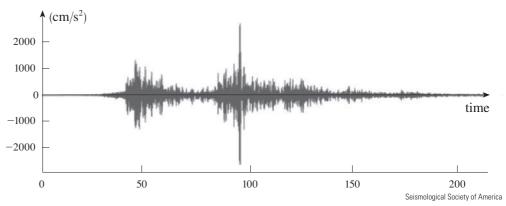
1

Functions and Models



Pictura Collectus/Alamy

Often a graph is the best way to represent a function because it conveys so much information at a glance. Shown is a graph of the vertical ground acceleration created by the 2011 earthquake near Tohoku, Japan. The earthquake had a magnitude of 9.0 on the Richter scale and was so powerful that it moved northern Japan 8 feet closer to North America.



THE FUNDAMENTAL OBJECTS THAT WE deal with in calculus are functions. This chapter prepares the way for calculus by discussing the basic ideas concerning functions, their graphs, and ways of transforming and combining them. We stress that a function can be represented in different ways: by an equation, in a table, by a graph, or in words. We look at the main types of functions that occur in calculus and describe the process of using these functions as mathematical models of real-world phenomena.

Year

1900

1910

1920

1930

1940

1950

1960

1970

1980

1990

2000

2010

Population

(millions)

1650

1750

1860

2070

2300

2560

3040

3710

4450

5280

6080

6870

1.1 Four Ways to Represent a Function

Functions arise whenever one quantity depends on another. Consider the following four situations.

- **A.** The area A of a circle depends on the radius r of the circle. The rule that connects r and A is given by the equation $A = \pi r^2$. With each positive number r there is associated one value of A, and we say that A is a *function* of r.
- **B.** The human population of the world P depends on the time t. The table gives estimates of the world population P(t) at time t, for certain years. For instance,

$$P(1950) \approx 2,560,000,000$$

But for each value of the time t there is a corresponding value of P, and we say that P is a function of t.

- C. The cost C of mailing an envelope depends on its weight w. Although there is no simple formula that connects w and C, the post office has a rule for determining C when w is known.
- **D.** The vertical acceleration *a* of the ground as measured by a seismograph during an earthquake is a function of the elapsed time *t*. Figure 1 shows a graph generated by seismic activity during the Northridge earthquake that shook Los Angeles in 1994. For a given value of *t*, the graph provides a corresponding value of *a*.

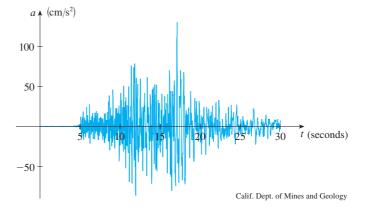


FIGURE 1

Vertical ground acceleration during the Northridge earthquake

Each of these examples describes a rule whereby, given a number (r, t, w, or t), another number (A, P, C, or a) is assigned. In each case we say that the second number is a function of the first number.

A function f is a rule that assigns to each element x in a set D exactly one element, called f(x), in a set E.

We usually consider functions for which the sets D and E are sets of real numbers. The set D is called the **domain** of the function. The number f(x) is the **value of f at x** and is read "f of x." The **range** of f is the set of all possible values of f(x) as x varies throughout the domain. A symbol that represents an arbitrary number in the *domain* of a function f is called an **independent variable**. A symbol that represents a number in the *range* of f is called a **dependent variable**. In Example A, for instance, f is the independent variable and f is the dependent variable.



FIGURE 2

Machine diagram for a function f

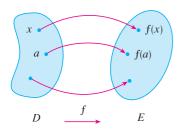


FIGURE 3 Arrow diagram for *f*

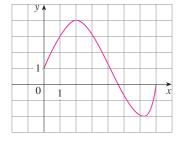


FIGURE 6

The notation for intervals is given in Appendix A.

It's helpful to think of a function as a **machine** (see Figure 2). If x is in the domain of the function f, then when x enters the machine, it's accepted as an input and the machine produces an output f(x) according to the rule of the function. Thus we can think of the domain as the set of all possible inputs and the range as the set of all possible outputs.

The preprogrammed functions in a calculator are good examples of a function as a machine. For example, the square root key on your calculator computes such a function. You press the key labeled $\sqrt{(\text{or }\sqrt{x})}$ and enter the input x. If x < 0, then x is not in the domain of this function; that is, x is not an acceptable input, and the calculator will indicate an error. If $x \ge 0$, then an *approximation* to \sqrt{x} will appear in the display. Thus the \sqrt{x} key on your calculator is not quite the same as the exact mathematical function f defined by $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$.

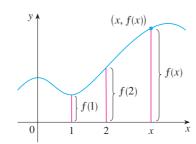
Another way to picture a function is by an **arrow diagram** as in Figure 3. Each arrow connects an element of D to an element of E. The arrow indicates that f(x) is associated with x, f(a) is associated with a, and so on.

The most common method for visualizing a function is its graph. If f is a function with domain D, then its **graph** is the set of ordered pairs

$$\{(x, f(x)) \mid x \in D\}$$

(Notice that these are input-output pairs.) In other words, the graph of f consists of all points (x, y) in the coordinate plane such that y = f(x) and x is in the domain of f.

The graph of a function f gives us a useful picture of the behavior or "life history" of a function. Since the y-coordinate of any point (x, y) on the graph is y = f(x), we can read the value of f(x) from the graph as being the height of the graph above the point x (see Figure 4). The graph of f also allows us to picture the domain of f on the x-axis and its range on the y-axis as in Figure 5.



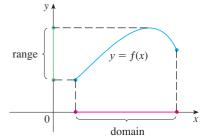


FIGURE 4

FIGURE 5

EXAMPLE 1 The graph of a function f is shown in Figure 6.

- (a) Find the values of f(1) and f(5).
- (b) What are the domain and range of f?

SOLUTION

(a) We see from Figure 6 that the point (1, 3) lies on the graph of f, so the value of f at 1 is f(1) = 3. (In other words, the point on the graph that lies above x = 1 is 3 units above the x-axis.)

When x = 5, the graph lies about 0.7 units below the x-axis, so we estimate that $f(5) \approx -0.7$.

