# **Functions** 1



OVERVIEW In this chapter we review what functions are and how they are visualized as graphs, how they are combined and transformed, and ways they can be classified.

# 1.1 Functions and Their Graphs

Functions are a tool for describing the real world in mathematical terms. A function can be represented by an equation, a graph, a numerical table, or a verbal description; we will use all four representations throughout this text. This section reviews these ideas.

# Functions; Domain and Range

The temperature at which water boils depends on the elevation above sea level. The interest paid on a cash investment depends on the length of time the investment is held. The area of a circle depends on the radius of the circle. The distance an object travels depends on the elapsed time. OVERVIEW In this chapter we review what functions are graphs, how they are combined and transformed, and way<br> **nd Their Graphs**<br>
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In each case, the value of one variable quantity, say *y*, depends on the value of another variable quantity, which we often call *x*. We say that "*y* is a function of *x*" and write this symbolically as

$$
y = f(x) \qquad ("y equals f of x").
$$

The symbol  $f$  represents the function, the letter  $x$  is the **independent variable** representing the input value to *f*, and *y* is the **dependent variable** or output value of *f* at *x*.

**DEFINITION** A **function**  $f$  from a set  $D$  to a set  $Y$  is a rule that assigns a single value  $f(x)$  in *Y* to each *x* in *D*.

A rule that assigns more than one value to an input *x*, such as the rule that assigns to a positive number both the positive and negative square roots of the number, does not describe a function.

The set *D* of all possible input values is called the **domain** of the function. The domain of *f* will sometimes be denoted by  $D(f)$ . The set of all output values  $f(x)$  as x varies throughout *D* is called the **range** of the function. The range might not include every element in the set *Y*. The domain and range of a function can be any sets of objects, but often in calculus they are sets of real numbers interpreted as points of a coordinate line. (In Chapters 12–15, we will encounter functions for which the elements of the sets are points in the plane, or in space.)

Often a function is given by a formula that describes how to calculate the output value from the input variable. For instance, the equation  $A = \pi r^2$  is a rule that calculates the area *A* of a circle from its radius *r*. When we define a function *f* with a formula  $y = f(x)$ and the domain is not stated explicitly or restricted by context, the domain is assumed to be



**FIGURE 1.1** A diagram showing a function as a kind of machine.



FIGURE 1.2 A function from a set *D* to a set *Y* assigns a unique element of *Y* to each element in *D.*

the largest set of real *x*-values for which the formula gives real *y*-values. This is called the **natural domain** of *f*. If we want to restrict the domain in some way, we must say so. The domain of  $y = x^2$  is the entire set of real numbers. To restrict the domain of the function to, say, positive values of *x*, we would write " $y = x^2, x > 0$ ."

Changing the domain to which we apply a formula usually changes the range as well. The range of  $y = x^2$  is  $[0, \infty)$ . The range of  $y = x^2, x \ge 2$ , is the set of all numbers obtained by squaring numbers greater than or equal to 2. In set notation (see Appendix A.1), the range is  $\{x^2 | x > 2\}$  or  $\{y | y > 4\}$  or  $[4, \infty)$ .

When the range of a function is a set of real numbers, the function is said to be **real-valued**. The domains and ranges of most real-valued functions we consider are intervals or combinations of intervals. Sometimes the range of a function is not easy to find.

A function *f* is like a machine that produces an output value  $f(x)$  in its range whenever we feed it an input value x from its domain (Figure 1.1). The function keys on a calculator give an example of a function as a machine. For instance, whenever you enter a nonnegative number x and press the  $\sqrt{x}$  key, the calculator gives an output value (the square root of *x*).

A function can also be pictured as an **arrow diagram** (Figure 1.2). Each arrow associates to an element of the domain *D* a single element in the set *Y*. In Figure 1.2, the arrows indicate that  $f(a)$  is associated with *a*,  $f(x)$  is associated with *x*, and so on. Notice that a function can have the same *output value* for two different input elements in the domain (as occurs with  $f(a)$  in Figure 1.2), but each input element *x* is assigned a *single* output value  $f(x)$ .

**EXAMPLE 1** Verify the natural domains and associated ranges of some simple functions. The domains in each case are the values of *x* for which the formula makes sense.



**Solution** The formula  $y = x^2$  gives a real *y*-value for any real number *x*, so the domain is  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . The range of  $y = x^2$  is  $[0, \infty)$  because the square of any real number is nonnegative and every nonnegative number *y* is the square of its own square root:  $y = (\sqrt{y})^2$ .

The formula  $y = 1/x$  gives a real *y*-value for every *x* except  $x = 0$ . For consistency in the rules of arithmetic, *we cannot divide any number by zero*. The range of  $y = 1/x$ , the set of reciprocals of all nonzero real numbers, is the set of all nonzero real numbers, since  $y = 1/(1/y)$ . That is, for  $y \ne 0$  the number  $x = 1/y$  is the input that is assigned to the output value *y*.

The formula  $y = \sqrt{x}$  gives a real *y*-value only if  $x \ge 0$ . The range of  $y = \sqrt{x}$  is  $[0, \infty)$  because every nonnegative number is some number's square root (namely, it is the square root of its own square).

In  $y = \sqrt{4-x}$ , the quantity  $4 - x$  cannot be negative. That is,  $4 - x \ge 0$ , or  $x \leq 4$ . The formula gives nonnegative real *y*-values for all  $x \leq 4$ . The range of  $\sqrt{4 - x}$ is  $[0, \infty)$ , the set of all nonnegative numbers.

The formula  $y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$  gives a real *y*-value for every *x* in the closed interval from  $-1$  to 1. Outside this domain,  $1 - x^2$  is negative and its square root is not a real number. The values of  $1 - x^2$  vary from 0 to 1 on the given domain, and the square roots of these values do the same. The range of  $\sqrt{1 - x^2}$  is [0,1].

# Graphs of Functions

If  $f$  is a function with domain  $D$ , its **graph** consists of the points in the Cartesian plane whose coordinates are the input-output pairs for *f*. In set notation, the graph is

$$
\{(x, f(x)) | x \in D\}.
$$

The graph of the function  $f(x) = x + 2$  is the set of points with coordinates  $(x, y)$ for which  $y = x + 2$ . Its graph is the straight line sketched in Figure 1.3.

The graph of a function  $f$  is a useful picture of its behavior. If  $(x, y)$  is a point on the graph, then  $y = f(x)$  is the height of the graph above (or below) the point *x*. The height may be positive or negative, depending on the sign of  $f(x)$  (Figure 1.4).







