

Math 1060

Lecture 5 The Precise Definition of a Limit

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Outline

Summary of last lecture

The intuition behind limits

The precise definition of a limit

The $\varepsilon\text{-}\delta$ definition of limits Treating the $\varepsilon\text{-}\delta$ definition as a game

Examples

The δ for a particular ε The limit of a constant function The limit of the identity function The limit of x^2

The limit of a sum of two functions

The precise definition of other types of limits

The ε - δ definition of a right-hand limit The ε - δ definition of a left-hand limit The ε - δ definition of an infinite limit

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- Looked at a few examples where we could still calculate the limit of a rational function, even if we would have division by zero, by first doing some algebra.
- Talked about inequalities of functions and limits, and discussed the squeeze theorem.

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The problem with this definition is that "very close" is not a precise mathematical idea. Our goal will be to replace "very close" with something more formal.

By f(x) getting close to L, what we really mean is that we can choose inputs x so that the value of f(x) is within any prescribed distance of L.

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For the limit to exist and equal *L*, this has to work for *every* (non-zero) distance you pick, no matter how small that distance is.

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We say the limit as x goes to a of f(x) equals L, and write $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$, if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < |x - a| < \delta$.

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One caution: the δ we choose can depend on ε (as you change ε you may need to change δ) and it can also depend on *a*. However, δ can not depend on x!

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- You choose the height of the window to be whatever you want, and call that height 2ε.
- After you choose the height of the window, I can choose a width 2δ so that the curve y = f(x) enters the window from the left-hand side and exits on the right-hand side, never leaving the window from the top or bottom.

Another way to think about this definition of limit is the following:

- ► Consider graphing the function y = f(x) in some little window centered at the point (a, L).
- You choose the height of the window to be whatever you want, and call that height 2ε.
- After you choose the height of the window, I can choose a width 2δ so that the curve y = f(x) enters the window from the left-hand side and exits on the right-hand side, never leaving the window from the top or bottom.

For any height 2ε you choose, I can find a width 2δ that makes this happen.

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We can think about this whole "choosing a δ given an ε " as playing following game.

- You and I are opponents in this game.
- We play this game by drawing boxes centered at the point (a, L) where you choose the top and bottom of the box, and I choose the left- and right-hand sides.
- My objective is to convince you that f(x) gets arbitrarily close to L, provided you pick x close enough to a.

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- Your objective is to show f(x) does not get arbitrarily close to L by forcing me to draw a box so that the graph y = f(x) either misses the box completely, or exits the box on the top or the bottom.
- We play this game in rounds. Each round consists of you taking a turn, followed by me taking a turn.

How the game is played:

1. At the start of the round we draw the graph y = f(x).



2. On your turn you pick an $\varepsilon > 0$ and draw the two horizontal lines $y = L \pm \varepsilon$.



The ε - δ game

3. On my turn I pick a $\delta > 0$ and draw the two vertical lines $x = a \pm \delta$.


4. Now we look at the portion of the graph y = f(x) that lives in the box we just made: you picked the top and bottom of the box, and then I picked the left- and right-hand sides.



- 5. You win the game if any of the following conditions occur:
 - (a) If the portion of y = f(x) inside our box touches the top or the bottom, then you win.



- 5. You win the game if any of the following conditions occur:
 - (b) If the box we draw is empty i.e., y = f(x) never enters the box then you win.



- 5. You win the game if any of the following conditions occur:
 - (c) If the only point of y = f(x) inside the box is the point (a, L), then you win. (This could happen with a piecewise function.)



6. If the graph y = f(x) enters the box, but never touches the top or the bottom, then we start a new round.



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7. I win the game if for every ε > 0 that you choose for drawing the lines y = L ± ε (the top and bottom of the box), I can always force you to play another round: I can always find a δ > 0 so that in the box with left- and right-hand sides x = a ± δ, the curve y = f(x) enters the box from the left, exits on the right, and never touches the top or the bottom.