(b) We see that f(x) is defined when $0 \le x \le 7$, so the domain of f is the closed interval [0, 7]. Notice that f takes on all values from -2 to 4, so the range of f is

$$\{y \mid -2 \le y \le 4\} = [-2, 4]$$

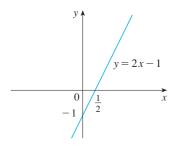


FIGURE 7

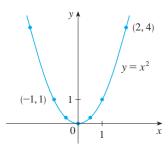


FIGURE 8

The expression

$$\frac{f(a+h)-f(a)}{h}$$

in Example 3 is called a **difference quotient** and occurs frequently in calculus. As we will see in Chapter 2, it represents the average rate of change of f(x) between x = a and x = a + h.

EXAMPLE 2 Sketch the graph and find the domain and range of each function.

(a)
$$f(x) = 2x - 1$$
 (b) $g(x) = x^2$

SOLUTION

(a) The equation of the graph is y = 2x - 1, and we recognize this as being the equation of a line with slope 2 and y-intercept -1. (Recall the slope-intercept form of the equation of a line: y = mx + b. See Appendix B.) This enables us to sketch a portion of the graph of f in Figure 7. The expression 2x - 1 is defined for all real numbers, so the domain of f is the set of all real numbers, which we denote by \mathbb{R} . The graph shows that the range is also \mathbb{R} .

(b) Since $g(2) = 2^2 = 4$ and $g(-1) = (-1)^2 = 1$, we could plot the points (2, 4) and (-1, 1), together with a few other points on the graph, and join them to produce the graph (Figure 8). The equation of the graph is $y = x^2$, which represents a parabola (see Appendix C). The domain of g is \mathbb{R} . The range of g consists of all values of g(x), that is, all numbers of the form x^2 . But $x^2 \ge 0$ for all numbers x and any positive number y is a square. So the range of g is $\{y \mid y \ge 0\} = [0, \infty)$. This can also be seen from Figure 8.

EXAMPLE 3 If
$$f(x) = 2x^2 - 5x + 1$$
 and $h \ne 0$, evaluate $\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$

SOLUTION We first evaluate f(a + h) by replacing x by a + h in the expression for f(x):

$$f(a + h) = 2(a + h)^{2} - 5(a + h) + 1$$

$$= 2(a^{2} + 2ah + h^{2}) - 5(a + h) + 1$$

$$= 2a^{2} + 4ah + 2h^{2} - 5a - 5h + 1$$

Then we substitute into the given expression and simplify:

$$\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} = \frac{(2a^2 + 4ah + 2h^2 - 5a - 5h + 1) - (2a^2 - 5a + 1)}{h}$$

$$= \frac{2a^2 + 4ah + 2h^2 - 5a - 5h + 1 - 2a^2 + 5a - 1}{h}$$

$$= \frac{4ah + 2h^2 - 5h}{h} = 4a + 2h - 5$$

Representations of Functions

There are four possible ways to represent a function:

verbally (by a description in words)numerically (by a table of values)visually (by a graph)

• algebraically (by an explicit formula)

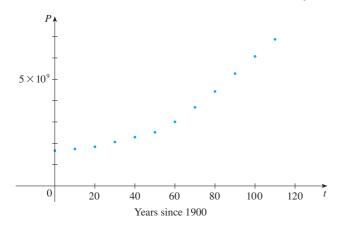
If a single function can be represented in all four ways, it's often useful to go from one representation to another to gain additional insight into the function. (In Example 2, for instance, we started with algebraic formulas and then obtained the graphs.) But certain functions are described more naturally by one method than by another. With this in mind, let's reexamine the four situations that we considered at the beginning of this section.

t (years since 1900)	Population (millions)
0	1650
10	1750
20	1860
30	2070
40	2300
50	2560
60	3040
70	3710
80	4450
90	5280
100	6080
110	6870

- **A.** The most useful representation of the area of a circle as a function of its radius is probably the algebraic formula $A(r) = \pi r^2$, though it is possible to compile a table of values or to sketch a graph (half a parabola). Because a circle has to have a positive radius, the domain is $\{r \mid r > 0\} = (0, \infty)$, and the range is also $(0, \infty)$.
- **B.** We are given a description of the function in words: P(t) is the human population of the world at time t. Let's measure t so that t=0 corresponds to the year 1900. The table of values of world population provides a convenient representation of this function. If we plot these values, we get the graph (called a *scatter plot*) in Figure 9. It too is a useful representation; the graph allows us to absorb all the data at once. What about a formula? Of course, it's impossible to devise an explicit formula that gives the exact human population P(t) at any time t. But it is possible to find an expression for a function that *approximates* P(t). In fact, using methods explained in Section 1.2, we obtain the approximation

$$P(t) \approx f(t) = (1.43653 \times 10^9) \cdot (1.01395)^t$$

Figure 10 shows that it is a reasonably good "fit." The function f is called a *mathematical model* for population growth. In other words, it is a function with an explicit formula that approximates the behavior of our given function. We will see, however, that the ideas of calculus can be applied to a table of values; an explicit formula is not necessary.



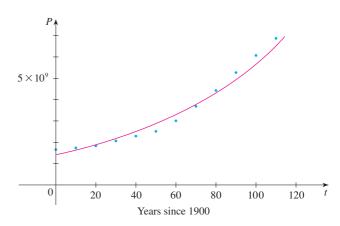


FIGURE 9

FIGURE 10

A function defined by a table of values is called a *tabular* function.

w (ounces)	C(w) (dollars)
$0 < w \le 1$	0.98
$1 < w \le 2$	1.19
$2 < w \leq 3$	1.40
$3 < w \le 4$	1.61
$4 < w \le 5$	1.82

The function P is typical of the functions that arise whenever we attempt to apply calculus to the real world. We start with a verbal description of a function. Then we may be able to construct a table of values of the function, perhaps from instrument readings in a scientific experiment. Even though we don't have complete knowledge of the values of the function, we will see throughout the book that it is still possible to perform the operations of calculus on such a function.

