## PART III. FUNCTIONS: LIMITS AND CONTINUITY

## III.1. LIMITS OF FUNCTIONS

This chapter is concerned with functions $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ where $D$ is a nonempty subset of $\mathbb{R}$. That is, we will be considering real-valued functions of a real variable. The set $D$ is called the domain of $f$.

Definition 1. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c$ be an accumulation point of $D$. A number $L$ is the limit of $f$ at $c$ if to each $\epsilon>0$ there exists a $\delta>0$ such that

$$
|f(x)-L|<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad x \in D \quad \text { and } \quad 0<|x-c|<\delta .
$$

This definition can be stated equivalently as follows:
Definition. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c$ be an accumulation point of $D$. A number $L$ is the limit of $f$ at $c$ if to each neighborhood $V$ of $L$ there exists a deleted neighborhood $U$ of $c$ such that $f(U \cap D) \subseteq V$.

Notation $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$.

## Examples:

(a) $\lim _{x \rightarrow-2}\left(x^{2}-2 x+4\right)=12$.
(b) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^{2}-4}{x-2}=4$.
(c) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{x^{2}+3 x+5}{x-3}$ does not exist.
(d) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{|x-1|}{x-1}$ does not exist.

Example: Let $f(x)=4 x-5$. Prove that $\lim _{x \rightarrow 3} f(x)=7$.
Proof: Let $\epsilon>0$.

$$
|f(x)-7|=|(4 x-5)-7|=|4 x-12|=4|x-3| .
$$

Choose $\delta=\epsilon / 4$. Then

$$
|f(x)-7|=4|x-3|<4 \frac{\epsilon}{4}=\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad 0<|x-3|<\delta .
$$

## Two Obvious Limits:

(a) For any constant $k$ and any number $c, \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow c} k=k$.
(b) For any number $c, \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow c} x=c$.

THEOREM 1. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c$ be an accumulation point of $D$. Then $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$ if and only if for every sequence $\left\{s_{n}\right\}$ in $D$ such that $s_{n} \rightarrow c, s_{n} \neq c$ for all $n, f\left(s_{n}\right) \rightarrow L$.

Proof: Suppose that $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$. Let $\left\{s_{n}\right\}$ be a sequence in $D$ which converges to $c, s_{n} \neq c$ for all $n$. Let $\epsilon>0$. There exists $\delta>0$ such that

$$
|f(x)-L|<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad 0<|x-c|<\delta \quad(x \in D)
$$

Since $s_{n} \rightarrow c$ there exists a positive integer $N$ such that $\left|c-s_{n}\right|<\delta$ for all $n>N$. Therefore

$$
\left|f\left(s_{n}\right)-L\right|<\epsilon \quad \text { for all } n>N \quad \text { and } \quad f\left(s_{n}\right) \rightarrow L
$$

Now suppose that for every sequence $\left\{s_{n}\right\}$ in $D$ which converges to $c, f\left(s_{n}\right) \rightarrow L$. Suppose that $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x) \neq L$. Then there exists an $\epsilon>0$ such that for each $\delta>0$ there is an $x \in D$ with $0<|x-c|<\delta$ but $f(x)-L \mid \geq \epsilon$. In particular, for each positive integer $n$ there is an $s_{n} \in D$ such that $\left|c-s_{n}\right|<1 / n$ and $\left|f\left(s_{n}\right)-L\right| \geq \epsilon$. Now, $s_{n} \rightarrow c$ but $\left\{f\left(s_{n}\right)\right\}$ does not converge to $L$, a contradiction.

Corollary Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c$ be an accumulation point of $D$. If $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ exists, then it is unique. That is, $f$ can have only one limit at $c$.

THEOREM 2. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c$ be an accumulation point of $D$. If $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ does not exist, then there exists a sequence $\left\{s_{n}\right\}$ in $D$ such that $s_{n} \rightarrow c$, but $\left\{f\left(s_{n}\right)\right\}$ does not converge.

Proof: Suppose that $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)$ does not exist. Suppose that for every sequence $\left\{s_{n}\right\}$ in $D$ such that $s_{n} \rightarrow c\left(s_{n} \neq c\right),\left\{f\left(s_{n}\right)\right\}$ converges. Let $\left\{s_{n}\right\}$ and $\left\{t_{n}\right\}$ be sequences in $D$ which converge to $c$. Then $\left\{f\left(s_{n}\right)\right\}$ and $\left\{f\left(t_{n}\right)\right\}$ are convergent sequences. Let $\left\{u_{n}\right\}$ be the sequence $\left\{s_{1}, t_{1}, s_{2}, t_{2}, \ldots\right\}$. Then $\left.\left\{u_{n}\right\}\right\}$ converges to $c$ and $\left\{f\left(u_{n}\right)\right\}$ converges to some number $L$. Since $\left\{f\left(s_{n}\right)\right\}$ and $\left\{f\left(t_{n}\right)\right\}$ are subsequences of $\left\{f\left(u_{n}\right)\right\}, f\left(s_{n}\right) \rightarrow L$ and $f\left(t_{n}\right) \rightarrow L$. Therefore, for every sequence $\left\{s_{n}\right\}$ in $D$ such that $s_{n} \rightarrow c, s_{n} \neq c$ for all $n, f\left(s_{n}\right) \rightarrow L$ and $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$.

