

Chapter 3: Functions on \mathbb{R} .

3.1: Two-sided limits.

DF1. Let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, let I be an open interval which contains a , and let f be a real function defined on I except possibly at a . Then we say that $f(x)$ converges (approaches) to L as x approaches a , and write $\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L\right)$ iff $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$ (which in general depends on ε, f, I and a) such that

$$* \quad \underbrace{0 < |x-a| < \delta \implies |f(x)-L| < \varepsilon}_{\text{positively}} \implies a-\delta < x < a+\delta \implies L-\varepsilon < f(x) < L+\varepsilon$$

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

RMK:

1. ε represents the maximal error allowed in the approximation $f(x)$ to L .

2. According to DF1, to show that a function has a limit, we must begin with a general $\varepsilon > 0$ and describe how to choose a δ which satisfies $*$

exp: let $f(x) = mx + b$ where $m, b \in \mathbb{R}$. prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a), \forall a \in \mathbb{R}$.

proof:

Case 1: $m=0 \rightarrow f(x) = b \rightarrow \underbrace{f(a)}_L = b$.

$$|f(x) - L| = |b - b| = 0 < \varepsilon \text{ for all } x. \quad \checkmark$$

Case 2 \rightarrow

Case 2: $m \neq 0$

given $\epsilon > 0$, set $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{|m|}$

IF $|x-a| < \delta$, then $|f(x) - f(a)| = |(mx+b) - (ma+b)|$

$$= |m| |x-a|$$

$$< |m| \delta = \epsilon$$

$$\text{Thus, by def 1 } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$$

Thus, by def 1 $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$

exp 2: IF $f(x) = x \sin \frac{1}{x}$, $x \neq 0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$

proof: $f(x) = x \sin \frac{1}{x}$, $L=0$, $a=0$

let $\epsilon > 0$, set $\delta = \epsilon$

$0 < \delta \leq \epsilon$

IF $|x-0| < \delta$, then $|f(x) - L| = |x \sin \frac{1}{x} - 0|$

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

$$= |x| \left| \sin \frac{1}{x} \right| < |x|$$

$$< \delta$$

$$< \epsilon$$

$$< \epsilon$$

Thus, by def 1 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0$

exp 3: If $f(x) = x^2 + x - 3$, prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = -1$?

proof: $f(x) = x^2 + x - 3$, $a = 1$, $L = -1$

let $\epsilon > 0$, we need to find a $\delta > 0$ s.t. $0 < |x-1| < \delta \rightarrow |(x^2+x-3)-(-1)| < \epsilon$

i.e. $0 < |x-1| < \delta \rightarrow |x+2||x-1| < \epsilon$

$|f-L| < \delta|x+2| \rightarrow \delta = \frac{\epsilon}{|x+2|}$

أولاً نحتاج أن نحدد δ بحيث $|f-L| < \epsilon$. x determined by δ and vice versa

If $0 < \delta \leq 1$ then $|x-1| < \delta \rightarrow 0 < x < 2$ $-1 < x-1 < 1 \rightarrow 0 < x < 2$

so $|x+2| \leq |x| + 2$
 $< 2 + 2 = 4$

ليس يجب أن نأخذ δ في الاعتبار
 في البداية

Set $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{4} \rightarrow \delta = \min\{1, \frac{\epsilon}{4}\}$

It follows that if $|x-1| < \delta$, then $|f(x)-L| = |x-1||x+2|$

$< 4|x-1|$

$< 4\delta$

so to finish we need to show $4\delta < \epsilon$ since $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{4}$

Thus, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = -1$

Thm 1: If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists, then it is unique, i.e. if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_1$ and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_2 \quad \text{then} \quad L_1 = L_2.$$

Proof: suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_1$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_2$

let $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\exists \delta_1, \delta_2 > 0$ s.t. if $|x-a| < \delta_1$ then $|f(x) - L_1| < \varepsilon$
and if $|x-a| < \delta_2$ then $|f(x) - L_2| < \varepsilon$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{set } \delta = \min \{ \delta_1, \delta_2 \} \quad \text{then} \quad |L_1 - L_2| &= |L_1 - f(x) + f(x) - L_2| \\ &\leq |f(x) - L_1| + |f(x) - L_2| \\ &< \varepsilon + \varepsilon \\ &< 2\varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

i.e., $|L_1 - L_2| < 2\varepsilon, \forall \varepsilon > 0$

$$\underline{L_1 = L_2} \quad \left(|a| < \varepsilon, \forall \varepsilon > 0 \text{ then } a = 0 \right)$$

uniqueness \square

The next result shows that even when a function f is defined at a , $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$, in general independent of the value of $f(a)$.

lemma: let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, let I be an open interval which contains a , and let f, g be real functions defined $\forall x \in I$ except possibly at a .

If $f(x) = g(x), \forall x \in I \setminus \{a\}$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ exists and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$.

$$\frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} = x + 2 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{2\}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} g(x) = \text{exist} = 4 \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 4$$

exp: prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(x)$ exists, if $g(x) = \frac{x^3 + x^2 - x - 1}{x^2 - 1} = \frac{x^2(x+1) - (x+1)}{x^2 - 1}$
 $= \frac{(x+1)(x^2 - 1)}{x^2 - 1}$

set $f(x) = x+1$, observe $g(x) = f(x)$, $x \neq \pm 1$ $= x+1, x \neq \pm 1$

By the last lemma, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(x)$ exists.

And $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 2$ \square

\Rightarrow **Thm 2: sequential characterization of limits.**

let $a \in \mathbb{R}$, let I be an open interval contains a , and let f be a real function defined $\forall x \in I$ except possibly at a . Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ iff $f(x_n) \rightarrow L$

as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for every sequence $x_n \in I \setminus \{a\}$ which converges to a as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$x_n \rightarrow a$ then $f(x_n) \rightarrow L$.

proof:

\Rightarrow suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$, then given $\varepsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t

$0 < |x - a| < \delta \implies |f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$

let $x_n \in I \setminus \{a\}$ s.t $x_n \rightarrow a$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

then \exists an $N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t $n \geq N \implies |x_n - a| < \delta$

Since $x_n \neq a$, it follows from δ that $|f(x_n) - L| < \varepsilon$, $\forall n \geq N$

Therefore, $f(x_n) \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

\rightarrow

Conti.

Proof: \Leftarrow Conversely, suppose that $f(x_n) \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for every sequence

$x_n \in I \setminus \{a\}$ which converges to a (i.e., $x_n \rightarrow a$).

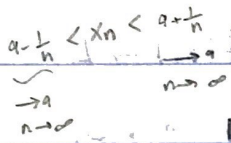
Suppose that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \neq L$, then there is an $\epsilon > 0$ (say ϵ_0)

such that the implication $(0 < |x-a| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x)-L| < \epsilon)$

does not hold for any $\delta > 0$.

Thus, for each $\delta = \frac{1}{n}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, \exists a point $x_n \in I$:

$0 < |x_n - a| < \frac{1}{n}$ and $|f(x_n) - L| \geq \epsilon_0$



Now the first condition and the squeeze theorem

$x_n \neq a$, $x_n \rightarrow a$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ so by hypothesis

$f(x_n) \rightarrow L$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

In particular, $|f(x_n) - L| < \epsilon_0$ for large n .

Which contradicts the second condition

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

RMK: To show that the limit of a function f does not exist as $x \rightarrow a$

using Thm 2, we need to find two sequences converging to a

(say $x_n \rightarrow a$ and $y_n \rightarrow a$) whose images under f have different limits.

i.e., $f(x_n) \rightarrow L_1$ and $f(y_n) \rightarrow L_2$ where $L_1 \neq L_2$.

exp 5. prove that $f(x) = \begin{cases} \sin \frac{1}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$ has no limit as $x \rightarrow 0$.

for proving this we will use the sequential criterion for limit. Let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $(y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be two sequences such that $x_n \rightarrow 0$ and $y_n \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. We will show that $f(x_n) \rightarrow 1$ and $f(y_n) \rightarrow -1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Since the limit of $f(x)$ as $x \rightarrow 0$ must be unique, this shows that $f(x)$ does not have a limit as $x \rightarrow 0$.

$$\rightarrow f(x_n) = \sin\left(\frac{(4n+1)\pi}{2}\right) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + 2n\pi\right) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 1$$

$$\therefore f(x_n) = 1 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\rightarrow f(y_n) = \sin\left(\frac{(4n+3)\pi}{2}\right) = \sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{2} + 2n\pi\right) = \sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}\right) = -1$$

$$\therefore f(y_n) = -1 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $f(x_n) \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

and $f(y_n) \rightarrow -1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$

Thus, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ does not exist by Thm 2. \square

initial guess \neq final guess if x_n converges to 0 use 2-seq. crit. \leftarrow

$$y_n = \frac{1}{2n\pi + \frac{\pi}{2}} \rightarrow 0, \quad x_n = \frac{1}{2n\pi} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{initial guess} \leftarrow$$

$$f(x_n) = \sin(2n\pi) = 0$$

$$f(y_n) = \sin\left(2n + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 1$$

