

The background of the cover features a dark, high-contrast image of a violin, with its body and f-hole visible on the right side. On the left side, there is a white line drawing of a violin's internal structure, including the bridge, sound holes, and strings. Overlaid on this diagram are several white circles of varying sizes, each containing a plus sign (+). These circles are connected by thin white lines, creating a network-like pattern. The overall design is a blend of musical and mathematical themes.

JAMES STEWART CALCULUS

EIGHTH EDITION

Single Variable Calculus
Early Transcendentals

SINGLE VARIABLE
CALCULUS
EARLY TRANSCENDENTALS
EIGHTH EDITION

SINGLE VARIABLE
CALCULUS
EARLY TRANSCENDENTALS
EIGHTH EDITION

JAMES STEWART

McMASTER UNIVERSITY
AND
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Eighth Edition**

James Stewart

Product Manager: Neha Taleja

Senior Content Developer: Stacy Green

Associate Content Developer: Samantha Lugtu

Product Assistant: Stephanie Kreuz

Media Developer: Guanglei Zhang

Marketing Manager: Ryan Ahern

Content Project Manager: Cheryll Linthicum

Art Director: Vernon Boes

Manufacturing Planner: Becky Cross

Production Service: TECHarts

Photo and Text Researcher: Lumina Datamatics

Copy Editor: Kathi Townes, TECHarts

Illustrator: TECHarts

Text Designer: Diane Beasley

Cover Designer: Irene Morris, Morris Design

Compositor: Stephanie Kuhns, Kristina Elliott,
and Kira Abdallah, TECHartsCover Image: elisanth / 123RF, tharrison / iStock
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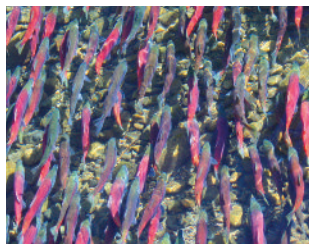
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Preface

A great discovery solves a great problem but there is a grain of discovery in the solution of any problem. Your problem may be modest; but if it challenges your curiosity and brings into play your inventive faculties, and if you solve it by your own means, you may experience the tension and enjoy the triumph of discovery.

GEORGE POLYA

The art of teaching, Mark Van Doren said, is the art of assisting discovery. I have tried to write a book that assists students in discovering calculus—both for its practical power and its surprising beauty. In this edition, as in the first seven editions, I aim to convey to the student a sense of the utility of calculus and develop technical competence, but I also strive to give some appreciation for the intrinsic beauty of the subject. Newton undoubtedly experienced a sense of triumph when he made his great discoveries. I want students to share some of that excitement.

The emphasis is on understanding concepts. I think that nearly everybody agrees that this should be the primary goal of calculus instruction. In fact, the impetus for the current calculus reform movement came from the Tulane Conference in 1986, which formulated as their first recommendation:

Focus on conceptual understanding.

I have tried to implement this goal through the *Rule of Three*: “Topics should be presented geometrically, numerically, and algebraically.” Visualization, numerical and graphical experimentation, and other approaches have changed how we teach conceptual reasoning in fundamental ways. More recently, the Rule of Three has been expanded to become the *Rule of Four* by emphasizing the verbal, or descriptive, point of view as well.

In writing the eighth edition my premise has been that it is possible to achieve conceptual understanding and still retain the best traditions of traditional calculus. The book contains elements of reform, but within the context of a traditional curriculum.

Alternate Versions

I have written several other calculus textbooks that might be preferable for some instructors. Most of them also come in single variable and multivariable versions.

- *Calculus*, Eighth Edition, is similar to the present textbook except that the exponential, logarithmic, and inverse trigonometric functions are covered in the second semester.
- *Essential Calculus*, Second Edition, is a much briefer book (840 pages), though it contains almost all of the topics in *Calculus*, Eighth Edition. The relative brevity is achieved through briefer exposition of some topics and putting some features on the website.
- *Essential Calculus: Early Transcendentals*, Second Edition, resembles *Essential Calculus*, but the exponential, logarithmic, and inverse trigonometric functions are covered in Chapter 3.

- *Calculus: Concepts and Contexts*, Fourth Edition, emphasizes conceptual understanding even more strongly than this book. The coverage of topics is not encyclopedic and the material on transcendental functions and on parametric equations is woven throughout the book instead of being treated in separate chapters.
- *Calculus: Early Vectors* introduces vectors and vector functions in the first semester and integrates them throughout the book. It is suitable for students taking engineering and physics courses concurrently with calculus.
- *Brief Applied Calculus* is intended for students in business, the social sciences, and the life sciences.
- *Biocalculus: Calculus for the Life Sciences* is intended to show students in the life sciences how calculus relates to biology.
- *Biocalculus: Calculus, Probability, and Statistics for the Life Sciences* contains all the content of *Biocalculus: Calculus for the Life Sciences* as well as three additional chapters on probability and statistics.

What's New in the Eighth Edition?

The changes have resulted from talking with my colleagues and students at the University of Toronto and from reading journals, as well as suggestions from users and reviewers. Here are some of the many improvements that I've incorporated into this edition:

- The data in examples and exercises have been updated to be more timely.
- New examples have been added (see Examples 6.1.5 and 11.2.5, for instance). And the solutions to some of the existing examples have been amplified.
- Two new projects have been added: The project *Controlling Red Blood Cell Loss During Surgery* (page 244) describes the ANH procedure, in which blood is extracted from the patient before an operation and is replaced by saline solution. This dilutes the patient's blood so that fewer red blood cells are lost during bleeding and the extracted blood is returned to the patient after surgery. The project *Planes and Birds: Minimizing Energy* (page 344) asks how birds can minimize power and energy by flapping their wings versus gliding.
- More than 20% of the exercises in each chapter are new. Here are some of my favorites: 2.7.61, 2.8.36–38, 3.1.79–80, 3.11.54, 4.1.69, 4.3.34, 4.3.66, 4.4.80, 4.7.39, 4.7.67, 5.1.19–20, 5.2.67–68, 5.4.70, 6.1.51, and 8.1.39. In addition, there are some good new Problems Plus. (See Problems 12–14 on page 272, Problem 13 on page 363, and Problems 16–17 on page 426.)

Features

■ Conceptual Exercises

The most important way to foster conceptual understanding is through the problems that we assign. To that end I have devised various types of problems. Some exercise sets begin with requests to explain the meanings of the basic concepts of the section. (See, for instance, the first few exercises in Sections 2.2, 2.5, and 11.2.) Similarly, all the review sections begin with a Concept Check and a True-False Quiz. Other exercises test conceptual understanding through graphs or tables (see Exercises 2.7.17, 2.8.35–38, 2.8.47–52, 9.1.11–13, 10.1.24–27, and 11.10.2).

Another type of exercise uses verbal description to test conceptual understanding (see Exercises 2.5.10, 2.8.66, 4.3.69–70, and 7.8.67). I particularly value problems that combine and compare graphical, numerical, and algebraic approaches (see Exercises 2.6.45–46, 3.7.27, and 9.4.4).

■ Graded Exercise Sets

Each exercise set is carefully graded, progressing from basic conceptual exercises and skill-development problems to more challenging problems involving applications and proofs.

■ Real-World Data

My assistants and I spent a great deal of time looking in libraries, contacting companies and government agencies, and searching the Internet for interesting real-world data to introduce, motivate, and illustrate the concepts of calculus. As a result, many of the examples and exercises deal with functions defined by such numerical data or graphs. See, for instance, Figure 1 in Section 1.1 (seismograms from the Northridge earthquake), Exercise 2.8.35 (unemployment rates), Exercise 5.1.16 (velocity of the space shuttle *Endeavour*), and Figure 4 in Section 5.4 (San Francisco power consumption).

■ Projects



One way of involving students and making them active learners is to have them work (perhaps in groups) on extended projects that give a feeling of substantial accomplishment when completed. I have included four kinds of projects: *Applied Projects* involve applications that are designed to appeal to the imagination of students. The project after Section 9.3 asks whether a ball thrown upward takes longer to reach its maximum height or to fall back to its original height. (The answer might surprise you.) *Laboratory Projects* involve technology; the one following Section 10.2 shows how to use Bézier curves to design shapes that represent letters for a laser printer. *Writing Projects* ask students to compare present-day methods with those of the founders of calculus—Fermat’s method for finding tangents, for instance. Suggested references are supplied. *Discovery Projects* anticipate results to be discussed later or encourage discovery through pattern recognition (see the one following Section 7.6). Additional projects can be found in the *Instructor’s Guide* (see, for instance, Group Exercise 5.1: Position from Samples).

■ Problem Solving

Students usually have difficulties with problems for which there is no single well-defined procedure for obtaining the answer. I think nobody has improved very much on George Polya’s four-stage problem-solving strategy and, accordingly, I have included a version of his problem-solving principles following Chapter 1. They are applied, both explicitly and implicitly, throughout the book. After the other chapters I have placed sections called *Problems Plus*, which feature examples of how to tackle challenging calculus problems. In selecting the varied problems for these sections I kept in mind the following advice from David Hilbert: “A mathematical problem should be difficult in order to entice us, yet not inaccessible lest it mock our efforts.” When I put these challenging problems on assignments and tests I grade them in a different way. Here I reward a student significantly for ideas toward a solution and for recognizing which problem-solving principles are relevant.

