

0.9 Parabola

The graph of

$$y = ax^2 + bx + c$$

where $a \neq 0$, is a *parabola*. The parabola intersects the x -axis at two distinct points if $b^2 - 4ac > 0$. It touches the x -axis (one intersection point only) if $b^2 - 4ac = 0$ and does not intersect the x -axis if $b^2 - 4ac < 0$.

- If $a > 0$, the parabola opens upward and there is a lowest point (called the *vertex* of the parabola).
- If $a < 0$, the parabola opens downward and there is a highest point (*vertex*).

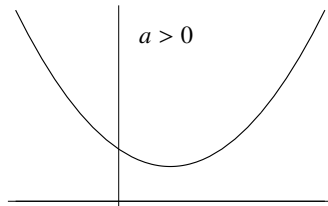


Figure 0.5(a)

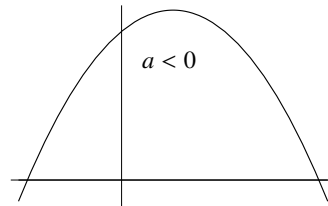


Figure 0.5(b)

The vertical line that passes through the vertex is called the *axis of symmetry* because the parabola is symmetric about this line.

To find the vertex, we can use the completing square method to write the equation in the form

$$y = a(x - h)^2 + k \quad (0.9.1)$$

The vertex is (h, k) because $(x - h)^2$ is always non-negative and so

- if $a > 0$, then $y \geq k$ and thus (h, k) is the lowest point;
- if $a < 0$, then $y \leq k$ and thus (h, k) is the highest point.

Example Consider the parabola given by

$$y = x^2 + 6x + 5.$$

Find its vertex and axis of symmetry.

Solution Using the completing square method, the given equation can be written in the form (0.9.1).

$$\begin{aligned} y &= x^2 + 6x + 5 \\ y &= (x^2 + 6x + 9) - 9 + 5 \\ y &= (x + 3)^2 - 4 \\ y &= (x - (-3))^2 - 4. \end{aligned}$$

The vertex is $(-3, -4)$ and the axis of symmetry is the line given by $x = -3$ (the vertical line that passes through the vertex). \square

FAQ In the above example, the coefficient of x^2 is 1, what should we do if it is not 1?

$$\begin{aligned}
 (4) \quad A \cap (B \cap C) &= \{2, 3, 5\} \cap \{2\} \\
 &= \{2\}
 \end{aligned}$$

□

Note Given any sets A , B and C , we always have

$$(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C) \quad \text{and} \quad (A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C).$$

Thus we may write $A \cap B \cap C$ and $A \cup B \cup C$ without ambiguity. We say that set intersection and set union are *associative*.

Definition Let A and B be sets. The *relative complement* of B in A , denoted by $A \setminus B$ or $A - B$ (read “ A setminus (or minus) B ”), is the set whose elements are those belonging to A but not belonging to B , that is,

$$A \setminus B = \{x \in A : x \notin B\}.$$

Example Let $A = \{a, b, c\}$ and $B = \{c, d, e\}$. Then we have $A \setminus B = \{a, b\}$.

For each problem, we will consider a set that is “large” enough, containing all objects under consideration. Such a set is called a *universal set* and is usually denoted by U . In this case, all sets under consideration are subsets of U and they can be written in the form $\{x \in U : P(x)\}$.

Example In considering addition and subtraction of whole numbers $(0, 1, 2, 3, 4, \dots)$, we may use \mathbb{Z} (the set of all integers) as a universal set.

- (1) The set of all positive even numbers can be written as $\{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x > 0 \text{ and } x \text{ is divisible by } 2\}$.
- (2) The set of all prime numbers can be written as $\{x \in \mathbb{Z} : x > 0 \text{ and } x \text{ has exactly two divisors}\}$.

Definition Let U be a universal set and let B be a subset of U . Then the set $U \setminus B$ is called the *complement* of B (in U) and is denoted by B' (or B^c).

Example Let $U = \mathbb{Z}_+$, the set of all positive integers. Let B be the set of all positive even numbers. Then B' is the set of all positive odd numbers.

Example Let $U = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 12\}$ and let

$$\begin{aligned}
 A &= \{x \in U : x \text{ is a prime number}\} \\
 B &= \{x \in U : x \text{ is an even number}\} \\
 C &= \{x \in U : x \text{ is divisible by } 3\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Find the following sets.

