Week 1: Functions

July 23 - July 27, 2012



- Introduction
 - Sets
 - Inequalities

- 2 Functions
 - Representation of functions
 - A catalogue of functions

▶ Lecture 2



Who am I?

Name Anandam Banerjee

Email anandam.banerjee@anu.edu.au

Office 2140 JD

Phone (02) 6125 7701

Office hoursMonday 3-30 to 4-30 pm, Tuesday 2 to 3 pm,

Wednesday 2 to 3 pm.

- Introduction
 - Sets
 - Inequalities

- 2 Functions
 - Representation of functions
 - A catalogue of functions

Sets

A set is a collection of well defined and distinct objects.

Sets of Numbers.

- N
- \bullet \mathbb{Z}
- (
- \bullet \mathbb{R}

Sets

A set is a collection of well defined and distinct objects.

Sets of Numbers.

- N
- Z
- Q
- R

Set notation. If A is a set of numbers and the number x is a member of the set A, then we write $x \in A$. If x is not a member of A then we write $x \notin A$.

Sets

A set is a collection of well defined and distinct objects.

Sets of Numbers.

- N
- \mathbb{Z}
- Q
- R

Set notation. If A is a set of numbers and the number x is a member of the set A, then we write $x \in A$. If x is not a member of A then we write $x \notin A$.

$$\frac{1}{2} \in \mathbb{Z}; \qquad \sqrt{2} \in \mathbb{R}; \qquad 3 \in \mathbb{N}; \qquad \pi \notin \mathbb{Q}.$$

•
$$(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \le b\}$$

(The colon ':' is read as *such that*.)

a and b are called *endpoints* of the interval.

b is included in the interval; a is not.

- $(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \le b\}$
 - (The colon ':' is read as *such that.*)

 a and b are called *endpoints* of the interval.

 b is included in the interval; a is not.
- $\bullet \ [a,b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x \le b\}$

•
$$(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \le b\}$$

(The colon ':' is read as *such that*.)

a and b are called *endpoints* of the interval.

b is included in the interval; a is not.

- $\bullet \ [a,b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x \le b\}$
- $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$

•
$$(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \le b\}$$

(The colon ':' is read as *such that*.)

a and b are called *endpoints* of the interval.

b is included in the interval; a is not.

•
$$[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x \le b\}$$

•
$$(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$$

Rays on the real line can be expressed as intervals.

•
$$(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \le b\}$$

(The colon ':' is read as *such that*.)

a and b are called *endpoints* of the interval.

b is included in the interval; a is not.

•
$$[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x \le b\}$$

•
$$(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$$

Rays on the real line can be expressed as intervals.

• *Note:* ∞ and $-\infty$ are *not* real numbers.

•
$$(a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x \le b\}$$

(The colon ':' is read as *such that*.)

a and b are called *endpoints* of the interval.

b is included in the interval; a is not.

- $[a, b] = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a \le x \le b\}$
- $(a, b) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : a < x < b\}$
- Rays on the real line can be expressed as intervals.
- *Note:* ∞ and $-\infty$ are *not* real numbers.
- [a, b] is a closed interval; (a, b) is an open interval;
 - (a, b] is neither open nor closed.

Suppose that A and B are two sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B if $x \in A$ implies that $x \in B$, and we will denote this by $A \subseteq B$. If A is a subset of B then we also say that B *contains* the set A.

Suppose that A and B are two sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B if $x \in A$ implies that $x \in B$, and we will denote this by $A \subseteq B$. If A is a subset of B then we also say that B *contains* the set A.

Example. True or false?

• $\{3,4,5,6\}$ is a subset of $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$

Suppose that A and B are two sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B if $x \in A$ implies that $x \in B$, and we will denote this by $A \subseteq B$. If A is a subset of B then we also say that B *contains* the set A.

- $\{3,4,5,6\}$ is a subset of $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$
- ullet $\mathbb Z$ is a subset of $\mathbb N$

Suppose that A and B are two sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B if $x \in A$ implies that $x \in B$, and we will denote this by $A \subseteq B$. If A is a subset of B then we also say that B *contains* the set A.

- $\{3,4,5,6\}$ is a subset of $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$
- ullet $\mathbb Z$ is a subset of $\mathbb N$
- ullet N is a subset of \mathbb{Z}

Suppose that A and B are two sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B if $x \in A$ implies that $x \in B$, and we will denote this by $A \subseteq B$. If A is a subset of B then we also say that B *contains* the set A.