■ Technology

The availability of technology makes it not less important but more important to clearly understand the concepts that underlie the images on the screen. But, when properly used,

graphing calculators and computers are powerful tools for discovering and understanding those concepts. This textbook can be used either with or without technology and I use two special symbols to indicate clearly when a particular type of machine is required. The icon  indicates an exercise that definitely requires the use of such technology, but that is not to say that it can't be used on the other exercises as well. The symbol  is reserved for problems in which the full resources of a computer algebra system (like Maple, Mathematica, or the TI-89) are required. But technology doesn't make pencil and paper obsolete. Hand calculation and sketches are often preferable to technology for illustrating and reinforcing some concepts. Both instructors and students need to develop the ability to decide where the hand or the machine is appropriate.

■ Tools for Enriching Calculus

TEC is a companion to the text and is intended to enrich and complement its contents. (It is now accessible in the eBook via CourseMate and Enhanced WebAssign. Selected Visuals and Modules are available at www.stewartcalculus.com.) Developed by Harvey Keynes, Dan Clegg, Hubert Hohn, and myself, TEC uses a discovery and exploratory approach. In sections of the book where technology is particularly appropriate, marginal icons direct students to TEC Modules that provide a laboratory environment in which they can explore the topic in different ways and at different levels. **Visuals are animations of figures in text; Modules are more elaborate activities and include exercises.** Instructors can choose to become involved at several different levels, ranging from simply encouraging students to use the Visuals and Modules for independent exploration, to assigning specific exercises from those included with each Module, or to creating additional exercises, labs, and projects that make use of the Visuals and Modules.

TEC also includes Homework Hints for representative exercises (usually odd-numbered) in every section of the text, indicated by printing the exercise number in red. These hints are usually presented in the form of questions and try to imitate an effective teaching assistant by functioning as a silent tutor. They are constructed so as not to reveal any more of the actual solution than is minimally necessary to make further progress.

■ Enhanced WebAssign

Technology is having an impact on the way homework is assigned to students, particularly in large classes. The use of online homework is growing and its appeal depends on ease of use, grading precision, and reliability. With the Eighth Edition we have been working with the calculus community and WebAssign to develop an online homework system. Up to 70% of the exercises in each section are assignable as online homework, including free response, multiple choice, and multi-part formats.

The system also includes Active Examples, in which students are guided in step-by-step tutorials through text examples, with links to the textbook and to video solutions.

■ Website

Visit CengageBrain.com or stewartcalculus.com for these additional materials:

- Homework Hints
- Algebra Review
- Lies My Calculator and Computer Told Me
- History of Mathematics, with links to the better historical websites
- Additional Topics (complete with exercise sets): Fourier Series, Formulas for the Remainder Term in Taylor Series, Rotation of Axes

- Archived Problems (Drill exercises that appeared in previous editions, together with their solutions)
- Challenge Problems (some from the Problems Plus sections from prior editions)
- Links, for particular topics, to outside Web resources
- Selected Visuals and Modules from Tools for Enriching Calculus (TEC)

Content

Diagnostic Tests	The book begins with four diagnostic tests, in Basic Algebra, Analytic Geometry, Functions, and Trigonometry.
A Preview of Calculus	This is an overview of the subject and includes a list of questions to motivate the study of calculus.
1 Functions and Models	From the beginning, multiple representations of functions are stressed: verbal, numerical, visual, and algebraic. A discussion of mathematical models leads to a review of the standard functions, including exponential and logarithmic functions, from these four points of view.
2 Limits and Derivatives	The material on limits is motivated by a prior discussion of the tangent and velocity problems. Limits are treated from descriptive, graphical, numerical, and algebraic points of view. Section 2.4, on the precise definition of a limit, is an optional section. Sections 2.7 and 2.8 deal with derivatives (especially with functions defined graphically and numerically) before the differentiation rules are covered in Chapter 3. Here the examples and exercises explore the meanings of derivatives in various contexts. Higher derivatives are introduced in Section 2.8.
3 Differentiation Rules	All the basic functions, including exponential, logarithmic, and inverse trigonometric functions, are differentiated here. When derivatives are computed in applied situations, students are asked to explain their meanings. Exponential growth and decay are now covered in this chapter.
4 Applications of Differentiation	The basic facts concerning extreme values and shapes of curves are deduced from the Mean Value Theorem. Graphing with technology emphasizes the interaction between calculus and calculators and the analysis of families of curves. Some substantial optimization problems are provided, including an explanation of why you need to raise your head 42° to see the top of a rainbow.
5 Integrals	The area problem and the distance problem serve to motivate the definite integral, with sigma notation introduced as needed. (Full coverage of sigma notation is provided in Appendix E.) Emphasis is placed on explaining the meanings of integrals in various contexts and on estimating their values from graphs and tables.
6 Applications of Integration	Here I present the applications of integration—area, volume, work, average value—that can reasonably be done without specialized techniques of integration. General methods are emphasized. The goal is for students to be able to divide a quantity into small pieces, estimate with Riemann sums, and recognize the limit as an integral.

7 Techniques of Integration

All the standard methods are covered but, of course, the real challenge is to be able to recognize which technique is best used in a given situation. Accordingly, in Section 7.5, I present a strategy for integration. The use of computer algebra systems is discussed in Section 7.6.

8 Further Applications of Integration

Here are the applications of integration—arc length and surface area—for which it is useful to have available all the techniques of integration, as well as applications to biology, economics, and physics (hydrostatic force and centers of mass). I have also included a section on probability. There are more applications here than can realistically be covered in a given course. Instructors should select applications suitable for their students and for which they themselves have enthusiasm.

9 Differential Equations

Modeling is the theme that unifies this introductory treatment of differential equations. Direction fields and Euler's method are studied before separable and linear equations are solved explicitly, so that qualitative, numerical, and analytic approaches are given equal consideration. These methods are applied to the exponential, logistic, and other models for population growth. The first four or five sections of this chapter serve as a good introduction to first-order differential equations. An optional final section uses predator-prey models to illustrate systems of differential equations.

10 Parametric Equations and Polar Coordinates

This chapter introduces parametric and polar curves and applies the methods of calculus to them. Parametric curves are well suited to laboratory projects; the two presented here involve families of curves and Bézier curves. A brief treatment of conic sections in polar coordinates prepares the way for Kepler's Laws in Chapter 13.

11 Infinite Sequences and Series

The convergence tests have intuitive justifications (see page 719) as well as formal proofs. Numerical estimates of sums of series are based on which test was used to prove convergence. The emphasis is on Taylor series and polynomials and their applications to physics. Error estimates include those from graphing devices.

Ancillaries

Single Variable Calculus, Early Transcendentals, Eighth Edition, is supported by a complete set of ancillaries developed under my direction. Each piece has been designed to enhance student understanding and to facilitate creative instruction. The tables on pages xx–xxi describe each of these ancillaries.

Acknowledgments

The preparation of this and previous editions has involved much time spent reading the reasoned (but sometimes contradictory) advice from a large number of astute reviewers. I greatly appreciate the time they spent to understand my motivation for the approach taken. I have learned something from each of them.

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To the Student


Reading a calculus textbook is different from reading a newspaper or a novel, or even a physics book. Don't be discouraged if you have to read a passage more than once in order to understand it. You should have pencil and paper and calculator at hand to sketch a diagram or make a calculation.


Some students start by trying their homework problems and read the text only if they get stuck on an exercise. I suggest that a far better plan is to read and understand a section of the text before attempting the exercises. In particular, you should look at the definitions to see the exact meanings of the terms. And before you read each example, I suggest that you cover up the solution and try solving the problem yourself. You'll get a lot more from looking at the solution if you do so.

Part of the aim of this course is to train you to think logically. Learn to write the solutions of the exercises in a connected, step-by-step fashion with explanatory sentences—not just a string of disconnected equations or formulas.

The answers to the odd-numbered exercises appear at the back of the book, in Appendix I. Some exercises ask for a verbal explanation or interpretation or description. In such cases there is no single correct way of expressing the answer, so don't worry that you haven't found the definitive answer. In addition, there are often several different forms in which to express a numerical or algebraic answer, so if your answer differs from mine, don't immediately assume you're wrong. For example, if the answer given in the back of the book is $\sqrt{2} - 1$ and you obtain $1/(1 + \sqrt{2})$, then you're right and rationalizing the denominator will show that the answers are equivalent.

The icon  indicates an exercise that definitely requires the use of either a graphing calculator or a computer with graphing software. But that doesn't mean that graphing devices can't be used to check your work on the other exercises as well. The symbol  is reserved for problems in which the full resources of a computer algebra system (like Maple, Mathematica, or the TI-89) are required.