## Arithmetic of Limits

THEOREM 3. Let $f, g: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c$ be an accumulation point of $D$. If

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L \quad \text { and } \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow c} g(x)=M,
$$

then

1. $\lim _{x \rightarrow c}[f(x)+g(x)]=L+M$,
2. $\lim _{x \rightarrow c}[f(x)-g(x)]=L-M$,
3. $\lim _{x \rightarrow c}[f(x) g(x)]=L M, \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow c}[k f(x)]=k L, k$ constant,
4. $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}=\frac{L}{M} \quad$ provided $M \neq 0, g(x) \neq 0$.

## Examples:

(a) Since $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} x=c, \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow c} x^{n}=c^{n}$ for every positive integer $n$, by (3).
(b) If $p(x)=2 x^{3}+3 x^{2}-5 x+4$, then, by (1), (2) and (3),

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow-2} p(x)=2(-2)^{3}+3(-2)^{2}-5(-2)+4=10=p(-2) .
$$

(c) If $R(x)=\frac{x^{3}-2 x^{2}+x-5}{x^{2}+4}$, then, by (1) - (4),

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow 2} R(x)=\frac{2^{3}-2(2)^{2}+2-5}{2^{2}+4}=\frac{-3}{8}=R(2) .
$$

THEOREM 4. ("Pinching Theorem") Let $f, g, h: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c$ be an accumulation point of $D$. Suppose that $f(x) \leq g(x) \leq h(x)$ for all $x \in D, x \neq c$. If

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=\lim _{x \rightarrow c} h(x)=L
$$

then $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} g(x)=L$.
Proof: Let $\epsilon>0$. There exists a positive number $\delta_{1}$ such that

$$
|f(x)-L|<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad 0<|x-c|<\delta_{1} \quad(x \in D) .
$$

That is

$$
-\epsilon<f(x)-L<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad 0<|x-c|<\delta_{1} .
$$

Similarly, there exists a positive number $\delta_{2}$ such that

$$
-\epsilon<h(x)-L<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad 0<|x-c|<\delta_{2} .
$$

Let $\delta=\min \left\{\delta_{1}, \delta_{2}\right\}$. Then

$$
-\epsilon<f(x)-L \leq g(x)-L \leq h(x)-L<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad 0<|x-c|<\delta .
$$

Therefore, $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} g(x)=L$.

## One-Sided Limits

Definition 2. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c$ be an accumulation point of $D$. A number $L$ is the right-hand limit of $f$ at $c$ if to each $\epsilon>0$ there exists a $\delta>0$ such that

$$
|f(x)-L|<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad x \in D \quad \text { and } \quad c<x<c+\delta
$$

Notation: $\lim _{x \rightarrow c^{+}} f(x)=L$.
A number $M$ is the left-hand limit of $f$ at $c$ if to each $\epsilon>0$ there exists a $\delta>0$ such that

$$
|f(x)-L|<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad x \in D \quad \text { and } \quad c-\delta<x<c .
$$

Notation: $\lim _{x \rightarrow c^{-}} f(x)=M$.

## Examples

(a) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 1^{-}} \frac{|x-1|}{x-1}=-1 ; \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow 1^{+}} \frac{|x-1|}{x-1}=1$.
(b) Let $f(x)=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}x^{2}-1, & x \leq 2 \\ \frac{1}{x-2}, & x>2\end{array} ; \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow 2^{-}} f(x)=3, \quad \lim _{x \rightarrow 2^{+}} f(x)\right.$ does not exist.

THEOREM 5. $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$ if and only if each of the one-sided limits $\lim _{x \rightarrow c^{+}} f(x)$ and $\lim _{x \rightarrow c^{-}} f(x)$ exists, and

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c+} f(x)=\lim _{x \rightarrow c^{-}} f(x)=L
$$

## Exercises 3.1

1. Evaluate the following limits.
(a) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^{2}-4 x+3}{x-1}$
(b) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^{2}-4 x+3}{x-1}$
(c) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^{2}-x-6}{x+2}$
(d) $\lim _{x \rightarrow-2} \frac{x^{2}-x-6}{x+2}$
(e) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^{2}-x-6}{(x+2)^{2}}$
(f) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\sqrt{x}-1}{x-1}$
(g) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\sqrt{4+x}-2}$
(h) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 1^{+}} \frac{1-x^{2}}{|x-1|}$
2. Given that $f(x)=x^{3}$, evaluate the following limits.
(a) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{f(x)-f(3)}{x-3}$
(b) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{f(x)-f(2)}{x-3}$
(c) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 3} \frac{f(x)-f(2)}{x-2}$
(d) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{f(x)-f(1)}{x-1}$
3. True - False. Justify your answer by citing a theorem, giving a proof, or giving a counter-example.
(a) $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$ if and only if to each $\epsilon>0$, there is a $\delta>0$ such that

$$
|f(x)-f(c)|<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad|x-c|<\delta, \quad x \in D .
$$

