

1. Limits

Limits (An Introduction)

Limit of a function

Let $y = f(x)$ be a function of x . If at $x = a$, $f(x)$ takes indeterminate form, then we consider the values of the function which are very near to 'a'. If these values tend to a definite unique number as x tends to 'a', then the unique number so obtained is called the limit of $f(x)$ at $x = a$ and we write it as

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

Left hand and right hand limit

Consider the values of the functions at the points which are very near to a on the left of a . If these values tend to a definite unique number as x tends to a , then the unique number so obtained is called left-hand limit of $f(x)$ at $x = a$ and symbolically we write it as

$$f(a - 0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(a - h).$$

Similarly we can define right-hand limit of $f(x)$ at $x = a$ which is expressed as

$$f(a + 0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} f(a + h).$$

Method for finding L.H.L. and R.H.L.

- (i) For finding right hand limit (R.H.L.) of the function, we write $x + h$ in place of x , while for left hand limit (L.H.L.) we write $x - h$ in place of x .
- (ii) Then we replace x by 'a' in the function so obtained.
- (iii) Lastly we find limit $h \rightarrow 0$.

Existence of limit

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists when,

- (i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ exist i.e. L.H.L. and R.H.L. both exists.
- (ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ i.e. L.H.L. = R.H.L.

Fundamental theorems on limits

(b) Here $f(0) = 0$

$$\text{Since } -1 \leq \sin \frac{1}{x} \leq 1 \Rightarrow -|x| \leq x \sin \frac{1}{x} \leq |x|$$

$$\text{We know that } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} |x| = 0 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} -|x| = 0$$

$$\text{In this way } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) = 0.$$

2.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^3 \cot x}{1 - \cos x} =$$

(a) 0

(b) 1

(c) 2

(d) -2

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(c) } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^3 \cot x}{1 - \cos x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{x^3 \cot x}{1 - \cos x} \times \frac{1 + \cos x}{1 + \cos x} \right) \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{x}{\sin x} \right)^3 \times \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x \times \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + \cos x) = 2 \end{aligned}$$

3.

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

(a) 0

(b) ∞

(c) -2

(d) 2

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(d) } \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x(e^x - 1)}{1 - \cos x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2x(e^x - 1)}{4 \cdot \sin^2 \frac{x}{2}} \\ &= 2 \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{(x/2)^2}{\sin^2 \frac{x}{2}} \right] \left(\frac{e^x - 1}{x} \right) = 2. \end{aligned}$$

4.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{|1 - x|} =$$

(a) 0

(b) 1

(c) 2

(d) ∞

Solution:

$$(d) \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{|1-x|} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{1-(1-h)} = \infty$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{1}{|1-x|} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{1+h-1} = \infty$$

$$\text{Hence } \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{1}{|1-x|} = \infty.$$

5.

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

$$(a) 0$$

$$(b) 2$$

$$(c) 4$$

$$(d) \infty$$

Solution:

$$(c) \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n(2n+1)^2}{(n+2)(n^2+3n-1)} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{4n^3 + 4n^2 + n}{n^3 + 5n^2 + 5n - 2}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n^3 \left(4 + \frac{4}{n} + \frac{1}{n^2} \right)}{n^3 \left(1 + \frac{5}{n} + \frac{5}{n^2} - \frac{2}{n^3} \right)} = 4$$

Evaluating Limits

Methods of evaluation of limits

We shall divide the problems of evaluation of limits in five categories.

(1) Algebraic limits:

Let $f(x)$ be an algebraic function and 'a' be a real number. Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ is known as an algebraic limit.

- Direct substitution method:** If by direct substitution of the point in the given expression we get a finite number, then the number obtained is the limit of the given expression.
- Factorisation method:** In this method, numerator and denominator are factorised. The common factors are cancelled and the rest outputs the results.
- Rationalisation method:** Rationalisation is followed when we have fractional powers (like $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$ etc.) on expressions in numerator or denominator or in both. After rationalisation the terms are factorised which on cancellation gives the result.
- Based on the form when $x \rightarrow \infty$:** In this case expression should be expressed as a function $1/x$ and then after removing indeterminate form, (if it is there) replace $1/x$ by 0.

(2) Trigonometric limits:

To evaluate trigonometric limit the following results are very important.

