

Topic ①: Difference of n -th power.

$$a - b = a - b.$$

$$a^2 - b^2 = (a - b)(a + b).$$

$$a^3 - b^3 = (a - b)(a^2 + ab + b^2).$$

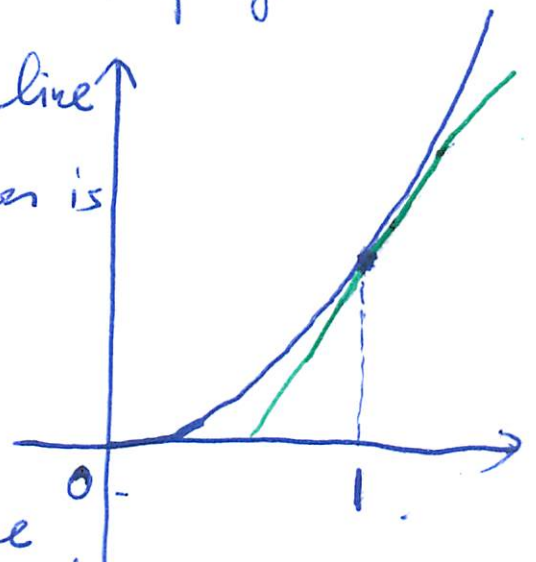
$$\begin{aligned} a^4 - b^4 &= (a - b)(a^3 + a^2b + ab^2 + b^3) \\ &= (a^2 - b^2)(a^2 + b^2) = (a - b)(a + b)(a^2 + b^2). \end{aligned}$$

$$a^5 - b^5 = (a - b)(a^4 + a^3b + a^2b^2 + ab^3 + b^4).$$

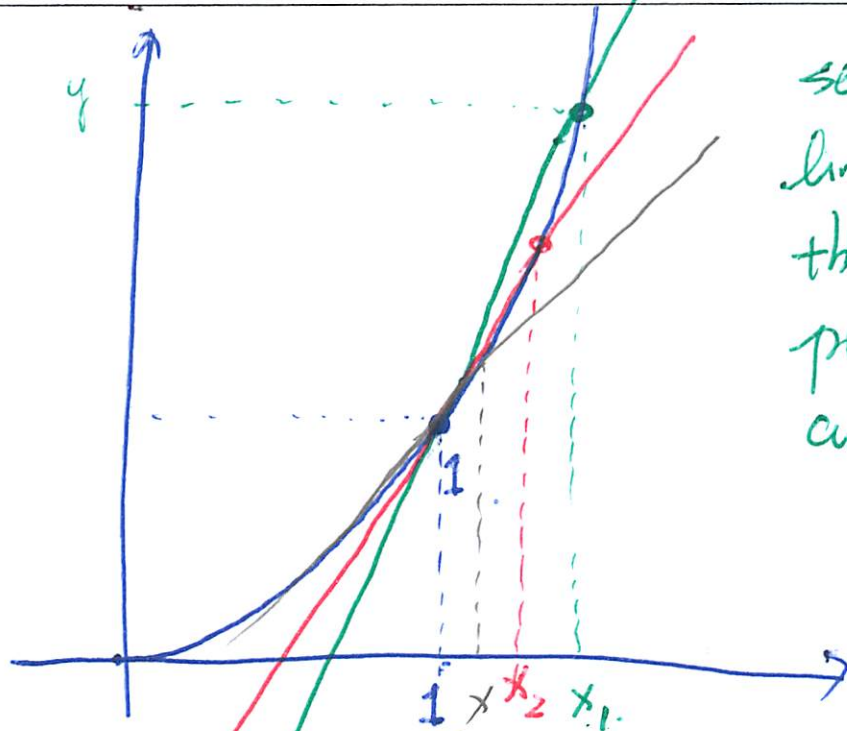
Topic ②: Limits & Continuity.

Motivating Example: tangent line of $y = x^2$ at $x = 1$.

Getting the slope of the tangent line to the curve of a given function is one of the central topics in calculus.



Idea: "Approach" by secant line.



secant line:
line passing
through two
points on the
curve.

Idea: Let the x "approach to 1".

the secant line will "approach" to the tangent line.