- C. Again the function is described in words: Let C(w) be the cost of mailing a large envelope with weight w. The rule that the US Postal Service used as of 2015 is as follows: The cost is 98 cents for up to 1 oz, plus 21 cents for each additional ounce (or less) up to 13 oz. The table of values shown in the margin is the most convenient representation for this function, though it is possible to sketch a graph (see Example 10).
- **D.** The graph shown in Figure 1 is the most natural representation of the vertical acceleration function a(t). It's true that a table of values could be compiled, and it is even possible to devise an approximate formula. But everything a geologist needs to

know—amplitudes and patterns—can be seen easily from the graph. (The same is true for the patterns seen in electrocardiograms of heart patients and polygraphs for lie-detection.)

In the next example we sketch the graph of a function that is defined verbally.

EXAMPLE 4 When you turn on a hot-water faucet, the temperature T of the water depends on how long the water has been running. Draw a rough graph of T as a function of the time t that has elapsed since the faucet was turned on.

SOLUTION The initial temperature of the running water is close to room temperature because the water has been sitting in the pipes. When the water from the hot-water tank starts flowing from the faucet, T increases quickly. In the next phase, T is constant at the temperature of the heated water in the tank. When the tank is drained, T decreases to the temperature of the water supply. This enables us to make the rough sketch of T as a function of t in Figure 11.

In the following example we start with a verbal description of a function in a physical situation and obtain an explicit algebraic formula. The ability to do this is a useful skill in solving calculus problems that ask for the maximum or minimum values of quantities.

EXAMPLE 5 A rectangular storage container with an open top has a volume of 10 m³. The length of its base is twice its width. Material for the base costs \$10 per square meter; material for the sides costs \$6 per square meter. Express the cost of materials as a function of the width of the base.

SOLUTION We draw a diagram as in Figure 12 and introduce notation by letting w and 2w be the width and length of the base, respectively, and h be the height.

The area of the base is $(2w)w = 2w^2$, so the cost, in dollars, of the material for the base is $10(2w^2)$. Two of the sides have area wh and the other two have area 2wh, so the cost of the material for the sides is 6[2(wh) + 2(2wh)]. The total cost is therefore

$$C = 10(2w^2) + 6[2(wh) + 2(2wh)] = 20w^2 + 36wh$$

To express C as a function of w alone, we need to eliminate h and we do so by using the fact that the volume is 10 m^3 . Thus

$$w(2w)h = 10$$

which gives

$$h = \frac{10}{2w^2} = \frac{5}{w^2}$$

Substituting this into the expression for *C*, we have

$$C = 20w^2 + 36w \left(\frac{5}{w^2}\right) = 20w^2 + \frac{180}{w}$$

Therefore the equation

$$C(w) = 20w^2 + \frac{180}{w} \qquad w > 0$$

expresses C as a function of w.

EXAMPLE 6 Find the domain of each function.

(a)
$$f(x) = \sqrt{x+2}$$
 (b) $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - x}$

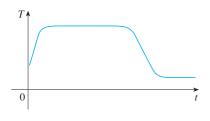


FIGURE 11

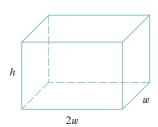


FIGURE 12

In setting up applied functions as in Example 5, it may be useful to review the principles of problem solving as discussed on page 71, particularly Step 1: Understand the Problem.

Domain Convention

If a function is given by a formula and the domain is not stated explicitly, the convention is that the domain is the set of all numbers for which the formula makes sense and defines a real number.

SOLUTION

(a) Because the square root of a negative number is not defined (as a real number), the domain of f consists of all values of x such that $x + 2 \ge 0$. This is equivalent to $x \ge -2$, so the domain is the interval $[-2, \infty)$.

(b) Since

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

and division by 0 is not allowed, we see that g(x) is not defined when x = 0 or x = 1. Thus the domain of g is

$$\{x \mid x \neq 0, x \neq 1\}$$

which could also be written in interval notation as

$$(-\infty,0) \cup (0,1) \cup (1,\infty)$$

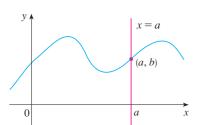
The graph of a function is a curve in the *xy*-plane. But the question arises: Which curves in the *xy*-plane are graphs of functions? This is answered by the following test.

The Vertical Line Test A curve in the *xy*-plane is the graph of a function of *x* if and only if no vertical line intersects the curve more than once.

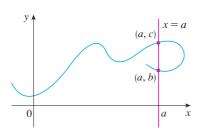
The reason for the truth of the Vertical Line Test can be seen in Figure 13. If each vertical line x = a intersects a curve only once, at (a, b), then exactly one function value is defined by f(a) = b. But if a line x = a intersects the curve twice, at (a, b) and (a, c), then the curve can't represent a function because a function can't assign two different values to a.

For example, the parabola $x=y^2-2$ shown in Figure 14(a) is not the graph of a function of x because, as you can see, there are vertical lines that intersect the parabola twice. The parabola, however, does contain the graphs of *two* functions of x. Notice that the equation $x=y^2-2$ implies $y^2=x+2$, so $y=\pm\sqrt{x+2}$. Thus the upper and lower halves of the parabola are the graphs of the functions $f(x)=\sqrt{x+2}$ [from Example 6(a)] and $g(x)=-\sqrt{x+2}$. [See Figures 14(b) and (c).]

We observe that if we reverse the roles of x and y, then the equation $x = h(y) = y^2 - 2$ does define x as a function of y (with y as the independent variable and x as the dependent variable) and the parabola now appears as the graph of the function h.

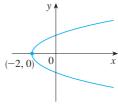


(a) This curve represents a function.



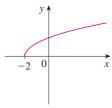
(b) This curve doesn't represent a function.

FIGURE 13

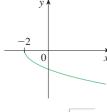


(a) $x = y^2 - 2$

FIGURE 14

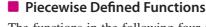


(b) $y = \sqrt{x+2}$



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

The functions in the following four examples are defined by different formulas in different parts of their domains. Such functions are called **piecewise defined functions**.



EXAMPLE 7 A function f is defined by

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

Evaluate f(-2), f(-1), and f(0) and sketch the graph.

SOLUTION Remember that a function is a rule. For this particular function the rule is the following: First look at the value of the input x. If it happens that $x \le -1$, then the value of f(x) is 1 - x. On the other hand, if x > -1, then the value of f(x) is x^2 .

