

**Continuous functions**

Six examples of showing a function is continuous.

1. Let

$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - 2x - 15}{x + 3}, x \neq -3.$$

How should  $f(-3)$  be defined so that  $f$  is continuous at  $-3$ ?

**Solution** Recall the definition that  $f$  is continuous at  $a$  iff  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ . Since

$$\frac{x^2 - 2x - 15}{x + 3} = \frac{(x + 3)(x - 5)}{x + 3} = x - 5$$

for all  $x \neq -3$ , we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -3} \frac{x^2 - 2x - 15}{x + 3} = \lim_{x \rightarrow -3} (x - 5) = -8.$$

Thus choose  $f(-3) = -8$ .

2. Prove, by verifying the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition that  $h(x) = |x|$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ .

Deduce that  $h$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

(You need not verify the definition for  $x \neq 0$ , instead quote results from the lecture notes.)

**Solution** We first prove that  $h$  is continuous at 0 by verifying the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition. Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given, choose  $\delta = \varepsilon$ . and assume  $|x - 0| < \delta$ . Then

$$|h(x) - 0| = ||x| - 0| = |x| < \delta = \varepsilon$$

as required.

**Note** If you had not been asked to verify the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition you could have examined the two one-sided limits

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} h(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} |x| = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x = 0,$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} h(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} |x| = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} (-x) = 0.$$

Since both limits exist and are equal we can say  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} h(x) = 0$ . And since  $0 = h(0)$  we have  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} h(x) = h(0)$ , which is the definition that  $h$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ . **End of Note**

To show that  $|x|$  is continuous on **all** of  $\mathbb{R}$  it remains to prove it is continuous at all  $x \neq 0$ . The question explicitly says that you are **not** required to verify the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition for such  $x$ . Instead we quote results from the course.

If  $x > 0$  then  $h(x) = |x| = x$ , a polynomial of  $x$ , so  $h(x)$  is continuous.

If  $x < 0$  then  $h(x) = |x| = -x$ , a polynomial of  $x$ , so  $h(x)$  is again continuous.

Thus  $h$  is continuous for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , i.e. it is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

3. Prove, by verifying the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition that

i) the function  $f(x) = x^2$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

**Hint** Look back at Question 2 on Question Sheet 1 and replace  $a = 2$  seen there by any  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ .

ii) the function  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$ .

**Hint** Look back at Question 11 on Question Sheet 1 and replace the  $a = 9$  seen there by any  $a > 0$ .

iii) the function

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 + x & \text{for } x \leq 1 \\ \sqrt{x+3} & \text{for } x > 1, \end{cases}$$

is continuous at  $x = 1$ .

**Hint** Verify the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definitions of both one-sided limits separately at  $x = 1$ .

iv) the function

$$\frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$$

is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution** i) *Rough Work.* Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  be given. Assume  $|x - a| < \delta$  (remember, that when looking at continuity we do **not** have to exclude  $x = a$ ). Consider

$$|f(x) - f(a)| = |x^2 - a^2| = |x - a| |x + a| < \delta |x + a|.$$

Recall the idea that if  $x$  is ‘close’ to  $a$  then  $|x + a|$  should be ‘close’ to  $2|a|$ , in particular  $|x + a|$  will not be much larger than  $2|a|$ . A way of implementing this idea is to assume  $|x - a|$  is small and use this to estimate  $|x + a|$  by rewriting this so we see  $x - a$ , i.e. as

$$|x + a| = |(x - a) + 2a|.$$

In detail, assume  $\delta \leq 1$  in which case  $|x - a| \leq 1$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |x + a| &= |(x - a) + 2a| \\ &\leq |x - a| + 2|a| \quad \text{by triangle inequality} \\ &\leq 1 + 2|a|. \end{aligned}$$

(This is where we see that  $|x + a|$  is not be much larger than  $2|a|$ .) Thus  $|f(x) - f(a)| < \delta(1 + 2|a|)$  which we can ensure is  $< \varepsilon$  if we demand  $\delta \leq \varepsilon/(1 + 2|a|)$ .

*End of Rough Work.*

**Note** the most commonly seen **error** here is the following:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 < |x - a| < \delta \leq 1 &\implies -1 < x - a < 1 \\ &\implies 2a - 1 < x + a < 2a + 1 \\ &\implies |x + a| < |2a + 1|. \end{aligned}$$

Yet this is **wrong**. What would this be saying if  $a = -1/2$ ? What is wrong with this sequence of implications? **End of Note**

**Solution** Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Choose

$$\delta = \min\left(1, \frac{\varepsilon}{1 + 2|a|}\right).$$

Assume  $|x - a| < \delta$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - f(a)| &= |x - a| |x + a| \\ &= |x - a| |(x - a) + 2a| \\ &\leq |x - a| (|x - a| + 2|a|) && \text{by triangle inequality,} \\ &< \delta (1 + 2|a|) && \text{since } |x - a| < \delta \leq 1 \\ &< \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{1 + 2|a|}\right) (1 + 2|a|) && \text{since } \delta \leq \varepsilon / (1 + 2|a|) \\ &= \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have verified the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition that  $f$  is continuous at  $a$ .