Notice that if I pick left- and right-hand sides so that the graph enters the box on the left, exits on the right, and never touches the top or the bottom, then on your next turn you should move the top and bottom closer together.

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If you made the top and bottom further apart, I can just keep the same left and right-hand sides.



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All this is saying is that we force the outputs of f(x) to be within ε -distance of L (whatever $\varepsilon > 0$ you want), by choosing x-values that are within δ -distance of a, and that is precisely what the formal definition of the limit says.

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Again, notice that the δ may depend on ε (when you change ε , I get to change δ), and it may depend on the *a* where we're taking the limit (this is a value we pick before we start playing the game), but δ can not depend on x.

To summarize:

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- 5. I don't know what x you're going to pick, so the δ I tell you can't depend on x.

Let's make these ideas a bit more concrete by working a particular example from start to finish.

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Example: Let f(x) = 3x - 1. What value of $\delta > 0$ will guarantee that |f(x) - 5| < 1/10 whenever $0 < |x - 2| < \delta$?

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Example: Let f(x) = 3x - 1. What value of $\delta > 0$ will guarantee that |f(x) - 5| < 1/10 whenever $0 < |x - 2| < \delta$?

To answer this type of question, let's work backwards. We'll start with what we want to show, |f(x) - 5| < 1/10, and see if we can do some algebraic trickery to get an inequality of the form |x - 2| < C. If this happens, we'll take $\delta = C$.

After we do this and know what δ should be, we will then rewrite our work starting with $|x - 2| < \delta$ and showing this implies |f(x) - 5| < 1/10.

We start with |f(x) - 5| < 1/10 and try to work backwards to determine the appropriate δ .

$$|f(x) - 5| < 1/10$$

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 $\Longrightarrow ert 3x - 1 - 5 ert < 1/10$

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We start with |f(x) - 5| < 1/10 and try to work backwards to determine the appropriate δ .

$$|f(x) - 5| < \frac{1}{10}$$
$$\implies |3x - 1 - 5| < \frac{1}{10}$$
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$$\implies |3x - 6| < \frac{1}{10}$$
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$$\implies |x - 2| < \frac{1}{30}$$

At this point we feel confident that 1/30 should be the correct choice for δ . To verify this let's run the argument in the other direction, showing 0 < |x - 2| < 1/30 forces |f(x) - 5| < 1/10.

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In terms of our game, if our function was f(x) = 3x - 1, if a = 2, if L = 5, and if you chose the height of the window to be 1/5 (1/10 up and 1/10 down from y = 5), then I should choose the width of the window to be 1/15 (1/30 to the left and 1/30 to the right of of x = 2).

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Exercise for you: Think about how to modify this argument if we replace 1/10 with 1/500. What if we replace 1/10 with an arbitrary ε ?

Some examples of this definition

Let's use this precise definition of limit to prove some of the things we claimed in the previous class:

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- $\lim_{x\to a} c = c,$
- $\lim_{x \to a} x = a$, and

$$\lim_{x \to a} \left(f(x) + g(x) \right) = \lim_{x \to a} f(x) + \lim_{x \to a} g(x).$$

The claim is that for any constant $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $\lim_{x \to a} c = c$; that is, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ so that $|f(x) - c| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < |x - a| < \delta$.

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- 1. You pick your favorite $\varepsilon > 0$.
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- 3. Now choose some x value so that 0 < |x a| < 1: is it guaranteed that $|f(x) c| < \varepsilon$?

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- 3. Now choose some x value so that 0 < |x a| < 1: is it guaranteed that $|f(x) c| < \varepsilon$?

4. Yes: because f(x) = c, $|f(x) - c| = |c - c| = 0 < \varepsilon$.

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This example *is not* representative of how these problems are usually solved. Normally the δ you choose will be a function of ε (if you change ε , you have to change δ too). The constant function is the easiest possible situation.