You will also encounter the symbol , which warns you against committing an error. I have placed this symbol in the margin in situations where I have observed that a large proportion of my students tend to make the same mistake.

Tools for Enriching Calculus, which is a companion to this text, is referred to by means of the symbol  and can be accessed in the eBook via Enhanced WebAssign and CourseMate (selected Visuals and Modules are available at www.stewartcalculus.com). It directs you to modules in which you can explore aspects of calculus for which the computer is particularly useful.

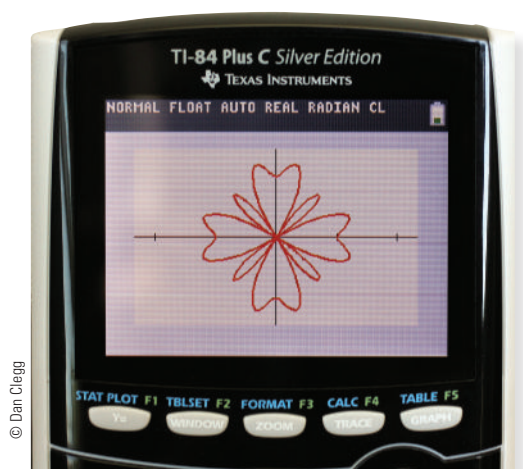
You will notice that some exercise numbers are printed in red: 5. This indicates that *Homework Hints* are available for the exercise. These hints can be found on stewartcalculus.com as well as Enhanced WebAssign and CourseMate. The homework hints ask you questions that allow you to make progress toward a solution without actually giving you the answer. You need to pursue each hint in an active manner with pencil and paper to work out the details. If a particular hint doesn't enable you to solve the problem, you can click to reveal the next hint.

I recommend that you keep this book for reference purposes after you finish the course. Because you will likely forget some of the specific details of calculus, the book will serve as a useful reminder when you need to use calculus in subsequent courses. And, because this book contains more material than can be covered in any one course, it can also serve as a valuable resource for a working scientist or engineer.


Calculus is an exciting subject, justly considered to be one of the greatest achievements of the human intellect. I hope you will discover that it is not only useful but also intrinsically beautiful.

JAMES STEWART

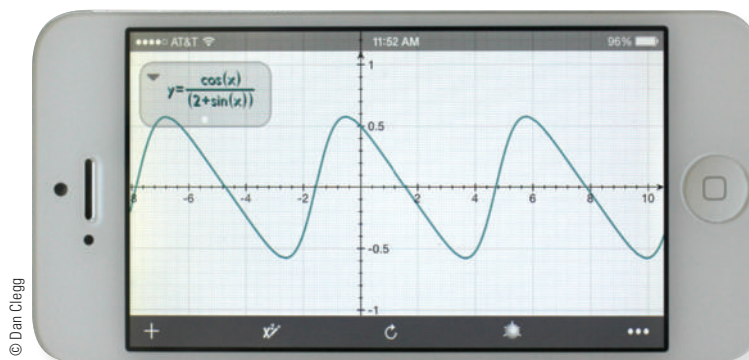
Calculators, Computers, and Other Graphing Devices

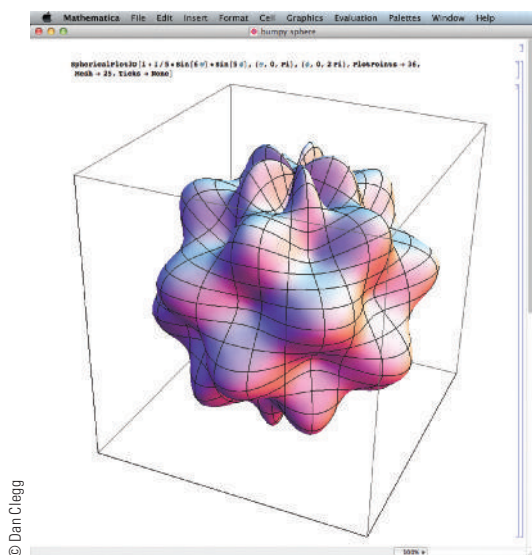


Advances in technology continue to bring a wider variety of tools for doing mathematics. Handheld calculators are becoming more powerful, as are software programs and Internet resources. In addition, many mathematical applications have been released for smartphones and tablets such as the iPad.

Some exercises in this text are marked with a graphing icon , which indicates that the use of some technology is required. Often this means that we intend for a graphing device to be used in drawing the graph of a function or equation. You might also need technology to find the zeros of a graph or the points of intersection of two graphs. In some cases we will use a calculating device to solve an equation or evaluate a definite integral numerically. Many scientific and graphing calculators have these features built in, such as the Texas Instruments TI-84 or TI-Nspire CX. Similar calculators are made by Hewlett Packard, Casio, and Sharp.

You can also use computer software such as *Graphing Calculator* by Pacific Tech (www.pacifict.com) to perform many of these functions, as well as apps for phones and tablets, like Quick Graph (Colombiamug) or MathStudio (Pomegranate Apps). Similar functionality is available using a web interface at WolframAlpha.com.



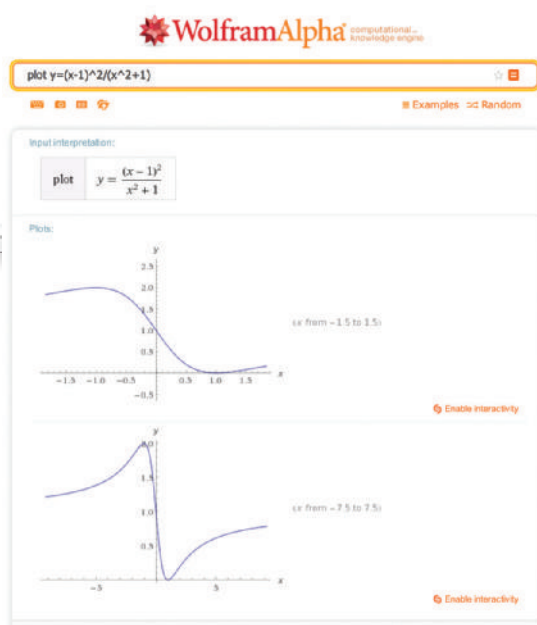
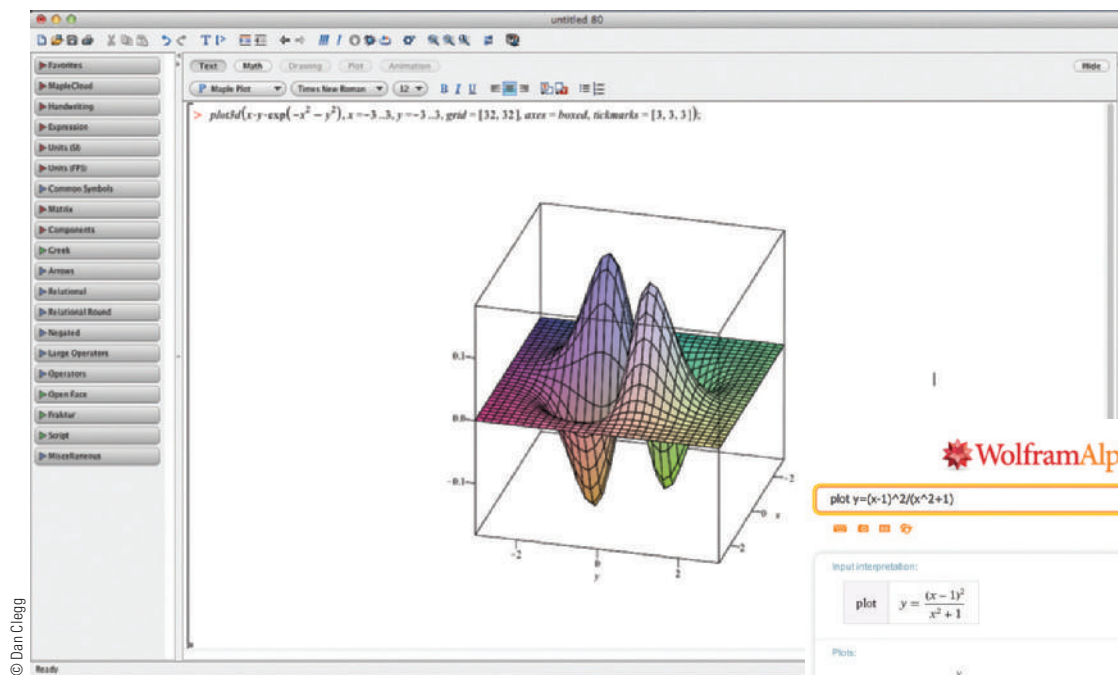


In general, when we use the term “calculator” in this book, we mean the use of any of the resources we have mentioned.

The **CAS** icon is reserved for problems in which the full resources of a *computer algebra system* (CAS) are required. A CAS is capable of doing mathematics (like solving equations, computing derivatives or integrals) *symbolically* rather than just numerically.

