GLOBAL EDITION

University Calculus

Early Transcendentals

Fourth Edition in SI Units

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Pearson MyLab

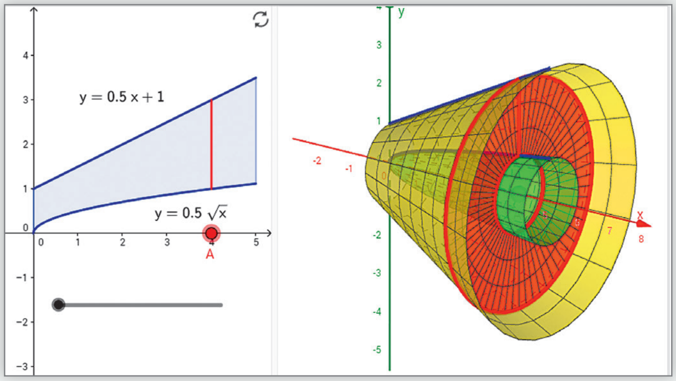
MyLab Math for *University Calculus*, 4e in SI Units

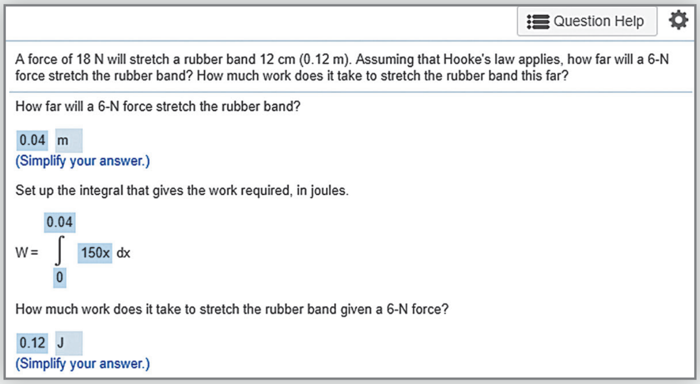
(access code required)

MyLab™ Math is the teaching and learning platform that empowers instructors to reach every student. By combining trusted author content with digital tools and a flexible platform, MyLab Math for *University Calculus*, 4e in SI Units, personalizes the learning experience and improves results for each student.

Interactive Figures

A full suite of Interactive Figures was added to illustrate key concepts and allow manipulation. Designed in the freely available GeoGebra software, these figures can be used in lecture as well as by students independently.



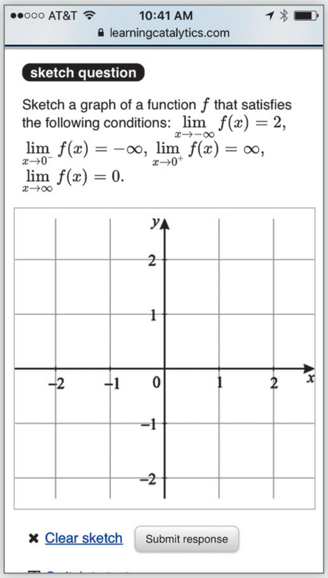


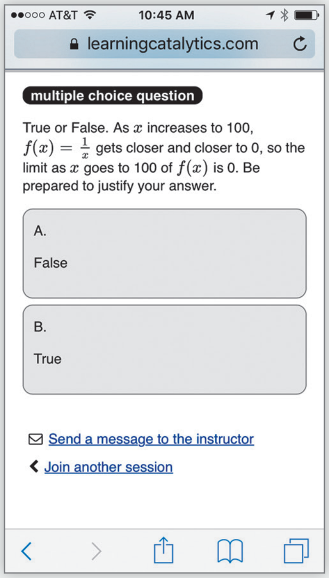
Questions that Deepen Understanding

MyLab Math includes a variety of question types designed to help students succeed in the course. In Setup & Solve questions, students show how they set up a problem as well as the solution, better mirroring what is required on tests. Additional Conceptual Questions were written by faculty at Cornell University to support deeper, theoretical understanding of the key concepts in calculus.

Learning Catalytics

Now included in all MyLab Math courses, this student response tool uses smartphones, tablets, or laptops to engage students in more interactive tasks and thinking during lecture. Learning Catalytics™ fosters student engagement and peer-to-peer learning with real-time analytics.





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UNIVERSITY CALCULUS
EARLY TRANSCENDENTALS

Fourth Edition in SI Units

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Authorized adaptation from the United States edition, entitled University Calculus: Early Transcendentals, *ISBN 978-0-13-499554-0, by Joel Hass, Christopher Heil, Przemyslaw Bogacki, Maurice Weir, and George B. Thomas, Jr., published by Pearson Education, Inc., © 2020, 2016, 2012.*

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British Library Cataloging-in-Publication Data
A catalogue record for this book is available from the British Library.

ISBN 10: 1-292-31730-2
ISBN 13: 978-1-292-31730-4
eBook ISBN 13: 978-1-292-31729-8

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Preface

University Calculus: Early Transcendentals, Fourth Edition in SI Units, provides a streamlined treatment of the material in a standard three-semester or four-quarter STEM-oriented course. As the title suggests, the book aims to go beyond what many students may have seen at the high school level. The book emphasizes mathematical precision and conceptual understanding, supporting these goals with clear explanations and examples and carefully crafted exercise sets.

Generalization drives the development of calculus and of mathematical maturity and is pervasive in this text. Slopes of lines generalize to slopes of curves, lengths of line segments to lengths of curves, areas and volumes of regular geometric figures to areas and volumes of shapes with curved boundaries, and finite sums to series. Plane analytic geometry generalizes to the geometry of space, and single variable calculus to the calculus of many variables. Generalization weaves together the many threads of calculus into an elegant tapestry that is rich in ideas and their applications.

Mastering this beautiful subject is its own reward, but the real gift of studying calculus is acquiring the ability to think logically and precisely; understanding what is defined, what is assumed, and what is deduced; and learning how to generalize conceptually. We intend this text to encourage and support those goals.

New to This Edition

We welcome to this edition two new co-authors: Christopher Heil from Georgia Institute of Technology and Przemyslaw Bogacki from Old Dominion University. Heil's focus was primarily on the development of the text itself, while Bogacki focused on the MyLab™ Math course.

Christopher Heil has been involved in teaching calculus, linear algebra, analysis, and abstract algebra at Georgia Tech since 1993. He is an experienced author and served as a consultant on the previous edition of this text. His research is in harmonic analysis, including time-frequency analysis, wavelets, and operator theory.

Przemyslaw Bogacki joined the faculty at Old Dominion University in 1990. He has taught calculus, linear algebra, and numerical methods. He is actively involved in applications of technology in collegiate mathematics. His areas of research include computer-aided geometric design and numerical solution of initial value problems for ordinary differential equations.

This is a substantial revision. Every word, symbol, and figure was revisited to ensure clarity, consistency, and conciseness. Additionally, we made the following text-wide changes:

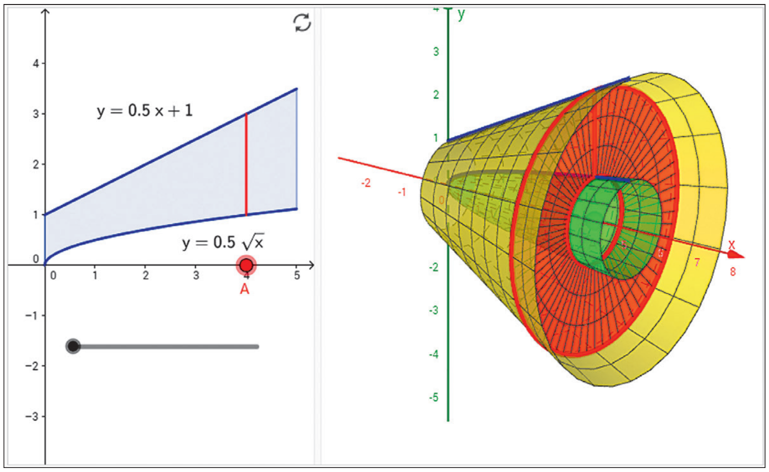
- Updated graphics to bring out clear visualization and mathematical correctness.
- Added new types of homework exercises throughout, including many that are geometric in nature. The new exercises are not just more of the same, but rather give different perspectives and approaches to each topic. In preparing this edition, we analyzed aggregated student usage and performance data from MyLab Math for the previous edition of the text. The results of this analysis increased both the quality and the quantity of the exercises.

- Added short URLs to historical links, thus enabling students to navigate directly to on-line information.
- Added new annotations in blue type throughout the text to guide the reader through the process of problem solution and emphasize that each step in a mathematical argument is rigorously justified.

New To MyLab Math

Many improvements have been made to the overall functionality of MyLab Math since the previous edition. We have also enhanced and improved the content specific to this text.

- Many of the online exercises in the course were reviewed for accuracy and alignment with the text by author Przemyslaw Bogacki.
- Instructors now have more exercises than ever to choose from in assigning homework.
- The MyLab Math exercise-scoring engine has been updated to allow for more robust coverage of certain topics, including differential equations.



- A full suite of Interactive Figures have been added to support teaching and learning. The figures are designed to be used in lecture as well as by students independently. The figures are editable via the freely available GeoGebra software.
- Enhanced Sample Assignments include just-in-time prerequisite review, help keep skills fresh with spaced practice of key concepts, and provide opportunities to work exercises without learning aids (to help students develop confidence in their ability to solve problems independently).
- Additional Conceptual Questions augment the text exercises to focus on deeper, theoretical understanding of the key concepts in calculus. These questions were written by faculty at Cornell University under an NSF grant. They are also assignable through Learning Catalytics.
- This MyLab Math course contains pre-made quizzes to assess the prerequisite skills needed for each chapter, plus personalized remediation for any gaps in skills that are identified.
- Additional Setup & Solve exercises now appear in many sections. These exercises require students to show how they set up a problem, as well as the solution itself, better mirroring what is required of students on tests.
- PowerPoint lecture slides have been expanded to include examples as well as key theorems, definitions, and figures.
- Numerous instructional videos augment the already robust collection within the course. These videos support the overall approach of the text—specifically, they go beyond routine procedures to show students how to generalize and connect key concepts.

Content Enhancements

Chapter 1

- Shortened 1.4 to focus on issues arising in use of mathematical software, and potential pitfalls. Removed peripheral material on regression, along with associated exercises.
- Clarified explanation of definition of exponential function in 1.5.
- Replaced $\sin^{-1}$ notation for the inverse sine function with arcsin as default notation in 1.6, and similarly for other trig functions.

Chapter 2

- Added definition of average speed in 2.1.
- Updated definition of limits to allow for arbitrary domains. The definition of limits is now consistent with the definition in multivariable domains later in the text and with more general mathematical usage.
- Reworded limit and continuity definitions to remove implication symbols and improve comprehension.
- Replaced Example 1 in 2.4, reordered, and added new Example 2 to clarify one-sided limits.
- Added new Example 7 in 2.4 to illustrate limits of ratios of trig functions.
- Rewrote Example 11 in 2.5 to solve the equation by finding a zero, consistent with the previous discussion.

Chapter 3

- Clarified relation of slope and rate of change.
- Added new Figure 3.9 using the square root function to illustrate vertical tangent lines.
- Added figure of $x \sin (1/x)$ in 3.2 to illustrate how oscillation can lead to non-existence of a derivative of a continuous function.
- Revised product rule to make order of factors consistent throughout text, including later dot product and cross product formulas.
- Expanded Example 7 in 3.8 to clarify the computation of the derivative of x^x.
- Updated and improved related rates problem strategies in 3.10, and correspondingly revised Examples 2–6.

Chapters 4 & 5

- Added summary to 4.1.
- Added new Example 3 with new Figure 4.27, and Example 12 with new Figure 4.35, to give basic and advanced examples of concavity.
- Updated and improved strategies for solving applied optimization problems in 4.6.
- Improved discussion in 5.4 and added new Figure 5.18 to illustrate the Mean Value Theorem.

Chapters 6 & 7

- Clarified cylindrical shell method.
- Added introductory discussion of mass distribution along a line, with figure, in 6.6.
- Clarified discussion of separable differential equations in 7.2.

Chapter 8

- Updated Integration by Parts discussion in 8.2 to emphasize $u(x)v'(x)\,dx$ form rather than $u\,dv$. Rewrote Examples 1–3 accordingly.
- Removed discussion of tabular integration, along with associated exercises.
- Updated discussion in 8.4 on how to find constants in the method of partial fractions, and clarified the corresponding calculations in Example 1.

Chapter 9

- Clarified the different meanings of sequence and series.
- Added new Figure 9.9 to illustrate sum of a series as area of a histogram.
- Added to 9.3 a discussion on the importance of bounding errors in approximations.
- Added new Figure 9.13 illustrating how to use integrals to bound remainder terms of partial sums.
- Rewrote Theorem 10 in 9.4 to bring out similarity to the integral comparison test.

- Added new Figure 9.16 to illustrate the differing behaviors of the harmonic and alternating harmonic series.
- Renamed the nth-Term Test the "nth-Term Test for Divergence" to emphasize that it says nothing about convergence.
- Added new Figure 9.19 to illustrate polynomials converging to $\ln(1 + x)$, which illustrates convergence on the half-open interval $(-1, 1]$.
- Used red dots and intervals to indicate intervals and points where divergence occurs and blue to indicate convergence throughout Chapter 9.
- Added new Figure 9.21 to show the six different possibilities for an interval of convergence.
- Changed the name of 9.10 to "Applications of Taylor Series."

Chapter 10

- Added new Example 1 and Figure 10.2 in 10.1 to give a straightforward first Example of a parametrized curve.
- Updated area formulas for polar coordinates to include conditions for positive r and non-overlapping θ.
- Added new Example 3 and Figure 10.37 in 10.4 to illustrate intersections of polar curves.
- Moved Section 10.6 ("Conics in Polar Coordinates"), which our data showed is seldom used, to online Appendix B.

Chapters 11 & 12

- Added new Figure 11.13b to show the effect of scaling a vector.
- Added new Example 7 and Figure 11.26 in 11.3 to illustrate projection of a vector.
- Added discussion on general quadric surfaces in 11.6, with new Example 4 and new Figure 11.48 illustrating the description of an ellipsoid not centered at the origin via completing the square.
- Added sidebars on how to pronounce Greek letters such as kappa and tau.