- $\{3,4,5,6\}$ is a subset of $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$
- ullet $\mathbb Z$ is a subset of $\mathbb N$
- ullet N is a subset of $\mathbb Z$
- (2,8] is a subset of [2,8]

Suppose that A and B are two sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B if $x \in A$ implies that $x \in B$, and we will denote this by $A \subseteq B$. If A is a subset of B then we also say that B *contains* the set A.

- $\{3,4,5,6\}$ is a subset of $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$
- ullet $\mathbb Z$ is a subset of $\mathbb N$
- ullet N is a subset of $\mathbb Z$
- (2,8] is a subset of [2,8]
- [2,8) is a subset of (2,8]

Suppose that A and B are two sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B if $x \in A$ implies that $x \in B$, and we will denote this by $A \subseteq B$. If A is a subset of B then we also say that B *contains* the set A.

- $\{3,4,5,6\}$ is a subset of $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$
- ullet $\mathbb Z$ is a subset of $\mathbb N$
- ullet N is a subset of $\mathbb Z$
- (2,8] is a subset of [2,8]
- [2,8) is a subset of (2,8]
- [3,4] is a subset of $\mathbb Q$

Suppose that A and B are two sets. We say that A is a *subset* of B if $x \in A$ implies that $x \in B$, and we will denote this by $A \subseteq B$. If A is a subset of B then we also say that B *contains* the set A.

- $\{3,4,5,6\}$ is a subset of $\{2,3,4,5,6\}$
- ullet $\mathbb Z$ is a subset of $\mathbb N$
- ullet N is a subset of $\mathbb Z$
- (2,8] is a subset of [2,8]
- [2,8) is a subset of (2,8]
- [3,4] is a subset of \mathbb{Q}
- ullet $\mathbb Q$ is a subset of $\mathbb R$



Solving Inequalities.

Solving Inequalities.

• When you multiply or divide by a negative quantity, reverse the inequality sign.

Solving Inequalities.

- When you multiply or divide by a negative quantity, reverse the inequality sign.
- Taking reciprocals of inequlities is tricky. It is usually better to multiply and divide instead.

Solving Inequalities.

- When you multiply or divide by a negative quantity, reverse the inequality sign.
- Taking reciprocals of inequlities is tricky. It is usually better to multiply and divide instead.
- To remove an unknown from the denominator, either (i) multiply by the square of the denominator or (ii) break into cases.

Solving Inequalities.

- When you multiply or divide by a negative quantity, reverse the inequality sign.
- Taking reciprocals of inequlities is tricky. It is usually better to multiply and divide instead.
- To remove an unknown from the denominator, either (i) multiply by the square of the denominator or (ii) break into cases.

Solving Inequalities.

- When you multiply or divide by a negative quantity, reverse the inequality sign.
- Taking reciprocals of inequlities is tricky. It is usually better to multiply and divide instead.
- To remove an unknown from the denominator, either (i) multiply by the square of the denominator or (ii) break into cases.

Examples.

1 Solve $x^2 - x - 6 > 0$.

Solving Inequalities.

- When you multiply or divide by a negative quantity, reverse the inequality sign.
- Taking reciprocals of inequlities is tricky. It is usually better to multiply and divide instead.
- To remove an unknown from the denominator, either (i) multiply by the square of the denominator or (ii) break into cases.

- 1 Solve $x^2 x 6 > 0$. 2 Solve $\frac{1}{3 x} < \frac{1}{5}$.

Solving Inequalities.

- When you multiply or divide by a negative quantity, reverse the inequality sign.
- Taking reciprocals of inequlities is tricky. It is usually better to multiply and divide instead.
- To remove an unknown from the denominator, either (i) multiply by the square of the denominator or (ii) break into cases.

- 1 Solve $x^2 x 6 > 0$. 2 Solve $\frac{1}{3 x} < \frac{1}{5}$. 3 Solve $x \ge \frac{3}{x 2}$.

Solving Inequalities.

- When you multiply or divide by a negative quantity, reverse the inequality sign.
- Taking reciprocals of inequlities is tricky. It is usually better to multiply and divide instead.
- To remove an unknown from the denominator, either (i) multiply by the square of the denominator or (ii) break into cases.