Examples of well-established computer algebra systems are the computer software packages Maple and Mathematica. The WolframAlpha website uses the Mathematica engine to provide CAS functionality via the Web.

Many handheld graphing calculators have CAS capabilities, such as the TI-89 and TI-Nspire CX CAS from Texas Instruments. Some tablet and smartphone apps also provide these capabilities, such as the previously mentioned MathStudio.



Diagnostic Tests

Success in calculus depends to a large extent on knowledge of the mathematics that precedes calculus: algebra, analytic geometry, functions, and trigonometry. The following tests are intended to diagnose weaknesses that you might have in these areas. After taking each test you can check your answers against the given answers and, if necessary, refresh your skills by referring to the review materials that are provided.

A Diagnostic Test: Algebra

1. Evaluate each expression without using a calculator.

- (a) $(-3)^4$ (b) -3^4 (c) 3^{-4}
(d) $\frac{5^{23}}{5^{21}}$ (e) $\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)^{-2}$ (f) $16^{-3/4}$

2. Simplify each expression. Write your answer without negative exponents.

- (a) $\sqrt{200} - \sqrt{32}$
(b) $(3a^3b^3)(4ab^2)^2$
(c) $\left(\frac{3x^{3/2}y^3}{x^2y^{-1/2}}\right)^{-2}$

3. Expand and simplify.

- (a) $3(x + 6) + 4(2x - 5)$ (b) $(x + 3)(4x - 5)$
(c) $(\sqrt{a} + \sqrt{b})(\sqrt{a} - \sqrt{b})$ (d) $(2x + 3)^2$
(e) $(x + 2)^3$

4. Factor each expression.

- (a) $4x^2 - 25$ (b) $2x^2 + 5x - 12$
(c) $x^3 - 3x^2 - 4x + 12$ (d) $x^4 + 27x$
(e) $3x^{3/2} - 9x^{1/2} + 6x^{-1/2}$ (f) $x^3y - 4xy$

5. Simplify the rational expression.

- (a) $\frac{x^2 + 3x + 2}{x^2 - x - 2}$ (b) $\frac{2x^2 - x - 1}{x^2 - 9} \cdot \frac{x + 3}{2x + 1}$
(c) $\frac{x^2}{x^2 - 4} - \frac{x + 1}{x + 2}$ (d) $\frac{\frac{y}{x} - \frac{x}{y}}{\frac{1}{y} - \frac{1}{x}}$

6. Rationalize the expression and simplify.

(a) $\frac{\sqrt{10}}{\sqrt{5} - 2}$

(b) $\frac{\sqrt{4+h} - 2}{h}$

7. Rewrite by completing the square.

(a) $x^2 + x + 1$

(b) $2x^2 - 12x + 11$

8. Solve the equation. (Find only the real solutions.)

(a) $x + 5 = 14 - \frac{1}{2}x$

(b) $\frac{2x}{x+1} = \frac{2x-1}{x}$

(c) $x^2 - x - 12 = 0$

(d) $2x^2 + 4x + 1 = 0$

(e) $x^4 - 3x^2 + 2 = 0$

(f) $3|x - 4| = 10$

(g) $2x(4-x)^{-1/2} - 3\sqrt{4-x} = 0$

9. Solve each inequality. Write your answer using interval notation.

(a) $-4 < 5 - 3x \leq 17$

(b) $x^2 < 2x + 8$

(c) $x(x-1)(x+2) > 0$

(d) $|x - 4| < 3$

(e) $\frac{2x-3}{x+1} \leq 1$

10. State whether each equation is true or false.

(a) $(p+q)^2 = p^2 + q^2$

(b) $\sqrt{ab} = \sqrt{a}\sqrt{b}$

(c) $\sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = a + b$

(d) $\frac{1+TC}{C} = 1 + T$

(e) $\frac{1}{x-y} = \frac{1}{x} - \frac{1}{y}$

(f) $\frac{1/x}{a/x - b/x} = \frac{1}{a-b}$

ANSWERS TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST A: ALGEBRA

1. (a) 81

(b) -81

(c) $\frac{1}{81}$

(d) 25

(e) $\frac{9}{4}$

(f) $\frac{1}{8}$

2. (a) $6\sqrt{2}$

(b) $48a^5b^7$

(c) $\frac{x}{9y^7}$

3. (a) $11x - 2$

(b) $4x^2 + 7x - 15$

(c) $a - b$

(d) $4x^2 + 12x + 9$

(e) $x^3 + 6x^2 + 12x + 8$

4. (a) $(2x-5)(2x+5)$

(b) $(2x-3)(x+4)$

(c) $(x-3)(x-2)(x+2)$

(d) $x(x+3)(x^2-3x+9)$

(e) $3x^{-1/2}(x-1)(x-2)$

(f) $xy(x-2)(x+2)$

5. (a) $\frac{x+2}{x-2}$

(b) $\frac{x-1}{x-3}$

(c) $\frac{1}{x-2}$

(d) $-(x+y)$

6. (a) $5\sqrt{2} + 2\sqrt{10}$

(b) $\frac{1}{\sqrt{4+h}+2}$

7. (a) $(x + \frac{1}{2})^2 + \frac{3}{4}$

(b) $2(x-3)^2 - 7$

8. (a) 6

(b) 1

(c) -3, 4

(d) $-1 \pm \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{2}$

(e) $\pm 1, \pm\sqrt{2}$

(f) $\frac{2}{3}, \frac{22}{3}$

(g) $\frac{12}{5}$

9. (a) $[-4, 3)$

(b) $(-2, 4)$

(c) $(-2, 0) \cup (1, \infty)$

(d) $(1, 7)$

(e) $(-1, 4]$

10. (a) False

(b) True

(c) False

(d) False

(e) False

(f) True

If you had difficulty with these problems, you may wish to consult the Review of Algebra on the website www.stewartcalculus.com.

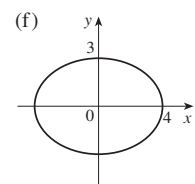
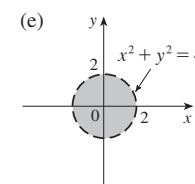
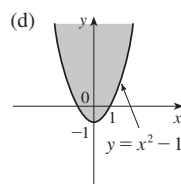
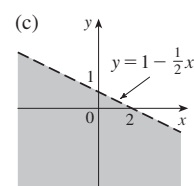
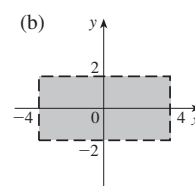
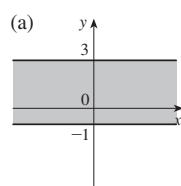
B Diagnostic Test: Analytic Geometry

1. Find an equation for the line that passes through the point $(2, -5)$ and
 - (a) has slope -3
 - (b) is parallel to the x -axis
 - (c) is parallel to the y -axis
 - (d) is parallel to the line $2x - 4y = 3$
2. Find an equation for the circle that has center $(-1, 4)$ and passes through the point $(3, -2)$.
3. Find the center and radius of the circle with equation $x^2 + y^2 - 6x + 10y + 9 = 0$.
4. Let $A(-7, 4)$ and $B(5, -12)$ be points in the plane.
 - (a) Find the slope of the line that contains A and B .
 - (b) Find an equation of the line that passes through A and B . What are the intercepts?
 - (c) Find the midpoint of the segment AB .
 - (d) Find the length of the segment AB .
 - (e) Find an equation of the perpendicular bisector of AB .
 - (f) Find an equation of the circle for which AB is a diameter.
5. Sketch the region in the xy -plane defined by the equation or inequalities.
 - (a) $-1 \leq y \leq 3$
 - (b) $|x| < 4$ and $|y| < 2$
 - (c) $y < 1 - \frac{1}{2}x$
 - (d) $y \geq x^2 - 1$
 - (e) $x^2 + y^2 < 4$
 - (f) $9x^2 + 16y^2 = 144$

ANSWERS TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST B: ANALYTIC GEOMETRY

1. (a) $y = -3x + 1$ (b) $y = -5$
 (c) $x = 2$ (d) $y = \frac{1}{2}x - 6$
2. $(x + 1)^2 + (y - 4)^2 = 52$
3. Center $(3, -5)$, radius 5
4. (a) $-\frac{4}{3}$
 (b) $4x + 3y + 16 = 0$; x -intercept -4 , y -intercept $-\frac{16}{3}$
 (c) $(-1, -4)$
 (d) 20
 (e) $3x - 4y = 13$
 (f) $(x + 1)^2 + (y + 4)^2 = 100$

5.



If you had difficulty with these problems, you may wish to consult the review of analytic geometry in Appendixes B and C.

