

## Limit (الغاية)

We use limits to describe the way a function varies. Some functions vary *continuously*; small changes in  $x$  produce only small changes in  $f(x)$ . Other functions can have values that jump, vary erratically, or tend to increase or decrease without bound. The notion of limit gives a precise way to distinguish among these behaviors.

نستخدم الغايات لوصف الطريقة التي تختلف بها الدالة. تختلف بعض الدوال باستمرار ؛ التغييرات الصغيرة في  $x$  تنتج فقط تغييرات صغيرة في  $f(x)$ . ودوال أخرى يمكن أن يكون القيم التي تقفز أو تتغير بشكل متقطع أو تميل إلى الزيادة أو النقصان بدون حدود. مفهوم الغاية تعطي طريقة دقيقة للتمييز بين تلك السلوكيات.

### Definition of Limit

Suppose we are watching the values of a function  $f(x)$  as  $x$  approaches  $c$  (without taking on the value  $c$  itself). Certainly we want to be able to say that  $f(x)$  stays within one-tenth of a unit from  $L$  as soon as  $x$  stays within some distance  $d$  of  $c$  (Fig. 3).

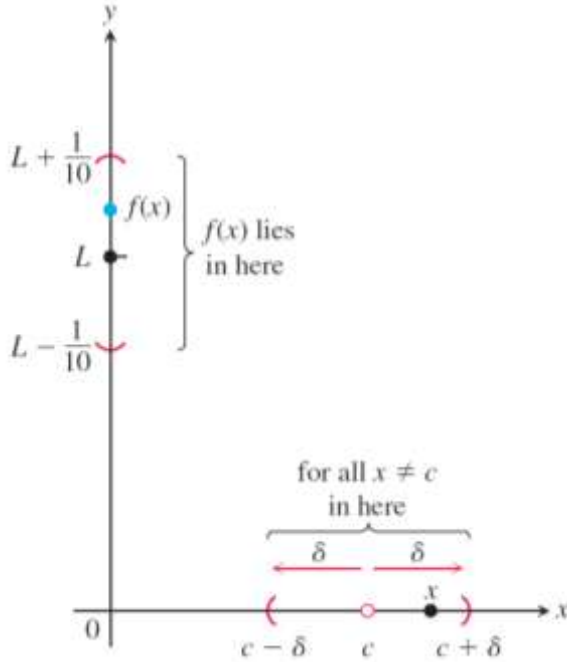


Fig.(3) How should we define  $\delta > 0$  so that keeping  $x$  within the interval  $(c - \delta, c + \delta)$  will keep  $f(x)$  within the interval  $(L - 1/10, L + 1/10)$ ?

But that in itself is not enough, because as  $x$  continues on its course toward  $c$ , what is to prevent  $f(x)$  from jumping around within the interval from  $L - (1/10)$  to  $L + (1/10)$  without tending toward  $L$ ? We can be told that the error can be no more than  $1/100$  or  $1/1000$  or  $1/100,000$ . Each time, we find a new  $\delta$ -interval about  $c$  so that keeping  $x$  within that interval satisfies the new error tolerance.

And each time the possibility exists that  $f(x)$  might jump away from  $L$  at some later stage.

We can present a matching distance  $d$  that keeps  $x$  “close enough” to  $c$  to keep  $f(x)$  within that  $\varepsilon$ -tolerance of  $L$  (Fig.4). This leads us to the precise definition of a limit.

**Def:** - Let  $f(x)$  be defined on an open interval about  $c$ , except possibly at  $c$  itself. We say that the limit of  $f(x)$  as  $x$  approaches  $c$  is the number  $L$ , and write

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

if, for every number  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a corresponding number  $\delta > 0$  a such that

$$|f(x) - L| < \varepsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad 0 < |x - a| < \delta$$

To visualize the definition, imagine machining a cylindrical shaft to a close tolerance .The diameter of the shaft is determined by turning a dial to a setting measured by a variable  $x$ . We try for diameter  $L$ , but since nothing is perfect we must be satisfied with a diameter  $f(x)$  somewhere between  $L - \varepsilon$  and  $L + \varepsilon$ . The number  $\delta$  is our control tolerance for the dial; it tells us how close our dial setting must be to the setting  $x = c$  in order to guarantee that the diameter  $f(x)$  of the shaft will be accurate to within  $\varepsilon$  of  $L$ .