(b) $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$ if and only if for each deleted neighborhood $U$ of $c$ there is a neighborhood $V$ of $L$ such that $f(U \cap D) \subseteq V$.
(c) $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$ if and only if for every sequence $\left\{s_{n}\right\}$ in $D$ that converges to $c, s_{n} \neq c$ for all $n$, the sequence $\left\{f\left(s_{n}\right)\right\}$ converges to $L$.
(d) $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$ if and only if $\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} f(c+h)=L$.
(e) If $f$ does not have a limit at $c$, then there exists a sequence $\left\{s_{n}\right\}$ in $D$ $s_{n} \neq c$ for all $n$, such that $s_{n} \rightarrow c$, but $\left\{f\left(s_{n}\right)\right\}$ diverges.
(f) For any polynomial $P$ and any real number $c, \lim _{x \rightarrow c} P(x)=P(c)$.
(g) For any polynomials $P$ and $Q$, and any real number $c$,

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}=\frac{P(c)}{Q(c)} .
$$

4. Find a $\delta>0$ such that $0<|x-3|<\delta$ implies $\left|x^{2}-5 x+6\right|<\frac{1}{4}$.
5. Find a $\delta>0$ such that $0<|x-2|<\delta$ implies $\left|x^{2}+2 x-8\right|<\frac{1}{10}$.
6. Prove that $\lim _{x \rightarrow 1}(4 x+3)=7$.
7. Prove that $\lim _{x \rightarrow 3}\left(x^{2}-2 x+3\right)=6$.
8. Determine whether or not the following limits exist:
(a) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0}\left|\sin \frac{1}{x}\right|$.
(b) $\lim _{x \rightarrow 0} x \sin \frac{1}{x}$.
9. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c$ be an accumulation point of $D$. Suppose that $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L$ and $L>0$. Prove that there is a number $\delta>0$ such that $f(x)>0$ for all $x \in D$ with $0<|x-c|<\delta$.
10. (a) Suppose that $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=0$ and $\lim _{x \rightarrow c}[f(x) g(x)]=1$. Prove that $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$ does not exist.
(b) Suppose that $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=L \neq 0$ and $\lim _{x \rightarrow c}[f(x) g(x)]=1$. Does $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} g(x)$ exist, and if so, what is it?

## III. 2 CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS

Definition 3. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c \in D$. Then $f$ is continuous at $c$ if to each $\epsilon>0$ there is a $\delta>0$ such that

$$
|f(x)-f(c)|<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad|x-c|<\delta, \quad x \in D .
$$

Let $S \subseteq D$. Then $f$ is continuous on $S$ if it continuous at each point $c \in S . f$ is continuous if $f$ is continuous on $D$.

THEOREM 6. Characterizations of Continuity Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c \in D$. The following are equivalent:

1. $f$ is continuous at $c$.
2. If $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is a sequence in $D$ such that $x_{n} \rightarrow c$, then $f\left(x_{n}\right) \rightarrow f(c)$.
3. To each neighborhood $V$ of $f(c)$, there is a neighborhood $U$ of $c$ such that $f(U \cap D) \subseteq V$.

Proof: See Theorem 1.

Corollary If $c$ is an accumulation point of $D$, then each of the above is equivalent to

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=f(c) .
$$

THEOREM 7. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c \in D$. Then $f$ is discontinuous at $c$ if and only if there is a sequence $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ in $D$ such that $x_{n} \rightarrow c$ but $\left\{f\left(x_{n}\right)\right\}$ does not converge to $f(c)$.

## Continuity of Combinations of Functions

THEOREM 8. Arithmetic: Let $f, g: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c \in D$. If $f$ and $g$ are continuous at $c$, then

1. $f+g$ is continuous at $c$.
2. $f-g$ is continuous at $c$.
3. $f g$ is continuous at $c ; k f$ is continuous at $c$ for any constant $k$.
4. $f / g$ is continuous at $c$ provided $g(c) \neq 0$.

THEOREM 9. Composition: Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g: E \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be functions such that $f(D) \subseteq E$. If $f$ is continuous at $c \in D$ and $g$ is continuous at $f(c) \in E$, then the composition of $g$ with $f, g \circ f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, is continuous at $c$.