- (1) $A \cup B$
- (2) $A \cap C$
- (3) $B \cap C$
- (4) $(A \cup B) \cap C$
- (5) $(A \cap C) \cup (B \cap C)$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Solve for } x. \quad x^2 &= y - 2 \\ x &= \pm \sqrt{y - 2}.\end{aligned}$$

Note that x can be solved if and only if $y - 2 \geq 0$.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{The range of } f \text{ is } \{y \in \mathbb{R} : y - 2 \geq 0\} &= \{y \in \mathbb{R} : y \geq 2\} \\ &= [2, \infty).\end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, to see that the range is $[2, \infty)$, we may use the graph of $y = x^2 + 2$ which is a parabola. The lowest point (vertex) is $(0, 2)$. For any $y \geq 2$, we can always find $x \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(x) = y$.

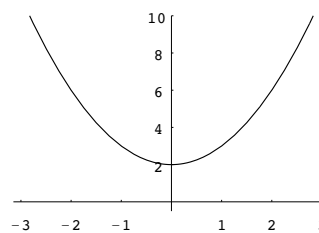


Figure 2.1

$$(2) \text{ Put } y = g(x) = \frac{1}{x - 2}.$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Solve for } x. \quad y &= \frac{1}{x - 2} \\ x - 2 &= \frac{1}{y} \\ x &= \frac{1}{y} + 2.\end{aligned}$$

Note that x can be solved if and only if $y \neq 0$.

The range of g is $\{y \in \mathbb{R} : y \neq 0\} = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$.

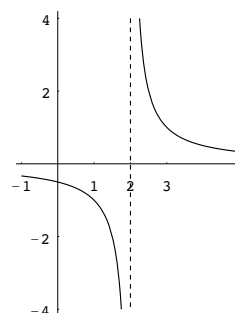


Figure 2.2

$$(3) \text{ Put } y = h(x) = \sqrt{1 + 5x}. \text{ Note that } y \text{ cannot be negative.}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Solve for } x. \quad y &= \sqrt{1 + 5x}, & y &\geq 0 \\ y^2 &= 1 + 5x, & y &\geq 0 \\ x &= \frac{y^2 - 1}{5}, & y &\geq 0.\end{aligned}$$

Note that x can always be solved for every $y \geq 0$.

The range of h is $\{y \in \mathbb{R} : y \geq 0\} = [0, \infty)$.

Remark $y = \sqrt{1 + 5x} \implies y^2 = 1 + 5x$

but the converse is true only if $y \geq 0$.

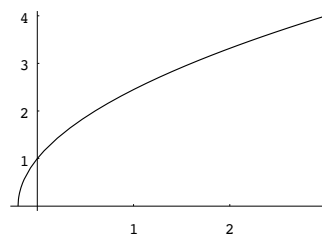


Figure 2.3

□

Example Let $f(x) = \sqrt{x + 7} - \sqrt{x^2 + 2x - 15}$. Find the domain of f .

Solution Note that $f(x)$ is defined if and only if $x + 7 \geq 0$ and $x^2 + 2x - 15 \geq 0$.

Solve the two inequalities separately:

$$\begin{aligned}\bullet \quad x + 7 &\geq 0 \\ x &\geq -7;\end{aligned}$$

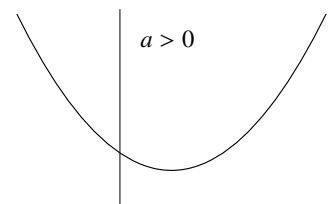


Figure 2.12(a)

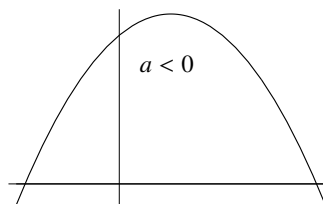


Figure 2.12(b)

Remark Besides using the completing square method to find the vertex, we can also use *differentiation* (see Chapter 5).

(4) **Polynomial Functions** A function f given by

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

where a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n are constants with $a_n \neq 0$, is called a *polynomial function of degree n* .

If $n = 0$, f is a constant function.

If $n = 1$, f is a linear function.

If $n = 2$, f is a quadratic function.

Example Let $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + x - 1$.

The graph of f is shown in Figure 2.13.

In Chapter 5, we will discuss how to sketch graphs of polynomial functions.

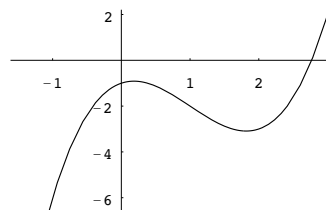


Figure 2.13

The domain of every polynomial function f is \mathbb{R} .

There are three possibilities for the range.