C Diagnostic Test: Functions

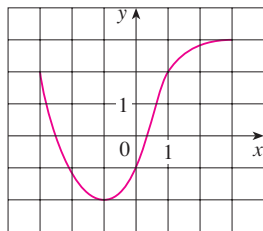
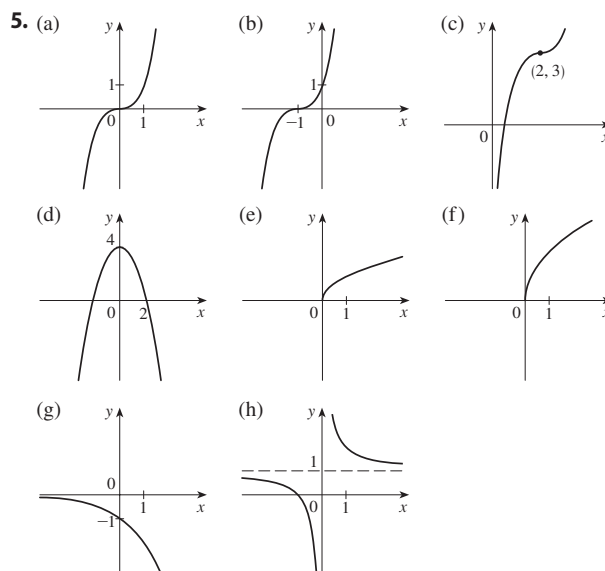


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 1

1. The graph of a function f is given at the left.
 - (a) State the value of $f(-1)$.
 - (b) Estimate the value of $f(2)$.
 - (c) For what values of x is $f(x) = 2$?
 - (d) Estimate the values of x such that $f(x) = 0$.
 - (e) State the domain and range of f .
2. If $f(x) = x^3$, evaluate the difference quotient $\frac{f(2+h) - f(2)}{h}$ and simplify your answer.
3. Find the domain of the function.
 - (a) $f(x) = \frac{2x+1}{x^2+x-2}$
 - (b) $g(x) = \frac{\sqrt[3]{x}}{x^2+1}$
 - (c) $h(x) = \sqrt{4-x} + \sqrt{x^2-1}$
4. How are graphs of the functions obtained from the graph of f ?
 - (a) $y = -f(x)$
 - (b) $y = 2f(x) - 1$
 - (c) $y = f(x-3) + 2$
5. Without using a calculator, make a rough sketch of the graph.
 - (a) $y = x^3$
 - (b) $y = (x+1)^3$
 - (c) $y = (x-2)^3 + 3$
 - (d) $y = 4 - x^2$
 - (e) $y = \sqrt{x}$
 - (f) $y = 2\sqrt{x}$
 - (g) $y = -2^x$
 - (h) $y = 1 + x^{-1}$
6. Let $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - x^2 & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ 2x + 1 & \text{if } x > 0 \end{cases}$
 - (a) Evaluate $f(-2)$ and $f(1)$.
 - (b) Sketch the graph of f .
7. If $f(x) = x^2 + 2x - 1$ and $g(x) = 2x - 3$, find each of the following functions.
 - (a) $f \circ g$
 - (b) $g \circ f$
 - (c) $g \circ g \circ g$

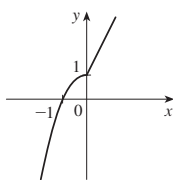
ANSWERS TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST C: FUNCTIONS

1. (a) -2
(c) $-3, 1$
(e) $[-3, 3], [-2, 3]$
2. $12 + 6h + h^2$
3. (a) $(-\infty, -2) \cup (-2, 1) \cup (1, \infty)$
(b) $(-\infty, \infty)$
(c) $(-\infty, -1] \cup [1, 4]$
4. (a) Reflect about the x -axis
(b) Stretch vertically by a factor of 2, then shift 1 unit downward
(c) Shift 3 units to the right and 2 units upward



6. (a) $-3, 3$

(b)



7. (a) $(f \circ g)(x) = 4x^2 - 8x + 2$

(b) $(g \circ f)(x) = 2x^2 + 4x - 5$

(c) $(g \circ g \circ g)(x) = 8x - 21$

If you had difficulty with these problems, you should look at sections 1.1–1.3 of this book.

D Diagnostic Test: Trigonometry

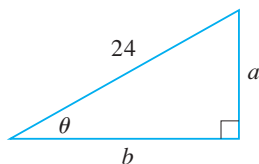


FIGURE FOR PROBLEM 5

1. Convert from degrees to radians.

(a) 300° (b) -18°

2. Convert from radians to degrees.

(a) $5\pi/6$ (b) 2

3. Find the length of an arc of a circle with radius 12 cm if the arc subtends a central angle of 30° .

4. Find the exact values.

(a) $\tan(\pi/3)$ (b) $\sin(7\pi/6)$ (c) $\sec(5\pi/3)$

5. Express the lengths a and b in the figure in terms of θ .

6. If $\sin x = \frac{1}{3}$ and $\sec y = \frac{5}{4}$, where x and y lie between 0 and $\pi/2$, evaluate $\sin(x + y)$.

7. Prove the identities.

(a) $\tan \theta \sin \theta + \cos \theta = \sec \theta$ (b) $\frac{2 \tan x}{1 + \tan^2 x} = \sin 2x$

8. Find all values of x such that $\sin 2x = \sin x$ and $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$.

9. Sketch the graph of the function $y = 1 + \sin 2x$ without using a calculator.

ANSWERS TO DIAGNOSTIC TEST D: TRIGONOMETRY

1. (a) $5\pi/3$

(b) $-\pi/10$

2. (a) 150°

(b) $360^\circ/\pi \approx 114.6^\circ$

3. 2π cm

4. (a) $\sqrt{3}$

(b) $-\frac{1}{2}$

(c) 2

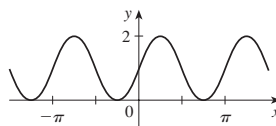
5. (a) $24 \sin \theta$

(b) $24 \cos \theta$

6. $\frac{1}{15}(4 + 6\sqrt{2})$

8. $0, \pi/3, \pi, 5\pi/3, 2\pi$

9.



If you had difficulty with these problems, you should look at Appendix D of this book.

A Preview of Calculus

By the time you finish this course, you will be able to calculate the length of the curve used to design the Gateway Arch in St. Louis, determine where a pilot should start descent for a smooth landing, compute the force on a baseball bat when it strikes the ball, and measure the amount of light sensed by the human eye as the pupil changes size.



CALCULUS IS FUNDAMENTALLY DIFFERENT FROM the mathematics that you have studied previously: calculus is less static and more dynamic. It is concerned with change and motion; it deals with quantities that approach other quantities. For that reason it may be useful to have an overview of the subject before beginning its intensive study. Here we give a glimpse of some of the main ideas of calculus by showing how the concept of a limit arises when we attempt to solve a variety of problems.

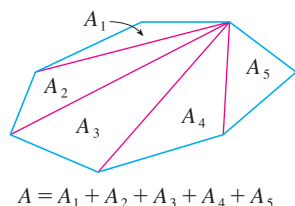


FIGURE 1

■ The Area Problem

The origins of calculus go back at least 2500 years to the ancient Greeks, who found areas using the “method of exhaustion.” They knew how to find the area A of any polygon by dividing it into triangles as in Figure 1 and adding the areas of these triangles.

It is a much more difficult problem to find the area of a curved figure. The Greek method of exhaustion was to inscribe polygons in the figure and circumscribe polygons about the figure and then let the number of sides of the polygons increase. Figure 2 illustrates this process for the special case of a circle with inscribed regular polygons.

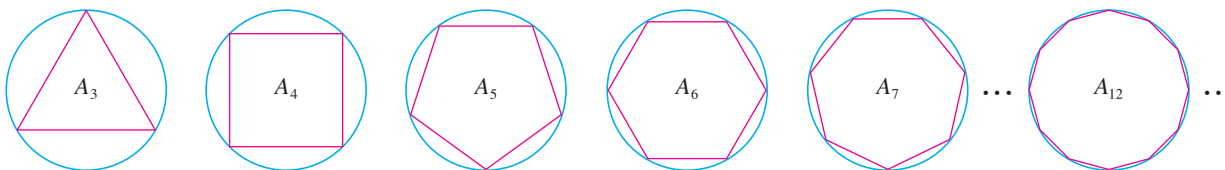


FIGURE 2

TEC In the Preview Visual, you can see how areas of inscribed and circumscribed polygons approximate the area of a circle.

Let A_n be the area of the inscribed polygon with n sides. As n increases, it appears that A_n becomes closer and closer to the area of the circle. We say that the area of the circle is the limit of the areas of the inscribed polygons, and we write

$$A = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} A_n$$

The Greeks themselves did not use limits explicitly. However, by indirect reasoning, Eudoxus (fifth century BC) used exhaustion to prove the familiar formula for the area of a circle: $A = \pi r^2$.

We will use a similar idea in Chapter 5 to find areas of regions of the type shown in Figure 3. We will approximate the desired area A by areas of rectangles (as in Figure 4), let the width of the rectangles decrease, and then calculate A as the limit of these sums of areas of rectangles.

