

MATH1510E (Wk1.1,1.2)

Keywords: Transcendental functions, other examples of functions (Monday)

Domain, range, function, examples; (Wednesday)

Properties of functions: one-one, onto (Wednesday)

Sequences & functions, examples (Wednesday)

Some trigo. Identities (Wednesday), else.

Transcendental function – this is the first concept in the syllabus, so we discuss this “name” here.

First we have (1) **polynomial functions**, they are objects written in the form $a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_{n-1}x^{n-1} + a_nx^n$ (This kind of expressions is called “degree n polynomial”, provided $a_n \neq 0$).

Rational functions

These are functions of the form $\frac{\text{polynomial}}{\text{polynomial}}$.

Example

$$\frac{1 + 3x + x^4}{2 - 3x + x^3}$$

Transcendental Functions

Transcendental functions include: (i) trigonometric functions like $\sin(x)$, $\cos(x)$, $\tan(x)$, or $\sec(x)$, $\csc(x)$, $\cot(x)$;

(ii) exponential function, logarithm function & (iii) hyperbolic functions (see below for explanation).

Properties These functions cannot be written as polynomials!

The name “transcendental functions” include also functions like (ii) $\ln(x)$, e^x as well as the hyperbolic functions defined by the formulas (iii) $\sinh(x) =$

$$\frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} \text{ and } \cosh(x) = \frac{e^x + e^{-x}}{2}$$

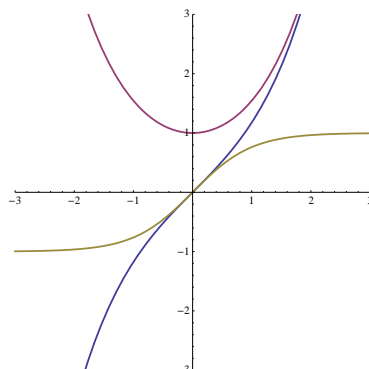
Remark

Make sure that you know the picture of each of the trigo. functions.

Pictures of the Hyperbolic Functions

$$\sinh(x), \cosh(x), \tanh(x)$$

Question: In the following picture, can you recognize which is which?



Function, Domain, Range

A function, say f , is a rule giving a unique value, $f(x)$, to a given value x .

The collection of all such x is called Domain of f . (Notation: $\text{Dom}(f)$)

The collection of all such $f(x)$ is called the Range of f . (Notation: $\text{R}(f)$ or $\text{Range}(f)$).

The word “codomain” is about any set containing (“just” or “more than”) all those elements in the range of a function.

Remark

- The rule for a function is usually written using “a single letter” or “several letters” & without “ (x) ” or “ (t) ”. E.g. g , \sin , \exp .
- When we put “ (x) ” (or “ (t) ”) after the symbol, e.g. after g , \sin , \exp , we call it the “value of g at x ”, or “value of \sin at x ”, etc.

Examples/Short Questions

1. Let f be a function assigning (i.e. “giving”) to each month of the year the initial alphabet of that month.

What is $\text{Dom}(f)$? What is $\text{Range}(f)$?

2. Let f be a function from the domain \mathbb{R} to the target (or “codomain”) \mathbb{R} defined by the rule: $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2+1}$. Find

(i) $f(-1)$,

(ii) $f(f(f(-1)))$.

Abstract Picture(s) for function(s)

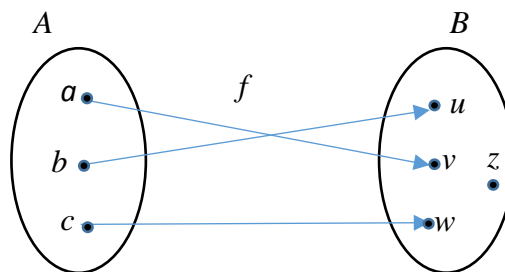
In school math, functions are usually given by one-line formulas. But actually a function can be defined by very complicated formulas, e.g.

$$\text{abs}(x) = \begin{cases} x, & \text{if } x > 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x = 0 \\ -x, & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

is a function defined by a three-line formula. (Notation: Traditionally, we write $|x|$ for this function.)