FIGURE 1.5 Graph of the function in Example 2.



To find out, we could plot more points. But how would we then connect *them*? The basic question still remains: How do we know for sure what the graph looks like between the points we plot? Calculus answers this question, as we will see in Chapter 4. Meanwhile, we will have to settle for plotting points and connecting them as best we can.



## Representing a Function Numerically

A function may be represented algebraically by a formula and visually by a graph (Example 2). Another way to represent a function is **numerically**, through a table of values. From an appropriate table of values, a graph of the function can be obtained using the method illustrated in Example 2, possibly with the aid of a computer. The graph consisting of only the points in the table is called a **scatterplot**.

**EXAMPLE 3** Musical notes are pressure waves in the air. The data associated with Figure 1.6 give recorded pressure displacement versus time in seconds of a musical note produced by a tuning fork. The table provides a representation of the pressure function (in micropascals) over time. If we first make a scatterplot and then draw a smooth curve that approximates the data points  $(t, p)$  from the table, we obtain the graph shown in the figure.



plotted points gives a graph of the pressure function represented by the accompanying tabled data (Example 3).

# The Vertical Line Test for a Function

Not every curve in the coordinate plane can be the graph of a function. A function *f* can have only one value  $f(x)$  for each x in its domain, so *no vertical line* can intersect the graph of a function at more than one point. If *a* is in the domain of the function *f*, then the vertical line  $x = a$  will intersect the graph of f at the single point  $(a, f(a))$ .

A circle cannot be the graph of a function, since some vertical lines intersect the circle twice. The circle graphed in Figure 1.7a, however, contains the graphs of two functions of *x*, namely the upper semicircle defined by the function  $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$  and the lower semicircle defined by the function  $g(x) = -\sqrt{1 - x^2}$  (Figures 1.7b and 1.7c).



FIGURE 1.7 (a) The circle is not the graph of a function; it fails the vertical line test. (b) The upper semicircle is the graph of the function  $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ . (c) The lower semicircle is the graph of the function  $g(x) = -\sqrt{1 - x^2}$ .



FIGURE 1.8 The absolute value function has domain  $(-\infty, \infty)$  and range  $[0, \infty)$ .



FIGURE 1.9 To graph the function  $y = f(x)$  shown here, we apply different formulas to different parts of its domain (Example 4).



FIGURE 1.10 The graph of the greatest integer function  $y = \lfloor x \rfloor$  lies on or below the line  $y = x$ , so it provides an integer floor for *x* (Example 5).



FIGURE 1.11 The graph of the least integer function  $y = [x]$  lies on or above the line  $y = x$ , so it provides an integer ceiling for *x* (Example 6).

# Piecewise-Defined Functions

Sometimes a function is described in pieces by using different formulas on different parts of its domain. One example is the **absolute value function**

> $=\begin{cases} x, & x \geq 0 \\ -x, & x < 0 \end{cases}$  $\left\{ \right\}$  $\left\{ \right\}$  $\int$  $\overline{\mathfrak{l}}$ *x x x x x* ,  $x \geq 0$  $x < 0$ First formula Second formula

whose graph is given in Figure 1.8. The right-hand side of the equation means that the function equals *x* if  $x \geq 0$ , and equals  $-x$  if  $x < 0$ . Piecewise-defined functions often arise when real-world data are modeled. Here are some other examples.

**EXAMPLE 4** The function

=  $-x$ ,  $x <$  $\leq x \leq$  $>$  $\int$  $\left\{ \right\}$  $\overline{\phantom{a}}$  $\mathfrak{r}$  $\begin{array}{c} \hline \end{array}$ *f x x x*  $x^2$ ,  $0 \leq x$ *x*  $\left( x\right)$  $x < 0$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 1$  $1, \quad x > 1$ First formula Second formula Third formula 2

is defined on the entire real line but has values given by different formulas, depending on the position of *x*. The values of *f* are given by  $y = -x$  when  $x < 0$ ,  $y = x^2$  when  $0 \le x \le 1$ , and  $y = 1$  when  $x > 1$ . The function, however, is *just one function* whose domain is the entire set of real numbers (Figure 1.9).

EXAMPLE 5 The function whose value at any number *x* is the *greatest integer less than or equal to x* is called the **greatest integer function** or the **integer floor function**. It is denoted  $\lfloor x \rfloor$ . Figure 1.10 shows the graph. Observe that

$$
\begin{array}{lll}\n[2.4] = 2, & [1.9] = 1, & [0] = 0, & [-1.2] = -2, \\
[2] = 2, & [0.2] = 0, & [-0.3] = -1, & [-2] = -2.\n\end{array}
$$

**EXAMPLE 6** The function whose value at any number *x* is the *smallest integer greater than or equal to x* is called the **least integer function** or the **integer ceiling function**. It is denoted  $\lceil x \rceil$ . Figure 1.11 shows the graph. For positive values of x, this function might represent, for example, the cost of parking *x* hours in a parking lot that charges \$1 for each hour or part of an hour. x<br>
is defined on the entire real line but has values given by<br>
the position of x. The values of f are given by  $y =$ <br>  $0 \le x \le 1$ , and  $y = 1$  when  $x > 1$ . The function, how<br>
domain is the entire set of real numbers (Figure

#### Increasing and Decreasing Functions

If the graph of a function climbs or rises as you move from left to right, we say that the function is *increasing*. If the graph descends or falls as you move from left to right, the function is *decreasing*.

**DEFINITIONS** Let *f* be a function defined on an interval *I* and let  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  be two distinct points in *I*.

**1.** If  $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$  whenever  $x_1 < x_2$ , then f is said to be **increasing** on *I*.

**2.** If  $f(x_2) < f(x_1)$  whenever  $x_1 < x_2$ , then *f* is said to be **decreasing** on *I*.

It is important to realize that the definitions of increasing and decreasing functions must be satisfied for *every* pair of points  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  in *I* with  $x_1 < x_2$ . Because we use the inequality  $\lt$  to compare the function values, instead of  $\lt$ , it is sometimes said that *f* is *strictly* increasing or decreasing on *I*. The interval *I* may be finite (also called bounded) or infinite (unbounded).

**EXAMPLE 7** The function graphed in Figure 1.9 is decreasing on  $(-\infty, 0)$  and increasing on  $(0,1)$ . The function is neither increasing nor decreasing on the interval  $(1,\infty)$  because the function is constant on that interval, and hence the strict inequalities in the definition of increasing or decreasing are not satisfied on  $(1, \infty)$ .