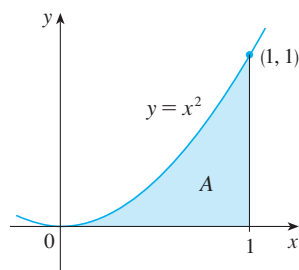


FIGURE 3

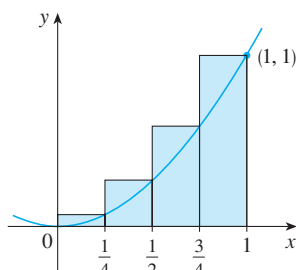
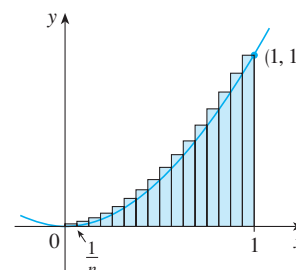
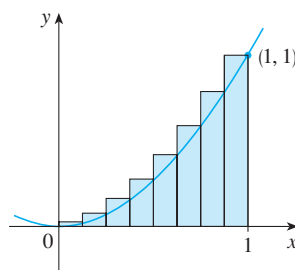


FIGURE 4



The area problem is the central problem in the branch of calculus called *integral calculus*. The techniques that we will develop in Chapter 5 for finding areas will also enable us to compute the volume of a solid, the length of a curve, the force of water against a dam, the mass and center of gravity of a rod, and the work done in pumping water out of a tank.

■ The Tangent Problem

Consider the problem of trying to find an equation of the tangent line t to a curve with equation $y = f(x)$ at a given point P . (We will give a precise definition of a tangent line in

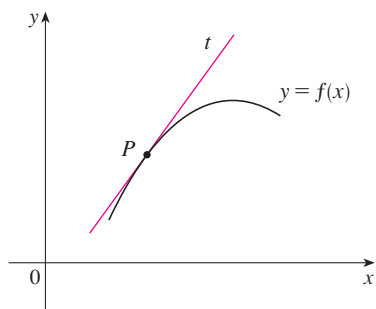


FIGURE 5
The tangent line at P

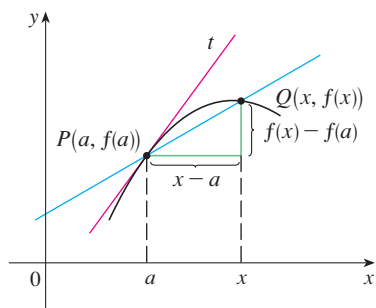


FIGURE 6
The secant line at PQ

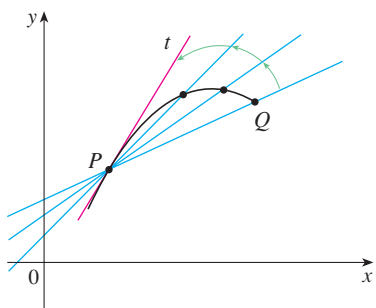


FIGURE 7
Secant lines approaching the tangent line

Chapter 2. For now you can think of it as a line that touches the curve at P as in Figure 5.) Since we know that the point P lies on the tangent line, we can find the equation of t if we know its slope m . The problem is that we need two points to compute the slope and we know only one point, P , on t . To get around the problem we first find an approximation to m by taking a nearby point Q on the curve and computing the slope m_{PQ} of the secant line PQ . From Figure 6 we see that

1

$$m_{PQ} = \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

Now imagine that Q moves along the curve toward P as in Figure 7. You can see that the secant line rotates and approaches the tangent line as its limiting position. This means that the slope m_{PQ} of the secant line becomes closer and closer to the slope m of the tangent line. We write

$$m = \lim_{Q \rightarrow P} m_{PQ}$$

and we say that m is the limit of m_{PQ} as Q approaches P along the curve. Because x approaches a as Q approaches P , we could also use Equation 1 to write

2

$$m = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$$

Specific examples of this procedure will be given in Chapter 2.

The tangent problem has given rise to the branch of calculus called *differential calculus*, which was not invented until more than 2000 years after integral calculus. The main ideas behind differential calculus are due to the French mathematician Pierre Fermat (1601–1665) and were developed by the English mathematicians John Wallis (1616–1703), Isaac Barrow (1630–1677), and Isaac Newton (1642–1727) and the German mathematician Gottfried Leibniz (1646–1716).

The two branches of calculus and their chief problems, the area problem and the tangent problem, appear to be very different, but it turns out that there is a very close connection between them. The tangent problem and the area problem are inverse problems in a sense that will be described in Chapter 5.

Velocity

When we look at the speedometer of a car and read that the car is traveling at 48 mi/h, what does that information indicate to us? We know that if the velocity remains constant, then after an hour we will have traveled 48 mi. But if the velocity of the car varies, what does it mean to say that the velocity at a given instant is 48 mi/h?

In order to analyze this question, let’s examine the motion of a car that travels along a straight road and assume that we can measure the distance traveled by the car (in feet) at 1-second intervals as in the following chart:

t = Time elapsed (s)	0	1	2	3	4	5
d = Distance (ft)	0	2	9	24	42	71

As a first step toward finding the velocity after 2 seconds have elapsed, we find the average velocity during the time interval $2 \leq t \leq 4$:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{average velocity} &= \frac{\text{change in position}}{\text{time elapsed}} \\ &= \frac{42 - 9}{4 - 2} \\ &= 16.5 \text{ ft/s} \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the average velocity in the time interval $2 \leq t \leq 3$ is

$$\text{average velocity} = \frac{24 - 9}{3 - 2} = 15 \text{ ft/s}$$

We have the feeling that the velocity at the instant $t = 2$ can't be much different from the average velocity during a short time interval starting at $t = 2$. So let's imagine that the distance traveled has been measured at 0.1-second time intervals as in the following chart:

t	2.0	2.1	2.2	2.3	2.4	2.5
d	9.00	10.02	11.16	12.45	13.96	15.80

Then we can compute, for instance, the average velocity over the time interval $[2, 2.5]$:

$$\text{average velocity} = \frac{15.80 - 9.00}{2.5 - 2} = 13.6 \text{ ft/s}$$

The results of such calculations are shown in the following chart:

Time interval	$[2, 3]$	$[2, 2.5]$	$[2, 2.4]$	$[2, 2.3]$	$[2, 2.2]$	$[2, 2.1]$
Average velocity (ft/s)	15.0	13.6	12.4	11.5	10.8	10.2

The average velocities over successively smaller intervals appear to be getting closer to a number near 10, and so we expect that the velocity at exactly $t = 2$ is about 10 ft/s. In Chapter 2 we will define the instantaneous velocity of a moving object as the limiting value of the average velocities over smaller and smaller time intervals.

In Figure 8 we show a graphical representation of the motion of the car by plotting the distance traveled as a function of time. If we write $d = f(t)$, then $f(t)$ is the number of feet traveled after t seconds. The average velocity in the time interval $[2, t]$ is

$$\text{average velocity} = \frac{\text{change in position}}{\text{time elapsed}} = \frac{f(t) - f(2)}{t - 2}$$

which is the same as the slope of the secant line PQ in Figure 8. The velocity v when $t = 2$ is the limiting value of this average velocity as t approaches 2; that is,

$$v = \lim_{t \rightarrow 2} \frac{f(t) - f(2)}{t - 2}$$

and we recognize from Equation 2 that this is the same as the slope of the tangent line to the curve at P .

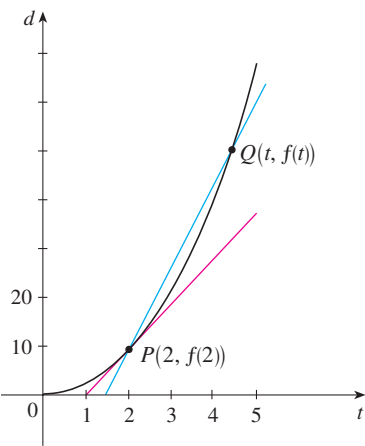


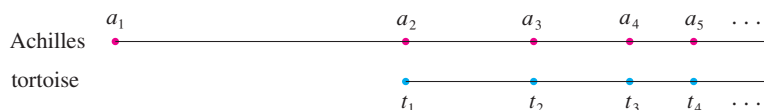
FIGURE 8

Thus, when we solve the tangent problem in differential calculus, we are also solving problems concerning velocities. The same techniques also enable us to solve problems involving rates of change in all of the natural and social sciences.

■ The Limit of a Sequence

In the fifth century BC the Greek philosopher Zeno of Elea posed four problems, now known as *Zeno's paradoxes*, that were intended to challenge some of the ideas concerning space and time that were held in his day. Zeno's second paradox concerns a race between the Greek hero Achilles and a tortoise that has been given a head start. Zeno argued, as follows, that Achilles could never pass the tortoise: Suppose that Achilles starts at position a_1 and the tortoise starts at position t_1 . (See Figure 9.) When Achilles reaches the point $a_2 = t_1$, the tortoise is farther ahead at position t_2 . When Achilles reaches $a_3 = t_2$, the tortoise is at t_3 . This process continues indefinitely and so it appears that the tortoise will always be ahead! But this defies common sense.

