

Pat O'Sullivan

Mh4714 Week 5

Week 5

0.0.0.1 Real numbers v. Rational numbers. The Completeness Axiom implies that \mathbb{R} must contain an element whose square is 2, that is, \mathbb{R} contains the number we refer to as $\sqrt{2}$.

There is a real number L such that $L^2 = 2$. That is, $\sqrt{2}$ exists in \mathbb{R} .

To prove this, we will construct an infinite decimal which converges to a real number L with the property that $L^2 = 2$ as follows:

Let I = largest integer such that $I^2 < 2$

That is,

$$I^2 < 2 < (I + 1)^2 \quad (\text{Clearly } I = 1.)$$

Now let d_1 be the largest integer such that $\left(I + \frac{d_1}{10}\right)^2 < 2$

That is,

$$\left(I + \frac{d_1}{10}\right)^2 < 2 < \left(I + \frac{d_1 + 1}{10}\right)^2$$

It follows that $0 \leq d_1 \leq 9$ since

$$\left(I + \frac{0}{10}\right)^2 = I^2 < 2 < (I + 1)^2 = \left(I + \frac{10}{10}\right)^2$$

(It easy to show that $d_1 = 4$.)

Now let d_2 be the largest integer such that $\left(I + \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2}{10^2}\right)^2 < 2$

That is

$$\left(I + \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2}{10^2}\right)^2 < 2 < \left(I + \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2 + 1}{10^2}\right)^2$$

Again it follows that $0 \leq d_2 \leq 9$.

Continuing like this we define an infinite decimal $I + \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2}{10^2} + \frac{d_3}{10^3} \dots$ with

$$\begin{aligned} \left(I + \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2}{10^2} + \frac{d_3}{10^3} \dots + \frac{d_n}{10^n}\right)^2 &< 2 < \left(I + \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2}{10^2} + \frac{d_3}{10^3} \dots + \frac{d_n + 1}{10^n}\right)^2 \\ &= \left(I + \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2}{10^2} + \frac{d_3}{10^3} \dots + \frac{d_n}{10^n} + \frac{1}{10^n}\right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

If we let $S_n = I + \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2}{10^2} + \frac{d_3}{10^3} \dots + \frac{d_n}{10^n}$ then we have

$$(S_n)^2 < 2 < \left(S_n + \frac{1}{10^n}\right)^2.$$

The Completeness Axiom guarantees that $\{S_n\}$ converges to some real number L . That is, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = L$ for some $L \in \mathbb{R}$.

From the properties of limits it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n^2 &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n = L^2; \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(S_n + \frac{1}{10^n}\right) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n + \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{10^n} = L + 0 = L \\ \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(S_n + \frac{1}{10^n}\right)^2 &= L^2. \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$\begin{aligned} (S_n)^2 &< 2 < \left(S_n + \frac{1}{10^n}\right)^2 \\ \Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (S_n)^2 &\leq 2 \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(S_n + \frac{1}{10^n}\right)^2 \\ &\Rightarrow L^2 \leq 2 \leq L^2 \end{aligned}$$

which means that $L^2 = 2$.

0.1 Finite Limits

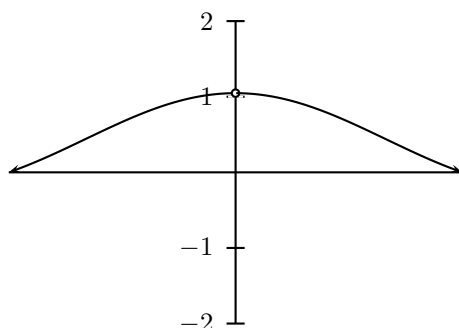
Consider the functions $f(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$, $g(x) = \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$. These are examples of functions which are not defined at a particular point but yet become arbitrarily close to a particular value as x becomes close to the point at which they are not defined.