Chapter 13

- Elaborated on discussion of open and closed regions in 13.1.
- Added a Composition Rule to Theorem 1 and expanded Example 1 in 13.2.
- Expanded Example 8 in 13.3.
- Clarified Example 6 in 13.7.
- Standardized notation for evaluating partial derivatives, gradients, and directional derivatives at a point, throughout the chapter.
- Renamed "branch diagrams" as "dependency diagrams" to clarify that they capture dependence of variables.

Chapter 14

- Added new Figure 14.21b to illustrate setting up limits of a double integral.
- In 14.5, added new Example 1, modified Examples 2 and 3, and added new Figures 14.31, 14.32, and 14.33 to give basic examples of setting up limits of integration for a triple integral.

Chapter 15

- Added new Figure 15.4 to illustrate a line integral of a function, new Figure 15.17 to illustrate a gradient field, and new Figure 15.18 to illustrate a line integral of a vector field.
- Clarified notation for line integrals in 15.2.
- Added discussion of the sign of potential energy in 15.3.
- Rewrote solution of Example 3 in 15.4 to clarify its connection to Green's Theorem.
- Updated discussion of surface orientation in 15.6, along with Figure 15.52.

Appendices

- Rewrote Appendix A.8 on complex numbers.
- Added online Appendix B containing additional topics. These topics are supported fully in MyLab Math.

Continuing Features

Rigor The level of rigor is consistent with that of earlier editions. We continue to distinguish between formal and informal discussions and to point out their differences. We think starting with a more intuitive, less formal approach helps students understand a new or difficult concept so they can then appreciate its full mathematical precision and outcomes. We pay attention to defining ideas carefully and to proving theorems appropriate for calculus students, while mentioning deeper or subtler issues they would study in a more advanced course. Our organization and distinctions between informal and formal discussions give the instructor a degree of flexibility in the amount and depth of coverage of the various topics. For example, although we do not prove the Intermediate Value Theorem or the Extreme Value Theorem for continuous functions on a closed finite interval, we do state these theorems precisely, illustrate their meanings in numerous examples, and use them to prove other important results. Furthermore, for those instructors who desire greater depth of coverage, in Appendix A.7 we discuss the reliance of these theorems on the completeness of the real numbers.

Writing Exercises Writing exercises placed throughout the text ask students to explore and explain a variety of calculus concepts and applications. In addition, the end of each chapter includes a list of questions that invite students to review and summarize what they have learned. Many of these exercises make good writing assignments.

End-Of-Chapter Reviews In addition to problems appearing after each section, each chapter culminates with review questions, practice exercises covering the entire chapter, and a series of Additional and Advanced Exercises with more challenging or synthesizing problems.

Writing And Applications This text continues to be easy to read, conversational, and mathematically rich. Each new topic is motivated by clear, easy-to-understand examples and is then reinforced by its application to real-world problems of immediate interest to students. A hallmark of this text is the application of calculus to science and engineering. These applied problems have been updated, improved, and extended continually over the last several editions.

Technology In a course using this text, technology can be incorporated according to the taste of the instructor. Each section contains exercises requiring the use of technology; these are marked with a [T] if suitable for calculator or computer use, or they are labeled **Computer Explorations** if a computer algebra system (CAS, such as *Maple* or *Mathematica*) is required.

Acknowledgments

We are grateful to Duane Kouba, who created many of the new exercises. We would also like to express our thanks to the people who made many valuable contributions to this edition as it developed through its various stages:

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Global Edition

The publishers would like to thank the following for their contribution to the Global Edition:

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José Luis Zuleta Estrugo received his PhD degree in Mathematical Physics from the University of Geneva, Switzerland. He is currently a faculty member in the Department of Mathematics in École Polytechnique Fédérale de Lausanne (EPFL), Switzerland, where he teaches undergraduate courses in linear algebra, calculus, and real analysis.

Reviewers for the Fourth Edition in SI Units

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B. R. Shankar, *National Institute of Technology Karnataka*

In addition, Pearson would like to thank Antonio Behn for his contribution to *Thomas' Calculus: Early Transcendentals,* Thirteenth Edition in SI Units.

Dedication

We regret that prior to the writing of this edition, our co-author Maurice Weir passed away. Maury was dedicated to achieving the highest possible standards in the presentation of mathematics. He insisted on clarity, rigor, and readability. Maury was a role model to his students, his colleagues, and his co-authors. He was very proud of his daughters, Maia Coyle and Renee Waina, and of his grandsons, Matthew Ryan and Andrew Dean Waina. He will be greatly missed.

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DEVELOPING DEEPER UNDERSTANDING

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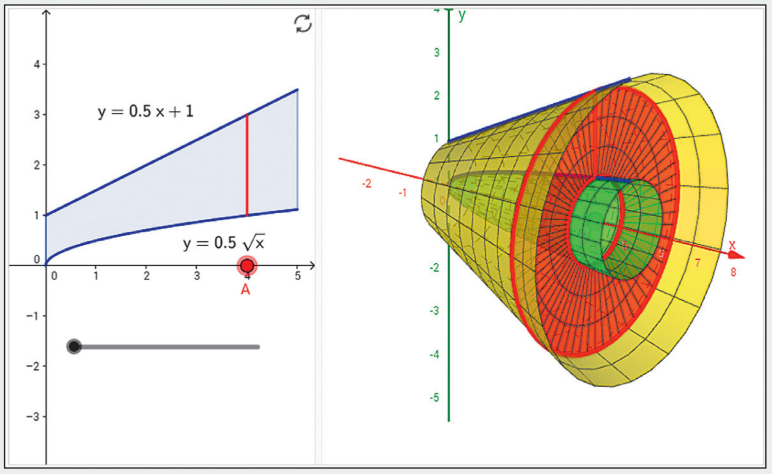

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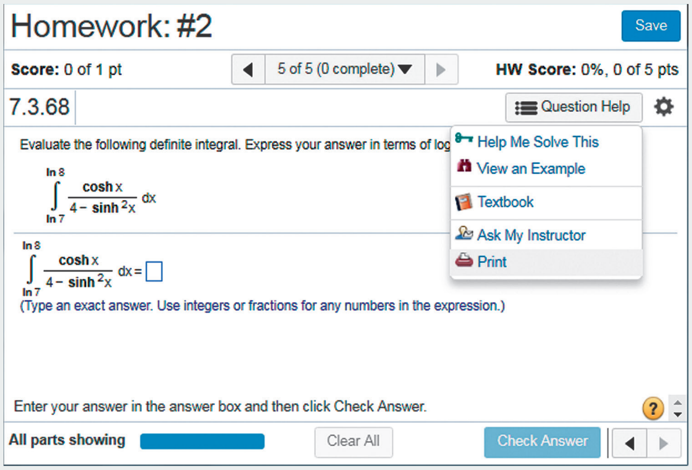
Exercises with Immediate Feedback

Homework and practice exercises for this text regenerate algorithmically to give students unlimited opportunity for practice and mastery. MyLab Math provides helpful feedback when students enter incorrect answers, and it includes the optional learning aids Help Me Solve This, View an Example, videos, and the eBook.



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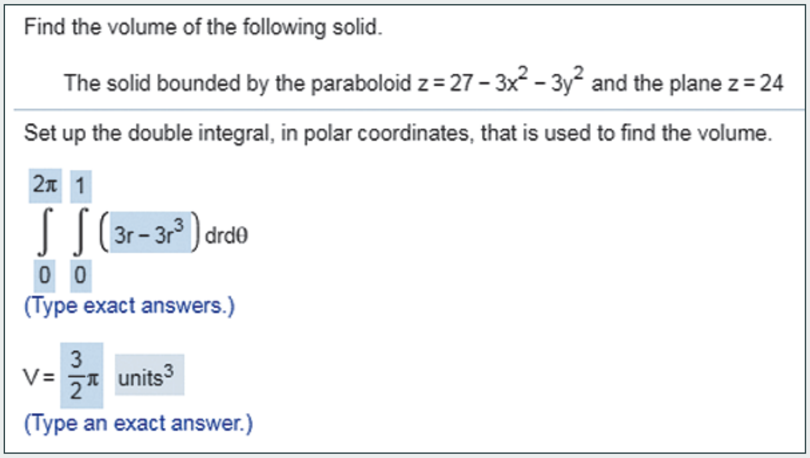

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NEW! Additional Conceptual Questions

Additional Conceptual Questions focus on deeper, theoretical understanding of the key concepts in calculus. These questions were written by faculty at Cornell University under an NSF grant and are also assignable through Learning Catalytics™.

UPDATED! Instructional Videos

Hundreds of videos are available as learning aids within exercises and for self-study. The Guide to Video-Based Assignments makes it easy to assign videos for homework in MyLab Math by showing which MyLab exercises correspond to each video.

UPDATED! Technology Manuals (downloadable)

- Maple™ Manual and Projects by Kevin Reeves, East Texas Baptist University
- Mathematica® Manual and Projects by Todd Lee, Elon University
- TI-Graphing Calculator Manual by Elaine McDonald-Newman, Sonoma State University

These manuals cover *Maple* 2017, *Mathematica 11,* and the TI-84 Plus and TI-89, respectively. Each manual provides detailed guidance for integrating the software package or graphing calculator throughout the course, including syntax and commands. The projects include instructions and ready-made application files for Maple and Mathematica. The files can be downloaded from within MyLab Math.

Student's Solutions Manuals (downloadable)

The Student's Solutions Manuals contain worked-out solutions to all the odd-numbered exercises. These manuals can be downloaded from within MyLab Math.

SUPPORTING INSTRUCTION

MyLab Math comes from an experienced partner with educational expertise and an eye on the future. It provides resources to help you assess and improve student results at every turn and unparalleled flexibility to create a course tailored to you and your students.

UPDATED! PowerPoint Lecture Slides (downloadable)

Classroom presentation slides feature key concepts, examples, definitions, figures, and tables from this text. They can be downloaded from within MyLab Math or from Pearson's online catalog, **www.pearsonglobaleditions.com**.

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Learning Catalytics

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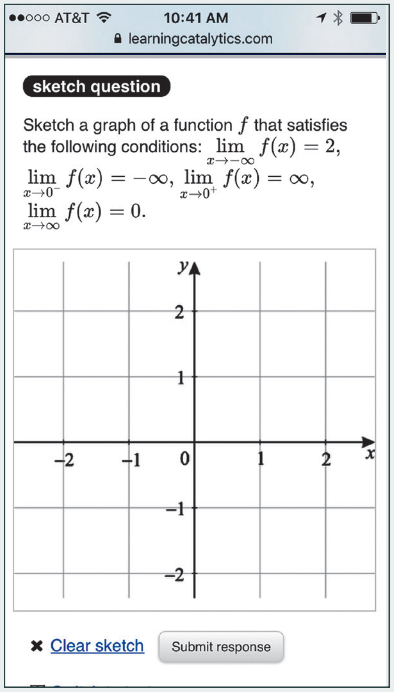

Comprehensive Gradebook

The gradebook includes enhanced reporting functionality, such as item analysis and a reporting dashboard, to allow you to efficiently manage your course. Student performance data is presented at the class, section, and program levels in an accessible, visual manner so you'll have the information you need to keep your students on track.

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Instructor's Solutions Manual (downloadable)

The Instructor's Solutions Manual contains complete solutions to the exercises in Chapters 1–17. It can be downloaded from within MyLab Math or from Pearson's online catalog, **www.pearsonglobaleditions.com.**

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1

Functions

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.

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

$$y = f(x) \qquad (\text{“}y \text{ equals } f \text{ of } x\text{”}).$$

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 *unique* value $f(x)$ in Y to each x in D.

The set D of all possible input values is called the **domain** of the function. The set of all output values of $f(x)$ 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 $y = f(x)$ with a formula and the domain is not stated explicitly or restricted by context, the domain is assumed to be 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 $y = x^2, x \geq 2$, 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 $\{x^2 | x \geq 2\}$ or $\{y | y \geq 4\}$ 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.

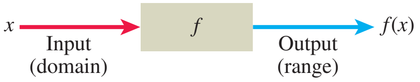


FIGURE 1.1 A diagram showing a function as a kind of machine.

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, the $\sqrt{x}$ key on a calculator gives an output value (the square root) whenever you enter a nonnegative number x and press the $\sqrt{x}$ key.

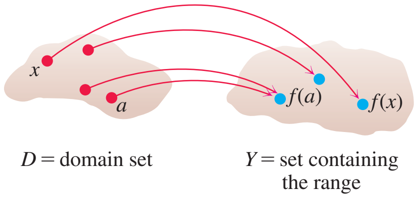


FIGURE 1.2 A function from a set D to a set Y assigns a unique element of Y to each element in D.

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.

Function	Domain (x)	Range (y)
$y = x^2$	$(-\infty, \infty)$	$[0, \infty)$
$y = 1/x$	$(-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$	$(-\infty, 0) \cup (0, \infty)$
$y = \sqrt{x}$	$[0, \infty)$	$[0, \infty)$
$y = \sqrt{4 - x}$	$(-\infty, 4]$	$[0, \infty)$
$y = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$	$[-1, 1]$	$[0, 1]$

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: $y = (\sqrt{y})^2$ for $y \geq 0$.

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 $y \neq 0$ 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 $x \geq 0$. 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, $4 - x \geq 0$, 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

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

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).

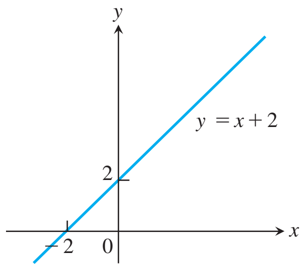


FIGURE 1.3 The graph of $f(x) = x + 2$ is the set of points (x, y) for which y has the value $x + 2$.

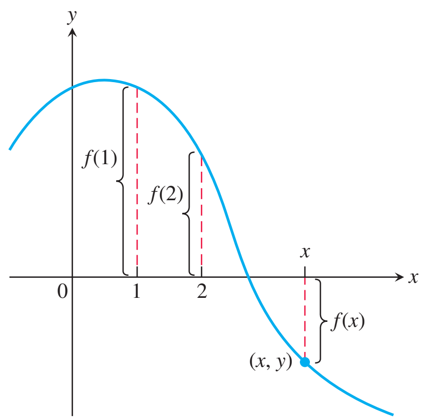


FIGURE 1.4 If (x, y) lies on the graph of f, then the value $y = f(x)$ is the height of the graph above the point x (or below x if $f(x)$ is negative).

x	$y = x^2$
-2	4
-1	1
0	0
1	1
$\frac{3}{2}$	$\frac{9}{4}$
2	4

EXAMPLE 2 Graph the function $y = x^2$ over the interval $[-2, 2]$.