Proof: Let $\epsilon>0$. Since $g$ is continuous at $f(c) \in E$ there is a positive number $\delta_{1}$ such that $|g(f(x))-g(f(c))|<\epsilon$ whenever $|f(x)-f(c)|<\delta_{1}, f(x) \in E$. Since $f$ is continuous at $c$ there is a positive number $\delta$ such that $|f(x)-f(c)|<\delta_{1}$ whenever $|x-c|<\delta, x \in D$. It now follows that

$$
|g(f(x))-g(f(c))|<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad|x-c|<\delta, x \in D
$$

and $g \circ f$ is continuous at $c$.
Definition 4. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and let $G \subseteq \mathbb{R}$. The pre-image of $G$, denoted by $f^{-1}(G)$ is the set

$$
f^{-1}(G)=\{x \in D: f(x) \in G\} .
$$

THEOREM 10. A function $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous on $D$ if and only if for each open set $G$ in $\mathbb{R}$ there is an open set $H$ in $\mathbb{R}$ such that $H \cap D=f^{-1}(G)$.

Proof: Suppose $f$ is continuous on $D$. Let $G \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ be an open set. If $c \in f^{-1}(G)$, then $f(c) \in G$. Since $G$ is open, there exists a neighborhood $V$ of $f(c)$ such that $V \subseteq G$. Therefore, there exists a neighborhood $U_{c}$ of $c$ such that $f\left(U_{c} \cap D\right) \subseteq V$. Let

$$
H=\cup_{c \in f^{-1}(G)} U_{c} .
$$

$H$ is open and $H \cap D=f^{-1}(G)$.
Conversely, choose any $c \in D$, and let $V$ be a neighborhood of $f(c)$. Since $V$ is an open set, there is an open set $H \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ such that $H \cap D=f^{-1}(V)$. Since $f(c) \in V, c \in H$. But $H$ is an open set so there is a neighborhood $U$ of $c$ such that $U \subseteq H$. Now

$$
f(U \cap D) \subseteq f(H \cap D)=v
$$

It follows that $f$ is continuous on $D$ by Theorem 6 .
Corollary A function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous if and only if $f^{-1}(G)$ is open in $\mathbb{R}$ whenever $G$ is open in $\mathbb{R}$.

## Exercises 3.2

1. Let $f(x)=\frac{x^{2}+2 x-15}{x-3}$. Define $f$ at 3 so that $f$ will be continuous at 3 .
2. Each of the following functions is defined everywhere except at $x=1$. Where possible, define $f$ at 1 so that it becomes continuous at 1 .
(a) $f(x)=\frac{x^{2}-1}{x-1}$
(b) $f(x)=\frac{1}{x-1}$
(c) $f(x)=\frac{x-1}{|x-1|}$
(d) $f(x)=\frac{(x-1)^{2}}{|x-1|}$
3. In each of the following define $f$ at 5 so that it becomes continuous at 5 .
(a) $f(x)=\frac{\sqrt{x+4}-3}{x-5}$
(b) $f(x)=\frac{\sqrt{x+4}-3}{\sqrt{x-5}}$
(c) $f(x)=\frac{\sqrt{2 x-1}-3}{x-5}$
(d) $f(x)=\frac{\sqrt{x^{2}-7 x+16}-\sqrt{6}}{(x-5) \sqrt{x+1}}$
4. Let $f(x)=\left\{\begin{aligned} A^{2} x^{2}, & x<2 \\ (1-A) x, & x \geq 2 .\end{aligned}\right.$ For what values of $A$ is $f$ continuous at 2?
5. Give necessary and sufficient conditions on $A$ and $B$ for the function

$$
f(x)=\left\{\begin{aligned}
A x-B, & x \leq 1 \\
3 x, & 1<x<2 \\
B x^{2}-A, & x \geq 2
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

to be continuous at $x=1$ but discontinuous at $x=2$.
6. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c \in D$. True - False. Justify your answer by citing a definition or theorem, giving a proof, or giving a counter-example.
(a) $f$ is continuous at $c$ if and only if to each $\epsilon$ there is a $\delta>0$ such that

$$
\mid f x)-f(c) \mid<\epsilon \quad \text { whenever } \quad|x-c|<\delta \text { and } x \in D .
$$