Look at the following table of values where we see that $\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$ becomes close 1 as x approaches 0:

	x	$\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$	
	x	$\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$	
	0.07	0.999183533	
	0.06	0.999400108	
↓	0.05	0.999583385	↓
	0.04	0.999733355	
	0.03	0.999850007	
	0.02	0.999933335	
	0.01	0.999983333	
0	0	not defined	1
	-0.01	0.999983333	
	-0.02	0.999933335	
↑	-0.03	0.999850007	↑
	-0.04	0.999733355	
	-0.05	0.999583385	
	-0.06	0.999400108	
	x	$\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$	
	-0.07	0.999183533	

The following is a sketch of the graph of $\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$. Note that there is a dot missing at the point $(0, 1)$ because $\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$ is not defined when $x = 0$. Nevertheless we see that $\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$ becomes *arbitrarily close to* 1 as x approaches 0. We express this in writing as

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(x)}{x} = 1$$



$$y = \frac{\sin(x)}{x}$$

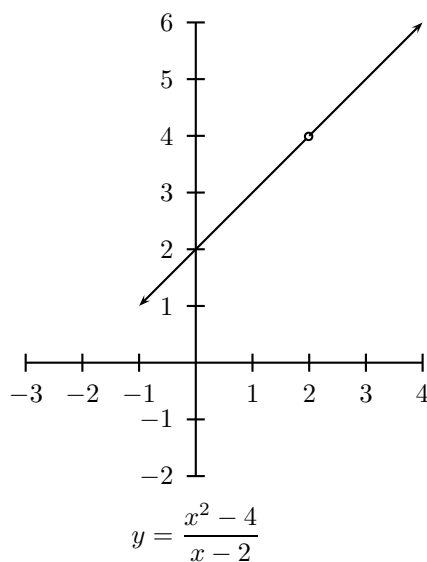
Look at the following table of values where we see that $\frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$ becomes close to 4 as x approaches 2:

	x	$\frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$	
	x		$\frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$
	1.93	3.93	
	1.94	3.94	
↓	1.95	3.95	↓
	1.96	3.96	
	1.97	3.97	
	1.98	3.98	
	1.99	3.99	
2	2	not defined	4
	2.01	4.01	
	2.02	4.02	
↑	2.03	4.03	↑
	2.04	4.04	
	2.05	4.05	
	2.06	4.06	
x	2.07	4.07	$\frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$

The following is a sketch of the graph of $\frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$. Note that there is a dot missing at the point $(2, 4)$ because $\frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$ is not defined when $x = 2$. Nevertheless we see that $\frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2}$ becomes *arbitrarily close to 4* as x approaches 2.

We express this in writing as

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} = 4$$



Definition 0.1

Let f be a function defined over an open interval that contains a except possibly at a itself then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$ if for each $\epsilon > 0$ there is $\delta > 0$ such that

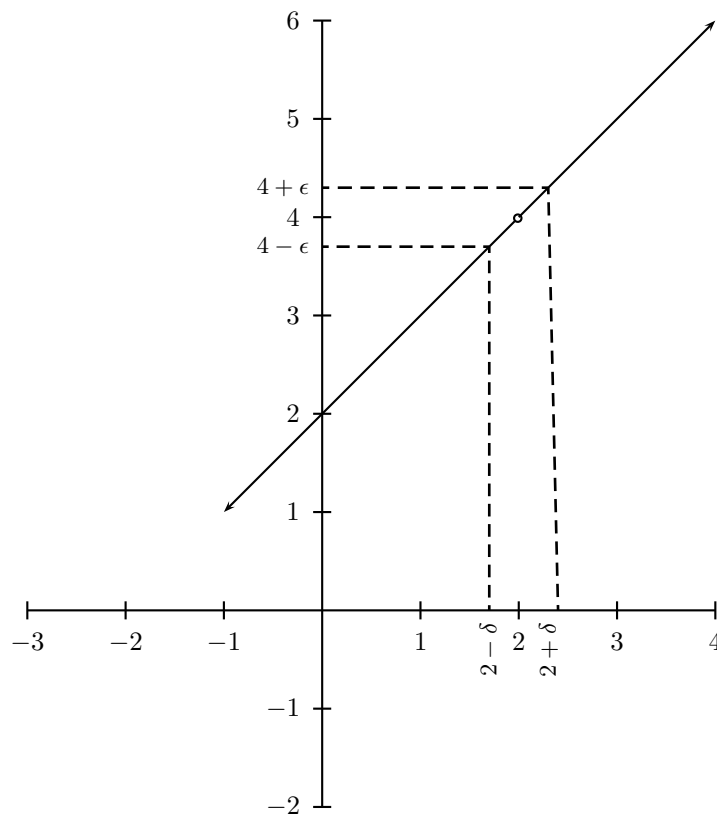
$$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon, \text{ whenever } 0 < |x - a| < \delta.$$