We want the slope of the tangent line, at $x=1$

~~If~~ If (x, y) is a point on the curve, then

$$\text{slope of secant line} = \frac{y - 1}{x - 1}$$

passing thru. $(1, 1)$
 (x, y)

Write $x = 1 + h$. $y = x^2 = (1 + h)^2$

Then as $h \rightarrow 0$, $\frac{(1 + h)^2 - 1}{h} \rightarrow$ slope of the tangent line

$$\frac{(1+h)^2 - 1}{h} \stackrel{(h \neq 0)}{=} \frac{1 + 2h + h^2 - 1}{h} = \frac{2h + h^2}{h} = 2 + h.$$

$$\text{As } h \rightarrow 0, \quad \frac{(1+h)^2 - 1}{h} = 2 + h \rightarrow 2.$$

So the slope of tangent line at $(1, 1)$ of $y = x^2$ is 2.

$$\text{Eqn of the line } y - 1 = 2(x - 1).$$

WARNING: h is something "very close" to 0, but it is not zero. Nevertheless, we can take h "as close as possible" to zero, to investigate what it "approaches" to.

$h \rightarrow 0$ is NOT the same as $h = 0$.

Actually, we don't care the case $h = 0$, ~~we~~ We only care the "behavior" as h "approaches" to zero.

② Informal definition of limit.

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

$f(x)$ runs "sufficiently close" to L .

as x runs close to x_0 .

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = L$ <p>As $x \rightarrow x_0$, $f(x) \rightarrow L$.</p>
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Examples: $f(x) = x + 1$.

as $x \rightarrow 2$, $f(x) = x + 1 \rightarrow 2 + 1 = 3$.

$x = 2.1$, $f(x) = 3.1$.

$x = 2.01$, $f(x) = 3.01$.

⋮

$x = 2.000001$, $f(x) = 3.000001$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 3$.

Example: $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2}$

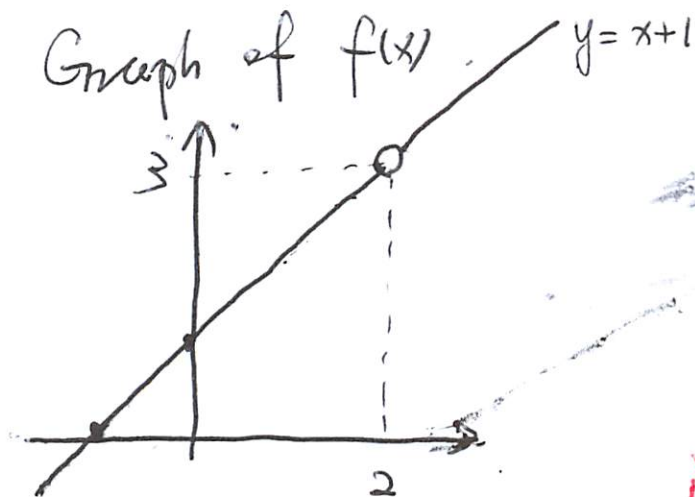
$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = ?$

Notice x is not allowed to take ~~as~~ as 2

Nevertheless, we can take x "approaches" to 2.

When $x \neq 2$, $f(x) = \frac{(x+1)(x-2)}{x-2} \stackrel{\text{b/c } x \neq 2}{=} x+1$.

As $x \rightarrow 2$, $f(x) \rightarrow 3$. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 3$.



Limit of a function (as $x \rightarrow x_0$) does not concern the value of the function at the point x_0 .

i.e. $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x)$ vs $f(x_0)$.

are not necessarily connected.

③ Continuity at a point

$f(x)$ is continuous at a point x_0 if $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = f(x_0)$.

Example: $f(x) = x + 1$ is continuous at 2.

b/c $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) = 3$ and $f(2) = 3$.

$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - x - 2}{x - 2}$ is NOT continuous at 2.

b/c $f(x)$ is not defined at 2, i.e.

$f(2)$ makes no sense.