Solution Make a table of xy-pairs that satisfy the equation $y = x^2$. Plot the points (x, y) whose coordinates appear in the table, and draw a *smooth* curve (labeled with its equation) through the plotted points (see Figure 1.5). ■

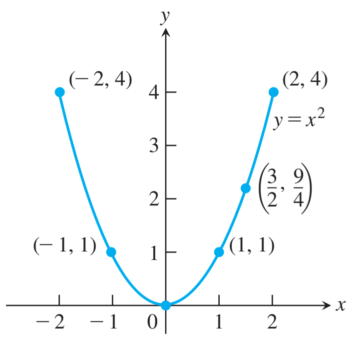
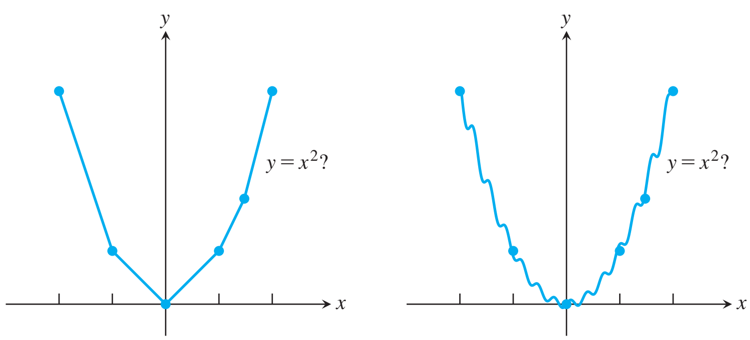


FIGURE 1.5 Graph of the function in Example 2.

How do we know that the graph of $y = x^2$ doesn't look like one of these curves?



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.

Time	Pressure
0.00091	−0.080
0.00108	0.200
0.00125	0.480
0.00144	0.693
0.00162	0.816
0.00180	0.844
0.00198	0.771
0.00216	0.603
0.00234	0.368
0.00253	0.099
0.00271	−0.141
0.00289	−0.309
0.00307	−0.348
0.00325	−0.248
0.00344	−0.041
0.00362	0.217
0.00379	0.480
0.00398	0.681
0.00416	0.810
0.00435	0.827
0.00453	0.749
0.00471	0.581
0.00489	0.346
0.00507	0.077
0.00525	−0.164
0.00543	−0.320
0.00562	−0.354
0.00579	−0.248
0.00598	−0.035

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.

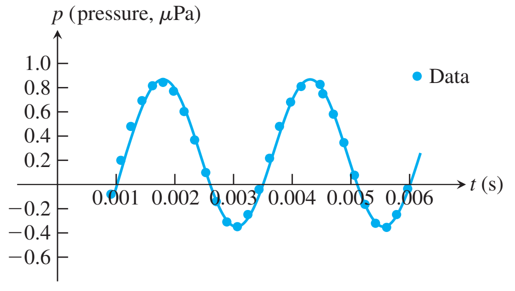


FIGURE 1.6 A smooth curve through the plotted points gives a graph of the pressure function represented by the accompanying tabled data (Example 3). ■

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).

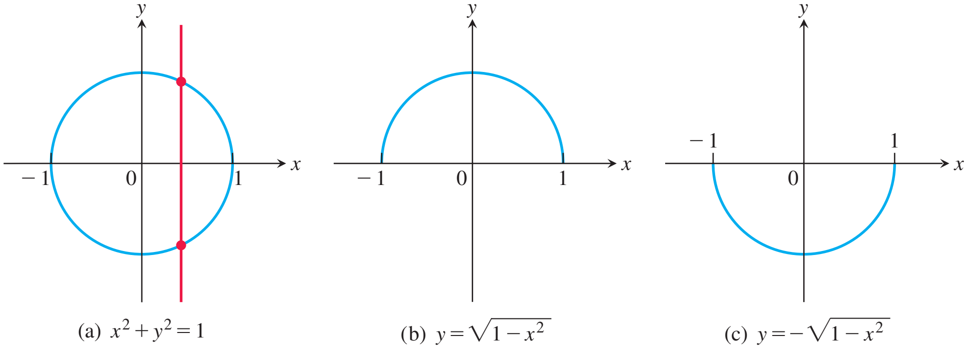


FIGURE 1.7 (a) The circle is not the graph of a function; it fails the vertical line test. (b) The upper semicircle is the graph of the function $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$. (c) The lower semicircle is the graph of the function $g(x) = -\sqrt{1 - x^2}$.

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**

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x, & x \geq 0 \quad \text{First formula} \\ -x, & x < 0 \quad \text{Second formula} \end{cases}$$

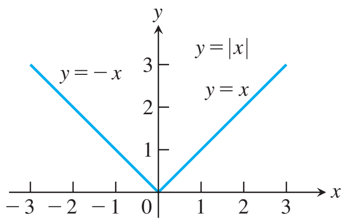


FIGURE 1.8 The absolute value function has domain $(-\infty, \infty)$ and range $[0, \infty)$.

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

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} -x, & x < 0 \quad \text{First formula} \\ x^2, & 0 \leq x \leq 1 \quad \text{Second formula} \\ 1, & x > 1 \quad \text{Third formula} \end{cases}$$

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 $0 \leq x \leq 1$, 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). ■

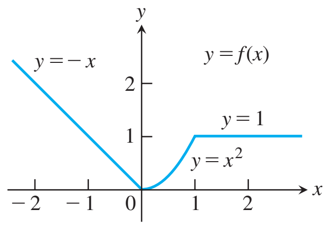


FIGURE 1.9 To graph the function $y = f(x)$ shown here, we apply different formulas to different parts of its domain (Example 4).

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

$$\lfloor 2.4 \rfloor = 2, \quad \lfloor 1.9 \rfloor = 1, \quad \lfloor 0 \rfloor = 0, \quad \lfloor -1.2 \rfloor = -2,$$
$$\lfloor 2 \rfloor = 2, \quad \lfloor 0.2 \rfloor = 0, \quad \lfloor -0.3 \rfloor = -1, \quad \lfloor -2 \rfloor = -2.$$ ■

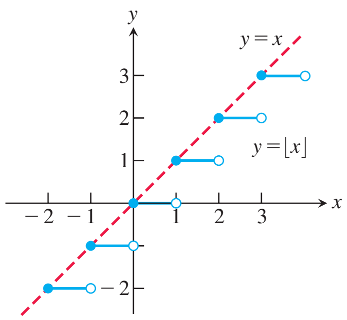


FIGURE 1.10 The graph of the greatest integer function $y = \lfloor x \rfloor$ lies on or below the line $y = x$, so it provides an integer floor for x (Example 5).

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. ■

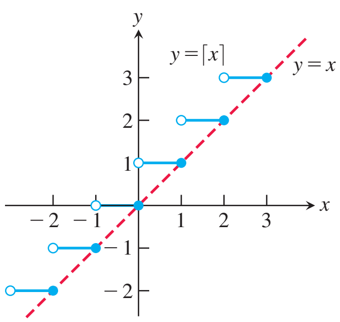


FIGURE 1.11 The graph of the least integer function $y = \lceil x \rceil$ lies on or above the line $y = x$, so it provides an integer ceiling for x (Example 6).

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 $<$ to compare the function values, instead of $\leq$, 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.

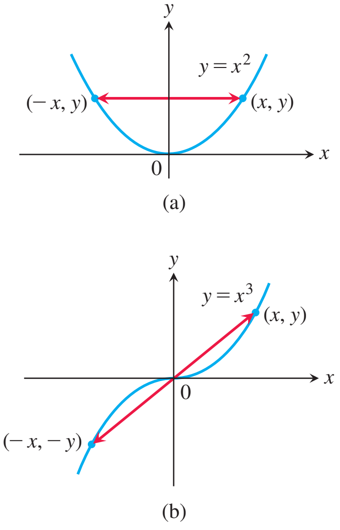


FIGURE 1.12 (a) The graph of $y = x^2$ (an even function) is symmetric about the y-axis. (b) The graph of $y = x^3$ (an odd function) is symmetric about the origin.

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 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.

$f(x) = x^2$ 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.

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

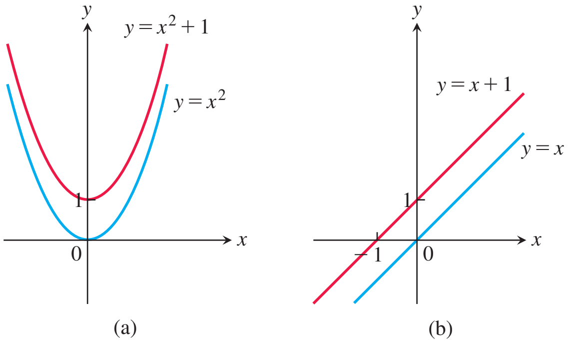


FIGURE 1.13 (a) When we add the constant term 1 to the function $y = x^2$, the resulting function $y = x^2 + 1$ is still even and its graph is still symmetric about the y-axis. (b) When we add the constant term 1 to the function $y = x$, the resulting function $y = x + 1$ is no longer odd, since the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

$f(x) = x$	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).

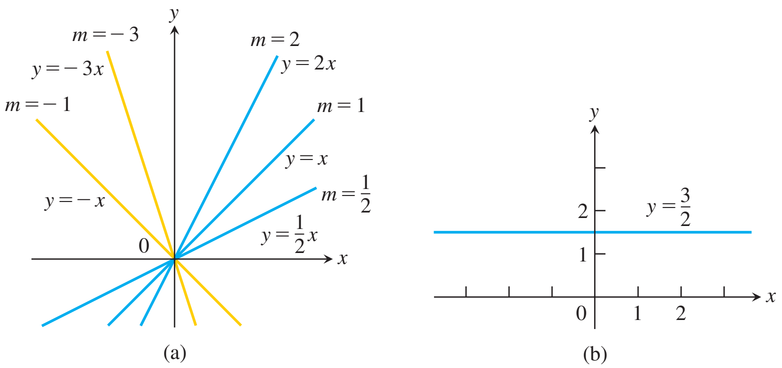


FIGURE 1.14 (a) Lines through the origin with slope m. (b) A constant function with slope $m = 0$.

> **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 $(-\infty, \infty)$.

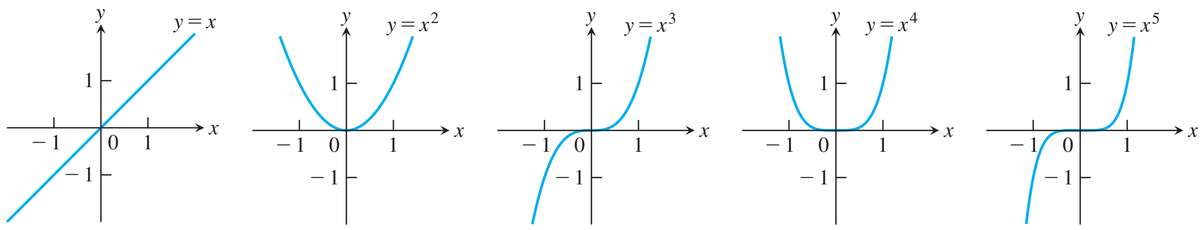


FIGURE 1.15 Graphs of $f(x) = x^n$, $n = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5$, defined for $-\infty < x < \infty$.

(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 $(0, \infty)$.

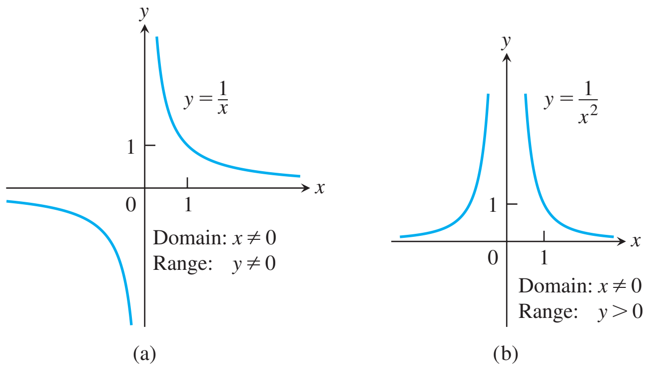


FIGURE 1.16 Graphs of the power functions $f(x) = x^a$. (a) $a = -1$, (b) $a = -2$.

(c) $a = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{2}$, and $\frac{2}{3}$.

The functions $f(x) = x^{1/2} = \sqrt{x}$ and $f(x) = x^{1/3} = \sqrt[3]{x}$ are the **square root** and **cube root** functions, respectively. The domain of the square root function is $[0, \infty)$, but the cube root function is defined for all real x. Their graphs are displayed in Figure 1.17, along with the graphs of $y = x^{3/2}$ and $y = x^{2/3}$. (Recall that $x^{3/2} = (x^{1/2})^3$ and $x^{2/3} = (x^{1/3})^2$.)

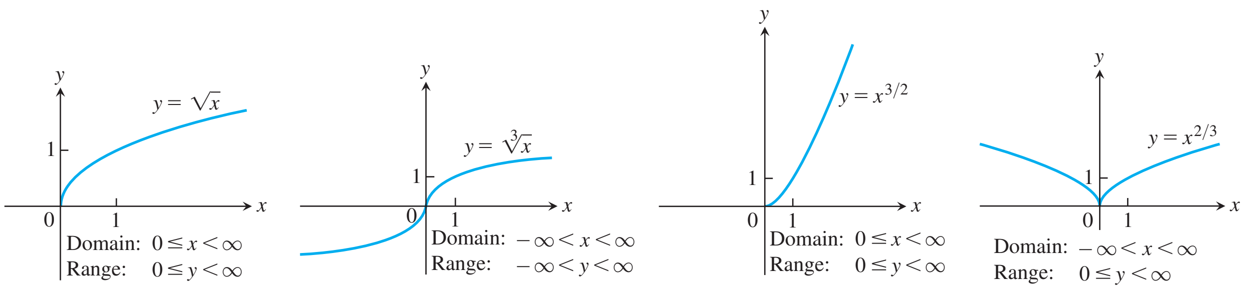


FIGURE 1.17 Graphs of the power functions $f(x) = x^a$ for $a = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{3}{2}$, and $\frac{2}{3}$.