Now the abstract picture for a function.

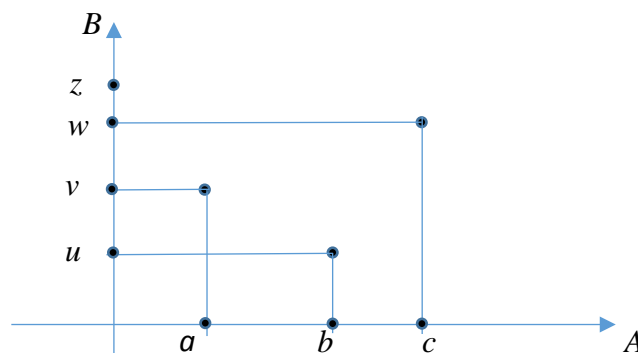
We usually visualize a function by the following kind of diagram:



Here the domain is A , the codomain (or “target”) is B and $f(a) = v, f(b) = u, f(c) = w$. Note also that each element in A is being sent to some element in B , but *****not every***** element in B has “pre-image point(s)”.

If each element in the codomain has preimage point(s), then we say the function is “onto”.

School Math Way of Visualizing it



Inverse Function

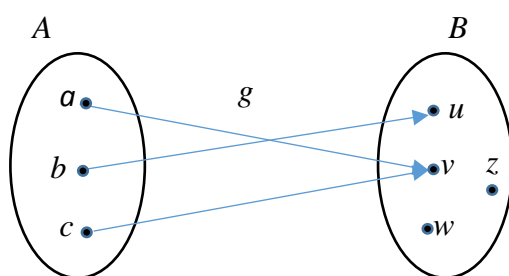
Let $f: A \rightarrow B$ be a function. Suppose also that f is **onto**, (i.e. each element, say “ y ”, comes from some pre-image point(s) x , i.e. $f(x) = y$, every time when a “ y ” is taken from the codomain B), and if we have one more condition (see below for this), then we can go backward and define the “inverse function”, which has the notation f^{-1} , of the function f . The “inverse” function has the rule:

$$f^{-1}(y) = x.$$

The extra condition needed is:

One-one function

A function is a one-one function, if whenever $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$, then the two points x_1 and x_2 must be the same point (i.e. $x_1 = x_2$). A common sense way of describing a one-one function is “every point $f(x)$ in the range has one and only one preimage point”).



Example

The function f on p.3 is a one-one function, but the function g in the above picture is not one-one. Why?

Reason We look at the range of g . $\text{Range}(g) = \{u, v\}$. Now among these two elements u & v , $u = g(b)$ (i.e. it has one pre-image point), but $v = g(a) = g(c)$ so both the point a and c are assigned the same value v .

Examples

In the following, $\mathbb{N} = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$, the set of natural numbers starting from zero.

1. Find a function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying (*) f is onto but not one-one.
2. Find a function $f: \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ satisfying (*) f is one-one but not onto.
3. Find the range of the function $f: \mathbb{R} \setminus \{9\} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x) = \frac{x^2+9}{x-9}$.

Hint for 3. The main idea is: “find (for which) y ” is the equation

$$y = \frac{x^2+9}{x-9} \text{ "solvable"}$$

The following trigonometric identities (and many more) will be useful in the course.

Some Useful Trigonometric Identities

(1) $\sin(x \pm y) = \sin x \cos y \pm \sin y \cos x$

(2) $\cos(x \pm y) = \cos x \cos y \mp \sin x \sin y$

etc.

By letting $x + y = A, x - y = B$, one obtains from the first two formulas the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(A) + \sin(B) &= 2 \sin x \cos y \\ &= 2 \sin((A + B)/2) \cos((A - B)/2) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, one obtains formulas for $\sin(A) - \sin(B), \cos(A) \pm \cos(B)$

Quick Proof of (1) & (2)

One can get a diagram-free quick proof of these identities using Euler's Formula (*),

i.e. $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$

where x is measured in "radian" and $i = \sqrt{-1}$.

