# **Limits and Their Properties**







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# Objectives

- Determine continuity at a point and continuity on an open interval.
- Determine one-sided limits and continuity on a closed interval.
- Use properties of continuity.
- Understand and use the Intermediate Value Theorem.

In mathematics, the term *continuous* has much the same meaning as it has in everyday usage.

Informally, to say that a function f is continuous at x = c means that there is no interruption in the graph of f at c.

That is, its graph is unbroken at *c*, and there are no holes, jumps, or gaps.

Figure 1.26 identifies three values of *x* at which the graph of *f* is *not* continuous. At all other points in the interval (*a*, *b*), the graph of *f* is uninterrupted and **continuous**.



Three conditions exist for which the graph of f is not continuous at x = c.

Figure 1.26

In Figure 1.26, it appears that continuity at x = c can be destroyed by any one of the following conditions.

- **1.** The function is not defined at x = c.
- **2.** The limit of f(x) does not exist at x = c.
- **3.** The limit of f(x) exists at x = c, but it is not equal to f(c).

If *none* of the three conditions is true, the function *f* is called **continuous at** *c*, as indicated in the following important definition.

#### **Definition of Continuity**

Continuity at a Point A function f is continuous at c when these three conditions are met.

- 1. f(c) is defined.
- 2.  $\lim_{x \to c} f(x)$  exists.
- $3. \lim_{x \to c} f(x) = f(c)$

#### Continuity on an Open Interval

A function is continuous on an open interval (a, b) when the function is continuous at each point in the interval. A function that is continuous on the entire real number line  $(-\infty, \infty)$  is everywhere continuous.

Consider an open interval / that contains a real number c.

If a function *f* is defined on *I* (except possibly at *c*), and *f* is not continuous at *c*, then *f* is said to have a **discontinuity** at *c*.

Discontinuities fall into two categories: **removable** and **nonremovable**.

A discontinuity at *c* is called removable when *f* can be made continuous by appropriately defining (or redefining f(c)).

For instance, the functions shown in Figures 1.27(a) and (c) have removable discontinuities at c and the function shown in Figure 1.27(b) has a nonremovable discontinuity at c.



(a) Removable discontinuity

(b) Nonremovable discontinuity



(c) Removable discontinuity

### Example 1 – Continuity of a Function

Discuss the continuity of each function.

**a.** 
$$f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$$
  
**b.**  $g(x) = \frac{x^2 - 1}{x - 1}$   
**c.**  $h(x) = \begin{cases} x + 1, & x \le 0\\ x^2 + 1, & x > 0 \end{cases}$ 

**d.**  $y = \sin x$ 

# Example 1(a) – Solution

The domain of f is all nonzero real numbers.

From Theorem 1.3, you can conclude that *f* is continuous at every *x*-value in its domain.

**THEOREM 1.3 Limits of Polynomial and Rational Functions** If *p* is a polynomial function and *c* is a real number, then  $\lim_{x\to c} p(x) = p(c).$ If *r* is a rational function given by r(x) = p(x)/q(x) and *c* is a real number such that  $q(c) \neq 0$ , then  $\lim_{x\to c} r(x) = r(c) = \frac{p(c)}{q(c)}.$ 

# Example 1(a) – Solution

At x = 0, *f* has a nonremovable discontinuity, as shown in Figure 1.28(a).





In other words, there is no way to define f(0) so as to make the function continuous at x = 0.

# Example 1(b) – Solution

The domain of g is all real numbers except x = 1.

From Theorem 1.3, you can conclude that *g* is continuous at every *x*-value in its domain.

At x = 1, the function has a removable discontinuity, as shown in Figure 1.28(b).

By defining g(1) as 2, the "redefined" function is continuous for all real numbers.





Figure 1.28(b)

## Example 1(c) – Solution

cont'd

The domain of *h* is all real numbers. The function *h* is continuous on  $(-\infty, 0)$  and  $(0, \infty)$ , and because  $\lim_{x\to 0} h(x) = 1$ , *h* is continuous on the entire real number line, as shown in Figure 1.28(c).



(c) Continuous on entire real number line

Figure 1.28(c)

# Example 1(d) – Solution

The domain of y is all real numbers.

THEOREM 1.6 Limits of Trigonometric FunctionsLet c be a real number in the domain of the given trigonometric function.1.  $\lim_{x \to c} \sin x = \sin c$ 2.  $\lim_{x \to c} \cos x = \cos c$ 3.  $\lim_{x \to c} \tan x = \tan c$ 4.  $\lim_{x \to c} \cot x = \cot c$ 5.  $\lim_{x \to c} \sec x = \sec c$ 6.  $\lim_{x \to c} \csc x = \csc c$ 

# Example 1(d) – Solution

cont'd

From Theorem 1.6, you can conclude that the function is continuous on its entire domain,  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , as shown in Figure 1.28(d).



(d) Continuous on entire real number line

Figure 1.28(d)

To understand continuity on a closed interval, you first need to look at a different type of limit called a **one-sided limit**.