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

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

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.

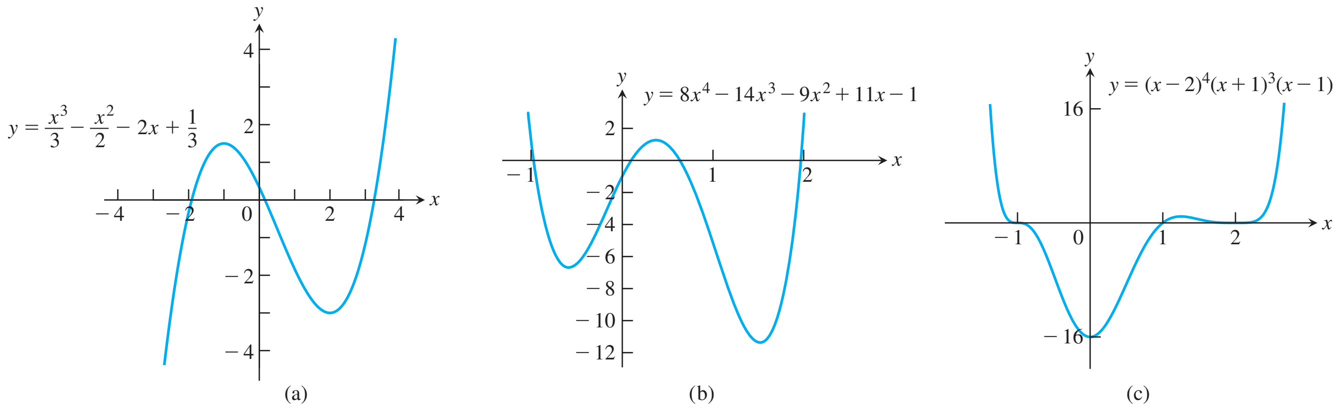


FIGURE 1.18 Graphs of three polynomial functions.

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 several rational functions are shown in Figure 1.19.

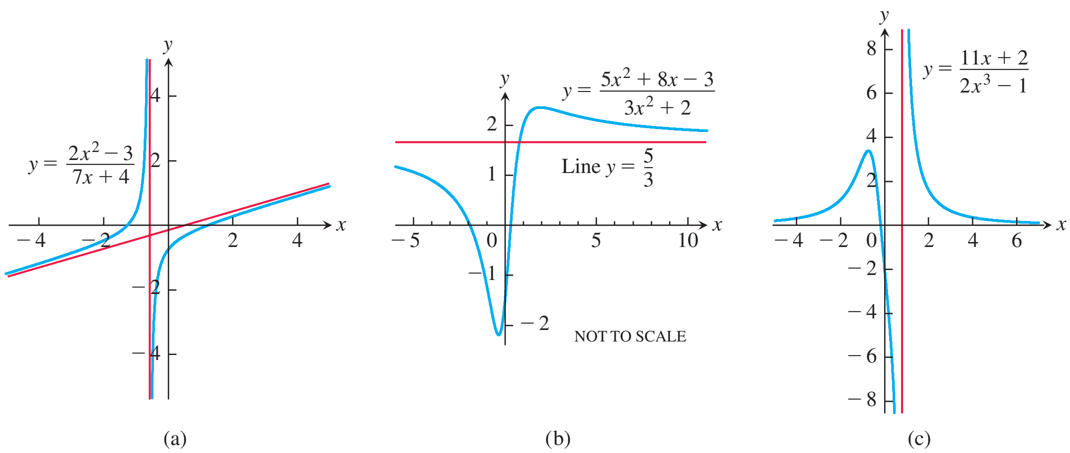


FIGURE 1.19 Graphs of three rational functions. The straight red lines approached by the graphs are called *asymptotes* and are not part of the graphs. We discuss asymptotes in Section 2.6.

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.

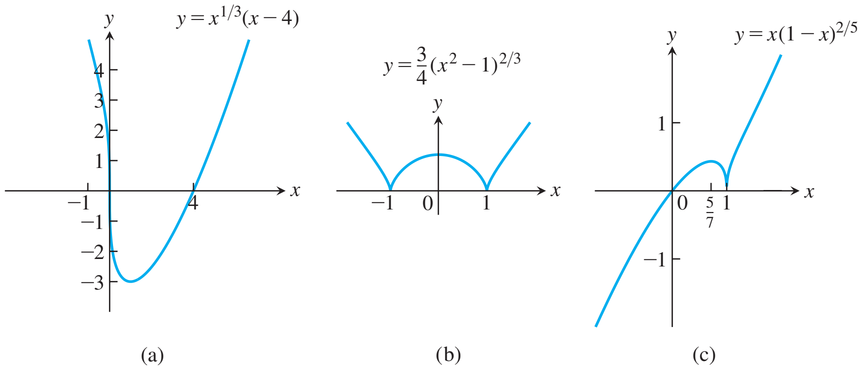


FIGURE 1.20 Graphs of three algebraic functions.

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.

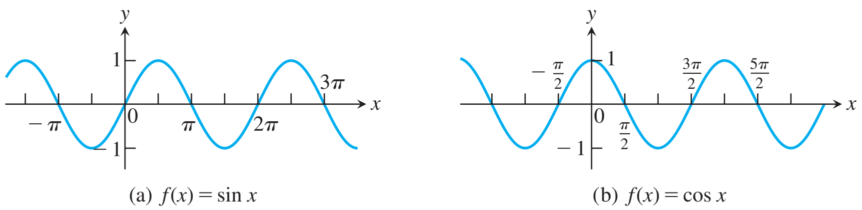


FIGURE 1.21 Graphs of the sine and cosine functions.

Exponential Functions A function of the form $f(x) = a^x$, where $a > 0$ and $a \neq 1$, 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 1.5. The graphs of some exponential functions are shown in Figure 1.22.

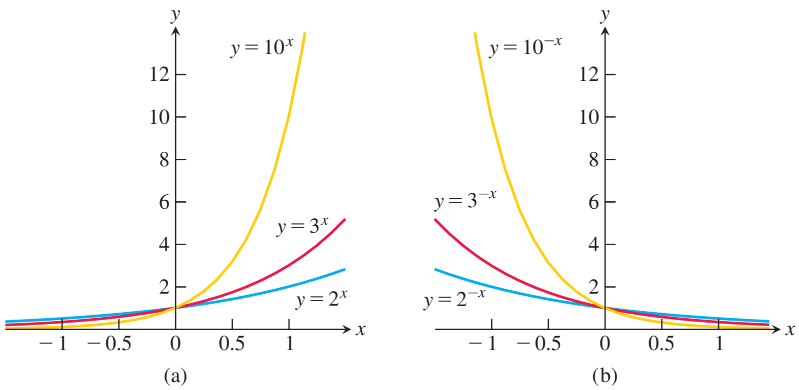


FIGURE 1.22 Graphs of exponential functions.

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 1.6. 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 $(-\infty, \infty)$.

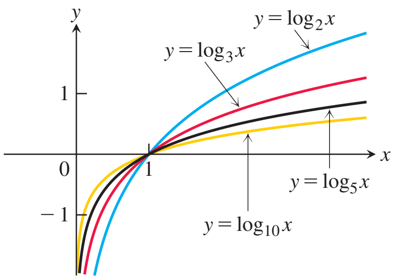


FIGURE 1.23 Graphs of four logarithmic functions.

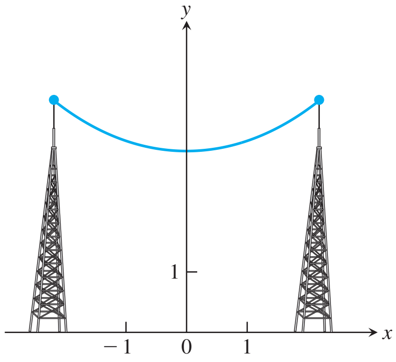


FIGURE 1.24 Graph of a catenary or hanging cable. (The Latin word *catena* means "chain.")

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. $F(x) = \sqrt{5x + 10}$

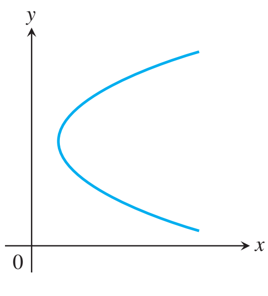
4. $g(x) = \sqrt{x^2 - 3x}$

5. $f(t) = \dfrac{4}{3 - t}$

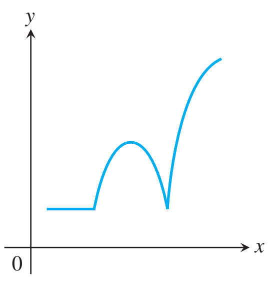
6. $G(t) = \dfrac{2}{t^2 - 16}$

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

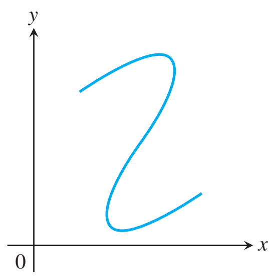
7. a.



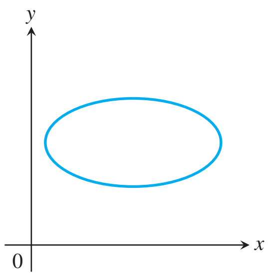
b.



8. a.



b.



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. $f(x) = 5 - 2x$ **16.** $f(x) = 1 - 2x - x^2$

17. $g(x) = \sqrt{|x|}$ **18.** $g(x) = \sqrt{-x}$

19. $F(t) = t/|t|$ **20.** $G(t) = 1/|t|$

21. Find the domain of $y = \dfrac{x + 3}{4 - \sqrt{x^2 - 9}}$.

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. $f(x) = \begin{cases} x, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 2 - x, & 1 < x \le 2 \end{cases}$

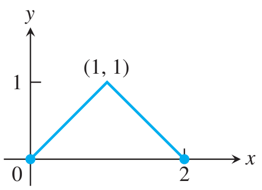
26. $g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - x, & 0 \le x \le 1 \\ 2 - x, & 1 < x \le 2 \end{cases}$

27. $F(x) = \begin{cases} 4 - x^2, & x \le 1 \\ x^2 + 2x, & x > 1 \end{cases}$

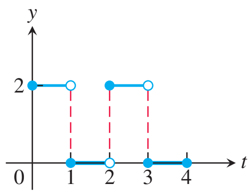
28. $G(x) = \begin{cases} 1/x, & x < 0 \\ x, & 0 \le x \end{cases}$

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

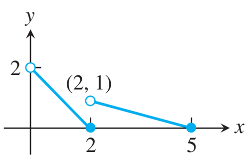
29. a.



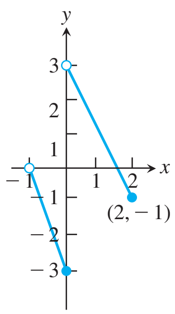
b.



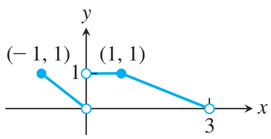
30. a.



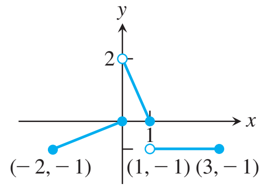
b.



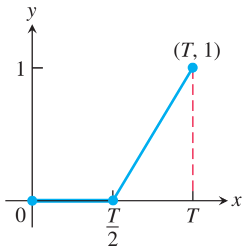
31. a.



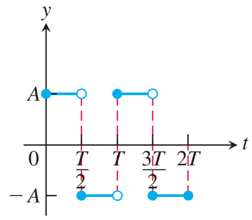
b.



32. a.



b.



The Greatest and Least Integer Functions

33. For what values of x is

a. $\lfloor x \rfloor = 0$? **b.** $\lceil x \rceil = 0$?

34. What real numbers x satisfy the equation $\lfloor x \rfloor = \lceil x \rceil$?

35. Does $\lceil -x \rceil = -\lfloor x \rfloor$ for all real x? Give reasons for your answer.

36. Graph the function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \lfloor x \rfloor, & x \ge 0 \\ \lceil x \rceil, & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

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.

37. $y = -x^3$ **38.** $y = -\dfrac{1}{x^2}$

39. $y = -\dfrac{1}{x}$ **40.** $y = \dfrac{1}{|x|}$

41. $y = \sqrt{|x|}$ **42.** $y = \sqrt{-x}$

43. $y = x^3/8$ **44.** $y = -4\sqrt{x}$

45. $y = -x^{3/2}$ **46.** $y = (-x)^{2/3}$

Even and Odd Functions

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

47. $f(x) = 3$ **48.** $f(x) = x^{-5}$

49. $f(x) = x^2 + 1$ **50.** $f(x) = x^2 + x$

51. $g(x) = x^3 + x$ **52.** $g(x) = x^4 + 3x^2 - 1$

53. $g(x) = \dfrac{1}{x^2 - 1}$ **54.** $g(x) = \dfrac{x}{x^2 - 1}$

55. $h(t) = \dfrac{1}{t - 1}$ **56.** $h(t) = |t^3|$

57. $h(t) = 2t + 1$ **58.** $h(t) = 2|t| + 1$

59. $\sin 2x$ **60.** $\sin x^2$

61. $\cos 3x$ **62.** $1 + \cos x$

Theory and Examples

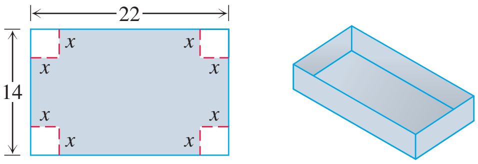
63. The variable s is proportional to t, and $s = 25$ when $t = 75$. Determine t when $s = 60$.

64. Kinetic energy The kinetic energy K of a mass is proportional to the square of its velocity υ. If $K = 12{,}960$ joules when $\upsilon = 18$ m/s, what is K when $\upsilon = 10$ 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 $P = 14.7\ \text{N/cm}^2$ when $V = 1000\ \text{cm}^3$, then what is V when $P = 23.4\ \text{N/cm}^2$?