Applying (*) twice, we get

$$e^{iA} = \cos A + i \sin A$$

and

$$e^{iB} = \cos B + i \sin B$$

Multiplying them together, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i(A+B)} &= e^{iA} e^{iB} = (\cos A + i \sin A)(\cos B + i \sin B) \\ &= \cos A \cos B + i \sin A \cos B + i \sin B \cos A + \underbrace{i i}_{-1} \sin A \sin B \\ &= \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B + i (\sin A \cos B + \sin B \cos A) \end{aligned}$$

But remember that (Euler's formula again!)

$$e^{i(A+B)} = \cos(A + B) + i \sin(A + B)$$

So we obtain

$$\cos(A + B) + i \sin(A + B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B + i (\sin A \cos B + \sin B \cos A)$$

Comparing the terms (with and without i attached) on the left-hand & right-hand sides of the "equal" sign, we obtain

$$\cos(A + B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B$$

and

$$\sin(A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \sin B \cos A$$

After defining function and mentioning some of its properties, let's mention a very special type of function, which you've already learned in school. It is "sequence".

Sequence

A sequence is an ordered list of objects (= numbers in this course).

Each of these objects is traditionally denoted by x_n . The subscript means the n^{th} object.

Example

Consider the sequence given by $x_1 = 1$ and $x_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2}\left(x_n + \frac{2}{x_n}\right)$. If we know that as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (" $n \rightarrow \infty$ " = abbreviation for the phrase " n goes to positive infinity"), the numbers x_n goes to some limiting number, say L , then we can argue as follows:

$$L = \frac{1}{2}\left(L + \frac{2}{L}\right)$$

Solving this equation for L , we obtain $L = \sqrt{2}$.

Another Way to think about Sequence

One can also think of a sequence as a special kind of function, namely a function whose domain is the set of natural numbers, denoted by the symbol \mathbb{N} (or a subset of \mathbb{N} , for example, the set $\{1,2,3, \dots\}$, $\{2,3,4, \dots\}$ or $\{k, k+1, k+2, \dots\}$.)

Remark

In this course, we assume that the symbol \mathbb{N} means the set $\{0,1,2,3, \dots\}$.

Vectors in 2D, 3D.

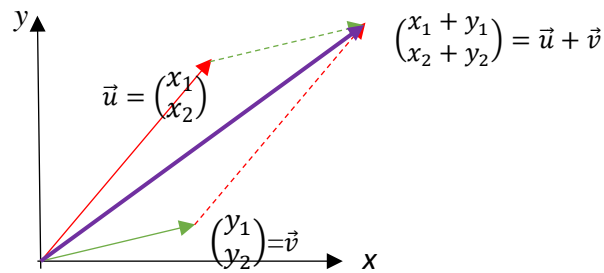
A vector in 2D is an ordered pair of numbers written in the form $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$, where x_i denotes the i^{th} component of the vector.

Adding, Subtracting, Scalar multiplying Vectors, Norm

Addition/Subtraction of Two vectors

Suppose $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$ are 2 vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 , their sum/difference is then the vector

given by $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \pm \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \pm y_1 \\ x_2 \pm y_2 \end{pmatrix}$



Remark

Similar formula holds for sum/difference of two vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 .

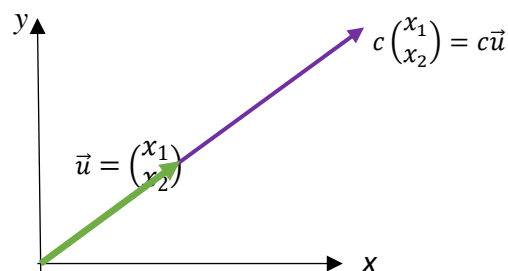
Scalar Multiplication of a Vector by a Scalar

Scalar mult. = geometrically “scaling up/down” a vector.