# Even Functions and Odd Functions: Symmetry

The graphs of *even* and *odd* functions have special symmetry properties.

**DEFINITIONS** A function  $y = f(x)$  is an

**even function of**  $x$  if  $f(-x) = f(x)$ ,

**odd function of** 
$$
x
$$
 if  $f(-x) = -f(x)$ ,

for every *x* in the function's domain.

The names *even* and *odd* come from powers of *x*. If *y* is an even power of *x*, as in *y* =  $x^2$  or *y* =  $x^4$ , it is an even function of *x* because  $(-x)^2 = x^2$  and  $(-x)^4 = x^4$ . If *y* is an odd power of *x*, as in  $y = x$  or  $y = x^3$ , it is an odd function of *x* because  $(-x)^1 = -x$  and  $(-x)^3 = -x^3$ . The names *even* and *odd* come from powers of x. If y is<br>  $y = x^2$  or  $y = x^4$ , it is an even function of x because  $(-x)^2$ <br>  $y$  is an odd power of x, as in  $y = x$  or  $y = x^4$ . it is an  $(-x)^1 = -x$  and  $(-x)^3 = -x^3$ .<br>
The graph o

The graph of an even function is **symmetric about the** *y***-axis**. Since  $f(-x) = f(x)$ , a point  $(x, y)$  lies on the graph if and only if the point  $(-x, y)$  lies on the graph (Figure 1.12a). A reflection across the *y*-axis leaves the graph unchanged.

The graph of an odd function is **symmetric about the origin**. Since  $f(-x) = -f(x)$ , a point  $(x, y)$  lies on the graph if and only if the point  $(-x, -y)$  lies on the graph (Figure 1.12b). Equivalently, a graph is symmetric about the origin if a rotation of 180° about the origin leaves the graph unchanged.

Notice that each of these definitions requires that both *x* and −*x* be in the domain of *f*.

**EXAMPLE 8** Here are several functions illustrating the definitions.

*f* Even function:  $(-x)^2 = x^2$  for all *x*; symmetry about *y*-axis. So  $f(-3) = 9 = f(3)$ . Changing the sign of *x* does not change the value of an even function.

*f* Even function:  $(-x)^2 + 1 = x^2 + 1$  for all *x*; symmetry about *y*-axis (Figure 1.13a).



**FIGURE 1.13** (a) When we add the constant term 1 to the function  $y = x^2$ , the resulting function  $y = x^2 + 1$  is still even and its graph is still symmetric about the *y*-axis. (b) When we add the constant term 1 to the function  $y = x$ , the resulting function  $y = x + 1$  is no longer odd, since the symmetry about the origin is lost. The function  $y = x + 1$  is also not even (Example 8).



FIGURE 1.12 (a) The graph of  $y = x^2$  (an even function) is symmetric about the *y*-axis. (b) The graph of  $y = x^3$  (an odd function) is symmetric about the origin.



- $f(x) = x$  Odd function:  $(-x) = -x$  for all *x*; symmetry about the origin. So  $f(-3) = -3$  while  $f(3) = 3$ . Changing the sign of *x* changes the sign of the value of an odd function.
- $f(x) = x + 1$  Not odd:  $f(-x) = -x + 1$ , but  $-f(x) = -x 1$ . The two are not equal.

Not even:  $(-x) + 1 \neq x + 1$  for all  $x \neq 0$  (Figure 1.13b).

## Common Functions

A variety of important types of functions are frequently encountered in calculus.

Linear Functions A function of the form  $f(x) = mx + b$ , where *m* and *b* are fixed constants, is called a **linear function**. Figure 1.14a shows an array of lines  $f(x) = mx$ . Each of these has  $b = 0$ , so these lines pass through the origin. The function  $f(x) = x$ , where  $m = 1$  and  $b = 0$ , is called the **identity function**. Constant functions result when the slope is  $m = 0$  (Figure 1.14b).





DEFINITION Two variables *y* and *x* are **proportional** (to one another) if one is always a constant multiple of the other—that is, if  $y = kx$  for some nonzero constant *k*.

If the variable *y* is proportional to the reciprocal  $1/x$ , then sometimes it is said that *y* is **inversely proportional** to *x* (because  $1/x$  is the multiplicative inverse of *x*).

**Power Functions** A function  $f(x) = x^a$ , where *a* is a constant, is called a **power function**. There are several important cases to consider.

(a)  $f(x) = x^a$  with  $a = n$ , a positive integer.

The graphs of  $f(x) = x^n$ , for  $n = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ , are displayed in Figure 1.15. These functions are defined for all real values of *x*. Notice that as the power *n* gets larger, the curves tend to flatten toward the *x*-axis on the interval  $(-1,1)$  and to rise more steeply for  $|x| > 1$ . Each curve passes through the point  $(1,1)$  and through the origin. The graphs of functions with even powers are symmetric about the *y*-axis; those with odd powers are symmetric about the origin. The even-powered functions are decreasing on the interval  $(-\infty, 0]$  and increasing on  $[0, \infty)$ ; the odd-powered functions are increasing over the entire real line  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .



FIGURE 1.15 Graphs of  $f(x) = x^n, n = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$ , defined for  $-\infty < x < \infty$ .

**(b)**  $f(x) = x^a$  with  $a = -1$  or  $a = -2$ .

The graphs of the functions  $f(x) = x^{-1} = 1/x$  and  $f(x) = x^{-2} = 1/x^2$  are shown in Figure 1.16. Both functions are defined for all  $x \neq 0$  (you can never divide by zero). The graph of  $y = 1/x$  is the hyperbola  $xy = 1$ , which approaches the coordinate axes far from the origin. The graph of  $y = 1/x^2$  also approaches the coordinate axes. The graph of the function  $f(x) = 1/x$  is symmetric about the origin; this function is decreasing on the intervals  $(-\infty, 0)$  and  $(0, \infty)$ . The graph of the function  $f(x) = 1/x^2$  is symmetric about the *y*-axis; this function is increasing on  $(-\infty, 0)$  and decreasing on  $(0, \infty)$ .





**FIGURE 1.17** Graphs of the power functions  $f(x) = x^a$  for  $a = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{2}$ , and  $\frac{2}{3}$ .