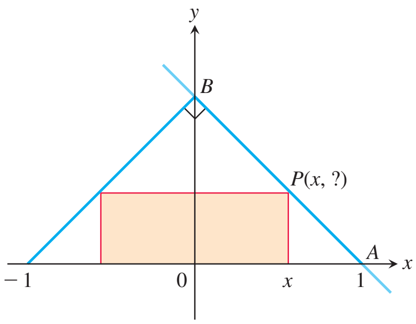
67. A box with an open top is to be constructed from a rectangular piece of cardboard with dimensions 14 cm. by 22 cm. by cutting out equal squares of side x at each corner and then folding up the sides as in the figure. Express the volume V of the box as a function of x.



68. The accompanying figure shows a rectangle inscribed in an isosceles right triangle whose hypotenuse is 2 units long.

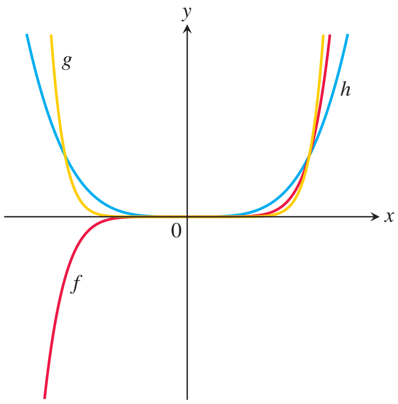
a. Express the y-coordinate of P in terms of x. (You might start by writing an equation for the line AB.)

b. Express the area of the rectangle in terms of x.

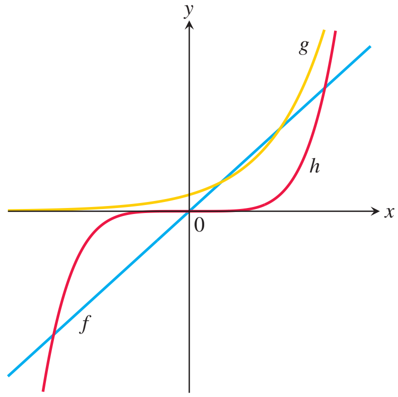


In Exercises 69 and 70, match each equation with its graph. Do not use a graphing device, and give reasons for your answer.

69. a. $y = x^4$ **b.** $y = x^7$ **c.** $y = x^{10}$



70. a. $y = 5x$ **b.** $y = 5^x$ **c.** $y = x^5$



T **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.

T **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

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

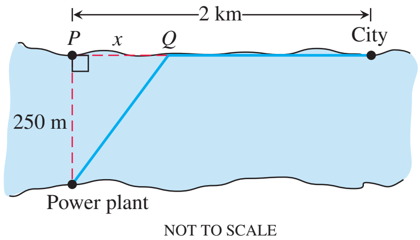
b. Confirm your findings in part (a) algebraically.

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.

1.2 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 $g(x)$.

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

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

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 functions defined by the formulas

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

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.

Function	Formula	Domain
$f + g$	$(f + g)(x) = \sqrt{x} + \sqrt{1 - x}$	$[0, 1] = D(f) \cap D(g)$
$f - g$	$(f - g)(x) = \sqrt{x} - \sqrt{1 - x}$	$[0, 1]$
$g - f$	$(g - f)(x) = \sqrt{1 - x} - \sqrt{x}$	$[0, 1]$
$f \cdot g$	$(f \cdot g)(x) = f(x)g(x) = \sqrt{x(1 - x)}$	$[0, 1]$
f/g	$\frac{f}{g}(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \sqrt{\frac{x}{1 - x}}$	$[0, 1)$ ($x = 1$ excluded)
g/f	$\frac{g}{f}(x) = \frac{g(x)}{f(x)} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - x}{x}}$	$(0, 1]$ ($x = 0$ excluded)

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.

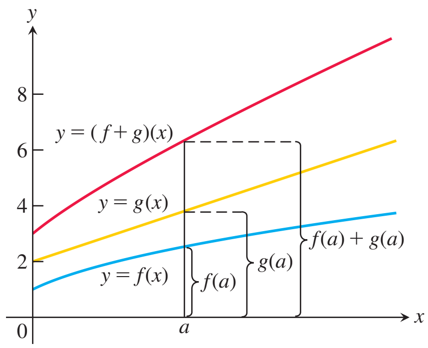


FIGURE 1.25 Graphical addition of two functions.

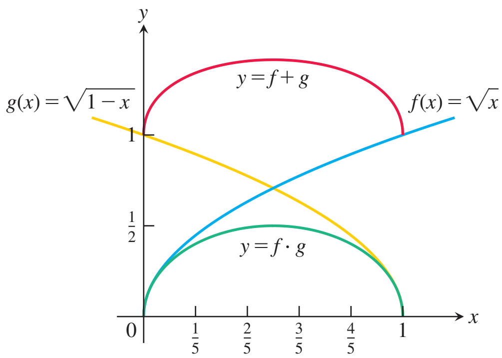


FIGURE 1.26 The domain of the function $f + g$ is the intersection of the domains of f and g, the interval $[0, 1]$ on the x-axis where these domains overlap. This interval is also the domain of the function $f \cdot g$ (Example 1).

Composing Functions

Composition is another method for combining functions. In this operation the output from one function becomes the input to a second function.

> **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.

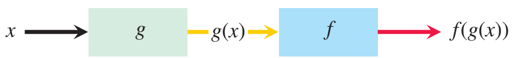


FIGURE 1.27 The composition $f \circ g$ uses the output $g(x)$ of the first function g as the input for the second function f.

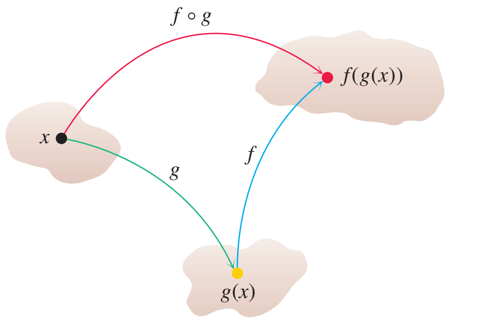


FIGURE 1.28 Arrow diagram for $f \circ g$. If x lies in the domain of g and $g(x)$ lies in the domain of f, then the functions f and g can be composed to form $(f \circ g)(x)$.

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.

EXAMPLE 2 If $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ and $g(x) = x + 1$, find

(a) $(f \circ g)(x)$ **(b)** $(g \circ f)(x)$ **(c)** $(f \circ f)(x)$ **(d)** $(g \circ g)(x)$.

Solution

Composition	Domain
(a) $(f \circ g)(x) = f(g(x)) = \sqrt{g(x)} = \sqrt{x + 1}$	$[-1, \infty)$
(b) $(g \circ f)(x) = g(f(x)) = f(x) + 1 = \sqrt{x} + 1$	$[0, \infty)$
(c) $(f \circ f)(x) = f(f(x)) = \sqrt{f(x)} = \sqrt{\sqrt{x}} = x^{1/4}$	$[0, \infty)$
(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 $x + 1 \geq 0$, that is to say, when $x \geq -1$. ■

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

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.

Shift Formulas

Vertical Shifts

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

Horizontal Shifts

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

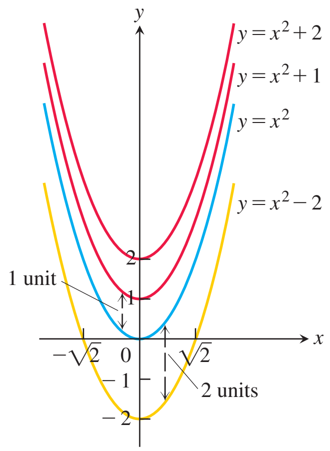


FIGURE 1.29 To shift the graph of $f(x) = x^2$ up (or down), we add positive (or negative) constants to the formula for f (Examples 3a and b).

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 $c = -1$.

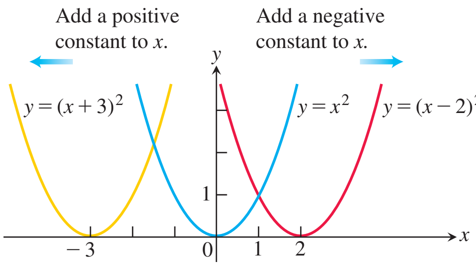


FIGURE 1.30 To shift the graph of $y = x^2$ to the left, we add a positive constant to x (Example 3c). To shift the graph to the right, we add a negative constant to x.

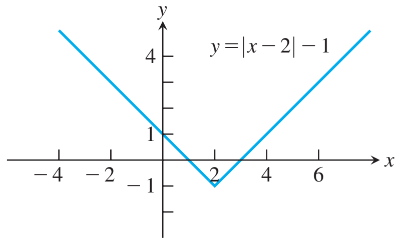


FIGURE 1.31 The graph of $y = |x|$ shifted 2 units to the right and 1 unit down (Example 3d).

Vertical and Horizontal Scaling and Reflecting Formulas

For $c > 1$, the graph is scaled:

$y = cf(x)$	Stretches the graph of f vertically by a factor of c.
$y = \frac{1}{c}f(x)$	Compresses the graph of f vertically by a factor of c.
$y = f(cx)$	Compresses the graph of f horizontally by a factor of c.
$y = f(x/c)$	Stretches the graph of f horizontally by a factor of c.

For $c = -1$, the graph is reflected:

$y = -f(x)$	Reflects the graph of f across the x-axis.
$y = f(-x)$	Reflects the graph of f across the y-axis.

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

(a) **Vertical:** Multiplying the right-hand side of $y = \sqrt{x}$ by 3 to get $y = 3\sqrt{x}$ 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 $y = \sqrt{3x}$ is a horizontal compression of the graph of $y = \sqrt{x}$ by a factor of 3, and $y = \sqrt{x/3}$ is a horizontal stretching by a factor of 3 (Figure 1.33). Note that $y = \sqrt{3x} = \sqrt{3}\sqrt{x}$, so a horizontal compression *may* correspond to a vertical stretching by a different scaling factor. Likewise, a horizontal stretching may correspond to a vertical compression by a different scaling factor.

(c) **Reflection:** The graph of $y = -\sqrt{x}$ is a reflection of $y = \sqrt{x}$ across the x-axis, and $y = \sqrt{-x}$ is a reflection across the y-axis (Figure 1.34). ■

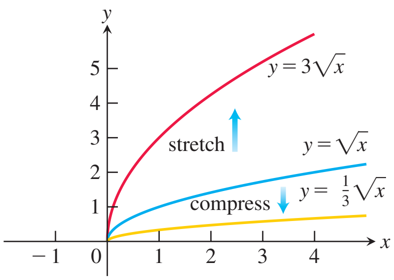


FIGURE 1.32 Vertically stretching and compressing the graph of $y = \sqrt{x}$ by a factor of 3 (Example 4a).

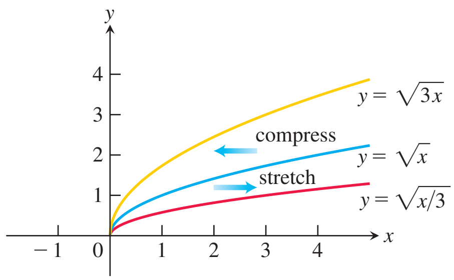


FIGURE 1.33 Horizontally stretching and compressing the graph of $y = \sqrt{x}$ by a factor of 3 (Example 4b).

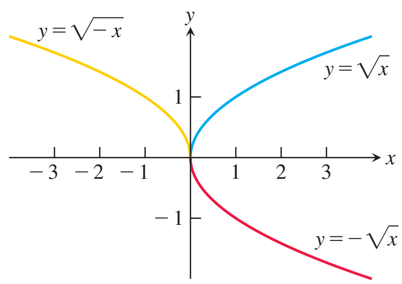


FIGURE 1.34 Reflections of the graph of $y = \sqrt{x}$ across the coordinate axes (Example 4c).

EXAMPLE 5 Given the function $f(x) = x^4 - 4x^3 + 10$ (Figure 1.35a), find formulas to

(a) compress the graph horizontally by a factor of 2 followed by a reflection across the y-axis (Figure 1.35b).

(b) compress the graph vertically by a factor of 2 followed by a reflection across the x-axis (Figure 1.35c).

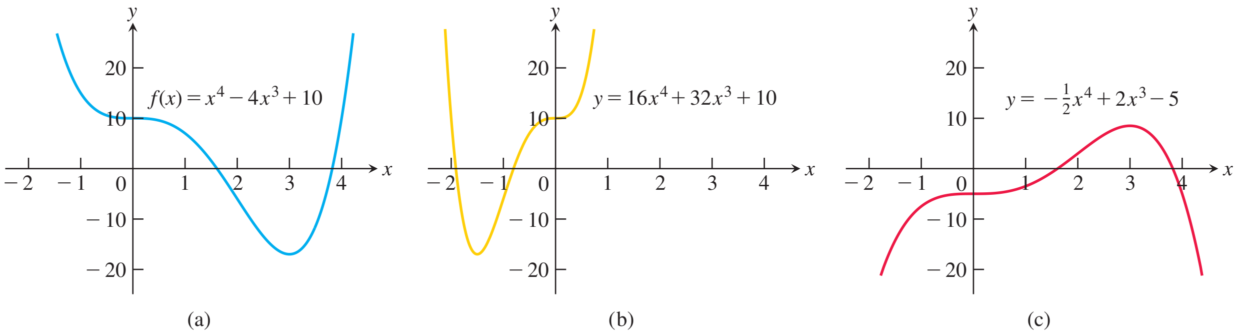


FIGURE 1.35 (a) The original graph of f. (b) The horizontal compression of $y = f(x)$ in part (a) by a factor of 2, followed by a reflection across the y-axis. (c) The vertical compression of $y = f(x)$ in part (a) by a factor of 2, followed by a reflection across the x-axis (Example 5).

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:

$$\begin{aligned} y = f(-2x) &= (-2x)^4 - 4(-2x)^3 + 10 \\ &= 16x^4 + 32x^3 + 10. \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

3. $f(x) = 2, \quad g(x) = x^2 + 1$

4. $f(x) = 1, \quad g(x) = 1 + \sqrt{x}$

Compositions of Functions

5. If $f(x) = x + 5$ and $g(x) = x^2 - 3$, find the following.

a. $f(g(0))$ **b.** $g(f(0))$

c. $f(g(x))$ **d.** $g(f(x))$

e. $f(f(-5))$ **f.** $g(g(2))$

g. $f(f(x))$ **h.** $g(g(x))$

6. If $f(x) = x - 1$ and $g(x) = 1/(x + 1)$, find the following.

a. $f(g(1/2))$ **b.** $g(f(1/2))$

c. $f(g(x))$ **d.** $g(f(x))$

e. $f(f(2))$ **f.** $g(g(2))$

g. $f(f(x))$ **h.** $g(g(x))$

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

7. $f(x) = x + 1, \quad g(x) = 3x, \quad h(x) = 4 - x$

8. $f(x) = 3x + 4, \quad g(x) = 2x - 1, \quad h(x) = x^2$

9. $f(x) = \sqrt{x + 1}, \quad g(x) = \dfrac{1}{x + 4}, \quad h(x) = \dfrac{1}{x}$

10. $f(x) = \dfrac{x + 2}{3 - x}, \quad g(x) = \dfrac{x^2}{x^2 + 1}, \quad h(x) = \sqrt{2 - x}$

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.