- (a) If the degree is odd, then $\text{ran}(f) = \mathbb{R}$.
- (b) If the degree is even and positive, then

- (i) $\text{ran}(f) = [k, \infty)$ if $a_n > 0$;
- (ii) $\text{ran}(f) = (-\infty, k]$ if $a_n < 0$,

where k is the y -coordinate of the lowest point for case (i), or the highest point for case (ii), of the graph.

Remark The constant function 0 is also considered to be a polynomial function. However, its degree is assigned to be $-\infty$ (for convenience of a rule for degree of product of polynomials).

(5) **Rational Functions** A *rational function* is a function f in the form

$$f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)},$$

where p and q are polynomial functions.

Can you generalize the results for graphs of polynomial functions of degree 3, 4, ... ?

3. Let $f(x) = \frac{2x-1}{x^2+3}$. The graph of f is shown on page 55. Note that there is a highest point and a lowest point. Find the coordinates of these two points. *Hint: consider the range of f*
The points are called *relative extremum points*. An easy way to find their coordinates is to use *differentiation*, see Chapter 5.
4. An object is thrown upward and its height $h(t)$ in meters after t seconds is given by $h(t) = 1 + 4t - 5t^2$.
 - (a) When will the object hit the ground?
 - (b) Find the maximum height attained by the object.
5. The manager of an 80-unit apartment complex is trying to decide what rent to charge. Experience has shown that at a rent of \$20000, all the units will be full. On the average, one additional unit will remain vacant for each \$500 increase in rent.
 - (a) Let n represent the number of \$500 increases.
Find an expression for the total revenue R from all the rented apartments.
What is the domain of R ?
 - (b) What value of n leads to maximum revenue?
What is the maximum revenue?

2.5 Compositions of Functions

Consider the function f given by

$$f(x) = \sin^2 x.$$

Recall that $\sin^2 x = (\sin x)^2$. For each input x , to find the output $y = f(x)$,

- (1) first calculate $\sin x$, call the resulted value u ;
- (2) and then calculate u^2 .

These two steps correspond to two functions:

- (1) $u = \sin x$;
- (2) $y = u^2$.

Given two functions, we can “combine” them by letting one function acting on the output of the other.

Definition Let f and g be functions such that the codomain of f is a subset of the domain of g . The *composition* of g with f , denoted by $g \circ f$, is the function given by

$$(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)). \quad (2.5.1)$$

The right-side of (2.5.1) is read “ g of f of x ”.

Figure 2.32 indicates that f is a function from A to B and g is a function from C to D where $B \subseteq C$.

($a = 0$) Note that $f(x) = x^2$ on the left-side and the right-side of 0. Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} x^2 \\ &= 0^2 && \text{Theorem 3.5.1} \\ &= 0 \\ &\neq f(0)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, f is not continuous at 0.

($a \neq 0$) Note that $f(x) = x^2$ on the left-side and the right-side of a . Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) &= \lim_{x \rightarrow a} x^2 \\ &= a^2 && \text{Theorem 3.5.1} \\ &= f(a)\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, f is continuous at a .

□

Remark The graph of f is shown in Figure 3.22.

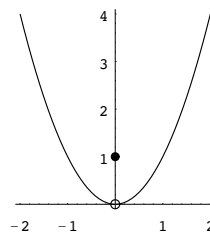


Figure 3.22

In the preceding definition, we consider continuity of a function f at a point a (a real number is considered as a point on the real line). In the next definition, we consider continuity of f on an open interval. Recall that an open interval is a subset of \mathbb{R} that can be written in one of the following forms:

$$\begin{aligned}(\alpha, \beta) &= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : \alpha < x < \beta\} \\ (\alpha, \infty) &= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : \alpha < x\} \\ (-\infty, \beta) &= \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x < \beta\} \\ (-\infty, \infty) &= \mathbb{R}\end{aligned}$$

where α and β are real numbers, and for the first type, we need $\alpha < \beta$.

Definition Let I be an open interval and let f be a function defined on I . If f is continuous at every $a \in I$, then we say that f is *continuous on I* .

Remark

- In the definition, the condition “ f is a function defined on I ” means that f is a function such that $f(x)$ is defined for all $x \in I$, that is, $I \subseteq \text{dom}(f)$.
- Since I is an open interval, we may consider continuity of f at any point a belonging to I .
- If there exists $a \in I$ such that f is not continuous at a , then f is *not continuous on I* .