#### Polynomials A function *p* is a **polynomial** if

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

where *n* is a nonnegative integer and the numbers  $a_0, a_1, a_2, \ldots, a_n$  are real constants (called the **coefficients** of the polynomial). All polynomials have domain  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . If the leading coefficient  $a_n \neq 0$ , then *n* is called the **degree** of the polynomial. Linear functions with  $m \neq 0$  are polynomials of degree 1. Polynomials of degree 2, usually written as  $p(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ , are called **quadratic functions**. Likewise, **cubic functions** are polynomials  $p(x) = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$  of degree 3. Figure 1.18 shows the graphs of three polynomials. Techniques to graph polynomials are studied in Chapter 4.



FIGURE 1.18 Graphs of three polynomial functions.

**Rational Functions** A **rational function** is a quotient or ratio  $f(x) = p(x)/q(x)$ , where *p* and *q* are polynomials. The domain of a rational function is the set of all real *x* for which  $q(x) \neq 0$ . The graphs of three rational functions are shown in Figure 1.19.



FIGURE 1.19 Graphs of three rational functions. The straight red lines approached by the graphs are called *asymptotes* and are not part of the graphs. We discuss asymptotes in Section 2.5.

Algebraic Functions Any function constructed from polynomials using algebraic operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and taking roots) lies within the class of **algebraic functions**. All rational functions are algebraic, but also included are more

complicated functions (such as those satisfying an equation like  $y^3 - 9xy + x^3 = 0$ , studied in Section 3.7). Figure 1.20 displays the graphs of three algebraic functions.



Trigonometric Functions The six basic trigonometric functions are reviewed in Section 1.3. The graphs of the sine and cosine functions are shown in Figure 1.21.



FIGURE 1.21 Graphs of the sine and cosine functions.

**Exponential Functions** A function of the form  $f(x) = a^x$ , where  $a > 0$  and  $a \ne 1$ , is called an **exponential function** (with base *a*). All exponential functions have domain ( $-\infty$ ,  $\infty$ ) and range (0,  $\infty$ ), so an exponential function never assumes the value 0. We discuss exponential functions in Section 1.4. The graphs of some exponential functions are shown in Figure 1.22.



FIGURE 1.22 Graphs of exponential functions.

**Logarithmic Functions** These are the functions  $f(x) = \log_a x$ , where the base  $a \neq 1$ is a positive constant. They are the *inverse functions* of the exponential functions, and we discuss these functions in Section 1.5. Figure 1.23 shows the graphs of four logarithmic functions with various bases. In each case the domain is  $(0, \infty)$  and the range is  $(-\infty, \infty)$ .



Transcendental Functions These are functions that are not algebraic. They include the trigonometric, inverse trigonometric, exponential, and logarithmic functions, and many other functions as well. The **catenary** is one example of a transcendental function. Its graph has the shape of a cable, like a telephone line or electric cable, strung from one support to another and hanging freely under its own weight (Figure 1.24). The function defining the graph is discussed in Section 7.3.

# EXERCISES 1.1

#### Functions

In Exercises 1–6, find the domain and range of each function.

**1.**  $f(x) = 1 + x^2$  **2.**  $f(x) = 1 - \sqrt{x}$ **3.**  $F(x) = \sqrt{5x + 10}$  **4.**  $g(x) = \sqrt{x^2 - 3x}$ **5.**  $f(t) = \frac{4}{3-t}$  $=\frac{4}{3-t}$  6.  $G(t) = \frac{2}{t^2-16}$ 

In Exercises 7 and 8, which of the graphs are graphs of functions of *x*, and which are not? Give reasons for your answers.





#### Finding Formulas for Functions

- **9.** Express the area and perimeter of an equilateral triangle as a function of the triangle's side length *x*.
- **10.** Express the side length of a square as a function of the length *d* of the square's diagonal. Then express the area as a function of the diagonal length.
- **11.** Express the edge length of a cube as a function of the cube's diagonal length *d*. Then express the surface area and volume of the cube as a function of the diagonal length.
- **12.** A point *P* in the first quadrant lies on the graph of the function  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ . Express the coordinates of *P* as functions of the slope of the line joining *P* to the origin.
- **13.** Consider the point  $(x, y)$  lying on the graph of the line  $2x + 4y = 5$ . Let *L* be the distance from the point  $(x, y)$  to the origin  $(0, 0)$ . Write *L* as a function of *x*.
- **14.** Consider the point  $(x, y)$  lying on the graph of  $y = \sqrt{x 3}$ . Let *L* be the distance between the points  $(x, y)$  and  $(4, 0)$ . Write *L* as a function of *y*.

#### Functions and Graphs

Find the natural domain and graph the functions in Exercises 15–20.

**15.** 
$$
f(x) = 5 - 2x
$$
  
\n**16.**  $f(x) = 1 - 2x - x^2$   
\n**17.**  $g(x) = \sqrt{|x|}$   
\n**18.**  $g(x) = \sqrt{-x}$   
\n**19.**  $F(t) = t/|t|$   
\n**20.**  $G(t) = 1/|t|$   
\n**21.** Find the domain of  $y = \frac{x + 3}{4 - \sqrt{x^2 - 9}}$ .

- **22.** Find the range of  $y = 2 + \sqrt{9 + x^2}$ .
- **23.** Graph the following equations and explain why they are not graphs of functions of *x*.

**a.** 
$$
|y| = x
$$
 **b.**  $y^2 = x^2$ 

**24.** Graph the following equations and explain why they are not graphs of functions of *x*.

**a.**  $|x| + |y| = 1$  **b.**  $|x + y| = 1$ 

#### Piecewise-Defined Functions

Graph the functions in Exercises 25–28.

25. 
$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 2 - x, & 1 < x \le 2 \end{cases}
$$
  
\n26.  $g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - x, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 2 - x, & 1 < x \le 2 \end{cases}$   
\n27.  $F(x) = \begin{cases} 4 - x^2, & x \le 1 \\ x^2 + 2x, & x > 1 \end{cases}$   
\n28.  $G(x) = \begin{cases} 1/x, & x < 0 \\ x, & 0 \le x \end{cases}$ 

Find a formula for each function graphed in Exercises 29–32.





#### The Greatest and Least Integer Functions

- **33.** For what values of *x* is
	- **a.**  $|x| = 0$ ? **b.**  $|x| = 0$ ?
- **34.** What real numbers *x* satisfy the equation  $|x| = |x|$ ?
- **35.** Does  $[-x] = -[x]$  for all real *x*? Give reasons for your answer.
- **36.** Graph the function

$$
f(x) = \begin{cases} |x|, & x \ge 0 \\ |x|, & x < 0. \end{cases}
$$

Why is  $f(x)$  called the *integer part* of  $x$ ?