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

$$(ii) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan x}{x} = 1 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\tan x}$$

$$(iii) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin^{-1} x}{x} = 1 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\sin^{-1} x}$$

$$(iv) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan^{-1} x}{x} = 1 = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\tan^{-1} x}$$

$$(v) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = \frac{\pi}{180}$$

$$(vi) \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x = 1$$

$$(vii) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\sin(x - a)}{x - a} = 1$$

$$(viii) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\tan(x - a)}{x - a} = 1$$

$$(ix) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \sin^{-1} x = \sin^{-1} a, |a| \leq 1$$

$$(x) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \cos^{-1} x = \cos^{-1} a, |a| \leq 1$$

$$(xi) \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \tan^{-1} x = \tan^{-1} a, -\infty < a < \infty$$

$$(xii) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\cos x}{x} = 0$$

$$(xiii) \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\sin(1/x)}{(1/x)} = 1$$

(3) Logarithmic limits:

To evaluate the logarithmic limits we use following formulae:

(i) $\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \dots$ to ∞ where $-1 < x \leq 1$ and expansion is true only if base is e .

(ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log(1+x)}{x} = 1$

(iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow e} \log_e x = 1$

(iv) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log(1-x)}{x} = -1$

(v) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log_a(1+x)}{x} = \log_a e, a > 0, \neq 1$

(4) Exponential limits:

(i) Based on series expansion:

We use $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots \infty$

To evaluate the exponential limits we use the following results:

(a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x} = 1$

(b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{a^x - 1}{x} = \log_e a$

(c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{\lambda x} - 1}{x} = \lambda \ (\lambda \neq 0)$

(ii) Based on the form 1^∞ : To evaluate the exponential form 1^∞ we use the following results.

(a) If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$, then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \{1 + f(x)\}^{1/g(x)} = e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}}$ or
 when $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 1$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty$.

Then $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \{f(x)\}^{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} [1 + f(x) - 1]^{g(x)} = e^{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} (f(x)-1)g(x)}$

(b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + x)^{1/x} = e$

(c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = e$

(d) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + \lambda x)^{1/x} = e^\lambda$

(e) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{\lambda}{x}\right)^x = e^\lambda$

(f) $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = \begin{cases} \infty, & \text{if } a > 1 \\ 0, & \text{if } a < 1 \end{cases}$ i.e., $a^\infty = \infty$, if $a > 1$ and $a^\infty = 0$ if $a < 1$.

(5) L-Hospital's rule:

If $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be two functions of x such that

(i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$

(ii) Both are continuous at $x = a$

(iii) Both are differentiable at $x = a$.

(iv) $f'(x)$ and $g'(x)$ are continuous at the point $x = a$, then

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ provided that $g'(a) \neq 0$.

The above rule is also applicable if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \infty$.

If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ assumes the indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$ or $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ and

$f'(x), g'(x)$ satisfy all the condition embodied in L' Hospital rule, we

can repeat the application of this rule on $\frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}$ to get, $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} =$

$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f''(x)}{g''(x)}$.

Sometimes it may be necessary to repeat this process a number of times till our goal of evaluating limit is achieved.

Evaluating Limits Problems with Solutions

1.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\sqrt{3x-a} - \sqrt{x+a}}{x-a} =$$

- (a) $\sqrt{2a}$ (b) $1/\sqrt{2a}$
 (c) $2a$ (d) $1/2a$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(b)} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\sqrt{3x-a} - \sqrt{x+a}}{x-a} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\sqrt{3x-a} - \sqrt{x+a}}{(x-a)} \times \frac{\sqrt{3x-a} + \sqrt{x+a}}{\sqrt{3x-a} + \sqrt{x+a}} \\ &= \frac{2}{2\sqrt{2a}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2a}} \end{aligned}$$

Aliter : Apply L-Hospital's rule

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{\sqrt{3x-a} - \sqrt{x+a}}{x-a} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{3}{2\sqrt{3x-a}} - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{x+a}} \\ &= \frac{3}{2\sqrt{2a}} - \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2a}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2a}}. \end{aligned}$$

2.

$$\text{If } f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{when } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 2-x, & \text{when } 1 < x \leq 2 \end{cases}, \text{ then } \lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) =$$

- (a) 1 (b) 2
 (c) 0 (d) Does not exist

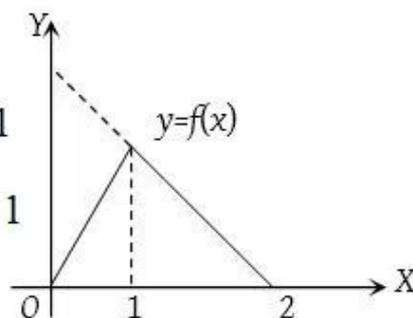
Solution:

(a) Hence $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} f(x) = 1$

Aliter : $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} (1-h) = 1$

and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} 2-(1+h) = 1$

Hence limit of function is 1.