The limit of the identity

The claim is that if f(x) = x, then $\lim_{x \to a} x = a$; that is, for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ so that |f(x) - a| < 0 when $0 < |x - a| < \delta$.

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Notice that |f(x) - a| = |x - a|. If we pick $\delta = \varepsilon$, then we're done: $0 < |x - a| < \delta = \varepsilon$ $\implies |x - a| < \varepsilon$.

Before using the definition to justify the limit laws, let's consider the limit of another simple function: $f(x) = x^2$. We claim that $\lim_{x \to a} x^2 = a^2$. In terms of our definition, this means that for every $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ so that $|x^2 - a^2| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < |x - a| < \delta$.

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This is another problem where it is helpful to work backwards. Start with what want to show, and then see if we can perform some manipulations to get a condition which will guarantee that what we want to happen will happen.

1. Let's first notice that $|x^2 - a^2| = |x + a| |x - a|$.

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- 4. But let's suppose that we knew there was some number, call it C, so that |x + a| < C. Then we could write

$$|x-a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{C}$$

and take $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{C}$.

- 1. Let's first notice that $|x^2 a^2| = |x + a| |x a|$.
- 2. We want $|x^2 a^2| < \varepsilon$, but this would be the same as requiring $|x + a| |x a| < \varepsilon$.
- 3. It's tempting to now write $|x a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{|x+a|}$, but this presents a slight problem: our δ can depend on ε and on a, but it can not depend on x!
- 4. But let's suppose that we knew there was some number, call it C, so that |x + a| < C. Then we could write

$$|x-a| < \frac{\varepsilon}{C}$$

and take $\delta = \frac{\varepsilon}{C}$.

5. The question is how do we find this C?

6. The trick to finding C is to force δ to be smaller than some given number. For example, if we could somehow force $\delta \leq 1$, then we would have

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$$\implies 2a - 1 < x + a < 2a + 1$$

7. If x + a is positive, then we have |x + a| < 2a + 1. If x + a is negative, then we have |x + a| < 1 - 2a. Let's set $C = \max\{2a + 1, 1 - 2a\}$ so that we can write |x + a| < C.

 Now we want to take δ to be ε/c, but remember that we had to suppose δ < 1 first. To force both of these conditions to happen, we'll set δ = min {1, ε/c}.

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Remember, our goal is to find a δ that guarantees that $|x^2 - a^2| < \varepsilon$ if $0 < |x - a| < \delta$. Our claim is that $\delta = \min \{1, \varepsilon/c\}$ is the right choice, but we need to verify that this is indeed the case.

Putting everything together, we have the following:

• We want to show that if $\varepsilon > 0$, there exists a $\delta > 0$ so that

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We have now shown $\lim_{x \to a} x^2 = a^2$.

Let's now use this precise definition of limit to prove one of our limit laws from earlier in the week:

$$\lim_{x\to a} \left(f(x) + g(x) \right) = \lim_{x\to a} f(x) + \lim_{x\to a} g(x).$$

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

Suppose $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = M$. Our goal is to show that for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ so that $|f(x) + g(x) - (L + M)| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < |x - a| < \delta$.

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Suppose $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = L$ and $\lim_{x \to a} g(x) = M$. Our goal is to show that for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ so that $|f(x) + g(x) - (L + M)| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < |x - a| < \delta$.

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Similarly, because we assume $\lim_{x\to a} g(x) = M$, we know that there exists a $\delta_M > 0$ so that $|g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2$ whenever $0 < |x - a| < \delta_M$.

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For any pair of real numbers, A and B, $|A + B| \le |A| + |B|$. (This is sometimes called the *triangle inequality*.)

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We can use the triangle inequality to rewrite the |f(x) + g(x) - (L + M)| that we care about:

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- 3. We want to find a single $\delta > 0$ so that $|f(x) + g(x) (L + M)| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < |x a| < \delta$.

