#### Lecture 5: Classical functions

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MA1S11A: Calculus with Applications for Scientists

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### 1 Bricks and mortar

Most function you'll encounter in this module are obtained from the

#### "elementary bricks":

- $\checkmark$  c, c  $\in \mathbb{R}$  (constant functions);
- √ x;
- $\checkmark sin(x);$
- $\checkmark e^{x}$  (exponential function)

#### using as "mortar" different operations:

- $\checkmark$  arithmetic operations: f + g, f g, fg,  $\frac{f}{g}$ ;
- $\checkmark$  powers:  $f^{\alpha}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- ✓ composition:  $f \circ g$ ;
- $\checkmark$  inverse function f<sup>-1</sup>;
- $\checkmark$  gluing functions from different pieces (piecewise defined functions).

We'll learn the exponential function and non-integer powers much later in the module, and inverse functions later this week.

Today we'll study the most basic functions obtained from our bricks and mortar.

**Definition.** A **polynomial** is a function which is a sum of finitely many power terms  $cx^n$ , where c is a real number, and n is a non-negative integer. 

Examples:

$$2x - 1, \quad 5x^3 + x - \sqrt{3}, \quad x^2, \quad 3, \quad x^7 - x^3 - 2, \\x^{10} + \frac{\pi}{2}x^3, \quad x^2 - 2x^2, \quad 0.$$

It is common to collect similar terms in a polynomial. So, the last polynomial above is systematically simplified:  $x^2 - 2x^2 = -x^2$ .

The function  $(x - 1)(x - 2)^2$  is also a polynomial since we can perform the multiplication and collect similar terms:

$$(x-1)(x-2)^{2} = (x-1)(x^{2}-4x+4) =$$
  
=  $x^{3}-4x^{2}+4x-x^{2}+4x-4 = x^{3}-5x^{2}+8x-4.$ 

More generally, if we add, subtract, multiply, or compose polynomials, we get a polynomial.

Division does not always yield polynomials!



A general polynomial has the form

 $c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + c_1 x + c_0, \qquad c_n \neq 0,$ 

which is the same as  $c_0 + c_1x + \cdots + c_{n-1}x^{n-1} + c_nx^n$ .

The numbers  $c_0, c_1, ..., c_n$  are called the **coefficients** of the polynomial.

The highest power n occurring with a non-zero coefficient is called the **degree** of the polynomial.

A polynomial of degree 0 is a constant  $c = cx^{0}$ . We declare 0 to be a polynomial of undefined degree.

Polynomials of degrees 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 are referred to as *linear*, *quadratic*, *cubic*, *quartic*, *quintic* polynomials respectively.

A polynomial of the form  $c_n x^n$  is called a **monomial**.

A polynomial function is a function of the form

 $f(x) = c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + c_1 x + c_0.$ 

Polynomial are obtained from two types of "elementary bricks" only:

- $\checkmark \ c, c \in \mathbb{R} \text{ (constant functions);}$
- √ x;

using the simplest "mortar":

- ✓ addition f + g;
- $\checkmark$  multiplication fg.



Examples of graphs of polynomial functions of degree 4:

f(x) = (x-2)(x-4)(x-8)(x+7).



Observe that this graph has no symmetries!

Examples of graphs of polynomial functions of degree 4 (zoomed out):  $f(x) = (x-2)(x-4)(x-8)(x+7), \quad f(x) = x^4.$ 



For large |x| there is little difference between the graphs of polynomial functions  $c_n x^n + c_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \cdots + c_1 x + c_0$  and just  $c_n x^n$  (we suppose  $c_n \neq 0$ ).

Indeed, when k < n, and when |x| gets arbitrarily large,

 $|x^{n-k}| = |x|^{n-k} \ge |x|$  gets arbitrarily large, so

$$\frac{c_k x^k}{c_n x^n} = \frac{c_k}{c_n} \frac{1}{x^{n-k}}$$

gets arbitrarily small. Thus, lower terms, when compared to the term with the highest degree, get negligible.

We've just seen a typical calculus argument!

### 3 Rational functions

**Definition**. A **rational function** is a ratio of two polynomials,  $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$ . *Examples:*  $\frac{1}{x^{2}+1}$ ,  $\frac{x^{2}+2x}{x^{2}-1}$ ,  $\frac{x^{2}+1}{x}$ .

Rational functions are obtained from two types of "elementary bricks" only:

- $\checkmark$  c, c  $\in \mathbb{R}$  (constant functions);
- √ x;

#### using as "mortar"

- ✓ addition f + g;
- $\checkmark$  multiplication fg;
- $\checkmark$  division  $\frac{f}{g}$ .

### 3 Rational functions

**Definition.** A **rational function** is a ratio of two polynomials,  $\frac{P(x)}{O(x)}$ .

While the natural domain of polynomials was  $\mathbb{R}$ , rational functions are undefined where the denominator vanishes (Q(x) = 0). In such cases, the corresponding graphs have **vertical asymptotes** (vertical lines that they closely approximate).