- Solve $x^2 x 6 > 0$. Solve $\frac{1}{3 x} < \frac{1}{5}$. Solve $x \ge \frac{3}{x 2}$. Solve $\frac{3}{1 x} < \frac{2}{x}$.



① *Definition.* If $x \in \mathbb{R}$ then |x| is defined by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

① *Definition.* If $x \in \mathbb{R}$ then |x| is defined by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

2 Properties.

① *Definition.* If $x \in \mathbb{R}$ then |x| is defined by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- 2 Properties.
 - $\bullet \ |-x|=|x|$

1 Definition. If $x \in \mathbb{R}$ then |x| is defined by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- 2 Properties.
 - |-x| = |x|
 - $\bullet ||xy| = |x||y|$

1 Definition. If $x \in \mathbb{R}$ then |x| is defined by

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- Properties.
 - |-x| = |x|

 - |xy| = |x||y|• $\left|\frac{x}{y}\right| = \frac{|x|}{|y|}$ if y is nonzero

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- Properties.
 - |-x| = |x|

 - |xy| = |x||y|• $\left|\frac{x}{y}\right| = \frac{|x|}{|y|}$ if y is nonzero
 - The triangle inequality: $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- Properties.
 - |-x| = |x|

 - |xy| = |x||y|• $\left|\frac{x}{y}\right| = \frac{|x|}{|y|}$ if y is nonzero
 - The triangle inequality: $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$
 - $|x| = \sqrt{x^2}$ and $|x|^2 = x^2$

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- Properties.
 - |-x| = |x|

 - |xy| = |x||y|• $\left|\frac{x}{y}\right| = \frac{|x|}{|y|}$ if y is nonzero
 - The triangle inequality: $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$
 - $|x| = \sqrt{x^2}$ and $|x|^2 = x^2$
- Inequalities.

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- 2 Properties.
 - |-x| = |x|

 - |xy| = |x||y|• $\left|\frac{x}{y}\right| = \frac{|x|}{|y|}$ if y is nonzero
 - The triangle inequality: $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$
 - $|x| = \sqrt{x^2}$ and $|x|^2 = x^2$
- Inequalities.
 - |v| < a iff -a < y < a

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- Properties.
 - |-x| = |x|

 - |xy| = |x||y|• $\left|\frac{x}{y}\right| = \frac{|x|}{|y|}$ if y is nonzero
 - The triangle inequality: $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$
 - $|x| = \sqrt{x^2}$ and $|x|^2 = x^2$
- Inequalities.

 - |y| < a iff -a < y < a• |y| > a iff y < -a or y > a

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0. \end{cases}$$

- ② Properties.
 - |-x| = |x|

 - |xy| = |x||y|• $\left|\frac{x}{v}\right| = \frac{|x|}{|v|}$ if y is nonzero
 - The triangle inequality: $|x + y| \le |x| + |y|$
 - $|x| = \sqrt{x^2}$ and $|x|^2 = x^2$
- Inequalities.
- Geometric Interpretation.

Example. Solve

(a)
$$|x-4| < 3$$

Example. Solve

(a)
$$|x-4| < 3$$

(b)
$$|3x+5| \ge 2$$

Example. Solve

(a)
$$|x-4| < 3$$

(b)
$$|3x+5| \ge 2$$

(c)
$$\left| \frac{x-1}{x-5} \right| < 1$$
.

- Introduction
 - Sets
 - Inequalities

- 2 Functions
 - Representation of functions
 - A catalogue of functions

Many naturally occurring quantities that vary with time can be modelled using *functions*.

Many naturally occurring quantities that vary with time can be modelled using *functions*.

Example

The volume of water stored in Lake Burley-Griffin is a variable that depends on time. For any particular time t, we could denote the corresponding volume by f(t). In this situation

Many naturally occurring quantities that vary with time can be modelled using *functions*.

Example

The volume of water stored in Lake Burley-Griffin is a variable that depends on time. For any particular time t, we could denote the corresponding volume by f(t). In this situation

f is called a function,

Many naturally occurring quantities that vary with time can be modelled using *functions*.

Example

The volume of water stored in Lake Burley-Griffin is a variable that depends on time. For any particular time t, we could denote the corresponding volume by f(t). In this situation

- f is called a function,
- if t is an input for the function f, then f(t) is the corresponding output.