Given a vector $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$ in \mathbb{R}^2 and a scalar, say c , the scalar multiplication of the

vector with the scalar c is the “new” vector $c \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} cx_1 \\ cx_2 \end{pmatrix}$.

That means, we “scale up” (= make “longer”) or “scale down” (= make “shorter”) each component of the vector by the same factor c .



Remark

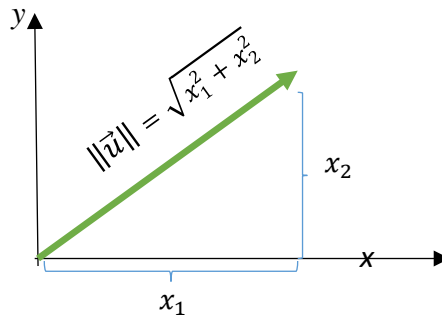
Similar formula holds in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Norm of a Vector

Let $\vec{u} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$ be a vector in the 2D plane, then its “length” or “norm” is given by the Pythagoras’ Theorem by:

$$\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$$

and is given the notation $\|\vec{u}\|$.



Remark

The word “norm” means the same thing as “length”. Similar formula holds in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Inner product

Given any two vectors $\vec{u} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$, $\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix}$

in 2D or 3D plane/space, their inner product is a “scalar” given by $x_1y_1 + x_2y_2$ and is denoted by (2D case):

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}$$

Hence

$$(1) \quad \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2$$

On the other hand, one can prove the formula

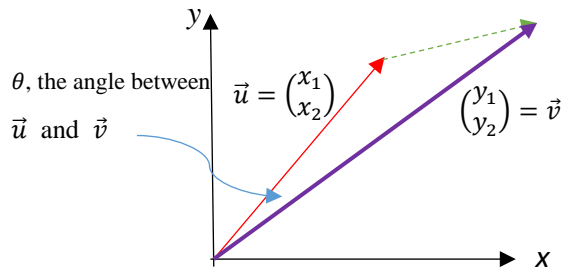
$$(2) \quad \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\|\|\vec{v}\|\cos\theta$$

where $\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{y_1^2 + y_2^2}$

and θ is the angle between the vector \vec{u} and \vec{v} .

Use of (1) and (2). Combining them, we can compute the angle between \vec{u} and \vec{v} (provided they both have non-zero norms).

This is done by the formula: $\cos\theta = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\|\|\vec{v}\|}$



Remark

Similar formula holds in \mathbb{R}^3 , i.e.

(1) becomes $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + x_3y_3$

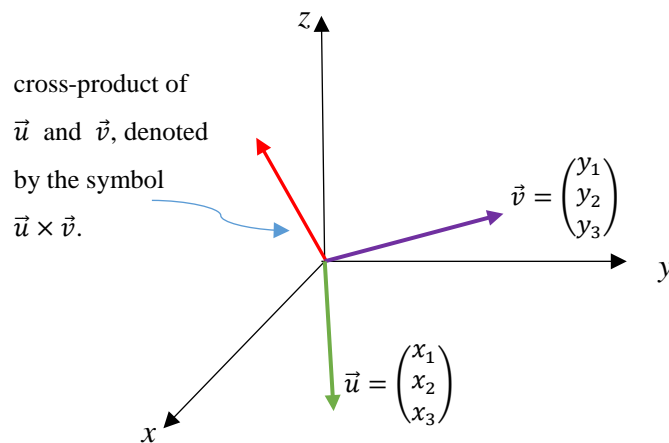
(2) becomes $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\|\|\vec{v}\|\cos\theta$, where $\|\vec{u}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2}$
and $\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2}$

Cross Product

We haven't mentioned this product in the lecture.

This kind of product produces “a vector” from “two vectors”. It works only in \mathbb{R}^3 .

The picture is:



Remark The cross product, i.e. $\vec{u} \times \vec{v}$, of the vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} is the red vector which is perpendicular to both the vector \vec{u} and the vector \vec{v} .

How to compute $\vec{u} \times \vec{v}$?

It uses the concept of 3×3 determinant (not mentioned in lecture! Optional).