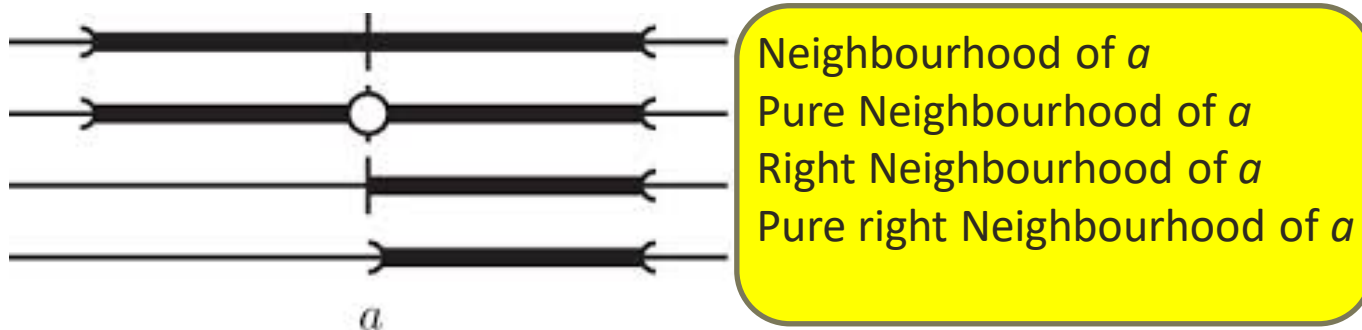


# Limits

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 8^+} \frac{1}{x-8} = \infty$$
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 5^+} \frac{1}{x-5} = \infty$$

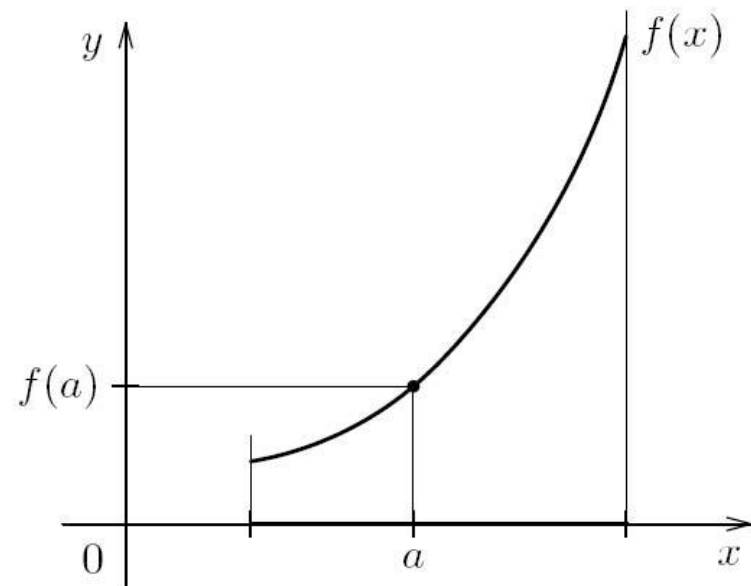
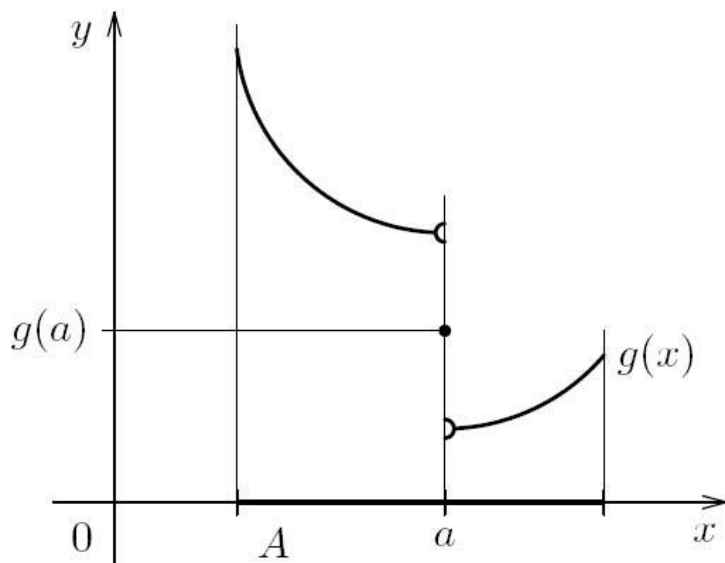
# Neighbourhood