④ One-sided limits:

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$ means $f(x)$ approaches to L

as x approaches to a *from above the right*

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = L$ means $f(x)$ approaches to L

as x approaches to a *from below the left*

Example: Sign function $\text{sgn}(x) = \frac{|x|}{x}$

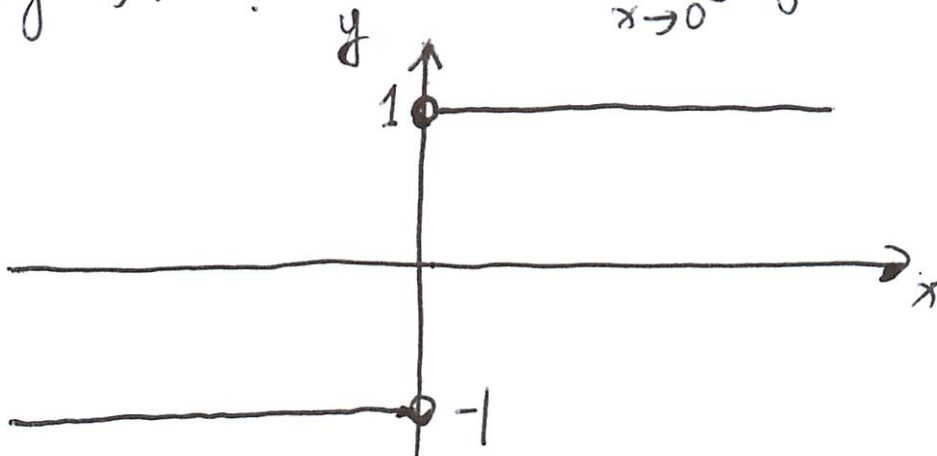
Recall: $|x| = \begin{cases} x & x \geq 0 \\ -x & x < 0 \end{cases}$

$| -1 | = -(-1) = 1$

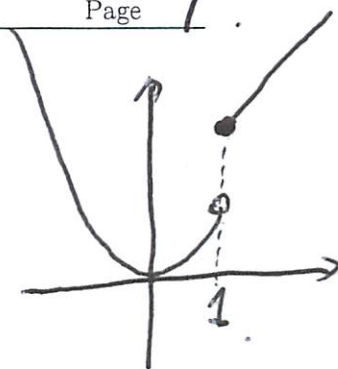
$\text{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{x} = 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \end{cases}$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \text{sgn}(x) = 1$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \text{sgn}(x) = -1$



Example: $f(x) = \begin{cases} x+1 & x \geq 1 \\ x^2 & x < 1 \end{cases}$



Find $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = 1$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 2$

Fact: If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$, we say

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ does not exist.

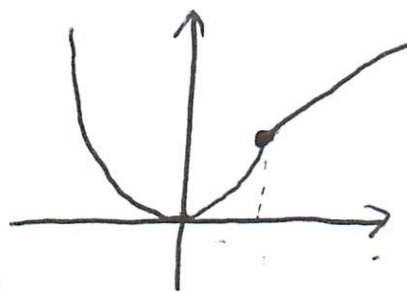
In other words, if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$, this means *if and only if*

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = L$$

In the example above, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$ DNE.

$f(x)$ is not continuous at $x=1$.

Example: $f(x) = \begin{cases} x & x \geq 1 \\ x^2 & x < 1 \end{cases}$

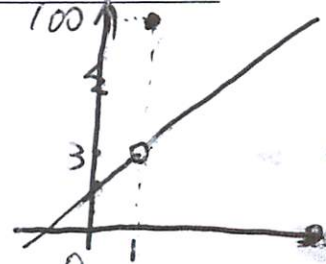


$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = 1$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 1$$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 1 = f(1)$, $f(x)$ is continuous at 1.

Example: $f(x) = \begin{cases} x+2 & x > 1 \\ 100 & x = 1 \\ x+2 & x < 1 \end{cases}$

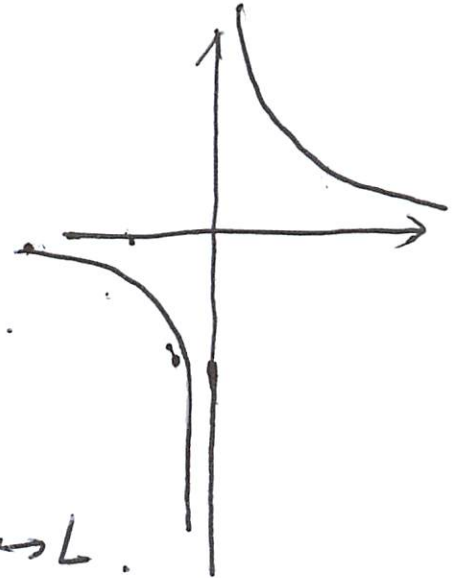


$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = 3$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 3$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 3$

$f(x)$ is NOT continuous b/c $f(1) = 100 \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 3$.