True for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  means that  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

ii) If you look back at Question 11 on Sheet 1 you see that to verify the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 9} \sqrt{x} = 3$  we required  $\delta \leq 9$ . When replacing 9 by any  $a > 0$  we look at  $x$  satisfying  $|x - a| < \delta$ , i.e.  $x \in (a - \delta, a + \delta)$ . If  $a - \delta < 0$  then the interval  $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$  will contain negative  $x$  yet for  $\sqrt{x}$  to be defined we require  $x \geq 0$ . Hence we require  $a - \delta \geq 0$ , i.e.  $\delta \leq a$ .

Let  $a > 0$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Choose  $\delta = \min(a, \varepsilon\sqrt{a})$ . Assume  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ .

Then  $-\delta < x - a < \delta$ . Since  $\delta \leq a$  the lower bound becomes  $-a < x - a$ , i.e.  $x > 0$  and thus  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is well-defined.

We start with a “trick” seen in Sheet 1, based on the difference of squares,

$$\begin{aligned}
 |g(x) - g(a)| &= |\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}| = \left| (\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}) \frac{(\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{a})}{(\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{a})} \right| \\
 &= \frac{|x - a|}{\sqrt{x} + \sqrt{a}} < \frac{|x - a|}{\sqrt{a}} \quad \text{having used } \sqrt{x} > 0, \\
 &< \frac{\delta}{\sqrt{a}} \leq \frac{\varepsilon\sqrt{a}}{\sqrt{a}} \quad \text{since } \delta \leq \varepsilon\sqrt{a}, \\
 &= \varepsilon.
 \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have verified the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = g(a),$$

i.e. that  $g$  is continuous at  $a$ .

True for all  $a > 0$  means that  $g$  is continuous on  $(0, \infty)$ .

**Note** A not uncommon error was to misinterpret the hint and start with

$$|\sqrt{x} - \sqrt{a}| = |x^{1/4} - x^{1/4}| |x^{1/4} + x^{1/4}|.$$

Unfortunately this makes everything more complicated rather than simpler. **End of Note**

iii) Because  $f$  is given by different formula for  $x > 1$  and  $x < 1$  we need to examine the two one-sided limits and show that

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

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given.

**For the limit from below**, i.e. as  $x \rightarrow 1^-$ . Choose  $\delta = \min(1, \varepsilon/3)$ . Assume  $1 - \delta < x < 1$ .

Then  $\delta \leq 1$  implies  $0 < x < 1$  and thus  $|x + 2| < 3$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 |f(x) - 2| &= |x^2 + x - 2| = |(x + 2)(x - 1)| \\
 &\leq 3|x - 1| \leq 3\delta \leq 3\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{3}\right) = \varepsilon.
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have verified the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of the one-sided limit

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

**For the limit from above**, i.e. as  $x \rightarrow 1+$ . Choose  $\delta = \varepsilon$ . Assume  $1 < x < 1 + \delta$ , which will be used below as  $x - 1 < \delta$ .

Then using a “trick” seen in the solution to the previous question,

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - 2| &= \sqrt{x+3} - 2 = (\sqrt{x+3} - 2) \times \frac{\sqrt{x+3} + 2}{\sqrt{x+3} + 2} \\ &= \frac{(x+3) - 4}{\sqrt{x+3} + 2} = \frac{x-1}{\sqrt{x+3} + 2} \\ &\leq x-1, \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

using  $\sqrt{x+3} + 2 \geq 1$  (and  $x-1$  positive). Hence

$$|f(x) - 2| \leq x - 1 < \delta = \varepsilon.$$

Thus we have verified the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition of the one-sided limit

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

**Note** It would be reasonable, since  $x > 1$ , to say  $\sqrt{x+3} + 2 > 4$  and thus

$$\frac{x-1}{\sqrt{x+3} + 2} < \frac{x-1}{4} < \frac{\delta}{4}.$$

You would then choose  $\delta = 4\varepsilon$ . **End of Note**

iv) Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  be given.

*Rough Work.*

Consider

$$\left| \frac{1}{1+x^2} - \frac{1}{1+a^2} \right| = \left| \frac{a^2 - x^2}{(1+x^2)(1+a^2)} \right| \leq |x^2 - a^2|,$$

having used  $1+x^2 \geq 1$ ,  $1+a^2 \geq 1$  and  $|a^2 - x^2| = |x^2 - a^2|$ . But now we are back in part (i) where we are trying to show that  $|x^2 - a^2| < \varepsilon$ . Thus choose  $\delta$  as we did there.