(b) If $f(D) \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is bounded, then $f$ is continuous on $D$.
(c) If $c$ is an isolated point of $D$, then $f$ is continuous at $c$.
(d) If $f$ is continuous at $c$ and $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is a sequence in $D$, then $x_{n} \rightarrow c$ whenever $f\left(x_{n}\right) \rightarrow f(c)$.
(e) If $\left\{x_{n}\right\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $D$, then $\left\{f\left(x_{n}\right)\right\}$ is convergent.
7. Prove or give a counterexample.
(a) If $f$ and $f+g$ are continuous on $D$, then $g$ is continuous on $D$.
(b) If $f$ and $f g$ are continuous on $D$, then $g$ is continuous on $D$.
(c) If $f$ and $g$ are not continuous on $D$, then $f+g$ is not continuous on $D$.
(d) If $f$ and $g$ are not continuous on $D$, then $f g$ is not continuous on $D$.
(e) If $f^{2}$ is continuous on $D$, then $f$ is continuous on $D$.
(f) If $f$ is continuous on $D$, then $f(D)$ is a bounded set.
8. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
(a) Prove that if $f$ is continuous at $c$, then $|f|$ is continuous at $c$.
(b) Suppose that $|f|$ is continuous at $c$. Does it follow that $f$ is continuous at $c$ ? Justify your answer.
9. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous at $c \in D$. Prove that if $f(c)>0$, then there is an $\alpha>0$ and a neighborhood $U$ of $c$ such that $f(x)>\alpha$ for all $x \in U \cap D$.
10. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous at $c \in D$. Prove that there exists an $M>0$ and a neighborhood $U$ of $c$ such that $|f(x)| \leq M$ for all $x \in U \cap D$.

## III.3. PROPERTIES OF CONTINUOUS FUNCTIONS

Definition 5. A function $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is bounded if there exists a number $M$ such that $|f(x)| \leq M$ for all $x \in D$. That is, $f$ is bounded if $f(D)$ is a bounded subset of $\mathbb{R}$.

THEOREM 11. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. If $D$ is compact, then $f(D)$ is compact. (The continuous image of a compact set is compact.)

Proof: Let $\mathcal{G}=\left\{\mathcal{G}_{\alpha}\right\}$ be an open cover of $f(D)$. Since $f$ is continuous, for each open set $G_{\alpha}$ in $\mathcal{G}$ there is an open set $H_{\alpha}$ such that $H_{\alpha} \cap D=f^{-1}\left(G_{\alpha}\right)$. Also, since $f(D) \subseteq \cup G_{\alpha}$, it follows that

$$
D \subseteq \cup f^{-1}\left(G_{\alpha}\right) \subseteq \cup H_{\alpha}
$$

Thus, the collection $\left\{H_{\alpha}\right\}$ is an open cover of $D$. Since $D$ is compact this open cover has a finite subcover $H_{\alpha_{1}}, H_{\alpha_{1}}, \ldots, H_{\alpha_{n}}$. Now,

$$
D \subseteq\left(H_{\alpha_{1}} \cap D\right) \cup\left(H_{\alpha_{2}} \cap D\right) \cup \cdots \cup\left(H_{\alpha_{n}} \cap D\right)
$$

and

$$
f(D) \subseteq G_{\alpha_{1}} \cup G_{\alpha_{2}} \cup \cdots \cup G_{\alpha_{n}} .
$$

Therefore, the open cover $\mathcal{G}$ has a finite subcover and $f(D)$ is compact.
Definition 6. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R} . f\left(x_{0}\right)$ is the minimum value of $f$ on $D$ if $f\left(x_{0}\right) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in D . f\left(x_{1}\right)$ is the maximum value of $f$ on $D$ if $f(x) \leq f\left(x_{1}\right)$ for all $x \in D$.

COROLLARY 1. If $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $D$ is compact, then $f$ has a maximum value and a minimum value. That is, there exist points $x_{0}, x_{1} \in D$ such that $f\left(x_{0}\right) \leq f(x) \leq f\left(x_{1}\right)$ for all $x \in D$.

COROLLARY 2. If $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $D$ is compact, then $f(D)$ is closed and bounded.

THEOREM 12. Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. If $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ have opposite sign, then there is at least one point $c \in(a, b)$ such that $f(c)=0$.

Proof: Suppose that $f(a)<0$ and $f(b)>0$. Since $f(a)<0$ we know from the continuity of $f$ that there is an interval $[a, \delta)$ such that $f(x)<0$ on $[a, \delta)$. (See Exercises 3.2, \#9) Let

$$
c=\sup \{\delta: f \text { is negative on }[a, \delta)\}
$$

Clearly $c \leq b$.
We cannot have $f(c)>0$ for then $f(x)>0$ on some interval to the left of $c$, and we know that to the left of $c, f(x)<0$. This also shows that $c<b$.

We cannot have $f(c)<0$ for then $f(x)<0$ on some interval $[a, t)$, with $t>c$ which contradicts the definition of $c$.

It follows that $f(c)=0$.
THEOREM 13. Intermediate Value Theorem Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Suppose that $f(a) \neq f(b)$. If $k$ is a number between $f(a)$ and $f(b)$, then there is at least one number $c \in(a, b)$ such that $f(c)=k$.

COROLLARY If $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and $I \subseteq D$ is an interval, then $f(I)$ is an interval.

THEOREM 14. Suppose that $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. If $I \subseteq D$ is a compact interval, then $f(I)$ is a compact interval.