## Increasing and Decreasing Functions

Graph the functions in Exercises 37–46. What symmetries, if any, do the graphs have? Specify the intervals over which the function is increasing and the intervals where it is decreasing.



#### Even and Odd Functions

In Exercises 47–62, say whether the function is even, odd, or neither. Give reasons for your answer.



#### Theory and Examples

- **63.** The variable *s* is proportional to *t*, and  $s = 25$  when  $t = 75$ . Determine *t* when  $s = 60$ .
- **64. Kinetic energy** The kinetic energy *K* of a mass is proportional to the square of its velocity *v*. If  $K = 12,960$  joules when  $v = 18$  m/s, what is *K* when  $v = 10$  m/s?
- **65.** The variables *r* and *s* are inversely proportional, and  $r = 6$  when  $s = 4$ . Determine *s* when  $r = 10$ .
- **66. Boyle's law** Boyle's law says that the volume *V* of a gas at constant temperature increases whenever the pressure *P* decreases, so that *V* and *P* are inversely proportional. If  $P = 14.7$  N/cm<sup>2</sup> when  $V = 1000 \text{ cm}^3$ , then what is *V* when  $P = 23.4 \text{ N/cm}^2$ ?
- **67.** A box with an open top is to be constructed from a rectangular piece of cardboard with dimensions 14 cm by 22 cm by cutting out equal squares of side *x* at each corner and then folding up the sides as in the figure. Express the volume *V* of the box as a function of *x*.



- **68.** The accompanying figure shows a rectangle inscribed in an isosceles right triangle whose hypotenuse is 2 units long.
	- **a.** Express the *y*-coordinate of *P* in terms of *x.* (You might start by writing an equation for the line *AB*.)
	- **b.** Express the area of the rectangle in terms of *x*.



In Exercises 69 and 70, match each equation with its graph. Do not use a graphing device, and give reasons for your answer.





**71. a.** Graph the functions  $f(x) = x/2$  and  $g(x) = 1 + (4/x)$ together to identify the values of *x* for which

$$
\frac{x}{2} > 1 + \frac{4}{x}
$$

**b.** Confirm your findings in part (a) algebraically.

**72. a.** Graph the functions  $f(x) = 3/(x - 1)$  and  $g(x) = 2/(x + 1)$ together to identify the values of *x* for which

$$
\frac{3}{x-1} < \frac{2}{x+1}
$$

**b.** Confirm your findings in part (a) algebraically.

- **73.** For a curve to be *symmetric about the x-axis*, the point  $(x, y)$  must lie on the curve if and only if the point  $(x, -y)$  lies on the curve. Explain why a curve that is symmetric about the *x*-axis is not the graph of a function, unless the function is  $y = 0$ .
- **74.** Three hundred books sell for \$40 each, resulting in a revenue of  $(300)(\$40) = \$12,000$ . For each \$5 increase in the price, 25 fewer books are sold. Write the revenue *R* as a function of the number *x* of \$5 increases.
- **75.** A pen in the shape of an isosceles right triangle with legs of length *x* m and hypotenuse of length *h* m is to be built. If fencing costs \$5/m for the legs and \$10/m for the hypotenuse, write the total cost *C* of construction as a function of *h*.
- **76. Industrial costs** A power plant sits next to a river where the river is 250 m wide. To lay a new cable from the plant to a location in the city 2 km downstream on the opposite side costs \$180 per meter across the river and \$100 per meter along the land.



- **a.** Suppose that the cable goes from the plant to a point *Q* on the opposite side that is *x* m from the point *P* directly opposite the plant. Write a function  $C(x)$  that gives the cost of laying the cable in terms of the distance *x*.
- **b.** Generate a table of values to determine if the least expensive location for point *Q* is less than 300 m or greater than 300 m from point *P*.

# **Combining Functions; Shifting and Scaling Graphs**

In this section we look at the main ways functions are combined or transformed to form new functions.

## Sums, Differences, Products, and Quotients

Like numbers, functions can be added, subtracted, multiplied, and divided (except where the denominator is zero) to produce new functions. If *f* and *g* are functions, then for every *x* that belongs to the domains of both *f* and *g* (that is, for  $x \in D(f) \cap D(g)$ ), we define functions  $f + g$ ,  $f - g$ , and *fg* by the formulas

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

$$
(f-g)(x) = f(x) - g(x)
$$

$$
(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x).
$$

Notice that the  $+$  sign on the left-hand side of the first equation represents the operation of addition of *functions*, whereas the  $+$  on the right-hand side of the equation means addition of the real numbers  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$ . Notice that the + sign on the left-hand side of the first equation<br>addition of *functions*, whereas the + on the right-hand side of the<br>formula of the real numbers  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$ .<br>At any point of  $D(f) \cap D(g)$  at which  $g(x)$ 

At any point of  $D(f) \cap D(g)$  at which  $g(x) \neq 0$ , we can also define the function  $f/g$ by the formula

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

Functions can also be multiplied by constants: If *c* is a real number, then the function *cf* is defined for all *x* in the domain of  $f$  by

$$
(cf)(x) = cf(x).
$$

 $EXAMPLE 1$  The fun

$$
f(x) = \sqrt{x}
$$
 and  $g(x) = \sqrt{1-x}$ 

have domains  $D(f) = [0, \infty)$  and  $D(g) = (-\infty, 1]$ . The points common to these domains are the points in

$$
[0,\infty)\cap(-\infty,1]=[0,1].
$$

The following table summarizes the formulas and domains for the various algebraic combinations of the two functions. We also write  $f \cdot g$  for the product function  $fg$ .



The graph of the function  $f + g$  is obtained from the graphs of f and g by adding the corresponding *y*-coordinates  $f(x)$  and  $g(x)$  at each point  $x \in D(f) \cap D(g)$ , as in Figure 1.25. The graphs of  $f + g$  and  $f \cdot g$  from Example 1 are shown in Figure 1.26.



FIGURE 1.25 Graphical addition of two functions.



**FIGURE 1.26** The domain of the function  $f + g$ is the intersection of the domains of *f* and *g*, the interval  $[0,1]$  on the *x*-axis where these domains overlap. This interval is also the domain of the function  $f \cdot g$  (Example 1).