Thm 3: suppose that $a \in \mathbb{R}$, that I is an open interval which contains a and that f, g are real functions defined $\forall x \in I$ except possibly at a . If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ converges as $x \rightarrow a$ (i.e. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$ exist). Then so do $(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$, $(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$, $(\alpha f)(x) = \alpha f(x)$ and $(\frac{f}{g})(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ (When $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \neq 0$). In fact,

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

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

$$iii. \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (fg)(x) = \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \right) \left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \right).$$

$$iv. \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \left(\frac{f}{g} \right)(x) = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)}, \quad g(x) \neq 0.$$

Proof:

$$(i) \text{ let } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$$

If $x_n \in I \setminus \{a\}$ s.t. $x_n \rightarrow a$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, By Thm 2

$$f(x_n) \rightarrow L \text{ and } g(x_n) \rightarrow M \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\text{By (Thm 2), } (f+g)(x_n) = f(x_n) + g(x_n) \rightarrow L + M \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\text{By Thm 2, } \lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f+g)(x) = L + M$$

$$\downarrow = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) \quad \square$$

→

Def 1 w!
Thm 2 3)

OR, By $(\epsilon-\delta)$ def'n :

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L \text{ means given } \epsilon > 0, \exists \delta_1 > 0 \text{ s.t. } |x-a| < \delta_1 \rightarrow |f(x)-L| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M \text{ means } \exists \delta_2 > 0 \text{ s.t. } |x-a| < \delta_2 \rightarrow |g(x)-M| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$$

$$\text{set } \delta = \min \{ \delta_1, \delta_2 \}$$

$$\begin{aligned} |x-a| < \delta &\Rightarrow |(f+g)(x) - (L+M)| \\ &\leq |f(x)-L| + |g(x)-M| \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} \\ &< \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

ii.

Case 1: $\alpha = 0$ trivial $\alpha f(x) = 0 \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow a$

Case 2: $\alpha \neq 0$ (show $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \alpha f(x) = \alpha L$)

since $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$, given $\epsilon > 0$, $\exists \delta > 0$ s.t.

$$|x-a| < \delta \rightarrow |f(x)-L| < \frac{\epsilon}{|\alpha|}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now, } |x-a| < \delta &\Rightarrow |\alpha f(x) - \alpha L| \\ &= |\alpha| |f(x)-L| \\ &< |\alpha| \frac{\epsilon}{|\alpha|} = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

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

Thm 4: squeeze Theorem for functions.

suppose that $a \in \mathbb{R}$, that I is an open interval which contains a , and that f, g, h are real functions defined $\forall x \in I$ except possibly at a .

i. If $g(x) \leq h(x) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in I \setminus \{a\}$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$
then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x)$ exists and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L$

ii. If $|g(x)| \leq M$ for all $x \in I \setminus \{a\}$ (ie, g is bdd) and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$
then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)g(x) = 0$

Thm 5: comparison Theorem for functions.

suppose that $a \in \mathbb{R}$, that I is an open interval which contains a , and that f, g are real functions defined $\forall x \in I$ except possibly at a . If f and g have limits as $x \rightarrow a$ and $f(x) \leq g(x) \forall x \in I \setminus \{a\}$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) \leq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)$

RMK: we shall refer to thm 5 as "taking the limit of an inequality".

RMK: The limit Thms (Thm 3, 4, 5) allow us to prove that limits exist without using $(\epsilon-\delta)$ definition.

exp: prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x-1}{3x+1} = 0$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x-1) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (3x+1) = 4$$

Hence, by Thm 3 (iv) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x-1}{3x+1} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x-1)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (3x+1)} = \frac{0}{4} = 0$

→ Think by $(\epsilon-\delta)$ def'n ?

given $\epsilon > 0$ and set $\delta = \min\{1, \frac{7\epsilon}{8}\}$

If $0 < |x-1| < \delta$ then $\left| \frac{x-1}{3x+1} - 0 \right|$

$$= \frac{|x-1|}{|3x+1|}$$

Since $0 < |x-1| < \delta \leq 1$ and $0 < x < 2$, we have $3 < 3x+1 < 7$.

$$\frac{|x-1|}{|3x+1|} < \frac{\delta}{7} < \frac{\frac{7\epsilon}{8}}{7} < \frac{\epsilon}{8} < \epsilon$$

Therefore, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x-1}{3x+1} = 0$.