## Exercises 3.3

1. Show that the equation $x^{3}-4 x+2=0$ has three distinct roots in $[-3,3]$ and locate the roots between consecutive integers.
2. Prove that $\sin x+2 \cos x=x^{2}$ for some $x \in[0, \pi / 2]$.
3. Prove that there exists a positive number $c$ such that $c^{2}=2$.
4. True - False. Justify your answer by citing a theorem, giving a proof, or giving a counter-example.
(a) Suppose that $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous. Then there exists a point $x_{1} \in D$ such that $f(x) \leq f\left(x_{1}\right)$ for all $x \in D$.
(b) If $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is bounded and $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, then $f(D)$ is bounded.
(c) Let $f:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous and suppose that $f(a) \leq k \leq f(b)$. Then there exists a point $c \in[a, b]$ such that $f(c)=k$.
(d) Let $f:(a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. Then there is a point $x_{1} \in(a, b)$ such that $f(x) \leq f\left(x_{1}\right)$ for all $x \in(a, b)$.
(e) If $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is continuous and bounded on $D$, then $f$ has a maximum value and a minimum value on $D$.
5. Let $f: D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be continuous. For each of the following, prove or give a counterexample.
(a) If $D$ is open, then $f(D)$ is open.
(b) If $D$ is closed, then $f(D)$ is closed.
(c) If $D$ is not open, then $f(D)$ is not open.
(d) If $D$ is not closed, then $f(D)$ is not closed.
(e) If $D$ is not compact, then $f(D)$ is not compact.
(f) If $D$ is not bounded, then $f(D)$ is not bounded.
(g) If $D$ is an interval, then $f(D)$ is an interval.
(h) If $D$ is an interval and $f(D) \subseteq \mathcal{Q}$ (the rational numbers), then $f$ is constant.
6. Prove that every polynomial of odd degree has at least one real root.
7. Prove Theorem 13.
8. Prove Theorem 14.
9. Suppose that $f:[a, b] \rightarrow[a, b]$ is continuous. Prove that there is at least one point $c \in[a, b]$ such that $f(c)=c$. (Such a point is called a fixed point of $f$.)
10. Suppose that $f, g:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ are continuous, and suppose that $f(a) \leq g(a), f(b) \geq$ $g(b)$. Prove that there is at least one point $c \in[a, b]$ such that $f(c)=g(c)$.

## III.4. THE DERIVATIVE

DEFINITION 1. Let $I$ be an interval, let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and let $c \in I . f$ is differentiable at $c$ if

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}=m
$$

exists. $f$ is differentiable on $I$ if it is differentiable at each point of $I$.

Notation: If $f$ is differentiable at $c$, then the limit $m$ is called the derivative of $f$ at $c$ and is denoted by $f^{\prime}(c)$.

An equivalent definition of differentiability is:
Definition. $f$ is differentiable at $c$ if

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h}=m
$$

exists.

## Two basic derivatives

(a) Let $f(x) \equiv k, x \in \mathbb{R}, k$ constant. For any $c \in \mathbb{R}, f^{\prime}(c)=0$

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}=\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{k-k}{x-c}=\lim _{x \rightarrow c} 0=0 .
$$

(b) Let $f(x)=x, x \in \mathbb{R}$. For any $c \in \mathbb{R}, f^{\prime}(c)=1$

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}=\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{x-c}{x-c}=\lim _{x \rightarrow c} 1=1 .
$$

## Examples:

(a) Let $f(x)=x^{2}+3 x-1$ on $\mathbb{R}$. Then for any $c \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c} & =\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{x^{2}+3 x-1-\left(c^{2}+3 c-1\right)}{x-c} \\
& =\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{x^{2}-c^{2}+3(x-c)}{x-c}=\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{(x-c)(x+c+3}{x-c} \\
& =\lim _{x \rightarrow c}(x+c+3)=2 c+3
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $f^{\prime}(c)=2 c+3$.
(b) Same function using the alternative definition.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h} & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{(c+h)^{2}+3(c+h)-1-\left(c^{2}+3 c-1\right)}{x-c} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{c^{2}+2 c h+h^{2}+3 c+3 h-c^{2}-3 c}{h}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 c h+h^{2}+3 h}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0}(2 c+h+3)=2 c+3
\end{aligned}
$$

Note: The alternative definition is usually easier to use when calculating the derivative of a given function because it's usually easier to expand an expression than it is to factor. For example:
(c) Let $f(x)=\sin x$ on $\mathbb{R}$, and let $c \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}=\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{\sin x-\sin c}{x-c}=? ? ? ?
$$

On the other hand

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h} & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin (c+h)-\sin c}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin c \cos h+\cos c \sin h-\sin c}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin c[\cos h-1]+\cos c \sin h}{h} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \sin c\left[\frac{\cos h-1}{h}\right]+\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \cos c\left[\frac{\sin h}{h}\right]=\cos c
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore $f^{\prime}(c)=\cos c$. Here we used the important trigonometric limits:

$$
\lim _{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin \theta}{\theta}=1 \quad \text { and } \quad \lim _{\theta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos \theta-1}{\theta}=0 .
$$