Proof The proof is similar to that for the product rule. \square

Example Let $y = \frac{x^2 + 3x - 4}{2x + 1}$. Find $\frac{dy}{dx}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Solution } \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{x^2 + 3x - 4}{2x + 1} \right) \\
 &= \frac{(2x + 1) \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(x^2 + 3x - 4) - (x^2 + 3x - 4) \cdot \frac{d}{dx}(2x + 1)}{(2x + 1)^2} && \text{Quotient Rule} \\
 &= \frac{(2x + 1)(2x + 3) - (x^2 + 3x - 4)(2)}{(2x + 1)^2} && \text{Derivative of Polynomial} \\
 &= \frac{(4x^2 + 8x + 3) - (2x^2 + 6x - 8)}{(2x + 1)^2} \\
 &= \frac{2x^2 + 2x + 11}{(2x + 1)^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

 \square

Power Rule for Differentiation (negative integer version) Let n be a negative integer. Then the power function x^n is differentiable on $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ and we have

$$\frac{d}{dx} x^n = nx^{n-1}.$$

Explanation Since n is a negative integer, it can be written as $-m$ where m is a positive integer. The function $x^n = x^{-m} = \frac{1}{x^m}$ is defined for all $x \neq 0$, that is, the domain of x^n is $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$.

Proof Let $f : \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function given by $f(x) = x^{-m}$, where $m = -n$. By definition, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} \frac{1}{x^m} \\
 &= \frac{x^m \cdot \frac{d}{dx} 1 - 1 \cdot \frac{d}{dx} x^m}{(x^m)^2} && \text{Quotient Rule} \\
 &= \frac{x^m \cdot 0 - 1 \cdot mx^{m-1}}{x^{2m}} && \text{Derivative of Constant \& Power Rule (positive integer version)} \\
 &= -mx^{(m-1)-2m} \\
 &= -mx^{-m-1} \\
 &= nx^{n-1}
 \end{aligned}$$

 \square

Example Find an equation for the tangent line to the curve $y = \frac{3x^2 - 1}{x}$ at the point $(1, 2)$.

Explanation The curve is given by $y = f(x)$ where $f(x) = \frac{3x^2 - 1}{x}$. Since $f(1) = 2$, the point $(1, 2)$ lies on the curve. To find an equation for the tangent line, we have to find the slope at the point (and then use point-slope form). The slope at the point $(1, 2)$ is $f'(1)$. We can use rules for differentiation to find $f'(x)$ and then substitute $x = 1$ to get $f'(1)$.

Solution To find $\frac{dy}{dx}$, we can use quotient rule or term by term differentiation.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \sin \frac{1}{x} & \text{if } x \neq 0, \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0. \end{cases}$$

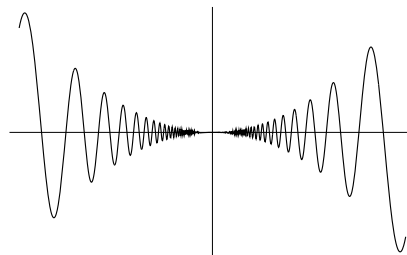


Figure 5.7

Example Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function given by

$$f(x) = 27x - x^3.$$

Find and determine the nature of the critical number(s) of f .

Explanation The question is to find all the critical numbers of f and for each critical number, determine whether it is a local maximizer, a local minimizer or not a local extremizer.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solution} \quad \text{Differentiating } f(x), \text{ we get } f'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx}(27x - x^3) \\ &= 27 - 3x^2 \\ &= 3(3 + x)(3 - x). \end{aligned}$$

Solving $f'(x) = 0$, we get the critical numbers of f : $x_1 = -3$ and $x_2 = 3$.

- When x is sufficiently close to and less than -3 , $f'(x)$ is negative; when x is sufficiently close to and greater than -3 , $f'(x)$ is positive. Hence, by the First Derivative Test, $x_1 = -3$ is a local minimizer of f .
- When x is sufficiently close to and less than 3 , $f'(x)$ is positive; when x is sufficiently close to and greater than 3 , $f'(x)$ is negative. Hence, by the First Derivative Test, $x_2 = 3$ is a local maximizer of f .

□

Remark The function in the above example is considered in the last subsection in which a table is obtained. It is clear from the table that f has a local minimum at -3 and a local maximum at 3 . In the next example, we will use the table method to determine nature of critical numbers.

	$(-\infty, -3)$	$(-3, 3)$	$(3, \infty)$
3	+	+	+
$3 + x$	−	+	+
$3 - x$	+	+	−
f'	−	+	−
f	↘	↗	↘

Example Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function given by

$$f(x) = x^4 - 4x^3 + 5.$$

Find and determine the nature of the critical number(s) of the f .