For instance, the **limit from the right** (or right-hand limit) means that x approaches c from values greater than c [see Figure 1.29(a)]. This limit is denoted as

 $\lim_{x \to c^+} f(x) = L.$ 

Limit from the right



(a) Limit as x approaches c from the right.

Figure 1.29(a)

Similarly, the **limit from the left** (or left-hand limit) means that x approaches c from values less than c [see Figure 1.29(b)].

This limit is denoted as

 $\lim_{x \to c^-} f(x) = L.$ 

Limit from the left



(b) Limit as x approaches c from the left.

Figure 1.29(b)

One-sided limits are useful in taking limits of functions involving radicals.

For instance, if *n* is an even integer, then

$$\lim_{x\to 0^+} \sqrt[n]{x} = 0.$$

# Example 2 – A One-Sided Limit

Find the limit of  $f(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$  as x approaches –2 from the right.

### Solution:

As shown in Figure 1.30, the limit as x approaches -2 from the right is

$$\lim_{x \to -2^+} \sqrt{4 - x^2} = 0.$$



The limit of f(x) as x approaches -2 from the right is 0.



One-sided limits can be used to investigate the behavior of **step functions.** 

One common type of step function is the greatest integer function [x], defined as

 $\llbracket x \rrbracket$  = greatest integer *n* such that  $n \le x$ .

Greatest integer function

For instance,  $[\![2.5]\!] = 2$  and  $[\![-2.5]\!] = -3$ .

When the limit from the left is not equal to the limit from the right, the (two-sided) limit *does not exist.* The next theorem makes this more explicit.

#### THEOREM 1.10 The Existence of a Limit

Let f be a function, and let c and L be real numbers. The limit of f(x) as x approaches c is L if and only if

 $\lim_{x \to c^-} f(x) = L \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \to c^+} f(x) = L.$ 

The concept of a one-sided limit allows you to extend the definition of continuity to closed intervals.

Basically, a function is continuous on a closed interval when it is continuous in the interior of the interval and exhibits one-sided continuity at the endpoints. This is stated formally in the next definition.

**Definition of Continuity on a Closed Interval** 

A function f is continuous on the closed interval [a, b] when f is continuous on the open interval (a, b) and

$$\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = f(a)$$

and

$$\lim_{x \to b^-} f(x) = f(b)$$

The function f is continuous from the right at a and continuous from the left at b (see Figure 1.32).



Figure 1.32

### Example 4 – Continuity on a Closed Interval

Discuss the continuity of  $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ .

Solution: The domain of *f* is the closed interval [–1, 1].

At all points in the open interval (-1, 1), the continuity of *f* follows from Theorems 1.4 and 1.5.

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THEOREM 1.4 The Limit of a Function Involving a Radical
Let n be a positive integer. The limit below is valid for all c when n is odd, and is valid for c > 0 when n is even.
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 $\lim_{x \to c} \sqrt[n]{x} = \sqrt[n]{c}$ 

## Example 4 – Solution

cont'd

#### THEOREM 1.5 The Limit of a Composite Function

If f and g are functions such that  $\lim_{x\to c} g(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x\to L} f(x) = f(L)$ , then

 $\lim_{x \to c} f(g(x)) = f\left(\lim_{x \to c} g(x)\right) = f(L).$ 

## Example 4 – Solution

Moreover, because

 $\lim_{x \to -1^+} \sqrt{1 - x^2} = 0 = f(-1)$  Continuous from the right

and

$$\lim_{x \to 1^{-}} \sqrt{1 - x^2} = 0 = f(1)$$

Continuous from the left

you can conclude that *f* is continuous on the closed interval [-1, 1], as shown in Figure 1.33.



Figure 1.33

#### **THEOREM 1.11 Properties of Continuity**

**3.** Product: *fg* 

If *b* is a real number and *f* and *g* are continuous at x = c, then the functions listed below are also continuous at *c*.

**1.** Scalar multiple: *bf* **2.** Sum or difference:  $f \pm g$ 

**4.** Quotient: 
$$\frac{f}{g}$$
,  $g(c) \neq 0$ 

The list below summarizes the functions you have studied so far that are continuous at every point in their domains.

0

- 1. Polynomial:  $p(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_1 x + a_0$
- 2. Rational:

$$r(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}, \quad q(x) \neq$$

- **3.** Radical:  $f(x) = \sqrt[n]{x}$
- 4. Trigonometric:  $\sin x$ ,  $\cos x$ ,  $\tan x$ ,  $\cot x$ ,  $\sec x$ ,  $\csc x$

By combining Theorem 1.11 with this list, you can conclude that a wide variety of elementary functions are continuous at every point in their domains.

### Example 6 – Applying Properties of Continuity

By Theorem 1.11, it follows that each of the functions below is continuous at every point in its domain.

 $f(x) = x + \sin x$ ,  $f(x) = 3 \tan x$ ,  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 + 1}{\cos x}$ 

The next theorem, which is a consequence of Theorem 1.5, allows you to determine the continuity of *composite* functions such as

$$f(x) = \sin 3x$$
,  $f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$ ,  $f(x) = \tan \frac{1}{x}$ .