Many naturally occurring quantities that vary with time can be modelled using *functions*.

Example

The volume of water stored in Lake Burley-Griffin is a variable that depends on time. For any particular time t, we could denote the corresponding volume by f(t). In this situation

- f is called a function,
- if t is an input for the function f, then f(t) is the corresponding output.

In this course, we begin a mathematical study of functions whose inputs and outputs are real numbers.

A function *f* has *two* parts to its definition:

A function *f* has *two* parts to its definition:

1 the rule which explains how to get outputs from inputs,

A function *f* has *two* parts to its definition:

- the rule which explains how to get outputs from inputs,
- ② the specification of the function's *domain* (i.e. set of inputs).

A function *f* has *two* parts to its definition:

- 1 the rule which explains how to get outputs from inputs,
- ② the specification of the function's *domain* (i.e. set of inputs).

A key point is that any input must give exactly one output.

A function *f* has *two* parts to its definition:

- 1 the rule which explains how to get outputs from inputs,
- ② the specification of the function's *domain* (i.e. set of inputs).

A key point is that any input must give exactly one output.

Example and terminology. A function f with domain $[0,\infty)$ is given by the rule

$$f(x) = x^2 \qquad \forall x \in [0, \infty).$$

Example. True or false?

Example. True or false?

• The maximal domain of $f(x) = x^2$ is $[0, \infty)$.

Example. True or false?

- The maximal domain of $f(x) = x^2$ is $[0, \infty)$.
- The maximal domain of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is \mathbb{R} .

Example. True or false?

- The maximal domain of $f(x) = x^2$ is $[0, \infty)$.
- The maximal domain of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ is \mathbb{R} .
- The maximal domain of $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ is $[0, \infty)$.

$$\operatorname{Ran}(f) = \{ f(x) \in B : x \in \operatorname{Dom}(f) \}.$$

$$\operatorname{Ran}(f) = \{ f(x) \in B : x \in \operatorname{Dom}(f) \}.$$

Note that $\operatorname{Ran}(f)$ is the set of all output values for f. Note also that the range of f depends on the domain of f. If you are asked to give the range of a function f where the domain is not specified, you may assume that the domain is maximal.

$$\operatorname{Ran}(f) = \{ f(x) \in B : x \in \operatorname{Dom}(f) \}.$$

Note that Ran(f) is the set of all output values for f. Note also that the range of f depends on the domain of f. If you are asked to give the range of a function f where the domain is not specified, you may assume that the domain is maximal.

Example. Suppose $f(x) = x^2$.

$$\operatorname{Ran}(f) = \{ f(x) \in B : x \in \operatorname{Dom}(f) \}.$$

Note that $\operatorname{Ran}(f)$ is the set of all output values for f. Note also that the range of f depends on the domain of f. If you are asked to give the range of a function f where the domain is not specified, you may assume that the domain is maximal.

Example. Suppose $f(x) = x^2$.

• If the domain of f is \mathbb{R} , the range of f is $[0, \infty)$.

$$\operatorname{Ran}(f) = \{ f(x) \in B : x \in \operatorname{Dom}(f) \}.$$

Note that Ran(f) is the set of all output values for f. Note also that the range of f depends on the domain of f. If you are asked to give the range of a function f where the domain is not specified, you may assume that the domain is maximal.

Example. Suppose $f(x) = x^2$.

- If the domain of f is \mathbb{R} , the range of f is $[0, \infty)$.
- If the domain of f is $[0, \infty)$, the range of f is still $[0, \infty)$.

$$\operatorname{Ran}(f) = \{ f(x) \in B : x \in \operatorname{Dom}(f) \}.$$

Note that Ran(f) is the set of all output values for f. Note also that the range of f depends on the domain of f. If you are asked to give the range of a function f where the domain is not specified, you may assume that the domain is maximal.

Example. Suppose $f(x) = x^2$.

- If the domain of f is \mathbb{R} , the range of f is $[0, \infty)$.
- If the domain of f is $[0, \infty)$, the range of f is still $[0, \infty)$.
- If the domain of f is [2,4], the range of f is [4,16].

The graph of a function. If f is a function then its graph is the set of ordered pairs

$$\{(x,f(x)):x\in \mathrm{Dom}(f)\}.$$

This is just the set of all input-output pairs. If y = f(x) the graph can be represented in the xy-plane.