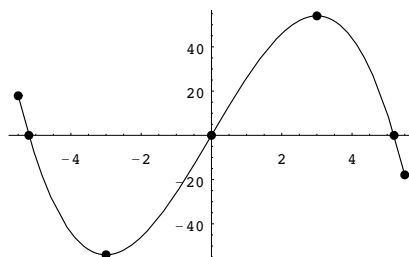
Explanation The function is considered in an example in the last subsection. Below we just copy the main steps from the solution there.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solution} \quad f'(x) &= 4x^3 - 12x^2 \\ &= 4x^2(x - 3) \end{aligned}$$

	$(-\infty, 0)$	$(0, 3)$	$(3, \infty)$
f'	−	−	+
f	↘	↘	↗

- Local maximum point $(3, f(3)) = (3, 54)$
- Intercepts $(0, 0)$, $(3\sqrt{3}, 0)$ and $(-3\sqrt{3}, 0)$
- Endpoints $(-5.5, f(-5.5)) = (-5.5, 17.875)$
and $(5.5, f(5.5)) = (5.5, -17.875)$

The required graph is shown in the following figure:



□

Remark Since f is an odd function, the graph is symmetric about the origin.

Example Sketch the graph of $y = x^4 - 4x^3 + 5$ for $-1.5 \leq x \leq 4.2$.

Explanation In two previous examples, we obtain the following:

	$(-\infty, 0)$	$(0, 3)$	$(3, \infty)$
f'	-	-	+

	$(-\infty, 0)$	$(0, 2)$	$(2, \infty)$
f''	+	-	+

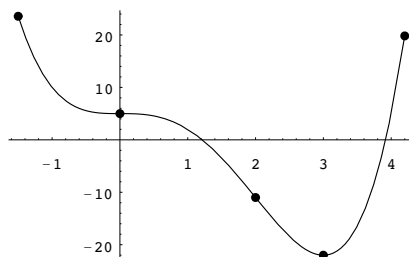
Solution

	$(-\infty, 0)$	$(0, 2)$	$(2, 3)$	$(3, \infty)$
f'	-	-	-	+
f''	+	-	+	+
f	\searrow	\searrow	\searrow	\nearrow

On the graph, we have

- Inflection points $(0, f(0)) = (0, 5)$ and $(2, f(2)) = (2, -11)$
- Local minimum point $(3, f(3)) = (3, -22)$
- Endpoints $(-1.5, f(-1.5)) \approx (-1.5, 23.6)$
and $(4.2, f(4.2)) \approx (4.2, 19.8)$

The required graph is shown in the following figure:



□

Theorem 6.3.1 means that if we can find one antiderivative for a continuous function f on an open interval (a, b) , then we can find all. More precisely, if F is an antiderivative for f on (a, b) , then all the antiderivatives for f on (a, b) are in the form

$$F(x) + C, \quad a < x < b \quad (6.3.1)$$

where C is a constant.

Note that (6.3.1) represents a family of functions defined on (a, b) —there are infinitely many of them, with each C corresponds to an antiderivative for f and vice versa. We call the family to be the *indefinite integral* of f (with respect to x) and we denote it by

$$\int f(x) dx.$$

That is,

$$\int f(x) dx = F(x) + C, \quad a < x < b,$$

where F is a function such that $F'(x) = f(x)$ for all $x \in (a, b)$ and C is an arbitrary constant, called *constant of integration*.

Example Using the two results in the last example, we have the following:

$$(1) \int x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C, \quad -\infty < x < \infty, \quad \text{where } C \text{ is an arbitrary constant.}$$

$$(2) \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}} dx = 2\sqrt{x} + C, \quad x > 0, \quad \text{where } C \text{ is an arbitrary constant.}$$

Remark

- Sometimes, for simplicity, we write $\int x^2 dx = \frac{1}{3}x^3 + C$ etc.
 - ◊ The interval \mathbb{R} is omitted because it can be determined easily.
 - ◊ The symbol C is understood to be an arbitrary constant.
- Since we can use any symbol to denote the independent variable, we may also write $\int t^2 dt = \frac{1}{3}t^3 + C$ etc.
- Instead of a family of functions, sometimes we write $\int f(x) dx$ to represent a function only. See the discussion in the *Alternative Solution* on page 177.

Terminology

- To *integrate* a function f means to find the indefinite integral of f (that is, to find $\int f(x) dx$ if x is chosen to be the independent variable).
- Same as that for definite integrals, in the notation $\int f(x) dx$, the function f is called the *integrand*.

Integration of Constant (Function) Let k be a constant. Then we have

$$\int k dx = kx + C, \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

Explanation As usual, C is understood to be an arbitrary constant.