Since
$$-2 \le -1$$
, we have $f(-2) = 1 - (-2) = 3$.

Since
$$-1 \le -1$$
, we have $f(-1) = 1 - (-1) = 2$.

Since
$$0 > -1$$
, we have $f(0) = 0^2 = 0$.

How do we draw the graph of f? We observe that if $x \le -1$, then f(x) = 1 - x, so the part of the graph of f that lies to the left of the vertical line x = -1 must coincide with the line y = 1 - x, which has slope -1 and y-intercept 1. If x > -1, then $f(x) = x^2$, so the part of the graph of f that lies to the right of the line x = -1 must coincide with the graph of f that lies to the right of the line f0 must coincide with the graph of f1. The solid dot indicates that the point f1 is enables us to sketch the graph; the open dot indicates that the point f2 is included on the graph; the open dot indicates that the point f3 is excluded from the graph.

The next example of a piecewise defined function is the absolute value function. Recall that the **absolute value** of a number a, denoted by |a|, is the distance from a to 0 on the real number line. Distances are always positive or 0, so we have

$$|a| \ge 0$$
 for every number a

For example,

$$|3| = 3$$
 $|-3| = 3$ $|0| = 0$ $|\sqrt{2} - 1| = \sqrt{2} - 1$ $|3 - \pi| = \pi - 3$

In general, we have

$$|a| = a$$
 if $a \ge 0$
 $|a| = -a$ if $a < 0$

(Remember that if a is negative, then -a is positive.)

EXAMPLE 8 Sketch the graph of the absolute value function f(x) = |x|.

SOLUTION From the preceding discussion we know that

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

Using the same method as in Example 7, we see that the graph of f coincides with the line y = x to the right of the y-axis and coincides with the line y = -x to the left of the y-axis (see Figure 16).

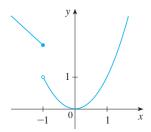


FIGURE 15

For a more extensive review of absolute values, see Appendix A.

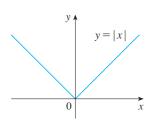


FIGURE 16

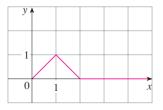


FIGURE 17

Point-slope form of the equation of a line:

$$y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$$

See Appendix B.

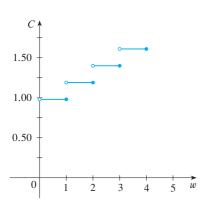


FIGURE 18

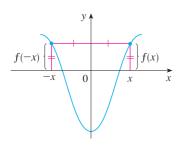


FIGURE 19 An even function

EXAMPLE 9 Find a formula for the function f graphed in Figure 17.

SOLUTION The line through (0,0) and (1,1) has slope m=1 and y-intercept b=0, so its equation is y=x. Thus, for the part of the graph of f that joins (0,0) to (1,1), we have

$$f(x) = x$$
 if $0 \le x \le 1$

The line through (1, 1) and (2, 0) has slope m = -1, so its point-slope form is

$$y - 0 = (-1)(x - 2)$$
 or $y = 2 - x$

So we have

$$f(x) = 2 - x$$
 if $1 < x \le 2$

We also see that the graph of f coincides with the x-axis for x > 2. Putting this information together, we have the following three-piece formula for f:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } 0 \le x \le 1\\ 2 - x & \text{if } 1 < x \le 2\\ 0 & \text{if } x > 2 \end{cases}$$

EXAMPLE 10 In Example C at the beginning of this section we considered the cost C(w) of mailing a large envelope with weight w. In effect, this is a piecewise defined function because, from the table of values on page 13, we have

$$C(w) = \begin{cases} 0.98 & \text{if } 0 < w \le 1\\ 1.19 & \text{if } 1 < w \le 2\\ 1.40 & \text{if } 2 < w \le 3\\ 1.61 & \text{if } 3 < w \le 4\\ \vdots & \vdots \end{cases}$$

The graph is shown in Figure 18. You can see why functions similar to this one are called **step functions**—they jump from one value to the next. Such functions will be studied in Chapter 2.

Symmetry

If a function f satisfies f(-x) = f(x) for every number x in its domain, then f is called an **even function**. For instance, the function $f(x) = x^2$ is even because

$$f(-x) = (-x)^2 = x^2 = f(x)$$

The geometric significance of an even function is that its graph is symmetric with respect to the y-axis (see Figure 19). This means that if we have plotted the graph of f for $x \ge 0$, we obtain the entire graph simply by reflecting this portion about the y-axis.

If f satisfies f(-x) = -f(x) for every number x in its domain, then f is called an **odd** function. For example, the function $f(x) = x^3$ is odd because

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

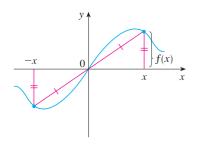


FIGURE 20 An odd function

The graph of an odd function is symmetric about the origin (see Figure 20). If we already have the graph of f for $x \ge 0$, we can obtain the entire graph by rotating this portion through 180° about the origin.

EXAMPLE 11 Determine whether each of the following functions is even, odd, or neither even nor odd.

(a)
$$f(x) = x^5 + x$$

(b)
$$g(x) = 1 - x^4$$

(b)
$$g(x) = 1 - x^4$$
 (c) $h(x) = 2x - x^2$

SOLUTION

(a)
$$f(-x) = (-x)^5 + (-x) = (-1)^5 x^5 + (-x)$$
$$= -x^5 - x = -(x^5 + x)$$
$$= -f(x)$$

Therefore f is an odd function.

(b)
$$g(-x) = 1 - (-x)^4 = 1 - x^4 = g(x)$$

So g is even.

(c)
$$h(-x) = 2(-x) - (-x)^2 = -2x - x^2$$

Since $h(-x) \neq h(x)$ and $h(-x) \neq -h(x)$, we conclude that h is neither even nor odd.

The graphs of the functions in Example 11 are shown in Figure 21. Notice that the graph of h is symmetric neither about the y-axis nor about the origin.