Rational functions might also have **horizontal asymptotes**, although that's not always the case.



The graph of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x^2+1}$  has a horizontal asymptote y = 0, and no vertical asymptotes, since the natural domain of f is  $\mathbb{R}$ . Indeed,  $1 + x^2 > 0$  for all real x.

## 3 Rational functions



The graph of  $\frac{x^2+2x}{x^2-1}$  has vertical asymptotes x = 1 and x = -1 (values at which  $x^2 - 1 = 0$ ), and a horizontal asymptote y = 1. To see the latter, write  $\frac{x^2+2x}{x^2-1} = \frac{x^2-1+1+2x}{x^2-1} = \frac{x^2-1}{x^2-1} + \frac{2x+1}{x^2-1} = 1 + \frac{2x+1}{x^2-1}$ .





This graph has a vertical asymptote x = 0, and no horizontal asymptotes. It however has another straight line asymptote y = x, because  $\frac{x^2+1}{x} = x + \frac{1}{x}$ .



This graph has a vertical asymptote x = 3, a horizontal asymptote y = 2, and also the point (-1, 1) which it approaches both on the left and on the right but does not touch. Indeed, for  $x \neq -1$ , we have

 $\frac{2x^2 - 2}{x^2 - 2x - 3} = \frac{2(x - 1)(x + 1)}{(x + 1)(x - 3)} = \frac{2x - 2}{x - 3} = \frac{2(x - 3) + 4}{x - 3} = 2 + \frac{4}{x - 3}.$ So, our graph is obtained from that of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  by a vertical scaling  $(\frac{4}{x})$ , horizontal  $(\frac{4}{x - 3})$  and vertical  $(2 + \frac{4}{x - 3})$  shifts, and a cut out at x = 1.

### 4 Algebraic functions

**Definition.** Algebraic functions are built from the constants and the variable x using the four arithmetic operations, and extracting roots.

Examples: 
$$\frac{\sqrt{x} - 2x^3}{x^2 + 1}$$
,  $\frac{x^2 + 2x\sqrt{x - \frac{6}{x+2}}}{\sqrt[3]{x^2 - 1} + \pi}$ ,  $\frac{x^2 + 1}{x + \frac{x}{1 + \sqrt{1 + \sqrt{x}}}}$ 

Algebraic functions are too varied in behaviour to make any general statements. They are only defined for some values, their graphs may have corners etc.



All functions you see in trigonometry can be obtained from sin(x) using the four arithmetic operations, and composition with linear functions (ax + b).

Examples: 
$$\cos(x) = \sin(x + \frac{\pi}{2})$$
,  $\tan(x) = \frac{\sin(x)}{\cos(x)}$ ,  $\cot(x) = \frac{\cos(x)}{\sin(x)}$ .

Here we will mainly talk about sin and cos:



function	nat. domain	range	odd/even	periodic
sin	$\mathbb{R}$	[-1,1]	odd	yes, with period $2\pi$
COS	R	[-1,1]	even	yes, with period $2\pi$

By the way, negative angles do make perfect sense: we often need to distinguish between the clockwise direction (usually considered *negative*) and the counterclockwise direction (*positive*).

If we look at the function  $g(x) = A \sin(Bx)$ ,  $B \neq 0$ , we observe that it is  $\frac{2\pi}{B}$ -periodic:

$$A\sin(B(x+\frac{2\pi}{B})) = A\sin(Bx+2\pi) = A\sin(Bx)$$

Also, while sin oscillates between -1 and 1, this new function oscillates between -A and A.



The same applies to the function  $A \cos(Bx)$ , and also to the functions  $A \sin(Bx - C) = A \sin(B(x - \frac{C}{B}))$  and  $A \cos(Bx - C) = A \cos(B(x - \frac{C}{B}))$ .

Besides the period  $T = \frac{2\pi}{B}$  and the amplitude A, a quantity used in applications of trigonometric functions is the frequency  $\frac{1}{T} = \frac{B}{2\pi}$ , number of periods passed in one unit of time.

If A or B is negative, we should use absolute values in these formulas and write  $\frac{2\pi}{|B|}$  for the period, |A| for the amplitude, and  $\frac{|B|}{2\pi}$  for the frequency.

Linguistic digression: Where does the word *sine* comes from? From Latin *sinus*, meaning "bend", "bay", or "the bosom of a garment",more specifically "the hanging fold of the upper part of a toga"



Linguistic digression:

Where does the word *sine* comes from?

From Latin *sinus*, meaning "bend", "bay", or "the bosom of a garment", more specifically "the hanging fold of the upper part of a toga". You might know the word from its anatomical meaning: the cavities or bays in the facial bones.

The word *sinus* was chosen as the translation of what was mis-interpreted as the Arabic word meaning "pocket" or "fold" in the 12th century. A possible reason of the mis-interpretation is the vowel omission in the Arabic language. The original Arabic name meant "chord", "bowstring". It was a neologism borrowed from the Hindu (where it has been used since 500AD).