# Composing Functions

Composition is another method for combining functions. In this operation the output from one function becomes the input to a second function. overlap This is<br>
function  $f \rightarrow g$ <br>
Composition is another method for combining functions.<br>
one function becomes the input to a second function.<br>
DEFINITION If  $f$  and  $g$  are functions, the function<br>
is defined by<br>  $(f \circ g)(x$ 

**DEFINITION** If *f* and *g* are functions, the function  $f \circ g$  ("*f* composed with *g*") is defined by

$$
(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x))
$$

and called the **composition** of  $f$  and  $g$ . The domain of  $f \circ g$  consists of the numbers *x* in the domain of *g* for which  $g(x)$  lies in the domain of *f*.

To find  $(f \circ g)(x)$ , *first* find  $g(x)$  and *second* find  $f(g(x))$ . Figure 1.27 pictures  $f \circ g$ as a machine diagram, and Figure 1.28 shows the composition as an arrow diagram.





**FIGURE 1.28** Arrow diagram for  $f \circ g$ . If *x* lies in the domain of *g* and  $g(x)$  lies in the domain of *f*, then the functions *f* and *g* can be composed to form  $(f \circ g)(x)$ .

 $\bullet$ *f*(*g*(*x*))

To evaluate the composition  $g \circ f$  (when defined), we find  $f(x)$  first and then find  $g(f(x))$ . The domain of  $g \circ f$  is the set of numbers x in the domain of f such that  $f(x)$  lies in the domain of *g*.

The functions  $f \circ g$  and  $g \circ f$  are usually quite different.



#### Solution

### **Composition** Domain



- **(b)**  $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = f(x) + 1 = \sqrt{x} + 1$   $[0, \infty)$
- **(c)**  $(f \circ f)(x) = f(f(x)) = \sqrt{f(x)} = \sqrt{\sqrt{x}} = x^{1/4}$  [0, ∞)
- **(d)**  $(g \circ g)(x) = g(g(x)) = g(x) + 1 = (x + 1) + 1 = x + 2$   $(-\infty, \infty)$

To see why the domain of  $f \circ g$  is  $[-1, \infty)$ , notice that  $g(x) = x + 1$  is defined for all real *x* but *g(x)* belongs to the domain of *f* only if  $x + 1 \ge 0$ , that is to say, when  $x \ge -1$ .

Notice that if  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$ , then  $(f \circ g)(x) = (\sqrt{x})^2 = x$ . However, the domain of  $f \circ g$  is  $[0, \infty)$ , not  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , since  $\sqrt{x}$  requires  $x \ge 0$ .

# Shifting a Graph of a Function

A common way to obtain a new function from an existing one is by adding a constant to each output of the existing function, or to its input variable. The graph of the new function is the graph of the original function shifted vertically or horizontally, as follows. Notice that if  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$ , then  $(f \circ g)$ <br>
ever, the domain of  $f \circ g$  is  $[0, \infty)$ , not  $(-\infty, \infty)$ , since  $\sqrt{x}$  re<br>
Shifting a Graph of a Function<br>
A common way to obtain a new function from an existing one<br>



FIGURE 1.29 To shift the graph of  $f(x) = x^2$  up (or down), we add positive (or negative) constants to the formula for *f* (Examples 3a and b).

Shift Formulas

**Vertical Shifts**

 $f(x) + k$  Shifts the graph of *f up k* units if  $k > 0$ Shifts it *down*  $|k|$  units if  $k < 0$ 

# **Horizontal Shifts**

 $f(x + h)$  Shifts the graph of *f left h* units if  $h > 0$ Shifts it *right*  $|h|$  units if  $h < 0$ 

# EXAMPLE 3

- (a) Adding 1 to the right-hand side of the formula  $y = x^2$  to get  $y = x^2 + 1$  shifts the graph up 1 unit (Figure 1.29).
- **(b)** Adding −2 to the right-hand side of the formula  $y = x^2$  to get  $y = x^2 2$  shifts the graph down 2 units (Figure 1.29).
- (c) Adding 3 to *x* in  $y = x^2$  to get  $y = (x + 3)^2$  shifts the graph 3 units to the left, while adding −2 shifts the graph 2 units to the right (Figure 1.30).
- (d) Adding  $-2$  to *x* in  $y = |x|$ , and then adding  $-1$  to the result, gives  $y = |x 2| 1$ and shifts the graph 2 units to the right and 1 unit down (Figure 1.31).

## Scaling and Reflecting a Graph of a Function

To scale the graph of a function  $y = f(x)$  is to stretch or compress it, vertically or horizontally. This is accomplished by multiplying the function *f*, or the independent variable *x*, by an appropriate constant *c*. Reflections across the coordinate axes are special cases where  $c = -1$ .



**FIGURE 1.30** To shift the graph of  $y = x^2$  to the left, we add a positive constant to *x* (Example 3c). To shift the graph to the right, we add a negative constant to *x*.



**FIGURE 1.31** The graph of  $y = |x|$ shifted 2 units to the right and 1 unit down (Example 3d).



**EXAMPLE 4** Here we scale and reflect the graph of  $y = \sqrt{x} + 1$ .

(a) **Vertical:** Multiplying the right-hand side of  $y = \sqrt{x} + 1$  by 3 to get  $y = 3(\sqrt{x} + 1)$ stretches the graph vertically by a factor of 3, whereas multiplying by  $1/3$  compresses the graph vertically by a factor of 3 (Figure 1.32).

- **(b) Horizontal:** The graph of  $y = \sqrt{3x} + 1$  is a horizontal compression of the graph of  $y = \sqrt{x} + 1$  by a factor of 3, and  $y = \sqrt{x/3} + 1$  is a horizontal stretching by a factor of 3 (Figure 1.33).
- (c) **Reflection:** The graph of  $y = -(\sqrt{x} + 1)$  is a reflection of  $y = \sqrt{x} + 1$  across the *x*-axis, and  $y = \sqrt{-x} + 1$  is a reflection across the *y*-axis (Figure 1.34).



FIGURE 1.32 Vertically stretching and compressing the graph of  $y = \sqrt{x} + 1$ by a factor of 3 (Example 4a).



FIGURE 1.33 Horizontally stretching and compressing the graph of  $y = \sqrt{x} + 1$  by a factor of 3 (Example 4b).



FIGURE 1.34 Reflections of the graph of  $y = \sqrt{x} + 1$  across the coordinate axes (Example 4c).