Informally this definition says that $f(x)$ becomes *arbitrarily close* to L

(that is, $|f(x) - L| < \epsilon$, for any $\epsilon > 0$ however small)

as x becomes close enough to a

(that is, when $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ for some $\delta > 0$.)



Example 0.2

- (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$ because, for each $\epsilon > 0$, $|x - a| < \epsilon$ when $|x - a| < \epsilon$. That is, $\epsilon = \delta$.
- (ii) A statement such as $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} 3 = 3$ is referring to the limit of the constant function $f(x) = 3$ as x approaches a .
In general we write $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} k = k$ to refer to the limit of the constant function $f(x) = k$ as x approaches a .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow k} k = k$ because, for each $\epsilon > 0$, $|k - k| = 0 < \epsilon$ for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$. That

is, δ can be any positive real number.

- (iii) Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} = 4$:
- $$\left| \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} - 4 \right| = \left| \frac{x^2 - 4 - 4(x - 2)}{x - 2} \right| = |x - 2|.$$
- And so if we let $\epsilon = \delta$ we have :

$$\left| \frac{x^2 - 4}{x - 2} - 4 \right| < \epsilon \text{ when } |x - 2| < \delta.$$

- (iv) Prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} 2x + 3 = 11$:

$$|2x + 3 - 11| = |2x - 8| = 2|x - 4| < \epsilon \text{ when } 0 < |x - 4| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}.$$

That is, $\delta = \frac{\epsilon}{2}$.

We can carefully establish simple limits such as $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} x = a$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} k = k$ using the definition as follows:

Properties of limits:

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_1$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L_2$ then :

(i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x) + g(x)) = L_1 + L_2.$

(ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x)g(x)) = L_1L_2.$

(iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L_1}{L_2}$ if $L_2 \neq 0$.

- (iv) Let f and g be functions defined over an open interval I containing a with

$$f(x) \leq g(x) \quad \forall x \in I.$$

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L_1$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L_2$ then $L_1 \leq L_2$.

There is also a version of the *Squeezing Theorem* for finite limits:

Theorem 0.3 (The Squeezing Theorem)

Let f and g and h be functions defined over an open interval I containing a .

Let $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x), \quad \forall x \in I \setminus \{a\}.$

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} h(x) = L$ then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$.

Example 0.4

Use the Squeezing Theorem to prove that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \sin(x) = 0$.

$$-1 \leq \sin(x) \leq 1 \Rightarrow -x^2 \leq x \sin(x) \leq x^2$$

and since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} -x^2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 = 0$ it follows from the Squeezing Theorem that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \sin(x) = 0$.

0.1.0.2 Left-hand and right-hand limits.

Definition 0.5

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$ if for each $\epsilon > 0$ there is $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon, \quad \forall x \text{ whenever } 0 < x - a < \delta.$$

L is said to be the *right-hand limit* of f as x approaches a .