**THEOREM 1.12 Continuity of a Composite Function** If g is continuous at c and f is continuous at g(c), then the

composite function given by  $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))$  is continuous at *c*.

# Example 7 – *Testing for Continuity*

Describe the interval(s) on which each function is continuous.

**a.** 
$$f(x) = \tan x$$
  
**b.**  $g(x) = \begin{cases} \sin \frac{1}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$   
**c.**  $h(x) = \begin{cases} x \sin \frac{1}{x}, & x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x = 0 \end{cases}$ 

# Example 7(a) – Solution

The tangent function  $f(x) = \tan x$  is undefined at

$$x = \frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi$$
, *n* is an integer.

At all other points *f* is continuous.

### Example 7(a) – Solution

So,  $f(x) = \tan x$  is continuous on the open intervals

$$\ldots, \left(-\frac{3\pi}{2}, -\frac{\pi}{2}\right), \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right), \left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right), \ldots$$

as shown in Figure 1.34(a).



(a) *f* is continuous on each open interval in its domain.



## Example 7(b) – Solution

Because y = 1/x is continuous except at x = 0 and the sine function is continuous for all real values of x, it follows that  $y = \sin(1/x)$  is continuous at all real values except x = 0.

At x = 0, the limit of g(x) does not exist.

So, g is continuous on the intervals  $(-\infty, 0)$  and  $(0, \infty)$ , as shown in Figure 1.34(b).



(b) g is continuous on  $(-\infty, 0)$  and  $(0, \infty)$ .

Figure 1.34

## Example 7(c) – Solution

This function is similar to the function in part (b) except that the oscillations are damped by the factor *x*.

Using the Squeeze Theorem, you obtain

$$-|x| \le x \sin \frac{1}{x} \le |x|, \quad x \ne 0$$

and you can conclude that

$$\lim_{x \to 0} h(x) = 0.$$

So, *h* is continuous on the entire real number line, as shown in Figure 1.34(c).



(c) h is continuous on the entire real number line.

Theorem 1.13 is an important theorem concerning the behavior of functions that are continuous on a closed interval.

#### THEOREM 1.13 Intermediate Value Theorem

If *f* is continuous on the closed interval [a, b],  $f(a) \neq f(b)$ , and *k* is any number between f(a) and f(b), then there is at least one number *c* in [a, b] such that

f(c)=k.

The Intermediate Value Theorem tells you that at least one number *c* exists, but it does not provide a method for finding *c*. Such theorems are called **existence theorems**.

A proof of this theorem is based on a property of real numbers called *completeness*.

The Intermediate Value Theorem states that for a continuous function *f*, if *x* takes on all values between *a* and *b*, then f(x) must take on all values between f(a) and f(b).

As an example of the application of the Intermediate Value Theorem, consider a person's height. A girl is 5 feet tall on her thirteenth birthday and 5 feet 2 inches tall on her fourteenth birthday.

Then, for any height *h* between 5 feet and 5 feet 2 inches, there must have been a time *t* when her height was exactly *h*.

This seems reasonable because human growth is continuous and a person's height does not abruptly change from one value to another.

The Intermediate Value Theorem guarantees the existence of *at least one* number *c* in the closed interval [*a*, *b*].

There may, of course, be more than one number *c* such that f(c) = kas shown in Figure 1.35.



*f* is continuous on [*a*, *b*]. [There exist three *c*'s such that f(c) = k.]

Figure 1.35

A function that is not continuous does not necessarily exhibit the intermediate value property.

For example, the graph of the function shown in Figure 1.36 jumps over the horizontal line y = k and for this function there is no value of c in [a, b] such that f(c) = k.



f is not continuous on [a, b]. [There are no c's such that f(c) = k.]



The Intermediate Value Theorem often can be used to locate the zeros of a function that is continuous on a closed interval.

Specifically, if *f* is continuous on [*a*, *b*] and *f*(*a*) and *f*(*b*) differ in sign, then the Intermediate Value Theorem guarantees the existence of at least one zero of *f* in the closed interval [*a*, *b*].

### Example 8 – An Application of the Intermediate Value Theorem

Use the Intermediate Value Theorem to show that the polynomial function  $f(x) = x^3 + 2x - 1$  has a zero in the interval [0, 1].

### Solution:

Note that f is continuous on the closed interval [0, 1].

### Because

 $f(0) = 0^3 + 2(0) - 1 = -1$  and  $f(1) = 1^3 + 2(1) - 1 = 2$ 

it follows that f(0) < 0 and f(1) > 0.

### Example 8 – Solution

You can therefore apply the Intermediate Value Theorem to conclude that there must be some *c* in [0, 1] such that

f(c) = 0 f has a zero in the closed interval [0, 1].

as shown in Figure 1.37.





Figure 1.37

The **bisection method** for approximating the real zeros of a continuous function is similar to the method used in Example 8.

If you know that a zero exists in the closed interval [a, b], then the zero must lie in the interval [a, (a + b)/2] or [(a + b)/2, b].

From the sign of f([a + b]/2), you can determine which interval contains the zero.

By repeatedly bisecting the interval, you can "close in" on the zero of the function.