

## 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)  $\sinh(x) =$

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

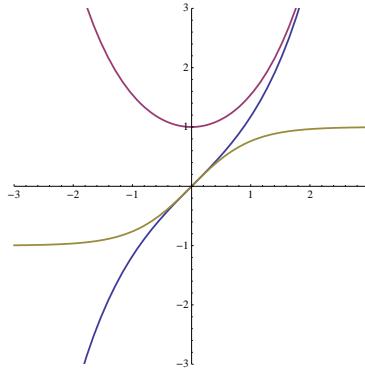
### Remark

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:  $R(f)$  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)

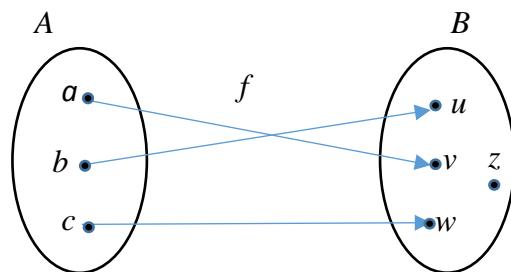
In school math, functions are usually given by one-line formulas. But actually a function can be defined by very complicated formulas, e.g.

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

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

Now the abstract picture for a function.

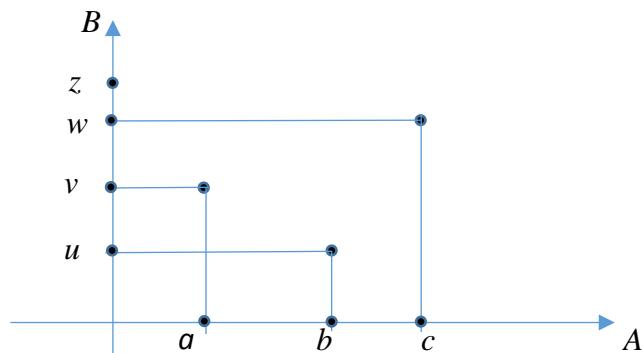
We usually visualize a function by the following kind of diagram:



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

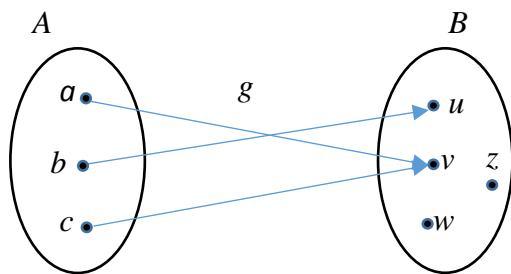
Let  $f: A \rightarrow B$  be a function. Suppose also that  $f$  is onto, (i.e. each element, say “y”, comes from some pre-image point(s)  $x$ , i.e.  $f(x) = y$ , every time when a “y” is taken from the codomain  $B$ ), and if we have one more condition (see below for this), then we can go backward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

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

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.

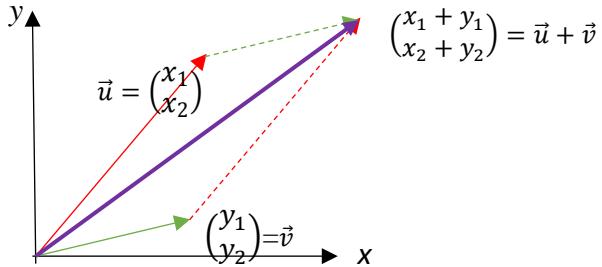
A vector in 2D is an ordered pair of numbers written in the form  $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$ , where  $x_i$  denotes the  $i^{th}$  component of the vector.

## 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  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

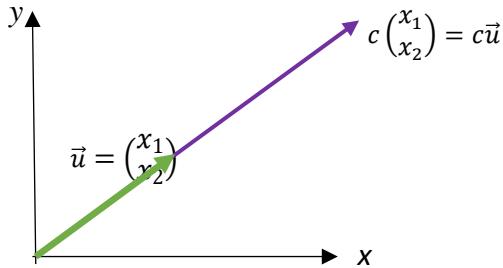
### Scalar Multiplication of a Vector by a Scalar

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

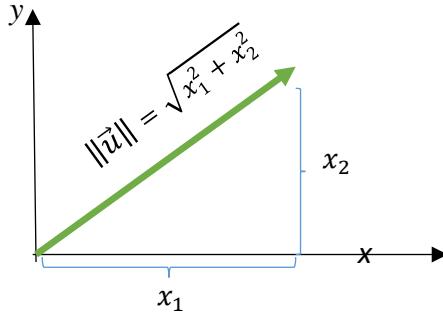
Similar formula holds in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

### 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

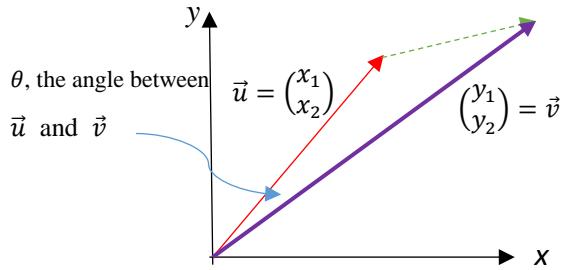
$$(2) \quad \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta$$

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

and  $\theta$  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.

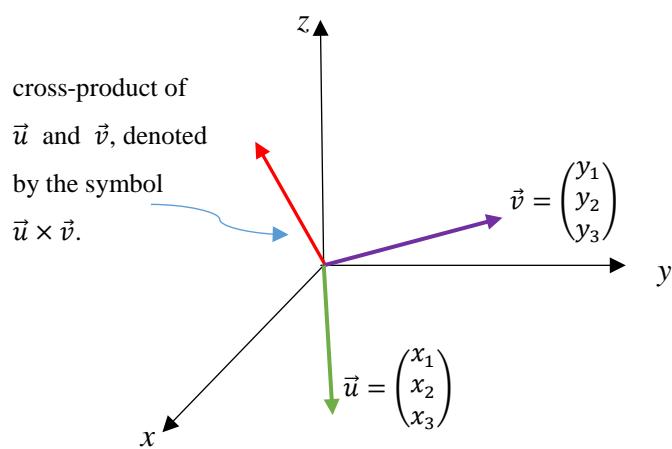
- (1) becomes  $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + x_3y_3$
- (2) becomes  $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta$ , where  $\|\vec{u}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2}$   
and  $\|\vec{v}\| = \sqrt{y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2}$

### 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  $3 \times 3$  determinant (not mentioned in lecture! Optional).