3.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{1/x} - 1}{e^{1/x} + 1} =$$

- (a) 0 (b) 1
(c) -1 (d) Does not exist

Solution:

(d) $f(x) = \left(\frac{e^{1/x} - 1}{e^{1/x} + 1} \right)$, then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \left(\frac{e^{1/h} - 1}{e^{1/h} + 1} \right) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{1/h} \left(1 - \frac{1}{e^{1/h}} \right)}{e^{1/h} \left(1 + \frac{1}{e^{1/h}} \right)} = 1$$

Similarly $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f(x) = -1$. Hence limit does not exist.

4.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log \cos x}{x} =$$

- (a) 0 (b) 1
(c) ∞ (d) None of these

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log \cos x}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log \left[1 - 2 \sin^2 \frac{x}{2} \right]}{x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{- \left[2 \sin^2 \frac{x}{2} + \left(\frac{2 \sin^2 \frac{x}{2}}{2} \right)^2 + \dots \right]}{x} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Aliter : Apply L-Hospital's rule,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\log \cos x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-\tan x}{1} = 0.$$

5.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{|x|}{x} =$$

- (a) 1 (b) -1
(c) 0 (d) Does not exist

Solution:

(d) Since $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{|x|}{x} = -1$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{|x|}{x} = 1$, hence limit does not exist.

6.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos mx}{1 - \cos nx} =$$

(a) m/n (b) n/m

(c) $\frac{m^2}{n^2}$ (d) $\frac{n^2}{m^2}$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(c)} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos mx}{1 - \cos nx} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left\{ \frac{2 \sin^2 \frac{mx}{2}}{2 \sin^2 \frac{nx}{2}} \right\} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \left[\left\{ \frac{\sin \frac{mx}{2}}{\frac{mx}{2}} \right\}^2 \cdot \frac{m^2 x^2}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{\left\{ \frac{\sin \frac{nx}{2}}{\frac{nx}{2}} \right\}^2} \cdot \frac{4}{n^2 x^2} \right] \\ &= \frac{m^2}{n^2} \times 1 = \frac{m^2}{n^2}. \end{aligned}$$

Aliter : Apply L-Hospital's rule,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos mx}{1 - \cos nx} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{m \sin mx}{n \sin nx} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{m^2 \cos mx}{n^2 \cos nx} = \frac{m^2}{n^2}.$$

7.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{\sin x} - 1}{x} =$$

- (a) 1 (b) e
 (c) $1/e$ (d) None of these

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{\sin x} - 1}{x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{\sin x} - 1}{\sin x} \times \frac{\sin x}{x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{\sin x} - 1}{\sin x} \times \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin x}{x} = 1 \times 1 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Aliter : Apply L-Hospital's rule,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{\sin x} - 1}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos x e^{\sin x}}{1} = 1 \cdot e^0 = 1.$$

8.

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos ax - \cos bx}{x^2} =$$

(a) $\frac{a^2 - b^2}{2}$

(b) $\frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$

(c) $a^2 - b^2$

(d) $b^2 - a^2$

Solution:

(b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos ax - \cos bx}{x^2}$

$$= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{2 \sin\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)x \cdot \sin\left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)x}{\left(\frac{a+b}{2}\right)x \cdot \frac{2}{a+b} \cdot \frac{2}{b-a} \cdot \left(\frac{b-a}{2}\right)x} = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}$$

Aliter : Apply L-Hospital's rule,

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos ax - \cos bx}{x^2} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-a \sin ax + b \sin bx}{2x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{-a^2 \cos ax + b^2 \cos bx}{2} = \frac{b^2 - a^2}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