- For point  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and number  $\delta > 0$  we define  $\delta$ - **neighbourhood** of a point  $a$  as interval  $U_\delta(a) = (a - \delta, a + \delta)$ . Sometimes it is not necessary to specify  $\delta$ , then the Neighbourhood  $a$  is denoted by  $U(a)$  and we understand it as a small open interval containing  $a$ . The terms left neighborhood, right Neighbourhood and pure Neighbourhood of the point  $a$  are also introduced (as  $U(a) - \{a\}$ )



# Continuity

- **Definition:** Let  $y = f(x)$  be a function defined on the open interval  $I$  and point  $a \in I$ . „ We say that  $f$  is **continuous** at point  $a$  if for **any accuracy**  $\varepsilon > 0$  it holds that all  $x$  from some Neighbourhood of point  $a$  satisfy:  $f(x) \doteq f(a) (\pm\varepsilon)$ “
- **Comment:** we also define the continuity from the right for the right neighborhood, (or from the left for the left neighborhood).



# Definition of limits

**Definition:** We say that the function  $f(x)$  has a **limit** at  $x_0$  equal to the number  $\alpha$  if "for any accuracy  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a pure **neighbourhood**  $U_\delta(x_0)$  such that all  $x$  from this neighbourhood satisfy:  $f(x) \approx \alpha$  (with the accuracy  $\varepsilon$ )".

We write:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \alpha$$

**Comment:**

The limit value at point  $x_0$  does not depend on  $f(x_0)$ . If the function  $f(x)$  is **continuous** at the point  $x_0$ , then of course it has a limit at this point and it holds that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$ .

**Problem:** Find the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x+5}{x+1}$

**Solution:** The function  $f(x) = \frac{x+5}{x+1}$  is continuous in all points of its domain  $Df = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{-1\}$ .

$$\text{So } \lim_{x \rightarrow 3} f(x) = f(3) = \frac{3+5}{3+1} = \frac{8}{4} = 2.$$

<http://demonstrations.wolfram.com/LimitOfAFunctionAtAPoint/>

# Limit calculation

The function can have a limit even at a point where it is not defined!

**Problem:** Find the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$

**Solution:**  $Df = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$ . So  $f(x)$  is not continuous at  $x_0 = 1$ . We determine several function values around the point  $x_0 = 1$ .

x	1.1	0.9	1.01	0.99	1.001	0.999
f(x)	2.1	1.9	2.01	1.99	2.001	1.999

**Conclusion:** The values of the function are „close to the number 2,, for  $x$  „close to 1 " .

**Theorem:** If in some  $U_\delta(x_0)$  holds  $\forall x \neq x_0: f(x) = g(x)$ , then the function  $f(x)$  has a limit at point  $x_0$  if and only if the function  $g(x)$  has a limit and