The graph of a function. If f is a function then its graph is the set of ordered pairs

$$\{(x, f(x)) : x \in Dom(f)\}.$$

This is just the set of all input-output pairs. If y = f(x) the graph can be represented in the xy-plane.

Note that not all curves in the xy plane are graphs of functions. In fact, a curve in the xy plane is the graph of a function if and only if no vertical line intersects the curve more than once (the *vertical line test*).

The graph of a function. If f is a function then its graph is the set of ordered pairs

$$\{(x, f(x)) : x \in Dom(f)\}.$$

This is just the set of all input-output pairs. If y = f(x) the graph can be represented in the xy-plane.

Note that not all curves in the xy plane are graphs of functions. In fact, a curve in the xy plane is the graph of a function if and only if no vertical line intersects the curve more than once (the *vertical line test*).

Note that although the concepts of even and odd functions and increasing and decreasing functions will not be covered in lecture, you are still expected to be familiar with them (refer to the textbook).

Special classes of functions

In this section we list some familar classes of functions.

Special classes of functions

In this section we list some familar classes of functions.

Polynomials. A function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is called a *polynomial* if

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n$$

where $a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The a_j are called the *coefficients* of the polynomial and n is the *degree* of the polynomial (as long as a_n is nonzero). If n = 1 the polynomial is called linear, n = 2 quadratic, n = 3 cubic, etc.

Special classes of functions

In this section we list some familar classes of functions.

Polynomials. A function $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is called a *polynomial* if

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n$$

where $a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n \in \mathbb{R}$ and $n \in \mathbb{N}$. The a_j are called the *coefficients* of the polynomial and n is the *degree* of the polynomial (as long as a_n is nonzero). If n=1 the polynomial is called linear, n=2 quadratic, n=3 cubic, etc.

Rational functions. Suppose that p and q are polynomials. A function f is called a *rational function* if

$$Dom(f) = \{x \in \mathbb{R} : q(x) \neq 0\}$$

and

$$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{g(x)}$$
 $\forall x \in \text{Dom}(f)$

Important note: In calculus, it is essential that angles are given in radian measure. Recall that 360 degrees is equal to 2π radians.

Important note: In calculus, it is essential that angles are given in radian measure. Recall that 360 degrees is equal to 2π radians.

In particular, you should know (this list is not exhaustive!)

• That sine and cosine are periodic with a period of 2π .

Important note: In calculus, it is essential that angles are given in radian measure. Recall that 360 degrees is equal to 2π radians.

- That sine and cosine are periodic with a period of 2π .
- That the range of sine and cosine is [-1, 1].

Important note: In calculus, it is essential that angles are given in radian measure. Recall that 360 degrees is equal to 2π radians.

- That sine and cosine are periodic with a period of 2π .
- That the range of sine and cosine is [-1, 1].
- That sin(x) = 0 if $x \in \{0, \pm \pi, \pm 2\pi, \pm 3\pi, ...\}$ and cos(x) = 0 if $x \in \{\pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{3\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{5\pi}{2}, ...\}$.

Important note: In calculus, it is essential that angles are given in radian measure. Recall that 360 degrees is equal to 2π radians.

- That sine and cosine are periodic with a period of 2π .
- That the range of sine and cosine is [-1, 1].
- That sin(x) = 0 if $x \in \{0, \pm \pi, \pm 2\pi, \pm 3\pi, ...\}$ and cos(x) = 0 if $x \in \{\pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{3\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{5\pi}{2}, ...\}$.
- The values of x for which sin(x) equals 1 or -1 and the values of x for which cos(x) equals 1 or -1.

Important note: In calculus, it is essential that angles are given in radian measure. Recall that 360 degrees is equal to 2π radians.

- That sine and cosine are periodic with a period of 2π .
- That the range of sine and cosine is [-1, 1].
- That sin(x) = 0 if $x \in \{0, \pm \pi, \pm 2\pi, \pm 3\pi, ...\}$ and cos(x) = 0 if $x \in \{\pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{3\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{5\pi}{2}, ...\}$.
- The values of x for which sin(x) equals 1 or -1 and the values of x for which cos(x) equals 1 or -1.
- How to draw the graphs of sin, cos, tan (and to a lesser extent how to draw the graphs of sec, cosec, and cot).

Important note: In calculus, it is essential that angles are given in radian measure. Recall that 360 degrees is equal to 2π radians.

- That sine and cosine are periodic with a period of 2π .
- That the range of sine and cosine is [-1, 1].
- That sin(x) = 0 if $x \in \{0, \pm \pi, \pm 2\pi, \pm 3\pi, ...\}$ and cos(x) = 0 if $x \in \{\pm \frac{\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{3\pi}{2}, \pm \frac{5\pi}{2}, ...\}$.
- The values of x for which sin(x) equals 1 or -1 and the values of x for which cos(x) equals 1 or -1.
- How to draw the graphs of sin, cos, tan (and to a lesser extent how to draw the graphs of sec, cosec, and cot).
- How to compute sin, cos, tan, sec, cosec, and cot of the values $\frac{\pi}{6}, \frac{\pi}{4}, \frac{\pi}{3}, \frac{\pi}{2}$, etc.

complementary identities

$$\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \cos x$$

$$\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \sin x$$

complementary identities

$$\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \cos x$$

$$\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \sin x$$

Pythagorean identities

$$\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x = 1$$
$$1 + \tan^2 x = \sec^2 x$$
$$\cot^2 x + 1 = \csc^2 x$$

complementary identities

$$\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \cos x$$

$$\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = \sin x$$

Pythagorean identities

$$\cos^2 x + \sin^2 x = 1$$
$$1 + \tan^2 x = \sec^2 x$$
$$\cot^2 x + 1 = \csc^2 x$$

the sum and difference formulae

$$\sin(x \pm y) = \sin x \cos y \pm \cos x \sin y$$

$$\cos(x \pm y) = \cos x \cos y \mp \sin x \sin y$$

$$\tan(x \pm y) = \frac{\tan x \pm \tan y}{1 \mp \tan x \tan y}$$

double-angle formulae

$$\sin(2x) = 2\sin x \cos x$$

$$\cos(2x) = \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x$$

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

The exponential and logarithm functions.

Definition

Functions given as $f(x) = a^x$, a > 0, $a \in \mathbb{R}$ are called exponential functions. $Dom(f) = \mathbb{R}$, $Ran(f) = (0, \infty)$.

The exponential and logarithm functions.

Definition

Functions given as $f(x) = a^x$, a > 0, $a \in \mathbb{R}$ are called exponential functions. $Dom(f) = \mathbb{R}$, $Ran(f) = (0, \infty)$.

Definition

Logarithmic functions, denoted \log_a , is the inverse of a^x for $a > 0, a \in \mathbb{R}$:

- $\operatorname{Dom}(\log_a) = (0, \infty)$ and $\operatorname{Ran}(\log_a) = \mathbb{R}$.

The exponential and logarithm functions.

Definition

Functions given as $f(x) = a^x$, a > 0, $a \in \mathbb{R}$ are called exponential functions. $Dom(f) = \mathbb{R}$, $Ran(f) = (0, \infty)$.

Definition

Logarithmic functions, denoted \log_a , is the inverse of a^x for $a > 0, a \in \mathbb{R}$:

- $\operatorname{Dom}(\log_a) = (0, \infty)$ and $\operatorname{Ran}(\log_a) = \mathbb{R}$.

Roots.

Functions of the form $x^{\frac{1}{n}}$. e.g. $x^{\frac{1}{3}} = \sqrt[3]{x}$.



Combining functions.If two functions f and g have the same domain A, we can construct new functions f+g, f-g and $f\cdot g$ each with domain A. These are defined *pointwise* by the following formulae:

Combining functions.If two functions f and g have the same domain A, we can construct new functions f+g, f-g and $f\cdot g$ each with domain A. These are defined *pointwise* by the following formulae:

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

 $(f-g)(x) = f(x) - g(x)$
 $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x)g(x)$.

We can also define $\frac{f}{g}$ by the formula

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$

provided that $g(x) \neq 0$.

Combining functions.If two functions f and g have the same domain A, we can construct new functions f+g, f-g and $f\cdot g$ each with domain A. These are defined *pointwise* by the following formulae:

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

 $(f-g)(x) = f(x) - g(x)$
 $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x)g(x)$.

We can also define $\frac{f}{g}$ by the formula

$$\left(\frac{f}{g}\right)(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$$
 provided that $g(x) \neq 0$.