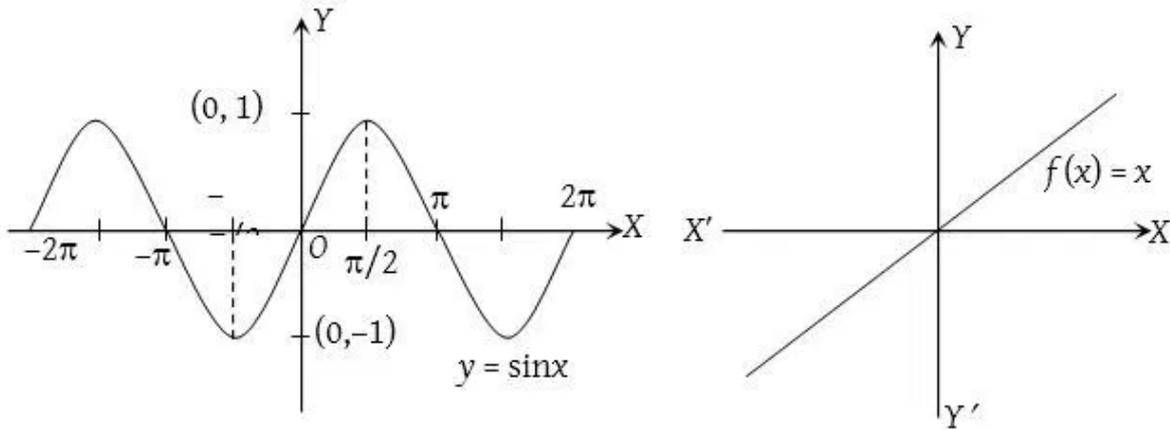
Continuous Function

Continuity

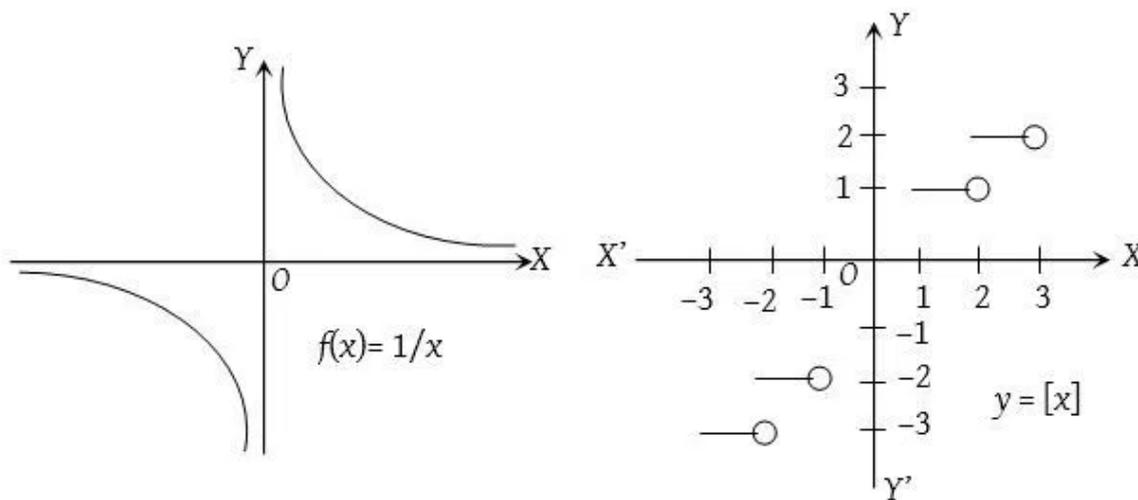
The word 'continuous' means without any break or gap. If the graph of a function has no break or gap or jump, then it is said to be continuous.

A function which is not continuous is called a discontinuous function. While studying graphs of functions, we see that graphs of functions $\sin x$, x , $\cos x$, e^x etc. are continuous but greatest integer function $[x]$ has break at every integral point, so it is not continuous. Similarly $\tan x$, $\cot x$, $\sec x$, $1/x$ etc. are also discontinuous function.

Continuous function



Discontinuous function



Continuity of a function at a point

A function $f(x)$ is said to be continuous at a point $x = a$ of its domain if and only if it satisfies the following three conditions :

- (1) $f(a)$ exists. (' a ' lies in the domain of f)
- (2) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exist i.e. $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ or R.H.L. = L.H.L.
- (3) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ (limit equals the value of function).