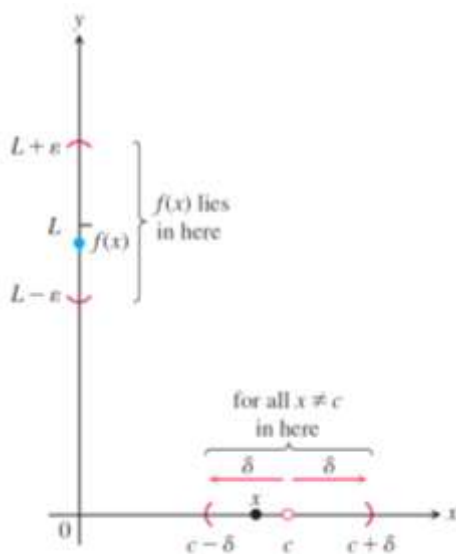


Fig.(4) The relation of  $\delta$  and  $\varepsilon$  in the definition of limit.

As the tolerance for error becomes stricter, we may have to adjust  $\delta$ . The value of  $\delta$ , how tight our control setting must be, depends on the value of  $\varepsilon$ , the error tolerance. The definition of limit extends to functions on more general domains. It is only required that each open interval around  $c$  contains points in the domain of the function other than  $c$ .

**Theorem:-**

If  $L, M, c,$  and  $k$  are real no.s and

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

1. *Sum Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) + g(x)) = L + M$
2. *Difference Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) - g(x)) = L - M$
3. *Constant Multiple Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (k \cdot f(x)) = k \cdot L$
4. *Product Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} (f(x) \cdot g(x)) = L \cdot M$
5. *Quotient Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{L}{M}, \quad M \neq 0$
6. *Power Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} [f(x)]^n = L^n, n$  a positive integer
7. *Root Rule:*  $\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \sqrt[n]{f(x)} = \sqrt[n]{L} = L^{1/n}, n$  a positive integer

(if  $n$  is even, we assume that  $f(x) \geq 0$  for  $x$  in an interval containing  $c$ )

Ex. If  $f(x) = 2x + 5$ , Find:  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x)$ .

Sol.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (2x + 5) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} 2x + \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} 5 = 2 \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} x + 5 \\ &= 2(1) + 5 = 7 \end{aligned}$$

Ex. If  $f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 3x + 2}{x - 2}$ , Find :  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x)$ .

Sol.

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 3x + 2}{x - 2} = \frac{4 - 6 + 2}{2 - 2} = \frac{0}{0} \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 - 3x + 2}{x - 2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{(x - 2)(x - 1)}{(x - 2)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 2} (x - 1) \\ &= 2 - 1 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

## Limits of Polynomials (الغاية لمتعددات الحدود)

If  $f(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$  is any polynomial fun. ,Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} f(x) = f(c) = a_n c^n + a_{n-1} c^{n-1} + \dots + a_0$$

## Limits of Quotients of Polynomials

If  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  are polynomials fun. , Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{f(c)}{g(c)} \quad , \quad g(c) \neq 0$$

Ex. If  $f(x) = (x^2 + 3x - 1)$ , Find :  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} f(x)$ .

Sol.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} f(x) = (-1)^2 + 3(-1) - 1 = -3$$

Ex. Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 + 2x + 4}{x + 2}$

Sol.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 2} \frac{x^2 + 2x + 4}{x + 2} = \frac{(2)^2 + 2(2) + 4}{x + 2} = \frac{12}{4} = 3$$

Ex. Find  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1}$  ,  $x \neq 1$

Sol.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{x^3 - 1}{x - 1} \quad a^3 - b^3 = (a - b)(a^2 + ab + b^2)$$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{(x - 1)(x^2 + x + 1)}{(x - 1)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (x^2 + x + 1) = 3$$

Ex. Find  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x+h} - \sqrt{x}}{h}$  ,  $h \neq 0$

Sol.

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sqrt{x+h} - \sqrt{x}}{h} \times \frac{\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x}} \quad (\text{الضرب بمرافق البسط})$$

$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{x+h-x}{h(\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x})} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{h}{h(\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x})}$$

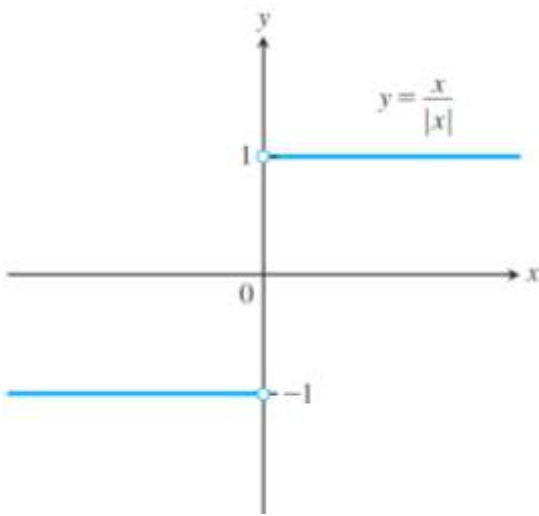
$$= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{(\sqrt{x+h} + \sqrt{x})} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{x}} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x}}$$

## One-Sided Limits (الغايات من جهة واحدة)

In this section we extend the limit concept to *one-sided limits*, which are limits as  $x$  approaches the number  $c$  from the left-hand side (where  $x < c$ ) or the right-hand side ( $x > c$ ) only. These allow us to describe functions that have different limits at a point, depending on whether we approach the point from the left or from the right. One-sided limits also allow us to say what it means for a function to have a limit at an endpoint of an interval.

