  $f(x) = 0$  when  $x \neq 0$  and  $f(0) = 1$ . We will show that  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$ .

Consider any  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $\delta = 1$ .

# Limit and function value

Let  $f(x) = 0$  when  $x \neq 0$  and  $f(0) = 1$ . We will show that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0.$$

Consider any  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $\delta = 1$ .

Then

$$0 < |x-0| < \delta \implies x \neq 0 \implies f(x) = 0 \implies |f(x)-0| = 0 < \epsilon.$$

# Limit and function value

Let  $f(x) = 0$  when  $x \neq 0$  and  $f(0) = 1$ . We will show that  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$ .

Consider any  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $\delta = 1$ .

Then

$$0 < |x-0| < \delta \implies x \neq 0 \implies f(x) = 0 \implies |f(x)-0| = 0 < \epsilon.$$

So the limit exists at  $x = 0$  but does not equal  $f(0)$ .

# Table of Contents



① Limits

② Limit Theorems

③ One-sided limits



# Functions with zero limit

## Lemma 5

Let  $f, g$  be real functions with  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = 0$ . Then

- 1  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} c f(x) = 0 \quad (c \in \mathbb{R}),$
- 2  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) + g(x)) = 0,$
- 3  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)g(x) = 0,$
- 4 If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = 1$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x)}{h(x)} = 0.$

# Functions with zero limit

## Lemma 5

Let  $f, g$  be real functions with  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = 0$ . Then

- 1  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} c f(x) = 0 \quad (c \in \mathbb{R}),$
- 2  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) + g(x)) = 0,$
- 3  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)g(x) = 0,$
- 4 If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = 1$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x)}{h(x)} = 0.$

*Proof.*

- 1 This is trivial if  $c = 0$ . Suppose  $c \neq 0$ .

# Functions with zero limit

## Lemma 5

Let  $f, g$  be real functions with  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = 0$ . Then

- 1  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} c f(x) = 0 \quad (c \in \mathbb{R}),$
- 2  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) + g(x)) = 0,$
- 3  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)g(x) = 0,$
- 4 If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = 1$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x)}{h(x)} = 0.$

*Proof.*

- 1 This is trivial if  $c = 0$ . Suppose  $c \neq 0$ . For  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x)| < \epsilon/|c|$ .

## Functions with zero limit

## Lemma 5

Let  $f, g$  be real functions with  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = 0$ . Then

- 1  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} c f(x) = 0 \quad (c \in \mathbb{R}),$
- 2  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) + g(x)) = 0,$
- 3  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)g(x) = 0,$
- 4 If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = 1$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x)}{h(x)} = 0.$

*Proof.*

- 1 This is trivial if  $c = 0$ . Suppose  $c \neq 0$ . For  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x)| < \epsilon/|c|$ . Now,  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$  implies  $|cf(x) - 0| = |c||f(x)| < |c| \frac{\epsilon}{|c|} = \epsilon.$

# Functions with zero limit

*(proof continued)*

② Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

# Functions with zero limit

*(proof continued)*

- ② Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_1$  implies  
 $|f(x)| < \epsilon/2$ .

# Functions with zero limit

*(proof continued)*

② Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_1$  implies  
 $|f(x)| < \epsilon/2$ .

There is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_2$  implies  
 $|g(x)| < \epsilon/2$ .

# Functions with zero limit

(proof continued)

② Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_1$  implies  $|f(x)| < \epsilon/2$ .

There is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_2$  implies  $|g(x)| < \epsilon/2$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 < |x - p| < \delta &\implies |f(x) + g(x) - 0| \leq |f(x)| + |g(x)| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$



# Functions with zero limit



*(proof continued)*

③ Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

# Functions with zero limit

*(proof continued)*

- ③ Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_1$  implies  
 $|f(x)| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$ .

# Functions with zero limit

*(proof continued)*

③ Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_1$  implies  
 $|f(x)| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$ .

There is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_2$  implies  
 $|g(x)| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$ .

# Functions with zero limit

(proof continued)

③ Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_1$  implies  
 $|f(x)| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$ .