Example: $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$

$x \rightarrow 0^+$ $f(x)$ becoming ^{es} larger
 $x \rightarrow 0^-$ $f(x)$ becomes "larger"



$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x)$ does not exist b/c
 real

there is no number L s.t. $f(x) \rightarrow L$.

~~OR~~ in terms of ∞ ,

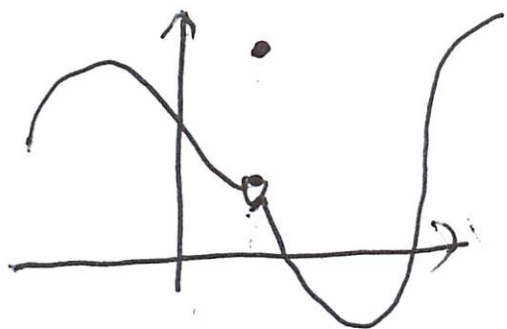
$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = +\infty$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = -\infty$

blow-up, diverge.

Informal definition: If ~~x~~ $f(x)$ becomes "sufficiently large" as x approaches to a , we say $f(x)$ blows-up at the point a . $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ DNE.

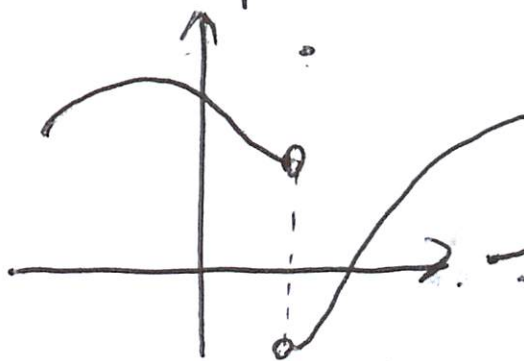
Summary: Types of incontinuity:

① ~~Jump~~ Hole.



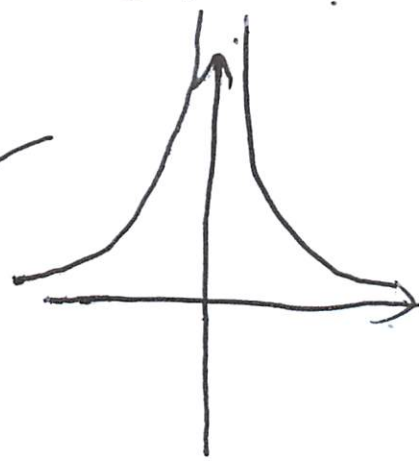
$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$.
 $f(a)$ either not defined
 or $f(a) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$.

② Jump.



$\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$

③ Pole.



$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ blows up at a .

(Refer to Pg 6 of the book)

Exercise: Test the continuity at $x=1$ for

① $f(x) = \frac{x^2 + 2x - 3}{x - 1}$

$f(1)$ DNE. NOT CONT. Hole

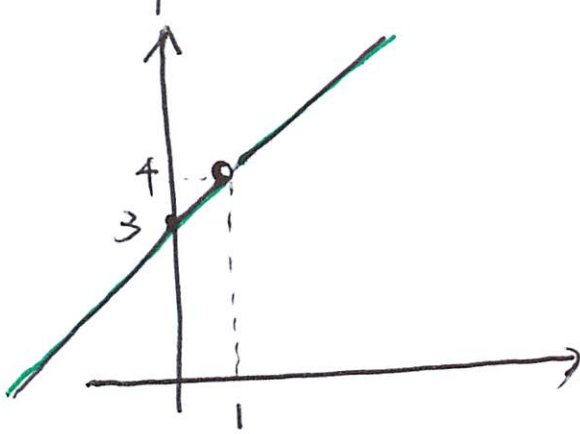
② $g(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 + 2x - 3}{x - 1} & x \neq 1 \\ 6 & x = 1 \end{cases}$