### Approaching a Limit from One Side

Suppose a function  $f$  is defined on an interval that extends to both sides of a number  $c$ . In order for  $f$  to have a limit  $L$  as  $x$  approaches  $c$ , the values of  $f(x)$  must approach the value  $L$  as  $x$  approaches  $c$  from either side. Because of this, we sometimes say that the limit is **two-sided**. If  $f$  fails to have a two-sided limit at  $c$ , it may still have a one-sided limit, that is, a limit if the approach is only from one side. If the approach is from the right, the limit is a **right-hand limit** or **limit from the right**. From the left, it is a **left-hand limit** or **limit from the left**.



The function  $f(x) = \frac{x}{|x|}$  (Fig. 5) has limit 1 as  $x$  approaches 0 from the right, and limit -1 as  $x$  approaches 0 from the left. Since these one-sided limit values are not the same, there is no single number that  $f(x)$  approaches as  $x$  approaches 0. So  $f(x)$  does not have a (two-sided) limit at 0.

Fig.(5) Different right-hand and left-hand limits at the origin.

Intuitively, if we only consider the values of  $f(x)$  on an interval  $(c, b)$ , where  $c < b$ , and the values of  $f(x)$  become arbitrarily close to  $L$  as  $x$  approaches  $c$  from within that interval, then  $f$  has **right-hand limit**  $L$  at  $c$ . In this case we write

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

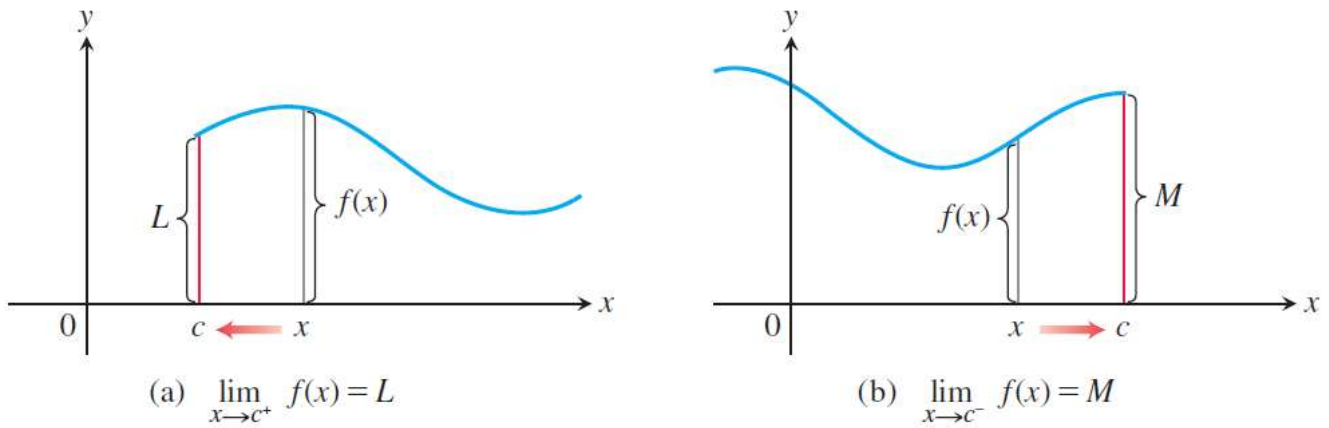
The notation “ $x \rightarrow c^+$ ” means that we consider only values of  $f(x)$  for  $x$  greater than  $c$ . We don't consider values of  $f(x)$  for  $x \leq c$ . Similarly, if  $f(x)$  is defined on an interval  $(a, c)$ , where  $a < c$  and  $f(x)$  approaches arbitrarily close to  $M$  as  $x$  approaches  $c$  from within that interval, then  $f$  has **left-hand limit**  $M$  at  $c$ . We write

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

The symbol “ $x \rightarrow c^-$ ” means that we consider the values of  $f$  only at  $x$ -values less than  $c$ . These informal definitions of one-sided limits are illustrated in (Fig. 6). For the function

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{|x|} \text{ in (Fig.5) we have}$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = -1$$



Fig(6) (a) Right-hand limit as  $x$  approaches  $c$ . (b) Left-hand limit as  $x$  approaches  $c$