(c) Let $f(x)=\sqrt{x}, x \geq 0$ and let $c>0$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(c+h)-f(c)}{h} & =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{c+h}-\sqrt{c}}{h}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{c+h}-\sqrt{c}}{h} \frac{\sqrt{c+h}+\sqrt{c}}{\sqrt{c+h}+\sqrt{c}} \\
& =\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{h(\sqrt{c+h}+\sqrt{c})}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{(\sqrt{c+h}+\sqrt{c})}=\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{c}}
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, $f^{\prime}(c)=\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{c}}$.

NOTE: In each of the examples we started with a function $f$ and "derived" a new function $f^{\prime}$ which is called the derivative of $f$. If we start with a function of $x$, then it
is standard to denote the derivative as a function of $x$. For example, if $f(x)=x^{2}+3 x-1$, then $f^{\prime}(x)=2 x+3$; if $f(x)=\sin x$, then $f^{\prime}(x)=\cos x$; if $f(x)=\sqrt{x}$, then $f^{\prime}(x)=1 / 2 \sqrt{x}$

Example: A function that fails to be differentiable at a point $c$.
Set

$$
f(x)=\left\{\begin{aligned}
x^{2}+1, & x \leq 1 \\
3-x, & x>1
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

You can verify that $f$ is continuous for all $x$; in particular, $f$ continuous at $x=1$. We show that $f$ is not differentiable at 1 .

For $h<0$,

$$
\frac{f(1+h)-f(1)}{h}=\frac{(1+h)^{2}+1-(2)}{h}=\frac{2 h+h^{2}}{h}=2+h
$$

and

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0^{-}} \frac{f(1+h)-f(1)}{h}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0^{-}}(2+h)=2 .
$$

For $h>0$,

$$
\frac{f(1+h)-f(1)}{h}=\frac{3-(1+h)-(2)}{h}=\frac{-h}{h}=-1
$$

and

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0^{+}} \frac{f(1+h)-f(1)}{h}=\lim _{h \rightarrow 0^{+}}(-1)=-1 .
$$

Therefore,

$$
\lim _{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1+h)-f(1)}{h}
$$

does not exist.
THEOREM 15. If $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable at $c \in I$, then $f$ is continuous at $c$.

Proof: For $x \in I, x \neq c$, we have

$$
f(x)=(x-c) \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}+f(c) .
$$

Since $f$ is differentiable at $c$,

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}=f^{\prime}(c)
$$

exists. Therefore,

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=\left[\lim _{x \rightarrow c}(x-c)\right] \lim _{x \rightarrow c}\left[\frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c}\right]+\lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(c)=0 \cdot f^{\prime}(c)+f(c)=f(c)
$$

By the Corollary to Theorem 6, f is continuous at $c$.

## Differentiability of Combinations of Functions

THEOREM 16. Arithmetic: Let $f, g: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and let $c \in I$. If $f$ and $g$ are differentiable at $c$, then
(a) $f+g$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
(f+g)^{\prime}(c)=f^{\prime}(c)+g^{\prime}(c) .
$$

(b) $f-g$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
(f-g)^{\prime}(c)=f^{\prime}(c)-g^{\prime}(c) .
$$

(c) $f g$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
(f g)^{\prime}(c)=f(c) g^{\prime}(c)+g(c) f^{\prime}(c) .
$$

For any constant $k, k f$ is differentiable at $c$ and $(k f)^{\prime}(c)=k f^{\prime}(c)$.
(d) If $g(c) \neq 0$, then $f / g$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)^{\prime}(c)=\frac{g(c) f^{\prime}(c)-f(c) g^{\prime}(c)}{g^{2}(c)}
$$

Proof: (c)

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{f(x) g(x)-f(c) g(c)}{x-c} & =\frac{f(x) g(x)-f(x) g(c)+f(x) g(c)-f(c) g(c)}{x-c} \\
& =f(x) \frac{g(x)-g(c)}{x-c}+g(c) \frac{f(x)-f(c)}{x-c} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $f$ is continuous at $c, \lim _{x \rightarrow c} f(x)=f(c)$. Therefore, since $f$ and $g$ are continuous at $c$,

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) g(x)-f(c) g(c)}{x-c}=f(c) g^{\prime}(c)+g(c) f^{\prime}(c) .
$$

(d) We show first that

$$
\left[\frac{1}{g(c)}\right]^{\prime}=\frac{-g^{\prime}(c)}{g^{2}(c)} .
$$

Since $g$ is continuous at $c$ and $g(c) \neq 0$, there is an interval $I$ containing $c$ such that $g(c) \neq 0$ on $I$. Now

$$
\frac{\frac{1}{g(x)}-\frac{1}{g(c)}}{x-c}=\frac{1}{g(x) g(c)} \frac{g(c)-g(x)}{x-c}=-\frac{1}{g(x) g(c)} \frac{g(x)-g(c)}{x-c} .
$$

Since $g$ is continuous at $c, \lim _{x \text { toc }} g(x)=g(c)$. Therefore

$$
\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{\frac{1}{g(x)}-\frac{1}{g(c)}}{x-c}=-\frac{1}{g^{2}(c)} g^{\prime}(c)=\frac{-g^{\prime}(c)}{g^{2}(c)}
$$

(d) now follows by differentiating the product $f(x) \frac{1}{g(x)}$ using (c).

Example: If $f(x)=x^{n}, n$ an integer, then $f^{\prime}(x)=n x^{n-1}$.
Proof: Assume first that $n$ is a positive integer, and use induction. Let $S$ be the set of positive integers for which the statement holds. Then $1 \in S$ since if $f(x)=x$, then $f^{\prime}(x)=1=1 x^{0}$. Now assume that the positive integer $k \in S$ and set $f(x)=x^{k+1}$. Since

$$
x^{k+1}=x^{k} x
$$

we have, by the product rule,

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=x^{k} 1+x k x^{k-1}=(k+1) x^{k}
$$

and so $k+1 \in S$ and the statement holds for all positive integers $n$.
If $n$ is a negative integer, then, for $x \neq 0$,

$$
f(x)=x^{n}=\frac{1}{x^{-n}}
$$

where $-n$ is a positive integer. By the quotient rule,

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=\frac{x^{-n}(0)-(-n) x-n-1}{\left(x^{-n}\right)^{2}}=\frac{n x^{-(n+1)}}{x^{-2 n}}=n x^{n-1} .
$$

Finally, if $f(x)=x^{0} \equiv 1$, then $f^{\prime}(x)=0=0 \frac{1}{x}$. There is slight difficulty with $x=0$ in this case; $0^{0}$ is a so-called indeterminate form.

THEOREM 17. (The Chain Rule) Suppose that $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ and $g: J \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and suppose that $g(J) \subset I$. If $g$ is differentiable at $c \in I$ and $f$ is differentiable at $g(c)$ inJ, then $f(g)$ is differentiable at $c$ and

$$
(f[g(c)])^{\prime}=f^{\prime}[g(c)] g^{\prime}(c) .
$$

## Pseudo-proof:

$$
\frac{f[g(x)]-f(g(c)]}{x-c}=\frac{f[g(x)]-f[g(c)]}{g(x)-g(c)} \frac{f[g(x)]-f(g(c)]}{x-c} .
$$

Set $u=g(x)$ and $a=g(c)$. Then, as $x \rightarrow x, u \rightarrow a$ since $g$ is continuous at $c$. Thus $\lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f[g(x)]-f(g(c)]}{x-c}=\lim _{u \rightarrow a} \frac{f(u)-f(a)}{u-a} \lim _{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f[g(x)]-f(g(c)]}{x-c}=f^{\prime}(a) g^{\prime}(c)=f^{\prime}[g(c)] g^{\prime}(c)$.

The problem with this proof is that while we know $x-c \neq 0$, we don't know that $u-a \neq 0$; that is, we don't know that $g(x) \neq g(c)$. This proof can be modified to take care of that contingency.

## Exercises 3.4

1. Use either of the definitions of the derivative to find the derivative of each of the following functions.
(a) $f(x)=\frac{1}{x}$.
(b) $f(x)=\sqrt{x}$.
(c) $f(x)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$.
(d) $f(x)=x^{1 / 3}$.
(e) $f(x)=\cos x$.
2. Determine the values of $x$ for which the given function is differentiable and find the derivative.
(a) $f(x)=|x-3|$.
(b) $f(x)=\left|x^{2}-1\right|$.
(c) $f(x)=x|x|$.
3. Set $f(x)=\left\{\begin{aligned} x^{2}, & \text { if } x \geq 0 \\ 0, & x<0\end{aligned}\right.$
(a) Sketch the graph of $f$ and show that $f$ is differentiable at 0 .
(b) Find $f^{\prime}$ and sketch the graph of $f^{\prime}$.
(c) Is $f^{\prime}$ differentiable at 0 ?
4. Set $f(x)=\left\{\begin{aligned} x \sin (1 / x), & \text { if } x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x=0\end{aligned}\right.$ Determine whether or not $f$ is differentiable at 0 .
5. Set $g(x)=\left\{\begin{aligned} x^{2} \sin (1 / x), & \text { if } x \neq 0 \\ 0, & x=0\end{aligned}\right.$
(a) Calculate the derivative of $g$ at any number $c \neq 0$.
(b) Use the definition to show that $g$ is differentiable at 0 and find $g^{\prime}(0)$.
(c) Is $g^{\prime}$ continuous at 0 ?