$\frac{(x-1)(x+3)}{x-1} = x+3$ if $x \neq 1$.
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 1+3=4, \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = 4$.
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 4 \neq 6$. NOT CONT.
 Hole

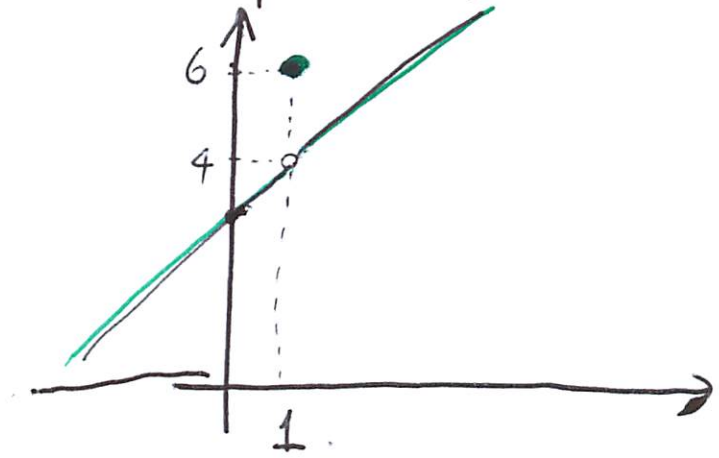
③ $h(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 + 2x - 3}{x - 1} & x \neq 1 \\ 4 & x = 1 \end{cases}$

$f(1) = 4 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$ CONT.

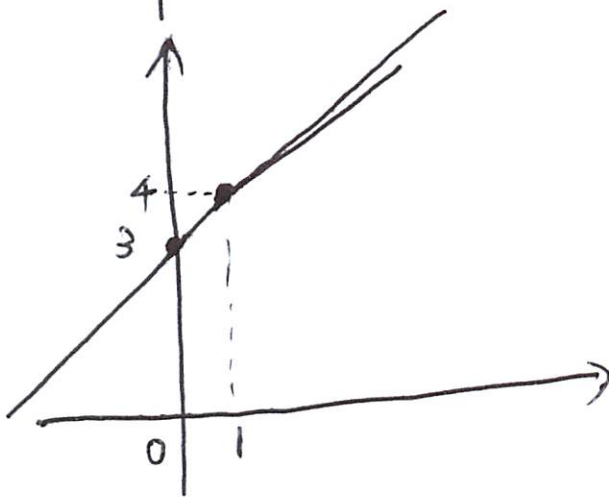
Graph of $f(x)$.



Graph of $g(x)$



Graph of $h(x)$



Theorem: Polynomial functions, rational functions
 e.g. $7x^3 + 6x + 3$. e.g. $\frac{x^2 + 4x + 4}{x + 3}$.

Trigonometric functions, exponential functions, logarithmic functions are continuous at where it is defined.

⑥ Properties of limits:

Let c be a real number, suppose $f(x), g(x)$ have limits at $x=c$.

- ① Constant Rule: $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} k = k$ k is any constant.
- ② Limit of x : $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} x = c$.
- ③ Multiple rule: $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [k f(x)] = k \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ k any const.
- ④ Sum rule: $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) + g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) + \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$.
- ⑤ Difference rule: $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) - g(x)) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) - \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$.
- ⑥ Product rule: $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)g(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$.
- ⑦ Quotient rule: $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)}$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x) \neq 0$.

⊗ Power rule: $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x)]^n = \left[\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \right]^n$. n rational number, and RHS limit exists.

WARNING: Rule #3 ^{to} #8 works under the condition that $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$ EXISTS.

Example: Evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (2x^5 - 9x^3 + 3x^2 - 11)$

By $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x = 2$, $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^5 = (\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x)^5 = 2^5 = 32$. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} 2x^5 = 2 \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^5 = 2 \cdot 32 = 64$.
 ~~$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} x^3 = 2^3 = 8$~~

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (2x^5 - 9x^3 + 3x^2 - 11) = 2 \cdot 2^5 - 9 \cdot 2^3 + 3 \cdot 2^2 - 11 = 64 - 72 + 12 - 11 = -8 + 1 = -7$$

Example: Evaluate $\lim_{z \rightarrow -1} \frac{z^3 - 3z + 7}{5z^2 + 9z + 6}$

$$= \frac{(-1)^3 - 3(-1) + 7}{5(-1)^2 + 9(-1) + 6} = \frac{9}{2}$$

if it happens the denom being 0, stop!!
 $\frac{9}{0} \neq \frac{0}{0}$ L'Hopital.
 ~~$\frac{0}{0}$~~ DNE.