*End of Rough work*

**Solution** Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\varepsilon > 0$  be given. Choose

$$\delta = \min \left( 1, \frac{\varepsilon}{1+2|a|} \right).$$

Assume  $0 < |x - a| < \delta$ . Then, starting as in the rough work,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \frac{1}{1+x^2} - \frac{1}{1+a^2} \right| &\leq |x^2 - a^2| = |x - a| |x + a| \\ &= |x - a| |(x - a) + 2a| \\ &\leq |x - a| (|x - a| + 2|a|) && \text{by triangle inequality,} \\ &< |x - a| (1 + 2|a|) && \text{since } |x - a| < \delta \leq 1 \\ &< \left( \frac{\varepsilon}{1+2|a|} \right) (1+2|a|) \\ &\quad \text{since } |x - a| < \delta \leq \varepsilon / (1+2|a|) \\ &= \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Hence we have verified the  $\varepsilon$ - $\delta$  definition that  $1/(1+x^2)$  is continuous at  $a$ .

True for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  means that  $1/(1+x^2)$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

4. Are the following functions continuous on the domains given or not?

Either prove that they are continuous *by using the appropriate Continuity Rules*, or show they are not.

i)

$$f(x) = \frac{x+2}{x^2+1} \text{ on } \mathbb{R}.$$

ii)

$$g(x) = \frac{3+2x}{x^2-1},$$

firstly on  $[-1/2, 1/2]$ , secondly on  $[-2, 2]$ .

iii)

$$h(x) = \frac{x^2+x-2}{(x^2+1)(x-1)} \text{ on } \mathbb{R}.$$

iv)

$$j(x) = \begin{cases} x+2 & \text{if } x < -1 \\ x^2 & \text{if } -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ x-2 & \text{if } x > 1. \end{cases} .$$

v)

$$k(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{\sin x}{x} & x \neq 0 \\ 1 & x = 0. \end{cases} .$$

vi)

$$\ell(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1-\cos x}{x^2} & x \neq 0 \\ 1 & x = 0. \end{cases} .$$

**Solution** i) The given function  $f$  is a quotient of polynomials, i.e. a rational function. The polynomials are continuous everywhere. Hence  $f$  is continuous wherever it is defined. The denominator,  $x^2+1$ , is never zero for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , so  $f$  is defined everywhere. Hence  $f$  is continuous everywhere.

ii) The argument is as in part i). But now the denominator is  $x^2-1$  which is zero at  $x = \pm 1$ . So

- $g$  is well-defined throughout  $[-1/2, 1/2]$  and so  $g$  is continuous on  $[-1/2, 1/2]$ , but

- $g$  is not defined everywhere in  $[-2, 2]$  and, in fact,  $g$  is continuous on  $[-2, 2]$  except at  $-1$  and  $1$ .

iii) As written,  $h$  is defined everywhere except at  $x = 1$ . So  $h$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{1\}$ .

**Note** When  $x = 1$  the numerator is also 0. In fact  $x^2 + x - 2 = (x + 2)(x - 1)$  and thus

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

In this way we could *extend* the definition of  $h$  to all of  $\mathbb{R}$  but we would then have a *different* function.

iv)  $j(x)$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  except possibly at  $x = -1$  and  $x = 1$ .

At  $x = -1$  the two one-sided limits are

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow -1^-} j(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow -1^-} (x + 2) = 1, \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow -1^+} j(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow -1^+} x^2 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Since the two one-sided limits exist and are equal we deduce that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} j(x) = 1$ . Yet  $1 = j(-1)$  so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} j(x) = j(-1)$  which is the definition that  $j$  is continuous at  $x = -1$ .

At  $x = 1$  the two one-sided limits are

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} j(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} x^2 = 1, \\ \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} j(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} (x - 2) = -1. \end{aligned}$$

Different one-sided limits means that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} j(x)$  does **not** exist and so cannot equal  $j(1)$ . Thus  $j$  is **not** continuous at  $x = 1$ .

v) If  $x \neq 0$  then  $k(x) = (\sin x)/x$ . We have shown that  $\sin x$  is continuous, as is  $x$ , for  $x \neq 0$ . Hence  $k(x)$  is continuous for  $x \neq 0$  by the Quotient Rule.

If  $x = 0$  we have

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

a result seen in the lectures. By definition,  $k(0) = 1$ , thus  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} k(x) = k(0)$  and so  $k$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ .

Hence  $k$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

vi) If  $x \neq 0$  then  $\ell(x) = (1 - \cos x)/x^2$ . We have shown that  $\cos x$  is continuous, as is  $x^2$ , for  $x \neq 0$ . Hence  $\ell(x)$  is continuous for  $x \neq 0$  by the Quotient Rule.

If  $x = 0$  we have

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ell(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos x}{x^2} = \frac{1}{2},$$

a result seen in the lectures. By definition,  $\ell(0) = 1$ , thus  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \ell(x) \neq \ell(0)$  and so  $\ell$  is **not** continuous at  $x = 0$ .

Hence  $\ell$  is not continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

5. i) Prove, by verifying the definition, that  $\cos x$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .  
**Hint** Make use of  $\cos(x + y) = \cos x \cos y - \sin x \sin y$ , valid for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ .  
ii) Prove that  $\tan x$  is continuous for all  $x \neq \pi/2 + k\pi, k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

**Solution** i) Let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  be given. We know that  $\cos x$  is continuous at  $a$  if, and only if,  $\cos(x + a)$  is continuous at  $x = 0$ . Thus we need examine

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos(x + a) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (\cos x \cos a - \sin x \sin a) \\ &\quad \text{by the assumption in the question,} \\ &= \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x \right) \cos a - \left( \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \sin x \right) \sin a \\ &\quad \text{by the Product and Sum Rules for limits,} \\ &= 1 \times \cos a - 0 \times \sin a \\ &= \cos a = \cos(0 + a). \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $\cos(x + a)$  is continuous at  $x = 0$  and hence  $\cos x$  is continuous at  $a$ . True for all  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  means  $\cos$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

ii) Let  $a \neq \pi/2 + k\pi$  for any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$  be given. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \tan x = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin x}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos x}$$

by the Limit Law for Quotients. This is allowable since both limits exist (because  $\sin$  and  $\cos$  are everywhere continuous) and further  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos x = \cos a \neq 0$  since  $a \neq \pi/2 + k\pi$  for any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ . Thus

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \tan x = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin x}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos x} = \frac{\sin a}{\cos a} = \tan a.$$

Since the *limit* of  $\tan$  at  $a$  equals the *value* of  $\tan$  at  $a$  we have verified the definition that  $\tan$  is continuous at  $a$ . Yet  $a$  was arbitrary subject to being not of the form  $\pi/2 + k\pi$  for any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ , therefore  $\tan$  is continuous for all  $x \neq \pi/2 + k\pi$  for any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

6. Show that the hyperbolic functions  $\sinh x$ ,  $\cosh x$  and  $\tanh x$  are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution** Recall that

$$\sinh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2}, \quad \cosh x = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \tanh x = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}.$$

We know that  $e^x$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  as is thus  $e^{-x}$ , either by the Quotient Rule since  $e^{-x} = 1/e^x$  and  $e^x \neq 0$  or by the Composition Rule  $x \mapsto -x \mapsto e^{-x}$ . Thus  $\sinh x$  and  $\cosh x$  are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  by the Sum Rule.

For  $\tanh x$  we use the Quotient Rule observing that  $e^x + e^{-x}$  is never zero.

### Composite Rule

7. i) State the Composite Rule for functions.

Evaluate

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \exp\left(\frac{\sin x}{x}\right).$$

ii) State the Composite Rule for continuous functions.

Prove that

$$\left| \frac{x+2}{x^2+1} \right|$$

is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution Composite Rule for functions.** Assume that  $g$  is defined on a deleted neighbourhood of  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = L$  exists. Assume that  $f$  is defined on a neighbourhood of  $L$  and is continuous there. Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(g(x)) = f\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)\right). \quad (2)$$

i) Let

$$g(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x} \quad \text{and} \quad f(x) = \exp(x) = e^x.$$

Then  $g$  is defined on  $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x)$  exists, with value 1. Further  $f$  is defined on **all** of  $\mathbb{R}$  and is continuous at  $1 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x)$ . Thus we can apply the Composite Rule for functions to say

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \exp\left(\frac{\sin x}{x}\right) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(g(x)) = f\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} g(x)\right) \\ &= \exp\left(\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x}\right) = \exp(1) \\ &= e. \end{aligned}$$

ii) **Composite Rule for Continuous functions.** Assume that  $g$  is defined on a neighbourhood of  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  and is continuous there and assume that  $f$  is defined on a neighbourhood of  $g(a)$  and is continuous there, then  $f \circ g$  is continuous at  $a$ .

Let

$$g(x) = \frac{x+2}{x^2+1} \quad \text{and} \quad f(x) = |x|.$$

We have seen in Questions 4i and 2 on that both  $g$  and  $f$  are continuous on all of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Hence by the Composite Rule for continuous functions we deduce that

$$f(g(x)) = \left| \frac{x+2}{x^2+1} \right|$$

is continuous at every  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ , i.e. is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ .