

Lecture 4

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1. Operations on Functions 1

There are many ways to combine functions into new ones. Here are three of them:

Let D be any set, $f: D \rightarrow R$ and $g: D \rightarrow R$ functions with the same domain D and $c \in R$. We define the functions $f + g$, $f \cdot g$ and $c \cdot f$ as follows:

The sum $f + g: D \rightarrow R$ is given by $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$,

The sum $f \cdot g: D \rightarrow R$ is given by $(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x)$,

The sum $c \cdot g: D \rightarrow R$ is given by $(c \cdot g)(x) = c \cdot g(x)$,

Remark: For any $x \in D$, the right-hand side is a sum or product of real numbers, but f and g are not numbers, so $f + g$, $f \cdot g$ and $c \cdot f$ are operations on functions that we defined in terms of their function values at every $x \in D$.

Examples

For $f(x) = x - 3$ and $g(x) = 2x^2 + 1$ (with domain R) and $c = \frac{-1}{2}$:

$$(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x) = x - 3 + 2x^2 + 1 = 2x^2 + x - 2$$

$$(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x) \cdot g(x) = (x - 3) \cdot (2x^2 + 1) = 2x^3 - 6x^2 + x - 3$$

$$\left(\frac{-1}{2} \cdot f\right)(x) = \frac{-1}{2} \cdot f(x) = \frac{-1}{2} \cdot (x - 3) = \frac{-1}{2} \cdot x + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

We have seen that all linear functions are determined by their slope m and intercept b . We can now write this as follows.

Example

Consider the identity function $id: R \rightarrow R: x \rightarrow x$

and the constant function $1_c: R \rightarrow R: x \rightarrow 1$

For any $m \in R$ and $b \in R$:

$$\begin{aligned}(m \cdot id + b \cdot 1_c)(x) &= (m \cdot id)(x) + (b \cdot 1_c)(x) \\ &= m \cdot id(x) + b \cdot 1_c(x) \\ &= m \cdot x + b \cdot 1_c\end{aligned}$$

so the linear function with slope m and intercept b can be written as:

$$m \cdot id + b \cdot 1_c$$

(In practice this is rarely the most convenient name for this function.)

For any function $f: D \rightarrow R$ we often write f^2 instead of $f \cdot f$, f^3 instead of $f \cdot f \cdot f$, etc.

2. Polynomials

A polynomial is a function $f: R \rightarrow R$ whose formula is of the form

$$f(x) = a_n \cdot x^n + a_{n-1} \cdot x^{n-1} + \cdots + a_2 \cdot x^2 + a_1 \cdot x + a_0$$

for some $n \in N$ (or $n = 0$) and real coefficients $a_n, a_{n-1}, \dots, a_2, a_1, a_0$.

Examples

* $f(x) = 7x^3 - 2x^2 - 4x + 11$

* $g(x) = 3 - \pi x^{38}$

* $h(x) = \sqrt{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{2}x^4 - 1$ are polynomials

Every linear function $f(x) = m \cdot x + b$ is a polynomial with $n = 1$, $a_1 = m$ and $a_0 = b$

Every quadratic function $f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ is a polynomial with $n = 2$, $a_2 = a$, $a_1 = b$ and $a_0 = c$

Every monomial $f(x) = a \cdot x^n$ is a polynomial with $a_n = a$ and $a_{n-1} = \cdots = a_2 = a_1 = a_0 = 0$, so only one term is left

The **degree** of a polynomial is the largest numbers $n \in N \cup \{^\circ\}$ with $a_n \neq 0$

A polynomial of degree 0 is a constant function

A polynomial of degree 1 is a linear function with slope $m \neq 0$

A polynomial of degree 2 is a quadratic function

A polynomial of degree 3 is a cubic function

A polynomial of degree 4 is a quartic function

Example

Using $id(x) = x$ and $1_c(x) = x$ we can build any polynomial

$$f(x) = a_n \cdot x^n + \cdots + a_1 \cdot x + a_0$$

by setting

$$f = a_n \cdot id^n + \cdots + a_1 \cdot id + a_0 \cdot 1_c$$

in terms of operations on functions. E.g. we have

$$id^2(x) = (id \cdot id)(x) = id(x) \cdot id(x) = x \cdot x = x^2$$

$$id^3(x) = (id \cdot id^2)(x) = id(x) \cdot id^2(x) = x \cdot x^2 = x^3$$

etc, with the general formula

$$id^n(x) = x^n$$

for all $x \in R$, (you can prove this by mathematical induction)