	$g(x)$	$f(x)$	$(f \circ g)(x)$
a.	$x - 7$	$\sqrt{x}$	?
b.	$x + 2$	$3x$	?
c.	?	$\sqrt{x - 5}$	$\sqrt{x^2 - 5}$
d.	$\dfrac{x}{x - 1}$	$\dfrac{x}{x - 1}$	?
e.	?	$1 + \dfrac{1}{x}$	x
f.	$\dfrac{1}{x}$	?	x

14. Copy and complete the following table.

	$g(x)$	$f(x)$	$(f \circ g)(x)$
a.	$\dfrac{1}{x - 1}$	$\lvert x \rvert$	?
b.	?	$\dfrac{x - 1}{x}$	$\dfrac{x}{x + 1}$
c.	?	$\sqrt{x}$	$\lvert x \rvert$
d.	$\sqrt{x}$	?	$\lvert x \rvert$

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

x	-2	-1	0	1	2
$f(x)$	1	0	-2	1	2
$g(x)$	2	1	0	-1	0

a. $f(g(-1))$ **b.** $g(f(0))$ **c.** $f(f(-1))$

d. $g(g(2))$ **e.** $g(f(-2))$ **f.** $f(g(1))$

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. $f(x) = \sqrt{x + 1}, \quad g(x) = \dfrac{1}{x}$

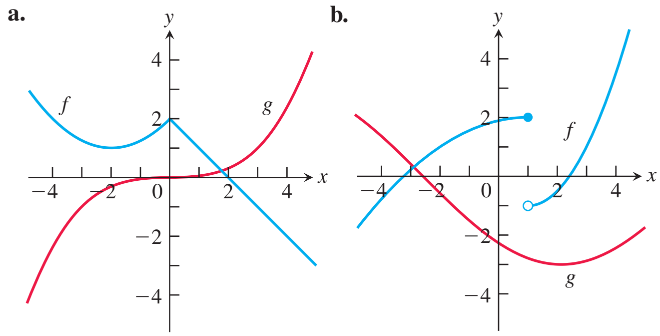
18. $f(x) = x^2, \quad g(x) = 1 - \sqrt{x}$

19. Let $f(x) = \dfrac{x}{x - 2}$. 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 $(f \circ g)(x) = x + 2$.

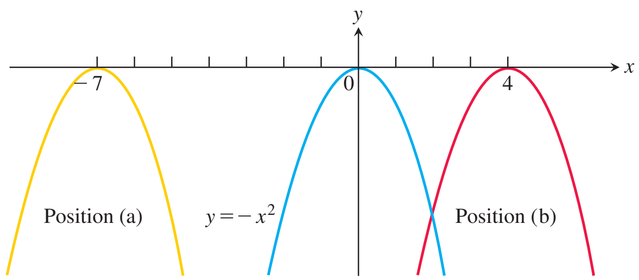
21. A balloon's volume V is given by $V = s^2 + 2s + 3$ cm^3, where s is the ambient temperature in °C. The ambient temperature s at time t minutes is given by $s = 2t - 3$°C. Write the balloon's volume V as a function of time t.

22. Use the graphs of f and g to sketch the graph of $y = f(g(x))$.

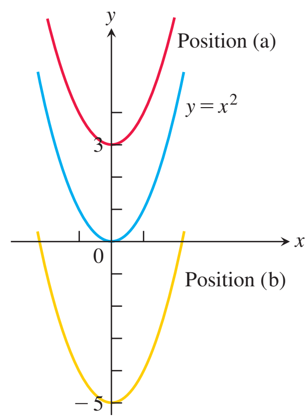


Shifting Graphs

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



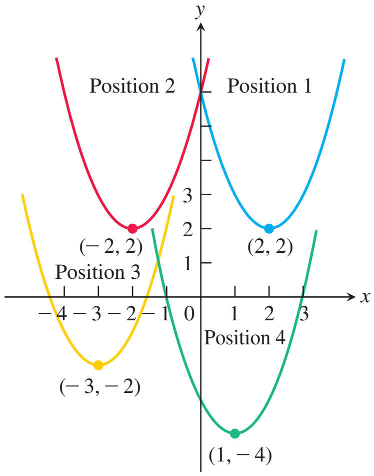
24. The accompanying figure shows the graph of $y = x^2$ shifted to two new positions. Write equations for the new graphs.



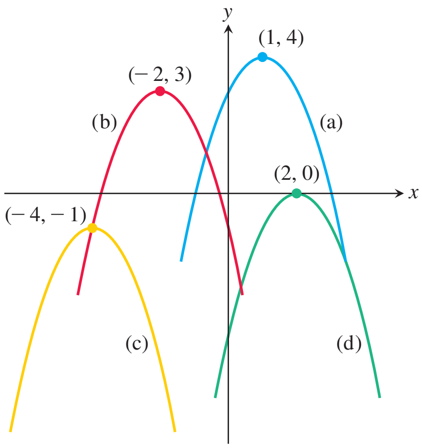
25. Match the equations listed in parts (a)–(d) to the graphs in the accompanying figure.

a. $y = (x - 1)^2 - 4$ **b.** $y = (x - 2)^2 + 2$

c. $y = (x + 2)^2 + 2$ **d.** $y = (x + 3)^2 - 2$



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



Exercises 27–36 tell how many units and in what directions the graphs of the given equations are to be shifted. Give an equation for the shifted graph. Then sketch the original and shifted graphs together, labeling each graph with its equation.

27. $x^2 + y^2 = 49$ Down 3, left 2

28. $x^2 + y^2 = 25$ Up 3, left 4

29. $y = x^3$ Left 1, down 1

30. $y = x^{2/3}$ Right 1, down 1

31. $y = \sqrt{x}$ Left 0.81

32. $y = -\sqrt{x}$ Right 3

33. $y = 2x - 7$ Up 7

34. $y = \frac{1}{2}(x + 1) + 5$ Down 5, right 1

35. $y = 1/x$ Up 1, right 1

36. $y = 1/x^2$ Left 2, down 1

Graph the functions in Exercises 37–56.

37. $y = \sqrt{x + 4}$ **38.** $y = \sqrt{9 - x}$

39. $y = |x - 2|$ **40.** $y = |1 - x| - 1$

41. $y = 1 + \sqrt{x - 1}$ **42.** $y = 1 - \sqrt{x}$

43. $y = (x + 1)^{2/3}$ **44.** $y = (x - 8)^{2/3}$

45. $y = 1 - x^{2/3}$ **46.** $y + 4 = x^{2/3}$

47. $y = \sqrt[3]{x - 1} - 1$ **48.** $y = (x + 2)^{3/2} + 1$

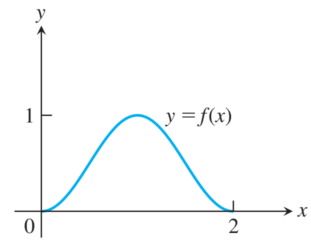
49. $y = \dfrac{1}{x - 2}$ **50.** $y = \dfrac{1}{x} - 2$

51. $y = \dfrac{1}{x} + 2$ **52.** $y = \dfrac{1}{x + 2}$

53. $y = \dfrac{1}{(x - 1)^2}$ **54.** $y = \dfrac{1}{x^2} - 1$

55. $y = \dfrac{1}{x^2} + 1$ **56.** $y = \dfrac{1}{(x + 1)^2}$

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.



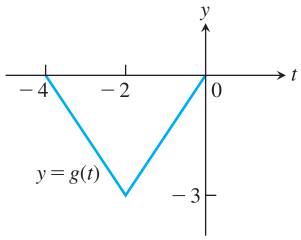
a. $f(x) + 2$ **b.** $f(x) - 1$

c. $2f(x)$ **d.** $-f(x)$

e. $f(x + 2)$ **f.** $f(x - 1)$

g. $f(-x)$ **h.** $-f(x + 1) + 1$

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.



a. $g(-t)$ **b.** $-g(t)$

c. $g(t) + 3$ **d.** $1 - g(t)$

e. $g(-t + 2)$ **f.** $g(t - 2)$

g. $g(1 - t)$ **h.** $-g(t - 4)$

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. $y = 1 + \dfrac{1}{x^2}$, 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. $y = -\sqrt{2x + 1}$ 70. $y = \sqrt{1 - \frac{x}{2}}$
71. $y = (x - 1)^3 + 2$ 72. $y = (1 - x)^3 + 2$
73. $y = \frac{1}{2x} - 1$ 74. $y = \frac{2}{x^2} + 1$
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?
 a. fg b. f/g c. g/f
 d. $f^2 = ff$ e. $g^2 = gg$ f. $f \circ g$
 g. $g \circ f$ h. $f \circ f$ i. $g \circ g$
80. Can a function be both even and odd? Give reasons for your answer.
T 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.
T 82. 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

This section reviews radian measure and the basic trigonometric functions.

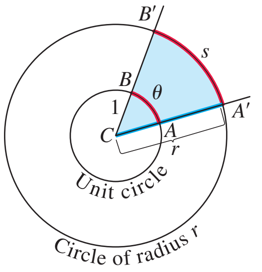


FIGURE 1.36 The radian measure of the central angle $A'CB'$ is the number $\theta = s/r$. For a unit circle of radius $r = 1$, θ is the length of arc AB that central angle ACB cuts from the unit circle.

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 θ when measured in radians, this means that $\theta = s/r$ (Figure 1.36), or

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

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 θ 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 2π radians, we have

$$\pi \text{ radians} = 180° \tag{2}$$

and

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

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

TABLE 1.1 Angles measured in degrees and radians

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

An angle in the xy-plane is said to be in **standard position** if its vertex lies at the origin and its initial ray lies along the positive x-axis (Figure 1.37). Angles measured counterclockwise from the positive x-axis are assigned positive measures; angles measured clockwise are assigned negative measures.

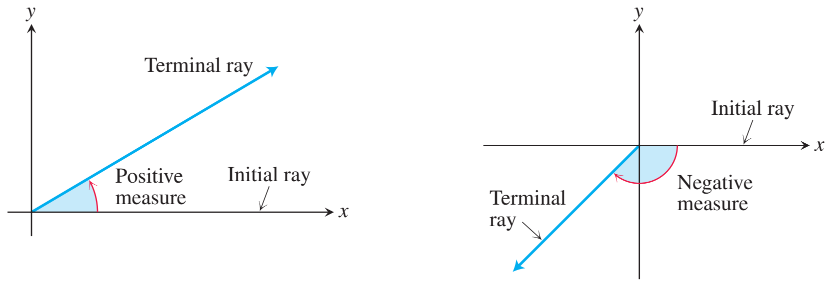


FIGURE 1.37 Angles in standard position in the xy-plane.

Angles describing counterclockwise rotations can go arbitrarily far beyond 2π radians or 360°. Similarly, angles describing clockwise rotations can have negative measures of all sizes (Figure 1.38).

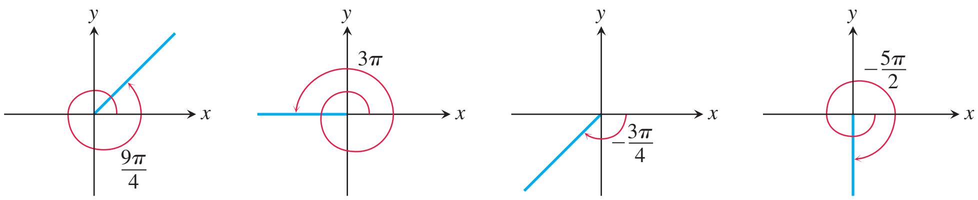
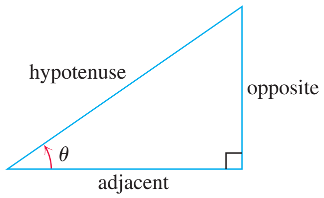


FIGURE 1.38 Nonzero radian measures can be positive or negative and can go beyond 2π.

Angle Convention: Use Radians From now on in this text, it is assumed that all angles are measured in radians unless degrees or some other unit is stated explicitly. When we talk about the angle $\pi/3$, we mean $\pi/3$ radians (which is 60°), not $\pi/3$ degrees. Using radians simplifies many of the operations and computations in calculus.

The Six Basic Trigonometric Functions

The trigonometric functions of an acute angle are given in terms of the sides of a right triangle (Figure 1.39). We extend this definition to obtuse and negative angles by first placing the angle in standard position in a circle of radius r. We then define the trigonometric functions in terms of the coordinates of the point $P(x, y)$ where the angle's terminal ray intersects the circle (Figure 1.40).



$$\sin\theta = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{hyp}} \qquad \csc\theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{opp}}$$

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{hyp}} \qquad \sec\theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{adj}}$$

$$\tan\theta = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{adj}} \qquad \cot\theta = \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{opp}}$$

FIGURE 1.39 Trigonometric ratios of an acute angle.

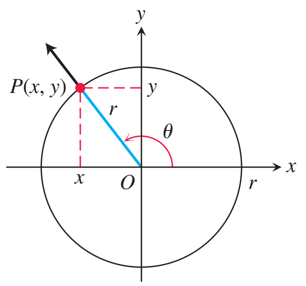


FIGURE 1.40 The trigonometric functions of a general angle θ are defined in terms of x, y, and r.

$$\textbf{sine:}\quad \sin\theta = \frac{y}{r} \qquad \textbf{cosecant:}\quad \csc\theta = \frac{r}{y}$$

$$\textbf{cosine:}\quad \cos\theta = \frac{x}{r} \qquad \textbf{secant:}\quad \sec\theta = \frac{r}{x}$$

$$\textbf{tangent:}\quad \tan\theta = \frac{y}{x} \qquad \textbf{cotangent:}\quad \cot\theta = \frac{x}{y}$$

These extended definitions agree with the right-triangle definitions when the angle is acute.