FIGURE 9



One way of explaining this paradox is with the idea of a *sequence*. The successive positions of Achilles (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) or the successive positions of the tortoise (t_1, t_2, t_3, \dots) form what is known as a sequence.

In general, a sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a set of numbers written in a definite order. For instance, the sequence

$$\left\{1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{5}, \dots\right\}$$

can be described by giving the following formula for the n th term:

$$a_n = \frac{1}{n}$$

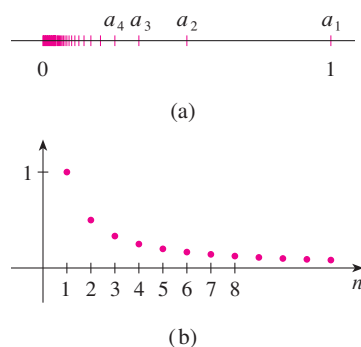


FIGURE 10

We can visualize this sequence by plotting its terms on a number line as in Figure 10(a) or by drawing its graph as in Figure 10(b). Observe from either picture that the terms of the sequence $a_n = 1/n$ are becoming closer and closer to 0 as n increases. In fact, we can find terms as small as we please by making n large enough. We say that the limit of the sequence is 0, and we indicate this by writing

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} = 0$$

In general, the notation

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = L$$

is used if the terms a_n approach the number L as n becomes large. This means that the numbers a_n can be made as close as we like to the number L by taking n sufficiently large.

The concept of the limit of a sequence occurs whenever we use the decimal representation of a real number. For instance, if

$$a_1 = 3.1$$

$$a_2 = 3.14$$

$$a_3 = 3.141$$

$$a_4 = 3.1415$$

$$a_5 = 3.14159$$

$$a_6 = 3.141592$$

$$a_7 = 3.1415926$$

$$\vdots$$

then
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = \pi$$

The terms in this sequence are rational approximations to π .

Let's return to Zeno's paradox. The successive positions of Achilles and the tortoise form sequences $\{a_n\}$ and $\{t_n\}$, where $a_n < t_n$ for all n . It can be shown that both sequences have the same limit:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = p = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n$$

It is precisely at this point p that Achilles overtakes the tortoise.

■ The Sum of a Series

Another of Zeno's paradoxes, as passed on to us by Aristotle, is the following: "A man standing in a room cannot walk to the wall. In order to do so, he would first have to go half the distance, then half the remaining distance, and then again half of what still remains. This process can always be continued and can never be ended." (See Figure 11.)

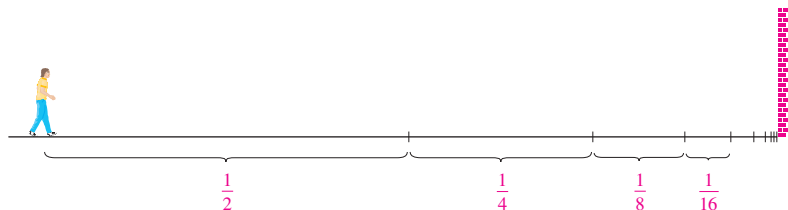


FIGURE 11

Of course, we know that the man can actually reach the wall, so this suggests that perhaps the total distance can be expressed as the sum of infinitely many smaller distances as follows:

3

$$1 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \cdots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \cdots$$

Zeno was arguing that it doesn't make sense to add infinitely many numbers together. But there are other situations in which we implicitly use infinite sums. For instance, in decimal notation, the symbol $0.\overline{3} = 0.3333 \dots$ means

$$\frac{3}{10} + \frac{3}{100} + \frac{3}{1000} + \frac{3}{10,000} + \dots$$

and so, in some sense, it must be true that

$$\frac{3}{10} + \frac{3}{100} + \frac{3}{1000} + \frac{3}{10,000} + \dots = \frac{1}{3}$$

More generally, if d_n denotes the n th digit in the decimal representation of a number, then

$$0.d_1d_2d_3d_4\dots = \frac{d_1}{10} + \frac{d_2}{10^2} + \frac{d_3}{10^3} + \dots + \frac{d_n}{10^n} + \dots$$

Therefore some infinite sums, or infinite series as they are called, have a meaning. But we must define carefully what the sum of an infinite series is.

Returning to the series in Equation 3, we denote by s_n the sum of the first n terms of the series. Thus

$$s_1 = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5$$

$$s_2 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} = 0.75$$

$$s_3 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} = 0.875$$

$$s_4 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} = 0.9375$$

$$s_5 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{32} = 0.96875$$

$$s_6 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{64} = 0.984375$$

$$s_7 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \frac{1}{16} + \frac{1}{32} + \frac{1}{64} + \frac{1}{128} = 0.9921875$$

$$\vdots$$

$$s_{10} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{1024} \approx 0.99902344$$

$$\vdots$$

$$s_{16} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^{16}} \approx 0.99998474$$

Observe that as we add more and more terms, the partial sums become closer and closer to 1. In fact, it can be shown that by taking n large enough (that is, by adding sufficiently many terms of the series), we can make the partial sum s_n as close as we please to the number 1. It therefore seems reasonable to say that the sum of the infinite series is 1 and to write

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{8} + \dots + \frac{1}{2^n} + \dots = 1$$

In other words, the reason the sum of the series is 1 is that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} s_n = 1$$

In Chapter 11 we will discuss these ideas further. We will then use Newton's idea of combining infinite series with differential and integral calculus.

■ Summary

We have seen that the concept of a limit arises in trying to find the area of a region, the slope of a tangent to a curve, the velocity of a car, or the sum of an infinite series. In each case the common theme is the calculation of a quantity as the limit of other, easily calculated quantities. It is this basic idea of a limit that sets calculus apart from other areas of mathematics. In fact, we could define calculus as the part of mathematics that deals with limits.

After Sir Isaac Newton invented his version of calculus, he used it to explain the motion of the planets around the sun. Today calculus is used in calculating the orbits of satellites and spacecraft, in predicting population sizes, in estimating how fast oil prices rise or fall, in forecasting weather, in measuring the cardiac output of the heart, in calculating life insurance premiums, and in a great variety of other areas. We will explore some of these uses of calculus in this book.

In order to convey a sense of the power of the subject, we end this preview with a list of some of the questions that you will be able to answer using calculus:

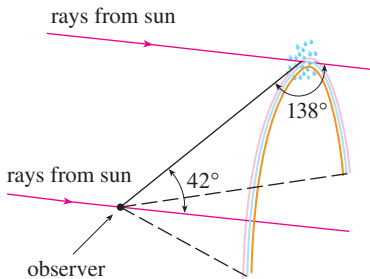


FIGURE 12

1. How can we explain the fact, illustrated in Figure 12, that the angle of elevation from an observer up to the highest point in a rainbow is 42° ? (See page 285.)
2. How can we explain the shapes of cans on supermarket shelves? (See page 343.)
3. Where is the best place to sit in a movie theater? (See page 465.)
4. How can we design a roller coaster for a smooth ride? (See page 182.)
5. How far away from an airport should a pilot start descent? (See page 208.)
6. How can we fit curves together to design shapes to represent letters on a laser printer? (See page 657.)
7. How can we estimate the number of workers that were needed to build the Great Pyramid of Khufu in ancient Egypt? (See page 460.)
8. Where should an infielder position himself to catch a baseball thrown by an outfielder and relay it to home plate? (See page 465.)
9. Does a ball thrown upward take longer to reach its maximum height or to fall back to its original height? (See page 609.)

1

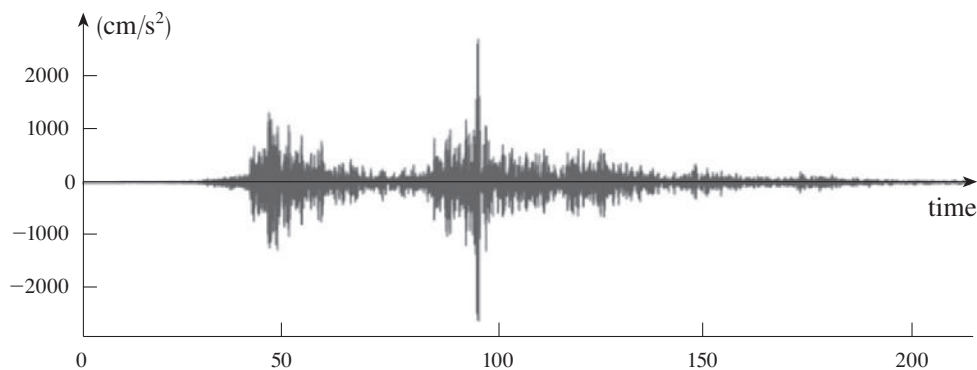
Functions and Models

Often a graph is the best way to represent a function because it conveys so much information at a glance.

Shown is a graph of the vertical ground acceleration created by the 2011 earthquake near Tohoku, Japan. The earthquake had a magnitude of 9.0 on the Richter scale and was so powerful that it moved northern Japan 8 feet closer to North America.