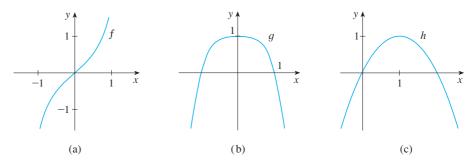


FIGURE 21

Increasing and Decreasing Functions

The graph shown in Figure 22 rises from A to B, falls from B to C, and rises again from C to D. The function f is said to be increasing on the interval [a, b], decreasing on [b, c], and increasing again on [c, d]. Notice that if x_1 and x_2 are any two numbers between a and b with $x_1 < x_2$, then $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$. We use this as the defining property of an increasing function.

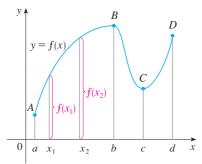


FIGURE 22

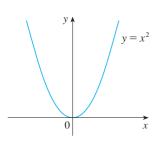


FIGURE 23

A function f is called **increasing** on an interval I if

$$f(x_1) < f(x_2)$$
 whenever $x_1 < x_2$ in I

It is called **decreasing** on *I* if

$$f(x_1) > f(x_2)$$
 whenever $x_1 < x_2$ in I

In the definition of an increasing function it is important to realize that the inequality $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ must be satisfied for *every* pair of numbers x_1 and x_2 in I with $x_1 < x_2$.

You can see from Figure 23 that the function $f(x) = x^2$ is decreasing on the interval $(-\infty, 0]$ and increasing on the interval $[0, \infty)$.

1.2 Mathematical Models: A Catalog of Essential Functions

A **mathematical model** is a mathematical description (often by means of a function or an equation) of a real-world phenomenon such as the size of a population, the demand for a product, the speed of a falling object, the concentration of a product in a chemical reaction, the life expectancy of a person at birth, or the cost of emission reductions. The purpose of the model is to understand the phenomenon and perhaps to make predictions about future behavior.

Figure 1 illustrates the process of mathematical modeling. Given a real-world problem, our first task is to formulate a mathematical model by identifying and naming the independent and dependent variables and making assumptions that simplify the phenomenon enough to make it mathematically tractable. We use our knowledge of the physical situation and our mathematical skills to obtain equations that relate the variables. In situations where there is no physical law to guide us, we may need to collect data (either from a library or the Internet or by conducting our own experiments) and examine the data in the form of a table in order to discern patterns. From this numerical representation of a function we may wish to obtain a graphical representation by plotting the data. The graph might even suggest a suitable algebraic formula in some cases.

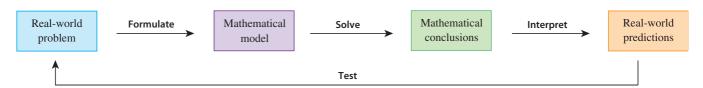


FIGURE 1The modeling process

The second stage is to apply the mathematics that we know (such as the calculus that will be developed throughout this book) to the mathematical model that we have formulated in order to derive mathematical conclusions. Then, in the third stage, we take those mathematical conclusions and interpret them as information about the original real-world phenomenon by way of offering explanations or making predictions. The final step is to test our predictions by checking against new real data. If the predictions don't compare well with reality, we need to refine our model or to formulate a new model and start the cycle again.

A mathematical model is never a completely accurate representation of a physical situation—it is an *idealization*. A good model simplifies reality enough to permit math-

ematical calculations but is accurate enough to provide valuable conclusions. It is important to realize the limitations of the model. In the end, Mother Nature has the final say.

There are many different types of functions that can be used to model relationships observed in the real world. In what follows, we discuss the behavior and graphs of these functions and give examples of situations appropriately modeled by such functions.

Linear Models

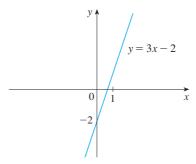
The coordinate geometry of lines is reviewed in Appendix B.

When we say that *y* is a **linear function** of *x*, we mean that the graph of the function is a line, so we can use the slope-intercept form of the equation of a line to write a formula for the function as

$$y = f(x) = mx + b$$

where m is the slope of the line and b is the y-intercept.

A characteristic feature of linear functions is that they grow at a constant rate. For instance, Figure 2 shows a graph of the linear function f(x) = 3x - 2 and a table of sample values. Notice that whenever x increases by 0.1, the value of f(x) increases by 0.3. So f(x) increases three times as fast as x. Thus the slope of the graph y = 3x - 2, namely 3, can be interpreted as the rate of change of y with respect to x.



x	f(x) = 3x - 2
1.0	1.0
1.1	1.3
1.2	1.6
1.3	1.9
1.4	2.2
1.5	2.5

FIGURE 2

EXAMPLE 1

- (a) As dry air moves upward, it expands and cools. If the ground temperature is 20° C and the temperature at a height of 1 km is 10° C, express the temperature T (in $^{\circ}$ C) as a function of the height h (in kilometers), assuming that a linear model is appropriate.
- (b) Draw the graph of the function in part (a). What does the slope represent?
- (c) What is the temperature at a height of 2.5 km?

SOLUTION

(a) Because we are assuming that T is a linear function of h, we can write

$$T = mh + b$$

We are given that T = 20 when h = 0, so

$$20 = m \cdot 0 + b = b$$

In other words, the *y*-intercept is b = 20.

We are also given that T = 10 when h = 1, so

$$10 = m \cdot 1 + 20$$

The slope of the line is therefore m = 10 - 20 = -10 and the required linear function is

$$T = -10h + 20$$

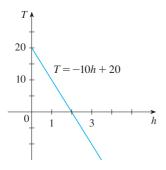


FIGURE 3

- (b) The graph is sketched in Figure 3. The slope is $m = -10^{\circ}\text{C/km}$, and this represents the rate of change of temperature with respect to height.
- (c) At a height of h = 2.5 km, the temperature is

$$T = -10(2.5) + 20 = -5$$
°C

If there is no physical law or principle to help us formulate a model, we construct an **empirical model**, which is based entirely on collected data. We seek a curve that "fits" the data in the sense that it captures the basic trend of the data points.

EXAMPLE 2 Table 1 lists the average carbon dioxide level in the atmosphere, measured in parts per million at Mauna Loa Observatory from 1980 to 2012. Use the data in Table 1 to find a model for the carbon dioxide level.

SOLUTION We use the data in Table 1 to make the scatter plot in Figure 4, where t represents time (in years) and C represents the CO_2 level (in parts per million, ppm).