The domain of $\frac{f}{g}$ is $\{x \in A : g(x) \neq 0\}$.

If f has domain A and Ran(f) is a subset of Dom(g) then we can define a new function $g \circ f$ on A by the rule

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) \quad \forall x \in A$$

The function $g \circ f$ is called the *composite function* of g and f.

If f has domain A and Ran(f) is a subset of Dom(g) then we can define a new function $g \circ f$ on A by the rule

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) \quad \forall x \in A$$

The function $g \circ f$ is called the *composite function* of g and f.

Example

$$\cos(x^2) = f \circ g(x),$$

where $f(x) = \cos(x)$ and $g(x) = x^2$.

Examples

• Let $f(x) = x^2$ with domain $[0, \infty)$ and g(x) = sin(x) with domain \mathbb{R} . Then $(g \circ f)(x) = sin(x^2)$ and $(f \circ g)(x) = (sin(x))^2$. Note the parentheses! What are the domains and ranges of $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$?

Examples

- Let $f(x) = x^2$ with domain $[0, \infty)$ and g(x) = sin(x) with domain \mathbb{R} . Then $(g \circ f)(x) = sin(x^2)$ and $(f \circ g)(x) = (sin(x))^2$. Note the parentheses! What are the domains and ranges of $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$?
- Let f(x) = cos(x) and $g(x) = e^x$, then $(g \circ f)(x) = e^{cos(x)}$. Note that we didn't specify the domains, so we implicitly mean the maximal domain of f such that $g \circ f$ makes sense.

Examples

- Let $f(x) = x^2$ with domain $[0, \infty)$ and g(x) = sin(x) with domain \mathbb{R} . Then $(g \circ f)(x) = sin(x^2)$ and $(f \circ g)(x) = (sin(x))^2$. Note the parentheses! What are the domains and ranges of $g \circ f$ and $f \circ g$?
- Let f(x) = cos(x) and $g(x) = e^x$, then $(g \circ f)(x) = e^{cos(x)}$. Note that we didn't specify the domains, so we implicitly mean the maximal domain of f such that $g \circ f$ makes sense.
- Let $f(x) = x^3$ with domain [-2,2] and g(x) = In(x) with maximal domain $(0,\infty)$. Does $g \circ f$ make sense on the domain of f? Note that if we write an expression like $In(x^3)$ where we don't specify the domain of x^3 , we implicitly mean that the domain of $In(x^3)$ is the maximal one.

Piecewise defined functions

A piecewise defined function is given by different formulas on different pieces of its domain.

Piecewise defined functions

A piecewise defined function is given by different formulas on different pieces of its domain.

Example.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - x & \text{if } x \le 1\\ x^2 & \text{if } x > 1. \end{cases}$$

Piecewise defined functions

A piecewise defined function is given by different formulas on different pieces of its domain.

Example.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - x & \text{if } x \le 1\\ x^2 & \text{if } x > 1. \end{cases}$$

Can you think of another piecewise defined function that we encountered in the first lecture?

Function transformations. Once the shapes of the graphs of basic functions are known, we can alter the shape of the graph by altering the function in simple ways.

Function transformations. Once the shapes of the graphs of basic functions are known, we can alter the shape of the graph by altering the function in simple ways. Suppose that a>0 and c>1.

Function transformations. Once the shapes of the graphs of basic functions are known, we can alter the shape of the graph by altering the function in simple ways. Suppose that a>0 and c>1.

New graph	Obtained from $y = f(x)$ by
y = f(x) + a	translating the graph upwards by a units
y = f(x) - a	translating the graph downwards by a units
y = f(x + a)	translating the graph to the left by a units
y = f(x - a)	translating the graph to the right by a units
y = cf(x)	stretching the graph vertically by factor c
y=(1/c)f(x)	compressing the graph vertically by factor c
y = f(cx)	compressing the graph horizontally by factor <i>c</i>
y = f(x/c)	stretching the graph horizontally by factor c
y = -f(x)	reflecting the graph about the x-axis
y = f(-x)	reflecting the graph about the y-axis

Examples. Sketch the graphs given by

(a)
$$y = \sqrt{2 - x}$$

Examples. Sketch the graphs given by

(a)
$$y = \sqrt{2 - x}$$

(b)
$$y = 3\sin(2x + \pi)$$