**EXAMPLE 5** Given the function  $f(x) = x^4 - 4x^3 + 10$  (Figure 1.35a), find formulas for the graphs resulting from

- **(a)** horizontal compression by a factor of 2 followed by reflection across the *y*-axis (Figure 1.35b).
- **(b)** vertical compression by a factor of 2 followed by reflection across the *x*-axis (Figure 1.35c).



**FIGURE 1.35** (a) The original graph of *f*. (b) The horizontal compression of  $y = f(x)$  in part (a) by a factor of 2, followed by a reflection across the *y*-axis. (c) The vertical compression of  $y = f(x)$  in part (a) by a factor of 2, followed by a reflection across the *x*-axis (Example 5).

#### **Solution**

(a) We multiply *x* by 2 to get the horizontal compression, and by  $-1$  to give reflection across the *y*-axis. The formula is obtained by substituting  $-2x$  for *x* in the right-hand side of the equation for *f*:

$$
y = f(-2x) = (-2x)^4 - 4(-2x)^3 + 10
$$
  
= 16x<sup>4</sup> + 32x<sup>3</sup> + 10.

**(b)** The formula is

$$
y = -\frac{1}{2}f(x) = -\frac{1}{2}x^4 + 2x^3 - 5.
$$

# EXERCISES 1.2

Algebraic Combinations

In Exercises 1 and 2, find the domains of  $f$ ,  $g$ ,  $f + g$ , and  $f \cdot g$ .

1. 
$$
f(x) = x
$$
,  $g(x) = \sqrt{x-1}$ 

2. 
$$
f(x) = \sqrt{x+1}
$$
,  $g(x) = \sqrt{x-1}$ 

In Exercises 3 and 4, find the domains of  $f$ ,  $g$ ,  $f/g$ , and  $g/f$ .

**3.**  $f(x) = 2$ ,  $g(x) = x^2 + 1$ **4.**  $f(x) = 1$ ,  $g(x) = 1 + \sqrt{x}$ 

#### Compositions of Functions



In Exercises 7–10, write a formula for  $f \circ g \circ h$ .

7. 
$$
f(x) = x + 1
$$
,  $g(x) = 3x$ ,  $h(x) = 4 - x$   
\n8.  $f(x) = 3x + 4$ ,  $g(x) = 2x - 1$ ,  $h(x) = x^2$   
\n9.  $f(x) = \sqrt{x + 1}$ ,  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x + 4}$ ,  $h(x) = \frac{1}{x}$   
\n10.  $f(x) = \frac{x + 2}{3 - x}$ ,  $g(x) = \frac{x^2}{x^2 + 1}$ ,  $h(x) = \sqrt{2 - x}$ 

Let  $f(x) = x - 3$ ,  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$ ,  $h(x) = x^3$ , and  $j(x) = 2x$ . Express each of the functions in Exercises 11 and 12 as a composition involving one or more of *f*, *g*, *h*, and *j*.

| 11. a. $y = \sqrt{x - 3}$ | b. $y = 2\sqrt{x}$      |
|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| c. $y = x^{1/4}$          | d. $y = 4x$             |
| e. $y = \sqrt{(x - 3)^3}$ | f. $y = (2x - 6)^3$     |
| 12. a. $y = 2x - 3$       | b. $y = x^{3/2}$        |
| c. $y = x^9$              | d. $y = x - 6$          |
| e. $y = 2\sqrt{x - 3}$    | f. $y = \sqrt{x^3 - 3}$ |

**13.** Copy and complete the following table.



**14.** Copy and complete the following table.



**15.** Evaluate each expression using the given table of values:



**16.** Evaluate each expression using the functions

$$
f(x) = 2 - x, \quad g(x) = \begin{cases} -x, & -2 \le x < 0 \\ x - 1, & 0 \le x \le 2. \end{cases}
$$
  
**a.**  $f(g(0))$   
**b.**  $g(f(3))$   
**c.**  $g(g(-1))$   
**d.**  $f(f(2))$   
**e.**  $g(f(0))$   
**f.**  $f(g(1/2))$ 

In Exercises 17 and 18, **(a)** write formulas for  $f \circ g$  and  $g \circ f$  and **(b)** find the domain of each.

**17.** 
$$
f(x) = \sqrt{x+1}
$$
,  $g(x) = \frac{1}{x}$   
\n**18.**  $f(x) = x^2$ ,  $g(x) = 1 - \sqrt{x}$   
\n**19.** Let  $f(x) = \frac{x}{x-2}$ . Find a function  $y = g(x)$  so that  $(f \circ g)(x) = x$ .

- **20.** Let  $f(x) = 2x^3 4$ . Find a function  $y = g(x)$  so that  $(f \circ g)(x) = x + 2.$
- **21.** A balloon's volume *V* is given by  $V = s^2 + 2s + 3$  cm<sup>3</sup>, where *s* is the ambient temperature in °C. The ambient temperature *s* at time *t* minutes is given by  $s = 2t - 3$ °C. Write the balloon's volume *V* as a function of time *t*.
- **22.** Use the graphs of *f* and *g* to sketch the graph of  $y = f(g(x))$ .



# Shifting Graphs

**23.** The accompanying figure shows the graph of  $y = -x^2$  shifted to two new positions. Write equations for the new graphs.



**24.** The accompanying figure shows the graph of  $y = x^2$  shifted to two new positions. Write equations for the new graphs.



**25.** Match the equations listed in parts (a)–(d) to the graphs in the accompanying figure.



**26.** The accompanying figure shows the graph of  $y = -x^2$  shifted to  $y = f(x)$ four new positions. Write an equation for each new graph.