Table 1

Year	CO ₂ level (in ppm)	Year	CO ₂ level (in ppm)
1980	338.7	1998	366.5
1982	341.2	2000	369.4
1984	344.4	2002	373.2
1986	347.2	2004	377.5
1988	351.5	2006	381.9
1990	354.2	2008	385.6
1992	356.3	2010	389.9
1994	358.6	2012	393.8
1996	362.4		

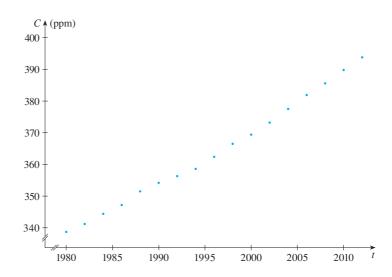


FIGURE 4 Scatter plot for the average CO₂ level

Notice that the data points appear to lie close to a straight line, so it's natural to choose a linear model in this case. But there are many possible lines that approximate these data points, so which one should we use? One possibility is the line that passes through the first and last data points. The slope of this line is

$$\frac{393.8 - 338.7}{2012 - 1980} = \frac{55.1}{32} = 1.721875 \approx 1.722$$

We write its equation as

$$C - 338.7 = 1.722(t - 1980)$$

or

C = 1.722t - 3070.86

Equation 1 gives one possible linear model for the carbon dioxide level; it is graphed in Figure 5.

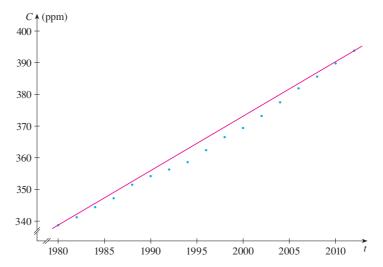


FIGURE 5
Linear model through first
and last data points

A computer or graphing calculator finds the regression line by the method of **least squares**, which is to minimize the sum of the squares of the vertical distances between the data points and the line. The details are explained in Section 14.7.

Notice that our model gives values higher than most of the actual CO_2 levels. A better linear model is obtained by a procedure from statistics called *linear regression*. If we use a graphing calculator, we enter the data from Table 1 into the data editor and choose the linear regression command. (With Maple we use the fit[leastsquare] command in the stats package; with Mathematica we use the Fit command.) The machine gives the slope and *y*-intercept of the regression line as

$$m = 1.71262$$
 $b = -3054.14$

So our least squares model for the CO₂ level is

$$C = 1.71262t - 3054.14$$

In Figure 6 we graph the regression line as well as the data points. Comparing with Figure 5, we see that it gives a better fit than our previous linear model.

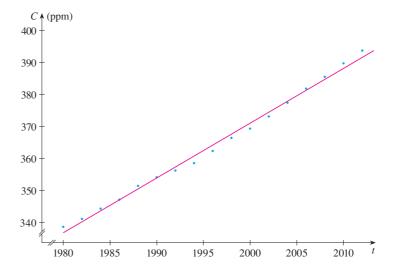


FIGURE 6 The regression line

EXAMPLE 3 Use the linear model given by Equation 2 to estimate the average CO₂ level for 1987 and to predict the level for the year 2020. According to this model, when will the CO₂ level exceed 420 parts per million?

SOLUTION Using Equation 2 with t = 1987, we estimate that the average CO_2 level in 1987 was

$$C(1987) = (1.71262)(1987) - 3054.14 \approx 348.84$$

This is an example of *interpolation* because we have estimated a value *between* observed values. (In fact, the Mauna Loa Observatory reported that the average CO₂ level in 1987 was 348.93 ppm, so our estimate is quite accurate.)

With t = 2020, we get

$$C(2020) = (1.71262)(2020) - 3054.14 \approx 405.35$$

So we predict that the average CO_2 level in the year 2020 will be 405.4 ppm. This is an example of *extrapolation* because we have predicted a value *outside* the time frame of observations. Consequently, we are far less certain about the accuracy of our prediction.

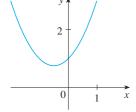
Using Equation 2, we see that the CO₂ level exceeds 420 ppm when

$$1.71262t - 3054.14 > 420$$

Solving this inequality, we get

$$t > \frac{3474.14}{1.71262} \approx 2028.55$$

We therefore predict that the CO₂ level will exceed 420 ppm by the year 2029. This prediction is risky because it involves a time quite remote from our observations. In fact, we see from Figure 6 that the trend has been for CO₂ levels to increase rather more rapidly in recent years, so the level might exceed 420 ppm well before 2029.



(a)
$$y = x^2 + x + 1$$

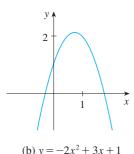


FIGURE 7

The graphs of quadratic functions are parabolas.

Polynomials

A function P is called a **polynomial** if

$$P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$$

where n is a nonnegative integer and the numbers $a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$ are constants called the **coefficients** of the polynomial. The domain of any polynomial is $\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, \infty)$. If the leading coefficient $a_n \neq 0$, then the **degree** of the polynomial is n. For example, the function

$$P(x) = 2x^6 - x^4 + \frac{2}{5}x^3 + \sqrt{2}$$

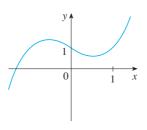
is a polynomial of degree 6.

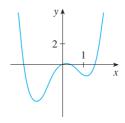
A polynomial of degree 1 is of the form P(x) = mx + b and so it is a linear function. A polynomial of degree 2 is of the form $P(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ and is called a **quadratic function**. Its graph is always a parabola obtained by shifting the parabola $y = ax^2$, as we will see in the next section. The parabola opens upward if a > 0 and downward if a < 0. (See Figure 7.)

A polynomial of degree 3 is of the form

$$P(x) = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$$
 $a \ne 0$

and is called a **cubic function**. Figure 8 shows the graph of a cubic function in part (a) and graphs of polynomials of degrees 4 and 5 in parts (b) and (c). We will see later why the graphs have these shapes.





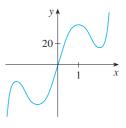


FIGURE 8

(a)
$$y = x^3 - x + 1$$

(b)
$$y = x^4 - 3x^2 + x$$

(c) $y = 3x^5 - 25x^3 + 60x$

Polynomials are commonly used to model various quantities that occur in the natural and social sciences. For instance, in Section 3.7 we will explain why economists often use a polynomial P(x) to represent the cost of producing x units of a commodity. In the following example we use a quadratic function to model the fall of a ball.

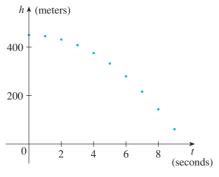
EXAMPLE 4 A ball is dropped from the upper observation deck of the CN Tower, 450 m above the ground, and its height *h* above the ground is recorded at 1-second intervals in Table 2. Find a model to fit the data and use the model to predict the time at which the ball hits the ground.

SOLUTION We draw a scatter plot of the data in Figure 9 and observe that a linear model is inappropriate. But it looks as if the data points might lie on a parabola, so we try a quadratic model instead. Using a graphing calculator or computer algebra system (which uses the least squares method), we obtain the following quadratic model:

Table 2

Time (seconds)	Height (meters)
0	450
1	445
2	431
3	408
4	375
5	332
6	279
7	216
8	143
9	61

$$h = 449.36 + 0.96t - 4.90t^2$$



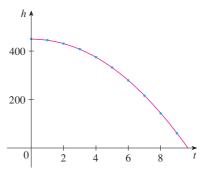


FIGURE 9

Scatter plot for a falling ball

FIGURE 10

Quadratic model for a falling ball

In Figure 10 we plot the graph of Equation 3 together with the data points and see that the quadratic model gives a very good fit.

The ball hits the ground when h = 0, so we solve the quadratic equation

$$-4.90t^2 + 0.96t + 449.36 = 0$$

The quadratic formula gives

$$t = \frac{-0.96 \pm \sqrt{(0.96)^2 - 4(-4.90)(449.36)}}{2(-4.90)}$$

The positive root is $t \approx 9.67$, so we predict that the ball will hit the ground after about 9.7 seconds.

Power Functions

A function of the form $f(x) = x^a$, where a is a constant, is called a **power function**. We consider several cases.

(i) a = n, where n is a positive integer

The graphs of $f(x) = x^n$ for n = 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 are shown in Figure 11. (These are polynomials with only one term.) We already know the shape of the graphs of y = x (a line through the origin with slope 1) and $y = x^2$ [a parabola, see Example 1.1.2(b)].

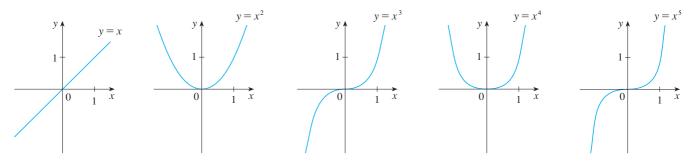


FIGURE 11 Graphs of $f(x) = x^n$ for n = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5

The general shape of the graph of $f(x) = x^n$ depends on whether n is even or odd. If n is even, then $f(x) = x^n$ is an even function and its graph is similar to the parabola $y = x^2$. If n is odd, then $f(x) = x^n$ is an odd function and its graph is similar to that of $y = x^3$. Notice from Figure 12, however, that as n increases, the graph of $y = x^n$ becomes flatter near 0 and steeper when $|x| \ge 1$. (If x is small, then x^2 is smaller, x^3 is even smaller, x^4 is smaller still, and so on.)

A **family of functions** is a collection of functions whose equations are related. Figure 12 shows two families of power functions, one with even powers and one with odd powers.

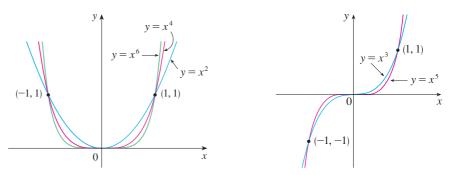


FIGURE 12

(ii) a = 1/n, where n is a positive integer

The function $f(x) = x^{1/n} = \sqrt[n]{x}$ is a **root function**. For n = 2 it is the square root function $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$, whose domain is $[0, \infty)$ and whose graph is the upper half of the

parabola $x = y^2$. [See Figure 13(a).] For other even values of n, the graph of $y = \sqrt[n]{x}$ is similar to that of $y = \sqrt{x}$. For n = 3 we have the cube root function $f(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$ whose domain is \mathbb{R} (recall that every real number has a cube root) and whose graph is shown in Figure 13(b). The graph of $y = \sqrt[n]{x}$ for n odd (n > 3) is similar to that of $y = \sqrt[3]{x}$.

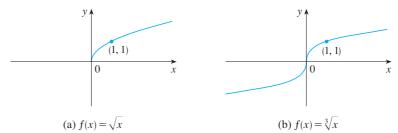


FIGURE 13 Graphs of root functions

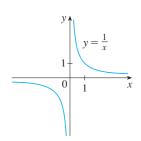


FIGURE 14
The reciprocal function

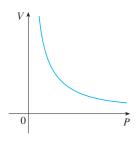


FIGURE 15
Volume as a function of pressure at constant temperature

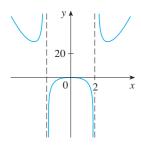


FIGURE 16 $f(x) = \frac{2x^4 - x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 4}$

(iii) a=-1

The graph of the **reciprocal function** $f(x) = x^{-1} = 1/x$ is shown in Figure 14. Its graph has the equation y = 1/x, or xy = 1, and is a hyperbola with the coordinate axes as its asymptotes. This function arises in physics and chemistry in connection with Boyle's Law, which says that, when the temperature is constant, the volume V of a gas is inversely proportional to the pressure P:

$$V = \frac{C}{P}$$

where *C* is a constant. Thus the graph of *V* as a function of *P* (see Figure 15) has the same general shape as the right half of Figure 14.

Power functions are also used to model species-area relationships (Exercises 30–31), illumination as a function of distance from a light source (Exercise 29), and the period of revolution of a planet as a function of its distance from the sun (Exercise 32).