Example: Evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow -2} \sqrt[3]{x^2 - 3x - 2} = \sqrt[3]{(-2)^2 - 3(-2) - 2} = \sqrt[3]{8} = 2$

From the above examples, it is evident that polynomial functions, rational functions are continuous at any point in the domain.

Theorem: Limit of trig: the
Let c be any number in domain of corresp. trig. func.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \cos x = \cos c, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \tan x = \tan c, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sec x = \sec c$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sin x = \sin c, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \cot x = \cot c, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \csc x = \csc c$$

Proof: Only show $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sin x = \sin c$.

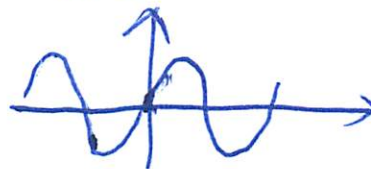
If $x = c + h$, $x \rightarrow c \Rightarrow h \rightarrow 0$.

$$\sin(x) = \sin(c+h) = \sin c \cos h + \sin h \cos c.$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sin x = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin(c+h) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (\sin c \cos h + \sin h \cos c)$$

$$= \sin c \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos h + \cos c \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin h = \sin c.$$

Cheat: $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \cos h = 1$, $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin h = 0$. ~~$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sin h = 0$~~



From this theorem, trigs are continuous.

Examples:

$$\textcircled{1} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 \cos \pi x) \quad \textcircled{2} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\cos x}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \parallel \\ (\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x^2) (\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \cos \pi x) \\ \parallel \\ 1 \cdot \cos \pi \\ \parallel \\ -1 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \parallel \\ \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x}{\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x} \\ \parallel \\ \frac{0}{\cos 0} = 0 \end{array}$$

Exponential and logarithmic functions are continuous by definition (guaranteed in "completion").

$\textcircled{7}$ More technical limits:

• Rationalization: e.g. $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{\sqrt{x} - 2}{x - 4}$

WARNING: Quotient rule fails, b/c $x - 4 \rightarrow 0$.

It is one of the $\frac{0}{0}$ type limit:

In order to eliminate $\sqrt{\quad}$ in the nominator,

$$\frac{\sqrt{x} - 2}{x - 4} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{x} + 2}{\sqrt{x} + 2} = \frac{(\sqrt{x})^2 - 2^2}{(x - 4)(\sqrt{x} + 2)} = \frac{x - 4}{(x - 4)(\sqrt{x} + 2)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x} + 2}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{\sqrt{x} - 2}{x - 4} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x} + 2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4} + 2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

Example: $\frac{2\sqrt{x+1} - x - 2}{x^2} \Big|_{x \rightarrow 0}$ $= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2\sqrt{x+1} - x - 2}{x^2}$

$$\frac{2\sqrt{x+1} - x - 2}{x^2} \cdot \frac{(2\sqrt{x+1}) + (x+2)}{(2\sqrt{x+1}) + (x+2)} = \frac{4(x+1) - (x+2)^2}{x^2 \cdot (2\sqrt{x+1} + x+2)}$$

$$= \frac{4x+4 - x^2 - 4x - 4}{x^2(2\sqrt{x+1} + x+2)} = \frac{-x^2}{x^2(2\sqrt{x+1} + x+2)} = \frac{-1}{2\sqrt{x+1} + x+2}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2\sqrt{x+1} - x - 2}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-1}{2\sqrt{x+1} + x+2} = \frac{-1}{2+2} = -\frac{1}{4}$$

Attendance Quiz:

① Evaluate $\frac{\sqrt{x} - 3}{x - 9} \Big|_{x \rightarrow 9}$

② Evaluate $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^5 - 1}{x^3 - 1}$