27. 
$$
x + y = 49
$$
 Down 3, left 2  
\n28.  $x^2 + y^2 = 25$  Up 3, left 4  
\n29.  $y = x^3$  Left 1, down 1  
\n30.  $y = x^{2/3}$  Right 1, down 1  
\n31.  $y = \sqrt{x}$  Left 0.81  
\n32.  $y = -\sqrt{x}$  Right 3  
\n33.  $y = 2x - 7$  Up 7  
\n34.  $y = \frac{1}{2}(x + 1) + 5$  Down 5, right 1  
\n35.  $y = 1/x$  Up 1, right 1  
\n36.  $y = 1/x^2$  Left 2, down 1  
\nGraph the functions in Exercises 37-56.  
\n37.  $y = \sqrt{x + 4}$  38.  $y = \sqrt{9 - x}$ 

39. 
$$
y = |x - 2|
$$
  
\n40.  $y = |1 - x| - 1$   
\n41.  $y = 1 + \sqrt{x - 1}$   
\n42.  $y = 1 - \sqrt{x}$   
\n43.  $y = (x + 1)^{2/3}$   
\n44.  $y = (x - 8)^{2/3}$   
\n45.  $y = 1 - x^{2/3}$   
\n46.  $y + 4 = x^{2/3}$   
\n47.  $y = \sqrt[3]{x - 1} - 1$   
\n48.  $y = (x + 2)^{3/2} + 1$   
\n49.  $y = \frac{1}{x - 2}$   
\n50.  $y = \frac{1}{x} - 2$   
\n51.  $y = \frac{1}{x} + 2$   
\n52.  $y = \frac{1}{x + 2}$   
\n53.  $y = \frac{1}{(x - 1)^2}$   
\n54.  $y = \frac{1}{x^2} - 1$   
\n56.  $y = \frac{1}{(x + 1)^2}$ 

**57.** The accompanying figure shows the graph of a function  $f(x)$  with domain  $[0, 2]$  and range  $[0, 1]$ . Find the domains and ranges of the following functions, and sketch their graphs.



**58.** The accompanying figure shows the graph of a function  $g(t)$  with domain  $[-4, 0]$  and range  $[-3, 0]$ . Find the domains and ranges of the following functions, and sketch their graphs.



Vertical and Horizontal Scaling

Exercises 59–68 tell in what direction and by what factor the graphs of the given functions are to be stretched or compressed. Give an equation for the stretched or compressed graph.

**59.**  $y = x^2 - 1$ , stretched vertically by a factor of 3

**60.**  $y = x^2 - 1$ , compressed horizontally by a factor of 2

**61.**  $y = 1 + \frac{1}{x^2}$ , compressed vertically by a factor of 2

**62.**  $y = 1 + \frac{1}{x^2}$ , stretched horizontally by a factor of 3 **63.**  $y = \sqrt{x+1}$ , compressed horizontally by a factor of 4 **64.**  $y = \sqrt{x+1}$ , stretched vertically by a factor of 3 **65.**  $y = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ , stretched horizontally by a factor of 2 **66.**  $y = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$ , compressed vertically by a factor of 3 **67.**  $y = 1 - x^3$ , compressed horizontally by a factor of 3 **68.**  $y = 1 - x^3$ , stretched horizontally by a factor of 2

#### **Graphing**

In Exercises 69–76, graph each function not by plotting points, but by starting with the graph of one of the standard functions presented in Figures 1.14–1.17 and applying an appropriate transformation.

69. 
$$
y = -\sqrt{2x + 1}
$$
  
\n70.  $y = \sqrt{1 - \frac{x}{2}}$   
\n71.  $y = (x - 1)^3 + 2$   
\n72.  $y = (1 - x)^3 + 2$   
\n73.  $y = \frac{1}{2x} - 1$   
\n74.  $y = \frac{2}{x^2} + 1$ 

**75.** 
$$
y = -\sqrt[3]{x}
$$
 **76.**  $y = (-2x)^{2/3}$ 

**77.** Graph the function  $y = |x^2 - 1|$ .

**78.** Graph the function  $y = \sqrt{x}$ .

#### Combining Functions

**79.** Assume that *f* is an even function, *g* is an odd function, and both *f* and *g* are defined on the entire real line  $(-\infty, \infty)$ . Which of the following (where defined) are even? odd?



- **80.** Can a function be both even and odd? Give reasons for your answer.
- **81.** (*Continuation of Example 1.*) Graph the functions  $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ and  $g(x) = \sqrt{1-x}$  together with their (a) sum, (b) product, (c) two differences, (d) two quotients.

**182.** Let 
$$
f(x) = x - 7
$$
 and  $g(x) = x^2$ . Graph f and g together with  $f \circ g$  and  $g \circ f$ .

# 1.3 Trigonometric Functions



FIGURE 1.36 The radian measure of the central angle  $A'CB'$  is the number  $\theta = s/r$ . For a unit circle of radius  $r = 1$ ,  $\theta$  is the length of arc *AB* that central angle *ACB* cuts from the unit circle.

Angles

Angles are measured in degrees or radians. The number of **radians** in the central angle  $A'CB'$  within a circle of radius r is defined as the number of "radius units" contained in the arc *s* subtended by that central angle. If we denote this central angle by  $\theta$  when measured in radians, this means that  $\theta = s/r$  (Figure 1.36), or 72.  $y = (1 - x)^3 + 2$ <br>
T2.  $y = (1 - x)^3 + 2$ <br>
T3. Let  $f(x) = x - 7$  and  $g(x)$ <br>
T4.  $y = \frac{2}{x^2} + 1$ <br>
T3. Let  $f(x) = x - 7$  and  $g(x)$ <br>  $f \circ g$  and  $g \circ f$ .<br>
T18. Let  $f(x) = x - 7$  and  $g(x)$ <br>  $f \circ g$  and  $g \circ f$ .<br>
T18. Let  $f(x) = x - 7$  and  $g(x)$ <br>

This section reviews radian measure and the basic trigonometric functions.

$$
s = r\theta \qquad (\theta \text{ in radians}). \qquad (1)
$$

If the circle is a unit circle having radius  $r = 1$ , then from Figure 1.36 and Equation (1), we see that the central angle  $\theta$  measured in radians is just the length of the arc that the angle cuts from the unit circle. Since one complete revolution of the unit circle is 360° or 2*π* radians, we have

$$
\pi \text{ radians} = 180^{\circ} \tag{2}
$$

and

1 radian = 
$$
\frac{180}{\pi}
$$
( $\approx$ 57.3) degrees or 1 degree =  $\frac{\pi}{180}$ ( $\approx$ 0.017) radians.

Table 1.1 shows the equivalence between degree and radian measures for some basic angles.

| Degrees -180 -135 -90 -45 0 30 45 60 90 120 135 150 180 270 360  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|--|
| $\theta$ (radians) $-\pi$ $\frac{-3\pi}{4}$ $\frac{-\pi}{2}$ $\frac{-\pi}{4}$ 0 $\frac{\pi}{6}$ $\frac{\pi}{4}$ $\frac{\pi}{3}$ $\frac{\pi}{2}$ $\frac{2\pi}{3}$ $\frac{3\pi}{4}$ $\frac{5\pi}{6}$ $\pi$ $\frac{3\pi}{2}$ $2\pi$ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

TABLE 1.1 Angles measured in degrees and radians