Cauchy's definition of continuity:

A function f is said to be continuous at a point a of its domain D if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $\delta > 0$ (dependent on ϵ) such that $|x - a| < \delta \Rightarrow |f(x) - f(a)| < \epsilon$.

Comparing this definition with the definition of limit we find that $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = a$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$ exists and is equal to $f(a)$

i.e., if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = f(a) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$.

Continuity from left and right

Function $f(x)$ is said to be

(1) Left continuous at $x = a$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x) = f(a)$

(2) Right continuous at $x = a$ if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x) = f(a)$.

Thus a function $f(x)$ is continuous at a point $x = a$ if it is left continuous as well as right continuous at $x = a$.

Properties of continuous functions

Let $f(x)$ and $g(x)$ be two continuous functions at $x = a$ Then

1. A function $f(x)$ is said to be everywhere continuous if it is continuous on the entire real line \mathbb{R} i.e. $(-\infty, \infty)$. e.g., polynomial function, e^x , $\sin x$, x , $\cos x$, constant, x^n , $|x - a|$ etc.
2. Integral function of a continuous function is a continuous function.
3. If $g(x)$ is continuous at $x = a$ and $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = g(a)$ then $(f \circ g)(x)$ is continuous at $x = a$.
4. If $f(x)$ is continuous in a closed interval $[a, b]$ then it is bounded on this interval.
5. If $f(x)$ is a continuous function defined on $[a, b]$ such that $f(a)$ and $f(b)$ are of opposite signs, then there is at least one value of x for which $f(x)$ vanishes. i.e. if $f(a) > 0$, $f(b) < 0 \Rightarrow \exists c \in (a, b)$ such that $f(c) = 0$.

Discontinuous function

Discontinuous function: A function 'f' which is not continuous at a point in its domain is said to be discontinuous there at $x = a$. The point 'a' is called a point of discontinuity of the function. The discontinuity may arise due to any of the following situations.

(i) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ or $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ or both may not exist.

(ii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ as well as $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ may exist, but are unequal.

(iii) $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^+} f(x)$ as well as $\lim_{x \rightarrow a^-} f(x)$ both may exist, but either of the two or both may not be equal to $f(a)$.

Continuous Function Problems with Solutions

1.

If $f(x) = |x - 2|$, then

(a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) \neq 0$

(b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) \neq 0$

(c) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) \neq \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x)$

(d) $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = 2$

Solution:

$$\text{If } f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 - 4x + 3}{x^2 - 1}, & \text{for } x \neq 1 \\ 2, & \text{for } x = 1 \end{cases}, \text{ then}$$

- (a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} f(x) = 2$
- (b) $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} f(x) = 3$
- (c) $f(x)$ is discontinuous at $x = 1$
- (d) None of these

Solution:

$$(c) \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x^2 - 4x + 3}{x^2 - 1}, & \text{for } x \neq 1 \\ 2, & \text{for } x = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$f(1) = 2, \quad f(1^+) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{x^2 - 4x + 3}{x^2 - 1} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^+} \frac{(x-3)}{(x+1)} = -1$$

$$f(1^-) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{x^2 - 4x + 3}{x^2 - 1} = -1 \Rightarrow f(1) \neq f(1^-)$$

Hence the function is discontinuous at $x = 1$.

5.

$$\text{If } f(x) = \begin{cases} -x^2, & \text{when } x \leq 0 \\ 5x - 4, & \text{when } 0 < x \leq 1 \\ 4x^2 - 3x, & \text{when } 1 < x < 2 \\ 3x + 4, & \text{when } x \geq 2 \end{cases}, \text{ then}$$

- (a) $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = 0$
- (b) $f(x)$ is continuous $x = 2$
- (c) $f(x)$ is discontinuous at $x = 1$
- (d) None of these

Solution:

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

$$f(0) = 0, \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f(x) = -4$$

$f(x)$ discontinuous at $x = 0$.

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

Hence $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = 1$.

$$\text{Also } \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^-} f(x) = 4(2)^2 - 3 \cdot 2 = 10$$

$$f(2) = 10 \text{ and } \lim_{x \rightarrow 2^+} f(x) = 3(2) + 4 = 10$$

Hence $f(x)$ is continuous at $x = 2$.