There is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_2$  implies  
 $|g(x)| < \sqrt{\epsilon}$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ . Then

$$0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x)g(x)| < \sqrt{\epsilon}\sqrt{\epsilon} = \epsilon.$$

# Functions with zero limit



*(proof continued)*

④ Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

# Functions with zero limit

*(proof continued)*

- ④ Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_1$  implies  
$$\frac{1}{2} < h(x) < \frac{3}{2}.$$

## Functions with zero limit

*(proof continued)*

④ Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_1$  implies  
$$\frac{1}{2} < h(x) < \frac{3}{2}.$$

There is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_2$  implies  
$$|f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

## Functions with zero limit

(proof continued)

4 Take any  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_1$  implies  
 $\frac{1}{2} < h(x) < \frac{3}{2}$ .

There is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  such that  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_2$  implies  
 $|f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$ . Then

$$0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies \left| \frac{f(x)}{h(x)} \right| < \frac{\epsilon/2}{1/2} = \epsilon.$$



# Algebra of Limits



## Theorem 6

Let  $f, g$  be real functions such that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = M$  and

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = N$ . Then

①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} c f(x) = cM \quad (c \in \mathbb{R}),$

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) + g(x)) = M + N,$

③  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - g(x)) = M - N,$

④  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)g(x) = MN,$

⑤  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{M}{N} \quad (N \neq 0).$

# Algebra of Limits

## Theorem 6

Let  $f, g$  be real functions such that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = M$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = N$ . Then

①  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} c f(x) = cM \quad (c \in \mathbb{R}),$

②  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) + g(x)) = M + N,$

③  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x) - g(x)) = M - N,$

④  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x)g(x) = MN,$

⑤  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{M}{N} \quad (N \neq 0).$

We shall use  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} F(x) = K \iff \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (F(x) - K) = 0$  to reduce these to the previous lemma.

# Algebra of Limits

*Proof.*

$$\textcircled{1} \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (c f(x) - c M) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} c (f(x) - M) = 0.$$

(By part 1 of the Lemma)

# Algebra of Limits

*Proof.*

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (c f(x) - c M) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} c (f(x) - M) = 0.$$

(By part 1 of the Lemma)

$\textcircled{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow p} ((f(x) + g(x)) - (M + N)) \\ = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} ((f(x) - M) + (g(x) - N)) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

(By part 2 of the Lemma)

# Algebra of Limits



*Proof.*

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (c f(x) - c M) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} c (f(x) - M) = 0.$$

(By part 1 of the Lemma)

$\textcircled{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow p} ((f(x) + g(x)) - (M + N)) \\ = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} ((f(x) - M) + (g(x) - N)) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

(By part 2 of the Lemma)

$\textcircled{3}$  Combine parts 1 and 2 of this theorem, using  $c = -1$ .

# Algebra of Limits

*(proof continued)*

- ④ We use part 3 of the Lemma and parts 1, 2, 3 of this theorem:

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow p} (f(x)g(x) - MN) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow p} ((f(x) - M)(g(x) - N) \\ &\quad + Mg(x) + Nf(x) - 2MN) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow p} ((f(x) - M)(g(x) - N)) \\ &\quad + \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (Mg(x)) + \lim_{x \rightarrow p} (Nf(x)) - \lim_{x \rightarrow p} 2MN \\ &= 0 + MN + NM - 2MN = 0.\end{aligned}$$

# Algebra of Limits

*(proof continued)*

- 5 Due to part 4 of this theorem, it is enough to prove that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{1}{g(x)} = \frac{1}{N}:$$

# Algebra of Limits

(proof continued)

- 5 Due to part 4 of this theorem, it is enough to prove that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{1}{g(x)} = \frac{1}{N}:$$

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow p} \left( \frac{1}{g(x)} - \frac{1}{N} \right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{N - g(x)}{g(x)} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow p} \frac{1 - g(x)/N}{g(x)/N} \\ &= 0. \quad (\text{Part 4 of the Lemma}) \end{aligned}$$

□



# Examples

1 Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9)$ :

# Examples



- ① Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9)$ :

By (2) of Algebra of Limits, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 9 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + 9.$$

# Examples



- ① Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9)$ :

By (2) of Algebra of Limits, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 9 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + 9.$$

By (4) we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x)(\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4.$$

# Examples



① Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9)$ :

By (2) of Algebra of Limits, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 9 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + 9.$$

By (4) we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x)(\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4.$$

Hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = 4 + 9 = 13$ .

# Examples



- ① Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9)$ :

By (2) of Algebra of Limits, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 9 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + 9.$$

By (4) we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x)(\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4.$$

Hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = 4 + 9 = 13$ .

- ② Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (7x)^9$ :

# Examples



- ① Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9)$ :

By (2) of Algebra of Limits, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 9 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + 9.$$

By (4) we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x)(\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4.$$

Hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = 4 + 9 = 13$ .

- ② Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (7x)^9$ :

By (1) of Algebra of Limits, we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (7x)^9 = 7^9 \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^9$ .

# Examples



- ① Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9)$ :

By (2) of Algebra of Limits, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 9 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + 9.$$

By (4) we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x)(\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4.$$

Hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = 4 + 9 = 13$ .

- ② Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (7x)^9$ :

By (1) of Algebra of Limits, we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (7x)^9 = 7^9 \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^9$ .

By (4) we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^9 = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) \cdots (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x)^9 = 2^9$ .

# Examples



- ① Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9)$ :

By (2) of Algebra of Limits, we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 9 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 + 9.$$

By (4) we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^2 = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x)(\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) = 2 \cdot 2 = 4.$$

Hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x^2 + 9) = 4 + 9 = 13$ .

- ② Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (7x)^9$ :

By (1) of Algebra of Limits, we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (7x)^9 = 7^9 \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^9$ .

By (4) we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^9 = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) \cdots (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x) = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x)^9 = 2^9$ .

Hence  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (7x)^9 = 7^9 2^9 = 14^9$ .



# Examples

3 Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x^2-1}$ :

# Examples

- 3 Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x^2-1}$ :

The limit of the denominator is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 - 1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} 1 = 1^2 - 1 = 0.$$

# Examples



- 3 Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x^2-1}$ :

The limit of the denominator is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 - 1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} 1 = 1^2 - 1 = 0.$$

So we can't apply the rule for ratios. However, we can first simplify the expression and remove this obstacle.

# Examples



- 3 Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x^2-1}$ :

The limit of the denominator is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 - 1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} 1 = 1^2 - 1 = 0.$$

So we can't apply the rule for ratios. However, we can first simplify the expression and remove this obstacle.

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

# Examples



- 3 Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x^2-1}$ :

The limit of the denominator is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 - 1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} 1 = 1^2 - 1 = 0.$$

So we can't apply the rule for ratios. However, we can first simplify the expression and remove this obstacle.

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

The cancellation in the last step is allowed because when we calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1}$  we work with  $x \neq 1$  and hence  $x-1 \neq 0$ .

# Examples



- 3 Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x^2-1}$ :

The limit of the denominator is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 - 1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} 1 = 1^2 - 1 = 0.$$

So we can't apply the rule for ratios. However, we can first simplify the expression and remove this obstacle.

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

The cancellation in the last step is allowed because when we calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1}$  we work with  $x \neq 1$  and hence  $x-1 \neq 0$ .

This simplified form is easily dealt with:

# Examples



- 3 Calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x-1)^2}{x^2-1}$ :

The limit of the denominator is

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 - 1) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2 - \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} 1 = 1^2 - 1 = 0.$$

So we can't apply the rule for ratios. However, we can first simplify the expression and remove this obstacle.

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

The cancellation in the last step is allowed because when we calculate  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1}$  we work with  $x \neq 1$  and hence  $x-1 \neq 0$ .

This simplified form is easily dealt with:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x-1) = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x+1) = 2 \implies \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x-1}{x+1} = \frac{0}{2} = 0.$$

# Sandwich Theorem



## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then

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

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .



# Sandwich Theorem



## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is  $\delta_f > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_f$  implies  $L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

# Sandwich Theorem

## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is  $\delta_f > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_f$  implies  $L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

There is  $\delta_h > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_h$  implies  $L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

# Sandwich Theorem



## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is  $\delta_f > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_f$  implies  $L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

There is  $\delta_h > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_h$  implies  $L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_f, \delta_h, \alpha\}$ . Now, if  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$ , then

# Sandwich Theorem



## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is  $\delta_f > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_f$  implies  $L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

There is  $\delta_h > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_h$  implies  $L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_f, \delta_h, \alpha\}$ . Now, if  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$ , then

- $\delta \leq \delta_f \implies L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon,$

# Sandwich Theorem



## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then

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

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is  $\delta_f > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_f$  implies  $L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

There is  $\delta_h > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_h$  implies  $L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_f, \delta_h, \alpha\}$ . Now, if  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$ , then

- $\delta \leq \delta_f \implies L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon,$
- $\delta \leq \delta_h \implies L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon,$

# Sandwich Theorem



## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then

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

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is  $\delta_f > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_f$  implies  $L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

There is  $\delta_h > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_h$  implies  $L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_f, \delta_h, \alpha\}$ . Now, if  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$ , then

- $\delta \leq \delta_f \implies L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ ,
- $\delta \leq \delta_h \implies L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ ,
- $\delta \leq \alpha \implies f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ .

# Sandwich Theorem



## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is  $\delta_f > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_f$  implies  $L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

There is  $\delta_h > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_h$  implies  $L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_f, \delta_h, \alpha\}$ . Now, if  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$ , then

- $\delta \leq \delta_f \implies L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ ,
- $\delta \leq \delta_h \implies L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ ,
- $\delta \leq \alpha \implies f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ .

Combining these gives  $L - \epsilon < f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

# Sandwich Theorem



## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is  $\delta_f > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_f$  implies  $L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

There is  $\delta_h > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_h$  implies  $L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_f, \delta_h, \alpha\}$ . Now, if  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$ , then

- $\delta \leq \delta_f \implies L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ ,
- $\delta \leq \delta_h \implies L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ ,
- $\delta \leq \alpha \implies f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ .

Combining these gives  $L - \epsilon < f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

Hence  $L - \epsilon < g(x) < L + \epsilon$ .



# Sandwich Theorem

## Theorem 7

Suppose that  $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$  in an interval  $(p - \alpha, p + \alpha)$ , with  $\alpha > 0$ , except perhaps at  $p$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p} h(x) = L$  then  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is  $\delta_f > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_f$  implies  $L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

There is  $\delta_h > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta_h$  implies  $L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

Let  $\delta = \min\{\delta_f, \delta_h, \alpha\}$ . Now, if  $0 < |x - p| < \delta$ , then

- $\delta \leq \delta_f \implies L - \epsilon < f(x) < L + \epsilon$ ,
- $\delta \leq \delta_h \implies L - \epsilon < h(x) < L + \epsilon$ ,
- $\delta \leq \alpha \implies f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ .

Combining these gives  $L - \epsilon < f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x) < L + \epsilon$ .

Hence  $L - \epsilon < g(x) < L + \epsilon$ . Therefore  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} g(x) = L$ . □

# Application of Sandwich Theorem

Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} xS(x)$ , where  $S(x)$  is the 3rd example of non-existence of limits.

# Application of Sandwich Theorem

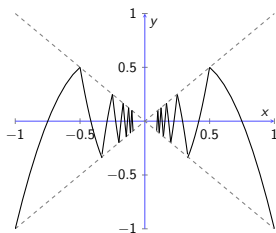


Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} xS(x)$ , where  $S(x)$  is the 3rd example of non-existence of limits. Since  $S(x)$  takes values between  $\pm 1$  it follows that  $xS(x)$  takes values between  $\pm x$ .

# Application of Sandwich Theorem



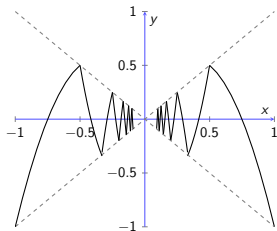
Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} xS(x)$ , where  $S(x)$  is the 3rd example of non-existence of limits. Since  $S(x)$  takes values between  $\pm 1$  it follows that  $xS(x)$  takes values between  $\pm x$ .



# Application of Sandwich Theorem



Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} xS(x)$ , where  $S(x)$  is the 3rd example of non-existence of limits. Since  $S(x)$  takes values between  $\pm 1$  it follows that  $xS(x)$  takes values between  $\pm x$ .



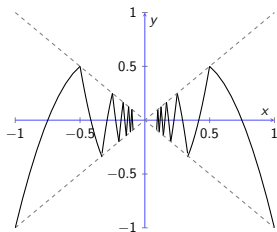
To avoid the  $x > 0$  and  $x < 0$  cases we work with  $|xS(x)|$ :

$$0 \leq |S(x)| \leq 1 \implies 0 \leq |xS(x)| \leq |x|.$$

# Application of Sandwich Theorem



Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} xS(x)$ , where  $S(x)$  is the 3rd example of non-existence of limits. Since  $S(x)$  takes values between  $\pm 1$  it follows that  $xS(x)$  takes values between  $\pm x$ .



To avoid the  $x > 0$  and  $x < 0$  cases we work with  $|xS(x)|$ :

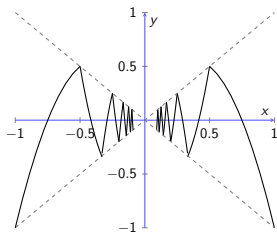
$$0 \leq |S(x)| \leq 1 \implies 0 \leq |xS(x)| \leq |x|.$$

Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |x| = 0$ , the Sandwich Theorem gives  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |xS(x)| = 0$ .

# Application of Sandwich Theorem



Consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} xS(x)$ , where  $S(x)$  is the 3rd example of non-existence of limits. Since  $S(x)$  takes values between  $\pm 1$  it follows that  $xS(x)$  takes values between  $\pm x$ .



To avoid the  $x > 0$  and  $x < 0$  cases we work with  $|xS(x)|$ :

$$0 \leq |S(x)| \leq 1 \implies 0 \leq |xS(x)| \leq |x|.$$

Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |x| = 0$ , the Sandwich Theorem gives  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |xS(x)| = 0$ .

Hence,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} xS(x) = 0$ .

# Limit of square root function

Let  $a > 0$  and consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{x}$ .



# Limit of square root function



Let  $a > 0$  and consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{x}$ .

The natural guess for this limit is  $\sqrt{a}$ . To confirm this, we calculate as follows:

# Limit of square root function



Let  $a > 0$  and consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{x}$ .

The natural guess for this limit is  $\sqrt{a}$ . To confirm this, we calculate as follows:

$$0 \leq |\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}| = \left| \frac{x - a}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{a}} \right| \leq \frac{|x - a|}{\sqrt{a}}.$$

# Limit of square root function

Let  $a > 0$  and consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{x}$ .

The natural guess for this limit is  $\sqrt{a}$ . To confirm this, we calculate as follows:

$$0 \leq |\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}| = \left| \frac{x - a}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{a}} \right| \leq \frac{|x - a|}{\sqrt{a}}.$$

We have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{|x - a|}{\sqrt{a}} = 0$ .

# Limit of square root function



Let  $a > 0$  and consider  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sqrt{x}$ .

The natural guess for this limit is  $\sqrt{a}$ . To confirm this, we calculate as follows:

$$0 \leq |\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}| = \left| \frac{x - a}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{a}} \right| \leq \frac{|x - a|}{\sqrt{a}}.$$

We have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{|x - a|}{\sqrt{a}} = 0$ .

Hence, by the Sandwich Theorem,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} |\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}| = 0$ .

# Table of Contents



① Limits

② Limit Theorems

③ One-sided limits

# Left and right limits



We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < x - p < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

# Left and right limits



We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < x - p < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The quantity  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x)$  is called the **right-hand limit** of  $f$  at  $p$ .

# Left and right limits



We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p+} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < x - p < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The quantity  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p+} f(x)$  is called the **right-hand limit** of  $f$  at  $p$ .

We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p-} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < p - x < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .



# Left and right limits



We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < x - p < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The quantity  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x)$  is called the **right-hand limit** of  $f$  at  $p$ .

We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < p - x < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The quantity  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x)$  is called the **left-hand limit** of  $f$  at  $p$ .

# Left and right limits



We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < x - p < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

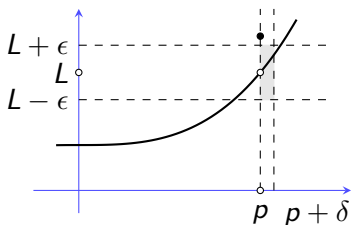
The quantity  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x)$  is called the **right-hand limit** of  $f$  at  $p$ .

We say that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a corresponding  $\delta > 0$  such that  $0 < p - x < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

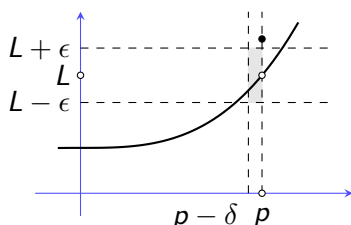
The quantity  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x)$  is called the **left-hand limit** of  $f$  at  $p$ .

The right-hand limit at  $p$  can be considered if there is an  $\alpha > 0$  such that  $(p, p + \alpha)$  is in the domain of  $f$ . The left-hand limit needs an  $\alpha > 0$  such that  $(p - \alpha, p)$  is in the domain.

# Visualising one-sided limits



*Right-hand Limit*



*Left-hand Limit*

# One-sided and two-sided limits

## Theorem 8

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

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

# One-sided and two-sided limits

## Theorem 8

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

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

# One-sided and two-sided limits

## Theorem 8

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The same  $\delta$  works for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

# One-sided and two-sided limits



## Theorem 8

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The same  $\delta$  works for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

( $\impliedby$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

# One-sided and two-sided limits



## Theorem 8

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The same  $\delta$  works for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

( $\impliedby$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  s.t.  $0 < x - p < \delta_1 \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .



# One-sided and two-sided limits



## Theorem 8

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The same  $\delta$  works for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

( $\impliedby$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  s.t.  $0 < x - p < \delta_1 \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

There is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  s.t.  $0 < p - x < \delta_2 \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

# One-sided and two-sided limits



## Theorem 8

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The same  $\delta$  works for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

( $\impliedby$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  s.t.  $0 < x - p < \delta_1 \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

There is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  s.t.  $0 < p - x < \delta_2 \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

Then  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$  works for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$ :

# One-sided and two-sided limits

## Theorem 8

$\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$  if and only if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

*Proof.* ( $\implies$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $0 < |x - p| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

The same  $\delta$  works for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^+} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p^-} f(x) = L$ .

( $\impliedby$ ): Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is a  $\delta_1 > 0$  s.t.  $0 < x - p < \delta_1 \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

There is a  $\delta_2 > 0$  s.t.  $0 < p - x < \delta_2 \implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon$ .

Then  $\delta = \min\{\delta_1, \delta_2\}$  works for  $\lim_{x \rightarrow p} f(x) = L$ :

$$\begin{aligned} 0 < |x - p| < \delta &\implies 0 < x - p < \delta \text{ or } 0 < p - x < \delta \\ &\implies 0 < x - p < \delta_1 \text{ or } 0 < p - x < \delta_2 \\ &\implies |f(x) - L| < \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

# An Example

Consider the Heaviside step function  $H(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0. \end{cases}$

# An Example



Consider the Heaviside step function  $H(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0. \end{cases}$

We calculate the one-sided limits at zero:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} H(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} 1 = 1,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} H(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} 0 = 0.$$

# An Example



Consider the Heaviside step function  $H(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x < 0, \\ 1 & \text{if } x \geq 0. \end{cases}$

We calculate the one-sided limits at zero:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} H(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} 1 = 1,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} H(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} 0 = 0.$$

Since the one-sided limits are not equal,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} H(x)$  does not exist.

# An Exercise



Confirm that the Algebra of Limits and the Sandwich Theorem also hold for one-sided limits.