This is what we have so far:

- 1. You pick an $\varepsilon > 0$.
- 2. There are two numbers, δ_L and δ_M , which guarantee that $|f(x) L| < \varepsilon/2$ whenever $0 < |x a| < \delta_L$; and $|g(x) M| < \varepsilon/2$ whenever $0 < |x a| < \delta_M$.
- 3. We want to find a single $\delta > 0$ so that $|f(x) + g(x) (L + M)| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < |x a| < \delta$.
- 4. We know that

$$|f(x) + g(x) - (L + M)| \le |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M|.$$

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- 6. Let's just take $\delta = \min \{\delta_L, \delta_M\}!$

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4. Take
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5. If $0 < |x - a| < \delta$, then
 $|f(x) + g(x) - (L+M)| \le |f(x) - L| + |g(x) - M| < \varepsilon/2 + \varepsilon/2 = \varepsilon$.

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We have shown, using the formal definition of a limit, that

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

The precise definition of a right-hand limit

The formal definition of a right-hand limit is very similar to the definition for the two-sided limit. The only thing that changes is that we only care about values of x that are larger than a:

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We write $\lim_{x \to a^+} f(x) = L$ if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < x - a < \delta$.

Example: Show $\lim_{x \to -1^+} \sqrt{x+1} = 0$.

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 $0 < x - (-1) < \delta$ $\implies x + 1 < \delta$ $\implies x + 1 < \varepsilon^{2}$ $\implies \sqrt{x + 1} < \varepsilon$ $\implies |f(x) - 0| < \varepsilon$

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The precise definition of a left-hand limit

We write $\lim_{x \to a^-} f(x) = L$ if for every $\varepsilon > 0$ there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon$ whenever $0 < a - x < \delta$.

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Exercise for you: Use the precise definition of the left-hand limit to show that $\lim_{x\to 2^-} (\sqrt{2-x}+1) = 1.$
The definition of an infinite is perhaps the easiest of these precise definitions to understand.

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We write $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \infty$ if for every N > 0 there exists a $\delta > 0$ so that f(x) > N whenever $0 < |x - a| < \delta$.

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What we're saying is that you can make f(x) as big as you want (make it bigger than N = 100; bigger than N = 1,000; bigger than N = 1,000,000; etc.) by choosing x to be close enough (within δ -distance) of a.

The precise definition of an infinite limit Let's show that $\lim_{x\to 1} \frac{1}{(x-1)^2} = \infty$.

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Let's show that
$$\lim_{x\to 1} \frac{1}{(x-1)^2} = \infty$$
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Let $N > 0$. Let $\delta = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$. We then have the following:

$$0 < |x - 1| < \delta$$

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 $\implies \frac{1}{1/N} < \frac{1}{(x-1)^2}$
 $\implies N < \frac{1}{(x-1)^2}$.

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We have shown that $\frac{1}{(x-1)^2}$ gets arbitrarily large (bigger than any N > 0 you choose) if we choose x close enough to 1. I.e., $\lim_{x \to 1} \frac{1}{(x-1)^2} = \infty.$

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Exercise for you: How can you modify the definition of $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = \infty$ to define $\lim_{x\to a} f(x) = -\infty$?

Homework

Due Monday, $9/1\,$:

- 1. Read about the *binomial theorem* on Wikipedia; know how to expand quantities like $(a + b)^7$ without FOIL-ing.
- 2. Read §2.3 and §2.4 in Stewart.

Due Tuesday, 9/2 :

- 1. Let f(x) = 3x 1. What value of $\delta > 0$ guarantees that |f(x) - 5| < 1/500 if $0 < |x - 2| < \delta$?
- 2. Let f(x) = 3x 1. What value of $\delta > 0$ guarantees that $|f(x) - 5| < \varepsilon$ if $0 < |x - 2| < \delta$?
- 3. Use the precise definition of the left-hand limit to show that $\lim_{x\to 2^-} (\sqrt{2-x}+1) = 1$.
- 4. Modify the definition of $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = \infty$ to give a precise definition of $\lim_{x \to a} f(x) = -\infty$.