Notice also that whenever the quotients are defined,

$$\tan\theta = \frac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta} \qquad \cot\theta = \frac{1}{\tan\theta}$$

$$\sec\theta = \frac{1}{\cos\theta} \qquad \csc\theta = \frac{1}{\sin\theta}$$

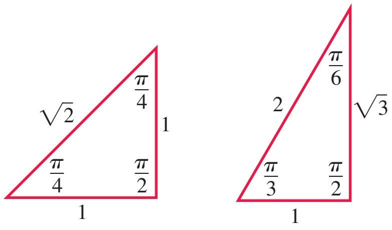


FIGURE 1.41 Radian angles and side lengths of two common triangles.

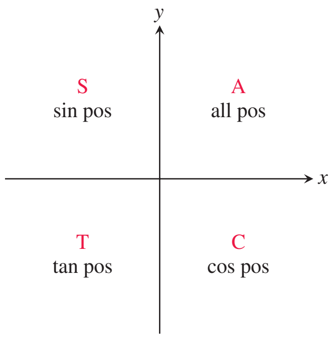


FIGURE 1.42 The ASTC rule, remembered by the statement "All Students Take Calculus," tells which trigonometric functions are positive in each quadrant.

As you can see, $\tan\theta$ and $\sec\theta$ are not defined if $x = \cos\theta = 0$. This means they are not defined if θ is $\pm\pi/2, \pm 3\pi/2, \ldots$. Similarly, $\cot\theta$ and $\csc\theta$ are not defined for values of θ for which $y = 0$, namely $\theta = 0, \pm\pi, \pm 2\pi, \ldots$.

The exact values of these trigonometric ratios for some angles can be read from the triangles in Figure 1.41. For instance,

$$\sin\frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad \sin\frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{1}{2} \qquad \sin\frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$$

$$\cos\frac{\pi}{4} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \qquad \cos\frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \qquad \cos\frac{\pi}{3} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\tan\frac{\pi}{4} = 1 \qquad \tan\frac{\pi}{6} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \qquad \tan\frac{\pi}{3} = \sqrt{3}$$

The ASTC rule (Figure 1.42) is useful for remembering when the basic trigonometric functions are positive or negative. For instance, from the triangle in Figure 1.43, we see that

$$\sin\frac{2\pi}{3} = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}, \qquad \cos\frac{2\pi}{3} = -\frac{1}{2}, \qquad \tan\frac{2\pi}{3} = -\sqrt{3}.$$

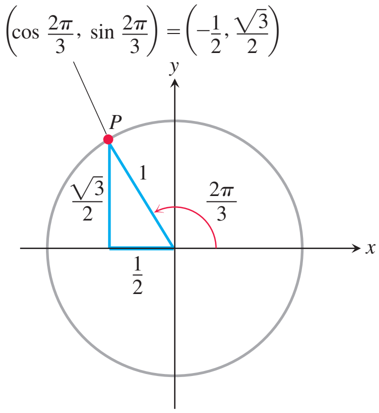


FIGURE 1.43 The triangle for calculating the sine and cosine of $2\pi/3$ radians. The side lengths come from the geometry of right triangles.

Using a similar method we obtain the values of $\sin\theta$, $\cos\theta$, and $\tan\theta$ shown in Table 1.2.

TABLE 1.2 Values of $\sin\theta$, $\cos\theta$, and $\tan\theta$ for selected values of θ

Degrees	−180	−135	−90	−45	0	30	45	60	90	120	135	150	180	270	360
θ (radians)	$-\pi$	$\frac{-3\pi}{4}$	$\frac{-\pi}{2}$	$\frac{-\pi}{4}$	0	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{2\pi}{3}$	$\frac{3\pi}{4}$	$\frac{5\pi}{6}$	π	$\frac{3\pi}{2}$	2π
$\sin\theta$	0	$\frac{-\sqrt{2}}{2}$	−1	$\frac{-\sqrt{2}}{2}$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	−1	0
$\cos\theta$	−1	$\frac{-\sqrt{2}}{2}$	0	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{-\sqrt{2}}{2}$	$\frac{-\sqrt{3}}{2}$	−1	0	1
$\tan\theta$	0	1		−1	0	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3}$	1	$\sqrt{3}$		$-\sqrt{3}$	−1	$\frac{-\sqrt{3}}{3}$	0		0

Periodicity and Graphs of the Trigonometric Functions

When an angle of measure θ and an angle of measure $\theta + 2\pi$ are in standard position, their terminal rays coincide. The two angles therefore have the same trigonometric function values: $\sin(\theta + 2\pi) = \sin\theta$, $\tan(\theta + 2\pi) = \tan\theta$, and so on. Similarly, $\cos(\theta - 2\pi) = \cos\theta$, $\sin(\theta - 2\pi) = \sin\theta$, and so on. We describe this repeating behavior by saying that the six basic trigonometric functions are *periodic*.

Periods of Trigonometric Functions

Period π: $\tan(x + \pi) = \tan x$
$\cot(x + \pi) = \cot x$

Period 2π: $\sin(x + 2\pi) = \sin x$
$\cos(x + 2\pi) = \cos x$
$\sec(x + 2\pi) = \sec x$
$\csc(x + 2\pi) = \csc x$

DEFINITION A function $f(x)$ is **periodic** if there is a positive number p such that $f(x + p) = f(x)$ for every value of x. The smallest such value of p is the **period** of f.

When we graph trigonometric functions in the coordinate plane, we usually denote the independent variable by x instead of θ. Figure 1.44 shows that the tangent and cotangent functions have period $p = \pi$, and the other four functions have period 2π. Also, the symmetries in these graphs reveal that the cosine and secant functions are even and the other four functions are odd (although this does not prove those results).

Even

$\cos(-x) = \cos x$
$\sec(-x) = \sec x$

Odd

$\sin(-x) = -\sin x$
$\tan(-x) = -\tan x$
$\csc(-x) = -\csc x$
$\cot(-x) = -\cot x$

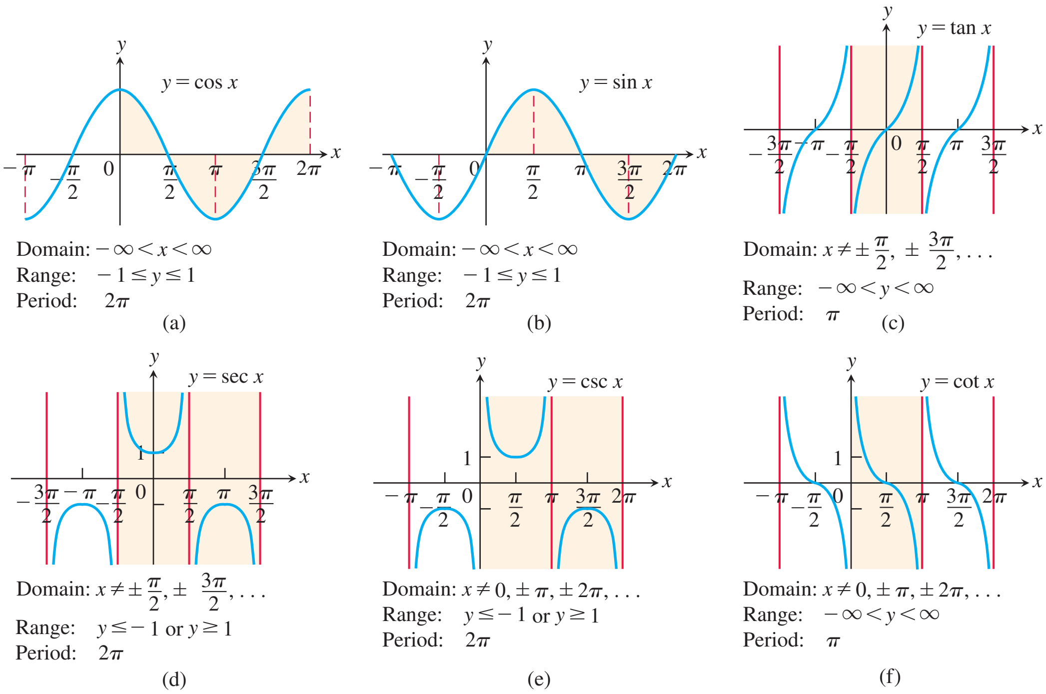


FIGURE 1.44 Graphs of the six basic trigonometric functions using radian measure. The shading for each trigonometric function indicates its periodicity.

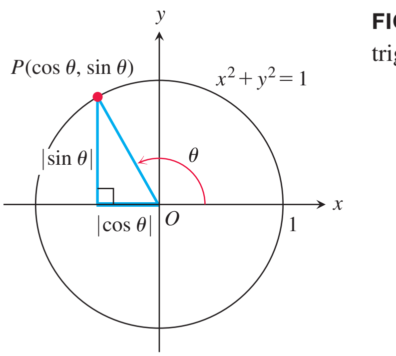


FIGURE 1.45 The reference triangle for a general angle θ.

Trigonometric Identities

The coordinates of any point $P(x, y)$ in the plane can be expressed in terms of the point's distance r from the origin and the angle θ that ray OP makes with the positive x-axis (Figure 1.40). Since $x/r = \cos\theta$ and $y/r = \sin\theta$, we have

$$x = r\cos\theta, \qquad y = r\sin\theta.$$

When $r = 1$ we can apply the Pythagorean theorem to the reference right triangle in Figure 1.45 and obtain the equation

$$\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta = 1. \tag{3}$$

This equation, true for all values of θ, is the most frequently used identity in trigonometry. Dividing this identity in turn by $\cos^2\theta$ and $\sin^2\theta$ gives

$$1 + \tan^2\theta = \sec^2\theta$$
$$1 + \cot^2\theta = \csc^2\theta$$

The following formulas hold for all angles A and B (Exercise 58).

Addition Formulas

$$\cos(A + B) = \cos A \cos B - \sin A \sin B$$
$$\sin(A + B) = \sin A \cos B + \cos A \sin B \tag{4}$$

There are similar formulas for $\cos(A - B)$ and $\sin(A - B)$ (Exercises 35 and 36). All the trigonometric identities needed in this text derive from Equations (3) and (4). For example, substituting θ for both A and B in the addition formulas gives

Double-Angle Formulas

$$\cos 2\theta = \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta$$
$$\sin 2\theta = 2\sin\theta\cos\theta \tag{5}$$

Additional formulas come from combining the equations

$$\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta = 1, \qquad \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta = \cos 2\theta.$$

We add the two equations to get $2\cos^2\theta = 1 + \cos 2\theta$ and subtract the second from the first to get $2\sin^2\theta = 1 - \cos 2\theta$. This results in the following identities, which are useful in integral calculus.

Half-Angle Formulas

$$\cos^2\theta = \frac{1 + \cos 2\theta}{2} \tag{6}$$

$$\sin^2\theta = \frac{1 - \cos 2\theta}{2} \tag{7}$$

The Law of Cosines

If a, b, and c are sides of a triangle ABC and if θ is the angle opposite c, then

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos\theta. \tag{8}$$

This equation is called the **law of cosines**.

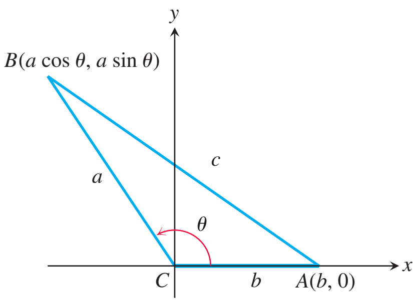


FIGURE 1.46 The square of the distance between A and B gives the law of cosines.

To see why the law holds, we position the triangle in the xy-plane with the origin at C and the positive x-axis along one side of the triangle, as in Figure 1.46. The coordinates of A are $(b, 0)$; the coordinates of B are $(a\cos\theta, a\sin\theta)$. The square of the distance between A and B is therefore

$$\begin{aligned} c^2 &= (a\cos\theta - b)^2 + (a\sin\theta)^2 \\ &= a^2\underbrace{(\cos^2\theta + \sin^2\theta)}_{1} + b^2 - 2ab\cos\theta \\ &= a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos\theta. \end{aligned}$$

The law of cosines generalizes the Pythagorean theorem. If $\theta = \pi/2$, then $\cos\theta = 0$ and $c^2 = a^2 + b^2$.

Two Special Inequalities

For any angle θ measured in radians, the sine and cosine functions satisfy

$$-|\theta| \le \sin\theta \le |\theta| \qquad \text{and} \qquad -|\theta| \le 1 - \cos\theta \le |\theta|.$$

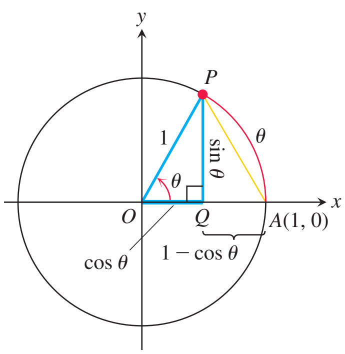


FIGURE 1.47 From the geometry of this figure, drawn for $\theta > 0$, we get the inequality $\sin^2\theta + (1 - \cos\theta)^2 \le \theta^2$.

To establish these inequalities, we picture θ as a nonzero angle in standard position (Figure 1.47). The circle in the figure is a unit circle, so $|\theta|$ equals the length of the circular arc AP. The length of line segment AP is therefore less than $|\theta|$.

Triangle APQ is a right triangle with sides of length

$$QP = |\sin\theta|, \qquad AQ = 1 - \cos\theta.$$

From the Pythagorean theorem and the fact that $AP < |\theta|$, we get

$$\sin^2\theta + (1 - \cos\theta)^2 = (AP)^2 \le \theta^2. \tag{9}$$

The terms on the left-hand side of Equation (9) are both positive, so each is smaller than their sum and hence is less than or equal to θ^2:

$$\sin^2\theta \le \theta^2 \qquad \text{and} \qquad (1 - \cos\theta)^2 \le \theta^2.$$

By taking square roots, this is equivalent to saying that

$$|\sin\theta| \le |\theta| \qquad \text{and} \qquad |1 - \cos\theta| \le |\theta|,$$

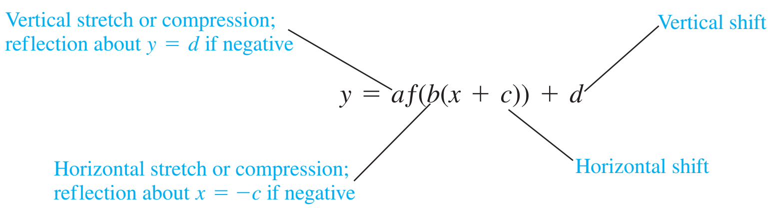
so

$$-|\theta| \le \sin\theta \le |\theta| \qquad \text{and} \qquad -|\theta| \le 1 - \cos\theta \le |\theta|.$$

These inequalities will be useful in the next chapter.