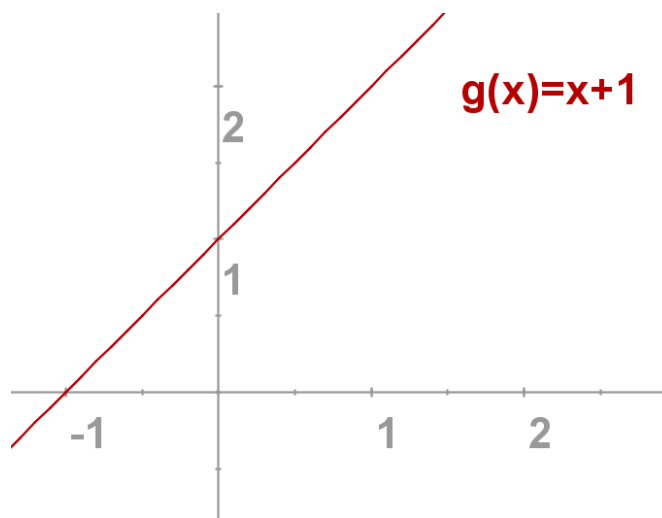
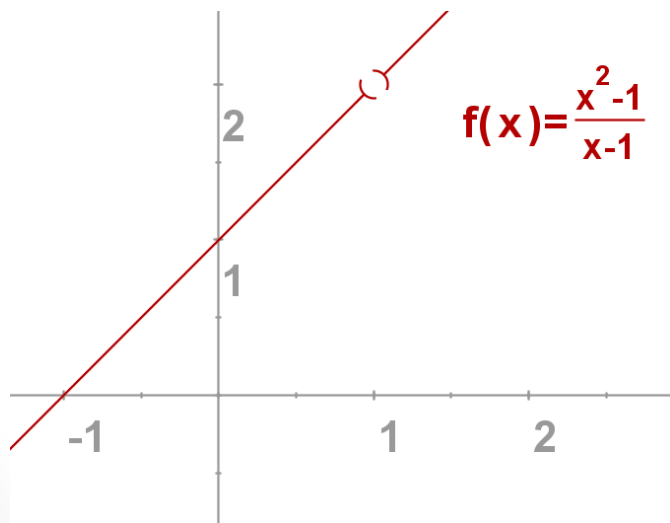
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x)$$

# Limit of the function, example

**Problem:** Determine the limit from the previous example using the theorem.

**Solution:** For all  $x \neq 1$ , we have:  $\frac{x^2-1}{x-1} = \frac{(x-1)(x+1)}{(x-1)} = x + 1$ .

So  $f(x)$  and  $g(x) = x + 1$  meet the assumptions of the theorem, and therefore  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^2-1}{x-1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x + 1) = 1 + 1 = 2$ .



# One-Sided Limits

If we replace the neighbourhood of  $x_0$  with the left neighbourhood  $U_{\delta}^{-}(x_0)$  or the right neighbourhood  $U_{\delta}^{+}(x_0)$ , we get the definition of the limit **from below** or **from above**. We write:

**Problem:**

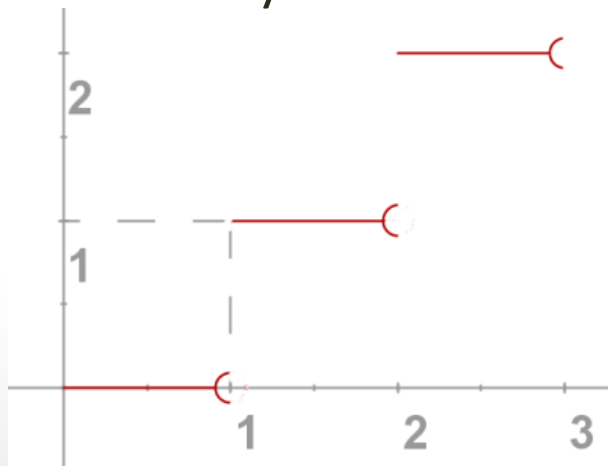
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^-} f(x), \text{ or } \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0^+} f(x)$$

Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$  for the floor function  $f(x) = \lfloor x \rfloor$  defined as

$$\lfloor x \rfloor := n \in \mathbb{N}: n \leq x \wedge n + 1 > x.$$

**Solution:** There is no limit; for  $x$  "to the right of point  $x_0 = 1$ ", it holds:  $\lfloor x \rfloor = 1$ , but to the left of point  $x_0 = 1$ , it is  $\lfloor x \rfloor = 0$ .

There are only one-sided limits  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 1$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = 0$ .