Rational Functions

A **rational function** f is a ratio of two polynomials:

$$f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{O(x)}$$

where P and Q are polynomials. The domain consists of all values of x such that $Q(x) \neq 0$. A simple example of a rational function is the function f(x) = 1/x, whose domain is $\{x \mid x \neq 0\}$; this is the reciprocal function graphed in Figure 14. The function

$$f(x) = \frac{2x^4 - x^2 + 1}{x^2 - 4}$$

is a rational function with domain $\{x \mid x \neq \pm 2\}$. Its graph is shown in Figure 16.

Algebraic Functions

A function f is called an **algebraic function** if it can be constructed using algebraic operations (such as addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and taking roots) starting with polynomials. Any rational function is automatically an algebraic function. Here are two more examples:

$$f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1}$$
 $g(x) = \frac{x^4 - 16x^2}{x + \sqrt{x}} + (x - 2)\sqrt[3]{x + 1}$

When we sketch algebraic functions in Chapter 4, we will see that their graphs can assume a variety of shapes. Figure 17 illustrates some of the possibilities.

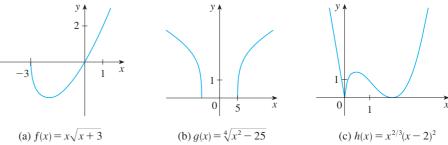


FIGURE 17

An example of an algebraic function occurs in the theory of relativity. The mass of a particle with velocity v is

$$m = f(v) = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

where m_0 is the rest mass of the particle and $c = 3.0 \times 10^5$ km/s is the speed of light in a vacuum.

Trigonometric Functions

The Reference Pages are located at the back of the book.

Trigonometry and the trigonometric functions are reviewed on Reference Page 2 and also in Appendix D. In calculus the convention is that radian measure is always used (except when otherwise indicated). For example, when we use the function $f(x) = \sin x$, it is understood that sin x means the sine of the angle whose radian measure is x. Thus the graphs of the sine and cosine functions are as shown in Figure 18.

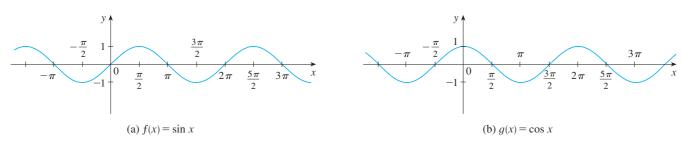


FIGURE 18

Notice that for both the sine and cosine functions the domain is $(-\infty, \infty)$ and the range is the closed interval [-1, 1]. Thus, for all values of x, we have

$$-1 \le \sin x \le 1 \qquad -1 \le \cos x \le 1$$

or, in terms of absolute values.

$$|\sin x| \le 1$$
 $|\cos x| \le 1$

Also, the zeros of the sine function occur at the integer multiples of π ; that is,

$$\sin x = 0$$
 when $x = n\pi$ *n* an integer

An important property of the sine and cosine functions is that they are periodic functions and have period 2π . This means that, for all values of x,

$$\sin(x + 2\pi) = \sin x \qquad \cos(x + 2\pi) = \cos x$$

The periodic nature of these functions makes them suitable for modeling repetitive phenomena such as tides, vibrating springs, and sound waves. For instance, in Example 1.3.4 we will see that a reasonable model for the number of hours of daylight in Philadelphia t days after January 1 is given by the function

$$L(t) = 12 + 2.8 \sin \left[\frac{2\pi}{365} (t - 80) \right]$$

EXAMPLE 5 What is the domain of the function $f(x) = \frac{1}{1 - 2 \cos x}$?

SOLUTION This function is defined for all values of *x* except for those that make the denominator 0. But

$$1-2\cos x = 0 \iff \cos x = \frac{1}{2} \iff x = \frac{\pi}{3} + 2n\pi \text{ or } x = \frac{5\pi}{3} + 2n\pi$$

where n is any integer (because the cosine function has period 2π). So the domain of f is the set of all real numbers except for the ones noted above.

The tangent function is related to the sine and cosine functions by the equation

$$\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$$

and its graph is shown in Figure 19. It is undefined whenever $\cos x = 0$, that is, when $x = \pm \pi/2, \pm 3\pi/2, \ldots$ Its range is $(-\infty, \infty)$. Notice that the tangent function has period π :

$$tan(x + \pi) = tan x$$
 for all x

The remaining three trigonometric functions (cosecant, secant, and cotangent) are the reciprocals of the sine, cosine, and tangent functions. Their graphs are shown in Appendix D.

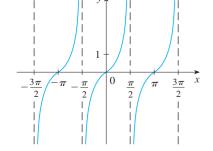


FIGURE 19 $y = \tan x$

FIGURE 20

Exponential Functions

The **exponential functions** are the functions of the form $f(x) = b^x$, where the base b is a positive constant. The graphs of $y = 2^x$ and $y = (0.5)^x$ are shown in Figure 20. In both cases the domain is $(-\infty, \infty)$ and the range is $(0, \infty)$.

Exponential functions will be studied in detail in Section 1.4, and we will see that they are useful for modeling many natural phenomena, such as population growth (if b > 1) and radioactive decay (if b < 1).

Logarithmic Functions

The **logarithmic functions** $f(x) = \log_b x$, where the base b is a positive constant, are the inverse functions of the exponential functions. They will be studied in Section 1.5. Figure

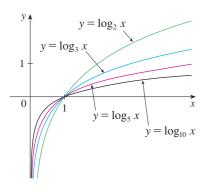


FIGURE 21

21 shows the graphs of four logarithmic functions with various bases. In each case the domain is $(0, \infty)$, the range is $(-\infty, \infty)$, and the function increases slowly when x > 1.

EXAMPLE 6 Classify the following functions as one of the types of functions that we have discussed.

(a)
$$f(x) = 5^x$$

(b)
$$g(x) = x^5$$

(c)
$$h(x) = \frac{1+x}{1-\sqrt{x}}$$

(d)
$$u(t) = 1 - t + 5t^4$$

SOLUTION

- (a) $f(x) = 5^x$ is an exponential function. (The x is the exponent.)
- (b) $g(x) = x^5$ is a power function. (The x is the base.) We could also consider it to be a polynomial of degree 5.

(c)
$$h(x) = \frac{1+x}{1-\sqrt{x}}$$
 is an algebraic function.

(d) $u(t) = 1 - t + 5t^4$ is a polynomial of degree 4.