Transformations of Trigonometric Graphs

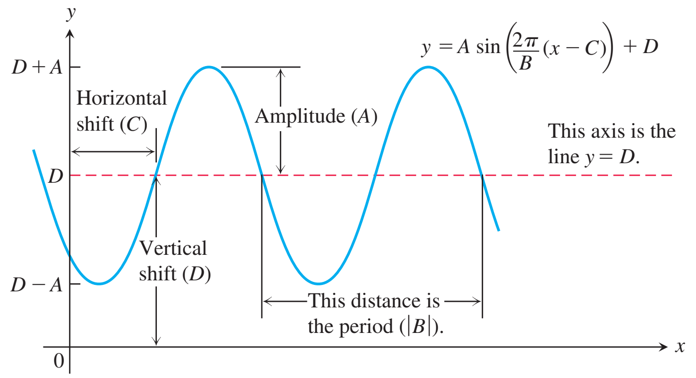
The rules for shifting, stretching, compressing, and reflecting the graph of a function summarized in the following diagram apply to the trigonometric functions we have discussed in this section.



The transformation rules applied to the sine function give the **general sine function** or **sinusoid** formula

$$f(x) = A \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{B}(x - C)\right) + D,$$

where $|A|$ is the *amplitude*, $|B|$ is the *period*, C is the *horizontal shift*, and D is the *vertical shift*. A graphical interpretation of the various terms is given below.



EXERCISES 1.3

Radians and Degrees

1. On a circle of radius 10 m, how long is an arc that subtends a central angle of (**a**) $4\pi/5$ radians? (**b**) 110°?
2. A central angle in a circle of radius 8 is subtended by an arc of length 10π. Find the angle's radian and degree measures.
3. You want to make an 80° angle by marking an arc on the perimeter of a 12-cm-diameter disk and drawing lines from the ends of the arc to the disk's center. To the nearest millimeter, how long should the arc be?
4. If you roll a 1-m-diameter wheel forward 30 cm over level ground, through what angle will the wheel turn? Answer in radians (to the nearest tenth) and degrees (to the nearest degree).

Evaluating Trigonometric Functions

5. Copy and complete the following table of function values. If the function is undefined at a given angle, enter "UND." Do not use a calculator or tables.

$\boldsymbol{\theta}$	$-\pi$	$-2\pi/3$	0	$\pi/2$	$3\pi/4$
$\sin\theta$					
$\cos\theta$					
$\tan\theta$					
$\cot\theta$					
$\sec\theta$					
$\csc\theta$					

6. Copy and complete the following table of function values. If the function is undefined at a given angle, enter "UND." Do not use a calculator or tables.

$\boldsymbol{\theta}$	$-3\pi/2$	$-\pi/3$	$-\pi/6$	$\pi/4$	$5\pi/6$
$\sin\theta$					
$\cos\theta$					
$\tan\theta$					
$\cot\theta$					
$\sec\theta$					
$\csc\theta$					

In Exercises 7–12, one of $\sin x$, $\cos x$, and $\tan x$ is given. Find the other two if x lies in the specified interval.

7. $\sin x = \frac{3}{5}, \quad x \in \left[\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi\right]$
8. $\tan x = 2, \quad x \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$
9. $\cos x = \frac{1}{3}, \quad x \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0\right]$
10. $\cos x = -\frac{5}{13}, \quad x \in \left[\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi\right]$
11. $\tan x = \frac{1}{2}, \quad x \in \left[\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right]$
12. $\sin x = -\frac{1}{2}, \quad x \in \left[\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right]$

Graphing Trigonometric Functions

Graph the functions in Exercises 13–22. What is the period of each function?

13. $\sin 2x$
14. $\sin(x/2)$
15. $\cos \pi x$
16. $\cos \frac{\pi x}{2}$
17. $-\sin \frac{\pi x}{3}$
18. $-\cos 2\pi x$
19. $\cos\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$
20. $\sin\left(x + \frac{\pi}{6}\right)$

21. $\sin\left(x - \frac{\pi}{4}\right) + 1$ **22.** $\cos\left(x + \frac{2\pi}{3}\right) - 2$

Graph the functions in Exercises 23–26 in the *ts*-plane (*t*-axis horizontal, *s*-axis vertical). What is the period of each function? What symmetries do the graphs have?

23. $s = \cot 2t$ **24.** $s = -\tan \pi t$

25. $s = \sec\left(\frac{\pi t}{2}\right)$ **26.** $s = \csc\left(\frac{t}{2}\right)$

T **27. a.** Graph $y = \cos x$ and $y = \sec x$ together for $-3\pi/2 \le x \le 3\pi/2$. Comment on the behavior of $\sec x$ in relation to the signs and values of $\cos x$.

b. Graph $y = \sin x$ and $y = \csc x$ together for $-\pi \le x \le 2\pi$. Comment on the behavior of $\csc x$ in relation to the signs and values of $\sin x$.

T **28.** Graph $y = \tan x$ and $y = \cot x$ together for $-7 \le x \le 7$. Comment on the behavior of $\cot x$ in relation to the signs and values of $\tan x$.

29. Graph $y = \sin x$ and $y = \lfloor \sin x \rfloor$ together. What are the domain and range of $\lfloor \sin x \rfloor$?

30. Graph $y = \sin x$ and $y = \lceil \sin x \rceil$ together. What are the domain and range of $\lceil \sin x \rceil$?

Using the Addition Formulas

Use the addition formulas to derive the identities in Exercises 31–36.

31. $\cos\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \sin x$ **32.** $\cos\left(x + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\sin x$

33. $\sin\left(x + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \cos x$ **34.** $\sin\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\cos x$

35. $\cos(A - B) = \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B$ (Exercise 57 provides a different derivation.)

36. $\sin(A - B) = \sin A \cos B - \cos A \sin B$

37. What happens if you take $B = A$ in the trigonometric identity $\cos(A - B) = \cos A \cos B + \sin A \sin B$? Does the result agree with something you already know?

38. What happens if you take $B = 2\pi$ in the addition formulas? Do the results agree with something you already know?

In Exercises 39–42, express the given quantity in terms of $\sin x$ and $\cos x$.

39. $\cos(\pi + x)$ **40.** $\sin(2\pi - x)$

41. $\sin\left(\frac{3\pi}{2} - x\right)$ **42.** $\cos\left(\frac{3\pi}{2} + x\right)$

43. Evaluate $\sin \frac{7\pi}{12}$ as $\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{\pi}{3}\right)$.

44. Evaluate $\cos \frac{11\pi}{12}$ as $\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{4} + \frac{2\pi}{3}\right)$.

45. Evaluate $\cos \frac{\pi}{12}$. **46.** Evaluate $\sin \frac{5\pi}{12}$.

Using the Half-Angle Formulas

Find the function values in Exercises 47–50.

47. $\cos^2 \frac{\pi}{8}$ **48.** $\cos^2 \frac{5\pi}{12}$

49. $\sin^2 \frac{\pi}{12}$ **50.** $\sin^2 \frac{3\pi}{8}$

Solving Trigonometric Equations

For Exercises 51–54, solve for the angle θ, where $0 \le \theta \le 2\pi$.

51. $\sin^2 \theta = \frac{3}{4}$ **52.** $\sin^2 \theta = \cos^2 \theta$

53. $\sin 2\theta - \cos \theta = 0$ **54.** $\cos 2\theta + \cos \theta = 0$

Theory and Examples

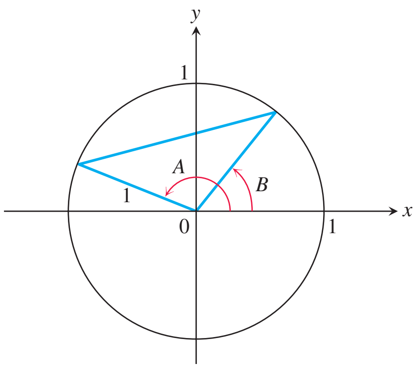
55. The tangent sum formula The standard formula for the tangent of the sum of two angles is

$$\tan(A + B) = \frac{\tan A + \tan B}{1 - \tan A \tan B}.$$

Derive the formula.

56. (*Continuation of Exercise 55.*) Derive a formula for $\tan(A - B)$.

57. Apply the law of cosines to the triangle in the accompanying figure to derive the formula for $\cos(A - B)$.



58. a. Apply the formula for $\cos(A - B)$ to the identity $\sin\theta = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - \theta\right)$ to obtain the addition formula for $\sin(A + B)$.

b. Derive the formula for $\cos(A + B)$ by substituting $-B$ for B in the formula for $\cos(A - B)$ from Exercise 35.

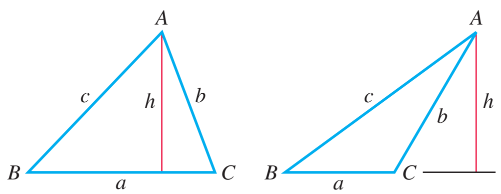
59. A triangle has sides $a = 2$ and $b = 3$ and angle $C = 60°$. Find the length of side c.

60. A triangle has sides $a = 2$ and $b = 3$ and angle $C = 40°$. Find the length of side c.

61. The law of sines The law of sines says that if a, b, and c are the sides opposite the angles A, B, and C in a triangle, then

$$\frac{\sin A}{a} = \frac{\sin B}{b} = \frac{\sin C}{c}.$$

Use the accompanying figures and the identity $\sin(\pi - \theta) = \sin\theta$, if required, to derive the law.

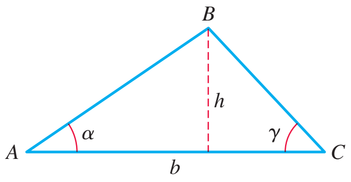


62. A triangle has sides $a = 2$ and $b = 3$ and angle $C = 60°$ (as in Exercise 59). Find the sine of angle B using the law of sines.

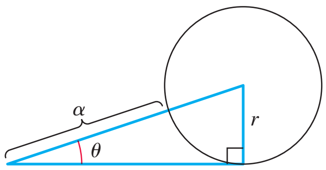
63. A triangle has side $c = 2$ and angles $A = \pi/4$ and $B = \pi/3$. Find the length a of the side opposite A.

64. Consider the length h of the perpendicular from point B to side b in the given triangle. Show that

$$h = \frac{b \tan \alpha \tan \gamma}{\tan \alpha + \tan \gamma}$$



65. Refer to the given figure. Write the radius r of the circle in terms of α and θ.



T **66. The approximation $\sin x \approx x$** It is often useful to know that, when x is measured in radians, $\sin x \approx x$ for numerically small values of x. In Section 3.11, we will see why the approximation holds. The approximation error is less than 1 in 5000 if $|x| < 0.1$.

a. With your grapher in radian mode, graph $y = \sin x$ and $y = x$ together in a viewing window about the origin. What do you see happening as x nears the origin?

b. With your grapher in degree mode, graph $y = \sin x$ and $y = x$ together about the origin again. How is the picture different from the one obtained with radian mode?

General Sine Curves

For

$$f(x) = A \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{B}(x - C)\right) + D,$$

identify A, B, C, and D for the sine functions in Exercises 67–70 and sketch their graphs.

67. $y = 2\sin(x + \pi) - 1$

68. $y = \frac{1}{2}\sin(\pi x - \pi) + \frac{1}{2}$

69. $y = -\frac{2}{\pi}\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}t\right) + \frac{1}{\pi}$

70. $y = \frac{L}{2\pi}\sin\frac{2\pi t}{L}, \quad L > 0$

COMPUTER EXPLORATIONS

In Exercises 71–74, you will explore graphically the general sine function

$$f(x) = A \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{B}(x - C)\right) + D$$

as you change the values of the constants A, B, C, and D. Use a CAS or computer grapher to perform the steps in the exercises.

71. The period B Set the constants $A = 3$, $C = D = 0$.

a. Plot $f(x)$ for the values $B = 1, 3, 2\pi, 5\pi$ over the interval $-4\pi \le x \le 4\pi$. Describe what happens to the graph of the general sine function as the period increases.

b. What happens to the graph for negative values of B? Try it with $B = -3$ and $B = -2\pi$.

72. The horizontal shift C Set the constants $A = 3$, $B = 6$, $D = 0$.

a. Plot $f(x)$ for the values $C = 0$, 1, and 2 over the interval $-4\pi \le x \le 4\pi$. Describe what happens to the graph of the general sine function as C increases through positive values.

b. What happens to the graph for negative values of C?

c. What smallest positive value should be assigned to C so the graph exhibits no horizontal shift? Confirm your answer with a plot.

73. The vertical shift D Set the constants $A = 3$, $B = 6$, $C = 0$.

a. Plot $f(x)$ for the values $D = 0$, 1, and 3 over the interval $-4\pi \le x \le 4\pi$. Describe what happens to the graph of the general sine function as D increases through positive values.

b. What happens to the graph for negative values of D?

74. The amplitude A Set the constants $B = 6$, $C = D = 0$.

a. Describe what happens to the graph of the general sine function as A increases through positive values. Confirm your answer by plotting $f(x)$ for the values $A = 1$, 5, and 9.

b. What happens to the graph for negative values of A?

1.4 Graphing with Software

Many computers, calculators, and smartphones have graphing applications that enable us to graph very complicated functions with high precision. Many of these functions could not otherwise be easily graphed. However, some care must be taken when using such graphing software, and in this section we address some of the issues that can arise. In Chapter 4 we will see how calculus helps us determine that we are accurately viewing the important features of a function's graph.

Graphing Windows

When software is used for graphing, a portion of the graph is visible in a **display** or **viewing window**. Depending on the software, the default window may give an incomplete or misleading picture of the graph. We use the term *square window* when the units or