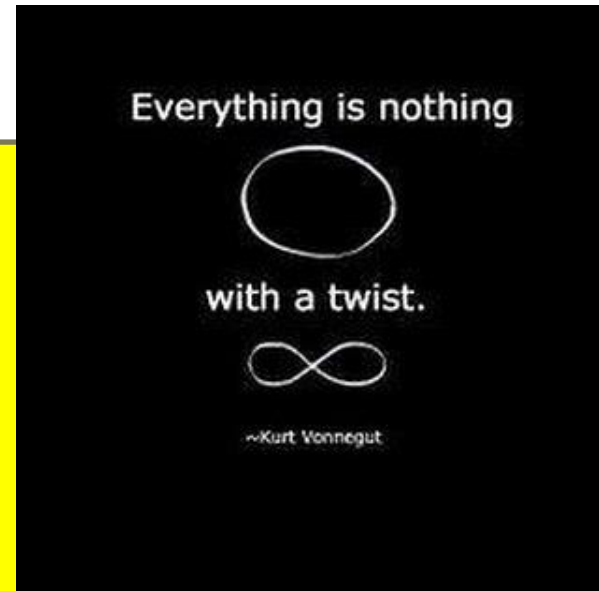


# Augmented real numbers

We define the set  $\mathbb{R}^* = \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty, -\infty\}$ . The symbols  $\infty, -\infty$  stand for **infinity and negative infinity**.

We define for  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ :

- $a + \infty = \infty + a = \infty$
- $\infty + \infty = \infty$
- $a - \infty = -\infty + a = -\infty$
- $-\infty - \infty = -\infty$
- $\pm \infty \cdot \infty = \pm \infty$
- $\infty \cdot (\pm \infty) = \pm \infty$
- $-\infty \cdot (-\infty) = \infty$
- $\frac{a}{\pm \infty} = 0$
- $a \cdot \infty = \pm \infty$  (" + " for  $a > 0$ , " - " for  $a < 0$ )
- $a \cdot (-\infty) = \pm \infty$  (" - " for  $a > 0$ , " + " for  $a < 0$ )



Some operations **are not defined**, e.g.  $\infty - \infty, 0 \cdot \infty, \frac{\infty}{\infty}, \frac{0}{0}$



# Limit at the infinity

We say that the function  $f(x)$  has a **limit at infinity** equal to  $\alpha$ , if for any accuracy  $\varepsilon$  it holds for **all** "sufficiently large"  $x: f(x) \approx \alpha$  (with precision  $\varepsilon$ ).

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f(x) = \alpha$$

The limit at the point  $-\infty$  is defined analogously.

**Comment:** The definition can also be applied to the case  $\alpha = \pm\infty$

**Problem:** Find the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{x+5}$

**Solution:** First let's try to substitute „large  $x$ “ into the function.

x	5	95	995	9995	99995
f(x)	0,3	0,03	0,003	0,0003	0,00003

We see that the function values go to zero, so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{x+5} = \frac{3}{\infty} = 0$ .

<http://demonstrations.wolfram.com/InfiniteLimitAtInfinity/>

# Infinite limits

Limits  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$  of the type  $\frac{a}{0}$ , where  $a \neq 0$ , satisfy:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = +\infty, \text{ if } \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} > 0 \text{ in a neighbourhood of } x_0,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = -\infty, \text{ if } \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} < 0 \text{ in a neighbourhood of } x_0,$$

else the limit doesn't exist.

**Problem:** Investigate all infinite limits of the function  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x-2}$

**Solution:** Limits at infinite points:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x-2} = \frac{1}{\infty} = 0, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \frac{1}{x-2} = \frac{1}{-\infty} = 0$$

As  $D(f) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{2\}$ , we will also try to calculate the limit at the point  $x_0 = 2$ :

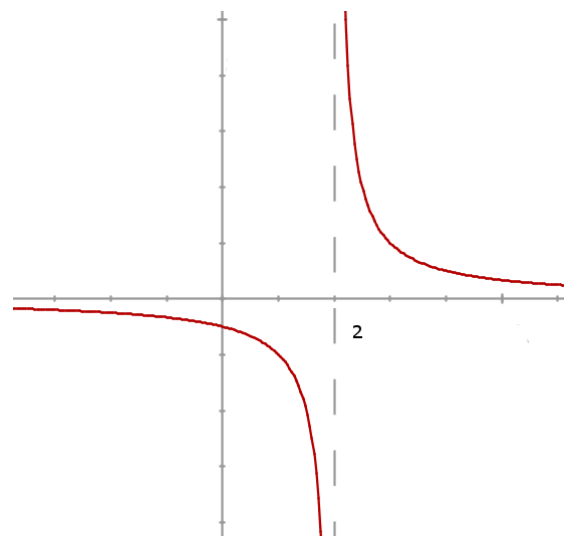
$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{1}{x-2}$  doesn't exist, as  $\frac{1}{x-2} > 0$  for  $x > 2$ , but  $\frac{1}{x-2} < 0$  for  $x < 2$ .