Definition 0.6

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ if for each $\epsilon > 0$ there is $\delta > 0$ such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \epsilon, \quad \forall x \text{ whenever } 0 < a - x < \delta.$$

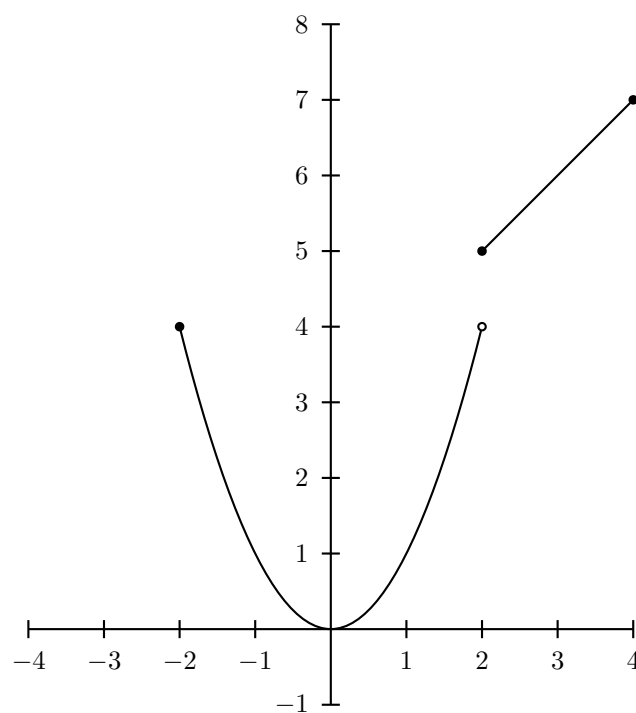
L is said to be the *left-hand limit* of f as x approaches a .

It is easy to show that if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists and equals L , then the left-hand and right-hand limits both exist and are both equal to L and, conversely, if the left-hand and right-hand limits both exist and both have the same value L then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists and equals L .

Example 0.7

(i) Consider the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2, & x \in [-2, 2) \\ x + 3, & x \in [2, 4]. \end{cases}$$



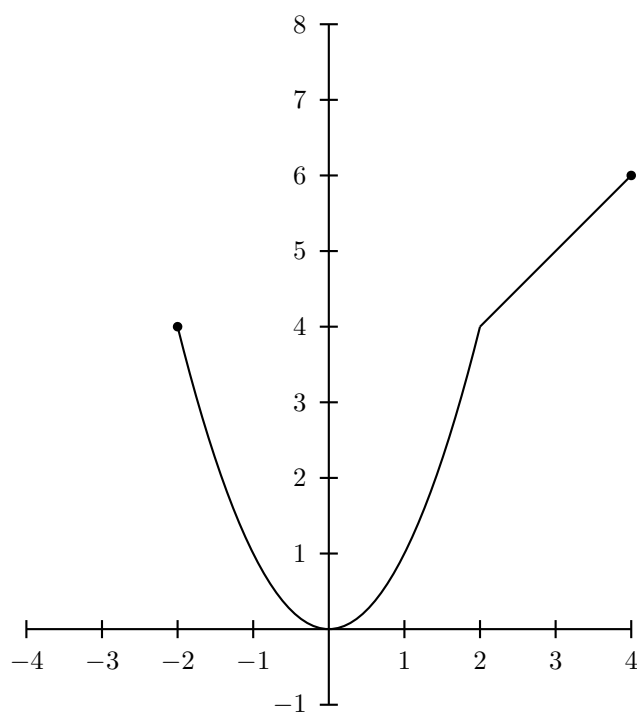
We can see that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = 4 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) = 5$$

Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x)$ we conclude that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$ does not exist.

(ii) Consider the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2, & x \in [-2, 2) \\ x + 2, & x \in [2, 4]. \end{cases}$$



We can see that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = 4 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) = 4$$

Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) = 4$ we conclude that $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$ exists and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 4$.