The function has just one-sided limits there:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2-} \frac{1}{x-2} = -\infty$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2+} \frac{1}{x-2} = +\infty$

# Infinite limits and the graph

- If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0 \pm} f(x) = \pm\infty$ , we say that the function has a **vertical asymptote** at  $x_0$ ; the graph is approaching the line  $x = x_0$  in the left (or right) neighbourhood of  $x_0$ .
- If  $\lim_{\{x \rightarrow \infty\}} f(x) = \alpha$ , (or  $\lim_{\{x \rightarrow -\infty\}} f(x) = \alpha$ ), we say that the function has a **horizontal asymptote**; the graph is approaching the line  $y = \alpha$  on the right (or left) side.

**Example:** The function from the previous slide  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x-2}$  has a vertical asymptote  $x = 2$  and horizontal asymptote  $y = 0$ .



# Limit of the sequence

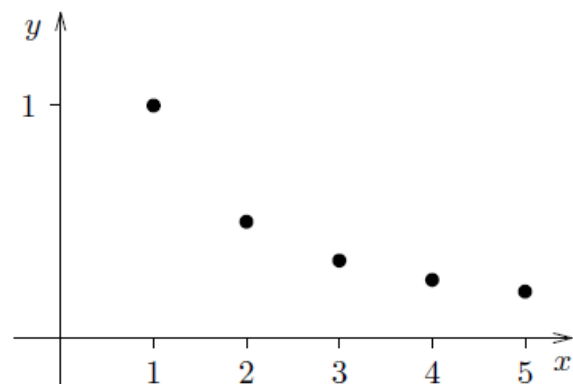
In a similar way as the function limit at the infinity, we define the limit of the sequence  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ :

**Definition:** We say that  $\{a_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  has a **limit at infinity** equal to  $\alpha$ , if for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  it holds for all "**sufficiently large**  $n$ :  $a_n \approx \alpha$  (with precision  $\varepsilon$ )". We write

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \alpha$$

Such a sequence is called **convergent** in the case of finite  $\alpha$ . If there is no finite limit  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n$ , then the sequence is called **divergent**.

**Example:** The picture shows several terms of the convergent sequence  $\left\{\frac{1}{n}\right\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$



<http://demonstrations.wolfram.com/LimitsOfSequences/>

# Rules for limits

If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = A$ ,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} g(x) = B$  for  $x_0, A, B \in \mathbb{R}^*$ , then:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} (f(x) \pm g(x)) = A \pm B,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) \cdot g(x) = A \cdot B,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) / g(x) = A/B$$

if the right-hand side makes sense in  $\mathbb{R}^*$ .

**Problem:**

Find the limit  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2 + 5x + 1}{3 - x^2}$ .

**Solution:**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2 + 5x + 1}{3 - x^2} = \frac{\infty}{-\infty}$ , but the expression on the left is not defined. For  $x \neq 0$ , we can simplify the fraction:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2 + 5x + 1}{3 - x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2x^2 + 5x + 1}{3 - x^2} \cdot \frac{\frac{1}{x^2}}{\frac{1}{x^2}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{2 + \frac{5}{x} + \frac{1}{x^2}}{\frac{3}{x^2} - 1} = \frac{2 + 0 + 0}{0 - 1} = -2.$$

# Limit of a composite function

**Theorem:** If  $F(x) = f(\varphi(x))$  and  $f(x)$  is **continuous** at  $a$ , where  $a = \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \varphi(x)$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} F(x) = f\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} \varphi(x)\right) = f(a)$$

**Example:**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \sin\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = \sin\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)\right) = \sin 0 = 0.$

**Comment:**

To compute limits of the type  $\infty - \infty$ ,  $0 \cdot (\pm\infty)$ , etc., we often expand the expression to get a fraction.

**Example:**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{x+1} - \sqrt{x}) = \infty - \infty = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (\sqrt{x+1} - \sqrt{x}) \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x+1} + \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x+1} + \sqrt{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x+1-x}{\sqrt{x+1} + \sqrt{x}} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+1} + \sqrt{x}} = 1/\infty = 0$