Pictura Collectus/Alamy



Seismological Society of America

THE FUNDAMENTAL OBJECTS THAT WE deal with in calculus are functions. This chapter prepares the way for calculus by discussing the basic ideas concerning functions, their graphs, and ways of transforming and combining them. We stress that a function can be represented in different ways: by an equation, in a table, by a graph, or in words. We look at the main types of functions that occur in calculus and describe the process of using these functions as mathematical models of real-world phenomena.

1.1 Four Ways to Represent a Function

Functions arise whenever one quantity depends on another. Consider the following four situations.

- A. The area A of a circle depends on the radius r of the circle. The rule that connects r and A is given by the equation $A = \pi r^2$. With each positive number r there is associated one value of A , and we say that A is a *function* of r .
- B. The human population of the world P depends on the time t . The table gives estimates of the world population $P(t)$ at time t , for certain years. For instance,

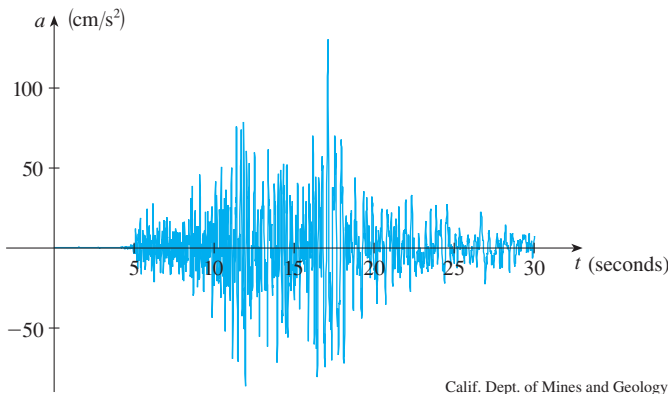
$$P(1950) \approx 2,560,000,000$$

But for each value of the time t there is a corresponding value of P , and we say that P is a function of t .

- C. The cost C of mailing an envelope depends on its weight w . Although there is no simple formula that connects w and C , the post office has a rule for determining C when w is known.
- D. The vertical acceleration a of the ground as measured by a seismograph during an earthquake is a function of the elapsed time t . Figure 1 shows a graph generated by seismic activity during the Northridge earthquake that shook Los Angeles in 1994. For a given value of t , the graph provides a corresponding value of a .

Year	Population (millions)
1900	1650
1910	1750
1920	1860
1930	2070
1940	2300
1950	2560
1960	3040
1970	3710
1980	4450
1990	5280
2000	6080
2010	6870

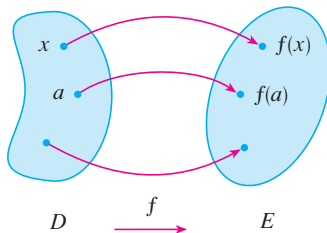
FIGURE 1
Vertical ground acceleration
during the Northridge earthquake



Each of these examples describes a rule whereby, given a number (r , t , w , or t), another number (A , P , C , or a) is assigned. In each case we say that the second number is a function of the first number.

A **function** f is a rule that assigns to each element x in a set D exactly one element, called $f(x)$, in a set E .

We usually consider functions for which the sets D and E are sets of real numbers. The set D is called the **domain** of the function. The number $f(x)$ is the **value of f at x** and is read “ f of x .” The **range** of f is the set of all possible values of $f(x)$ as x varies throughout the domain. A symbol that represents an arbitrary number in the *domain* of a function f is called an **independent variable**. A symbol that represents a number in the *range* of f is called a **dependent variable**. In Example A, for instance, r is the independent variable and A is the dependent variable.

**FIGURE 2**Machine diagram for a function f **FIGURE 3**Arrow diagram for f

It's helpful to think of a function as a **machine** (see Figure 2). If x is in the domain of the function f , then when x enters the machine, it's accepted as an input and the machine produces an output $f(x)$ according to the rule of the function. Thus we can think of the domain as the set of all possible inputs and the range as the set of all possible outputs.

The preprogrammed functions in a calculator are good examples of a function as a machine. For example, the square root key on your calculator computes such a function. You press the key labeled $\sqrt{}$ (or \sqrt{x}) and enter the input x . If $x < 0$, then x is not in the domain of this function; that is, x is not an acceptable input, and the calculator will indicate an error. If $x \geq 0$, then an *approximation* to \sqrt{x} will appear in the display. Thus the \sqrt{x} key on your calculator is not quite the same as the exact mathematical function f defined by $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$.

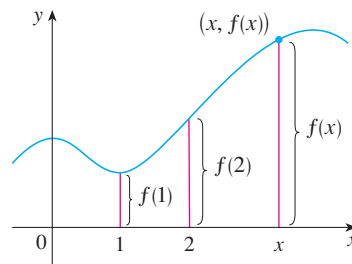
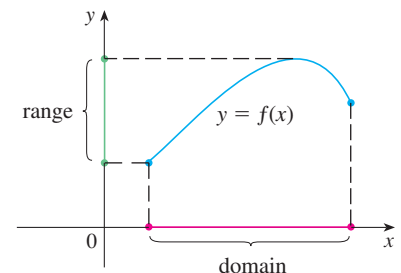
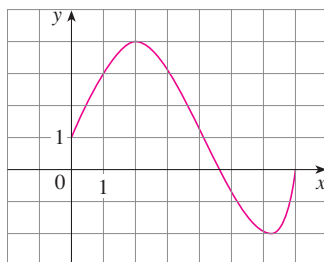
Another way to picture a function is by an **arrow diagram** as in Figure 3. Each arrow connects an element of D to an element of E . The arrow indicates that $f(x)$ is associated with x , $f(a)$ is associated with a , and so on.

The most common method for visualizing a function is its graph. If f is a function with domain D , then its **graph** is the set of ordered pairs

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

(Notice that these are input-output pairs.) In other words, the graph of f consists of all points (x, y) in the coordinate plane such that $y = f(x)$ and x is in the domain of f .

The graph of a function f gives us a useful picture of the behavior or “life history” of a function. Since the y -coordinate of any point (x, y) on the graph is $y = f(x)$, we can read the value of $f(x)$ from the graph as being the height of the graph above the point x (see Figure 4). The graph of f also allows us to picture the domain of f on the x -axis and its range on the y -axis as in Figure 5.

**FIGURE 4****FIGURE 5****FIGURE 6**

The notation for intervals is given in Appendix A.

EXAMPLE 1 The graph of a function f is shown in Figure 6.

- Find the values of $f(1)$ and $f(5)$.
- What are the domain and range of f ?

SOLUTION

- We see from Figure 6 that the point $(1, 3)$ lies on the graph of f , so the value of f at 1 is $f(1) = 3$. (In other words, the point on the graph that lies above $x = 1$ is 3 units above the x -axis.)

When $x = 5$, the graph lies about 0.7 units below the x -axis, so we estimate that $f(5) \approx -0.7$.

- We see that $f(x)$ is defined when $0 \leq x \leq 7$, so the domain of f is the closed interval $[0, 7]$. Notice that f takes on all values from -2 to 4 , so the range of f is

$$\{y \mid -2 \leq y \leq 4\} = [-2, 4]$$

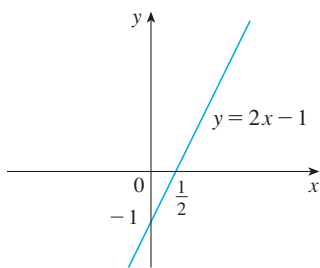


FIGURE 7

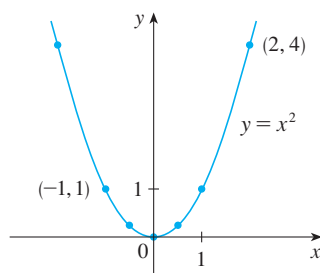


FIGURE 8

EXAMPLE 2 Sketch the graph and find the domain and range of each function.

(a) $f(x) = 2x - 1$

(b) $g(x) = x^2$

SOLUTION

(a) The equation of the graph is $y = 2x - 1$, and we recognize this as being the equation of a line with slope 2 and y-intercept -1 . (Recall the slope-intercept form of the equation of a line: $y = mx + b$. See Appendix B.) This enables us to sketch a portion of the graph of f in Figure 7. The expression $2x - 1$ is defined for all real numbers, so the domain of f is the set of all real numbers, which we denote by \mathbb{R} . The graph shows that the range is also \mathbb{R} .

(b) Since $g(2) = 2^2 = 4$ and $g(-1) = (-1)^2 = 1$, we could plot the points $(2, 4)$ and $(-1, 1)$, together with a few other points on the graph, and join them to produce the graph (Figure 8). The equation of the graph is $y = x^2$, which represents a parabola (see Appendix C). The domain of g is \mathbb{R} . The range of g consists of all values of $g(x)$, that is, all numbers of the form x^2 . But $x^2 \geq 0$ for all numbers x and any positive number y is a square. So the range of g is $\{y \mid y \geq 0\} = [0, \infty)$. This can also be seen from Figure 8. ■

EXAMPLE 3 If $f(x) = 2x^2 - 5x + 1$ and $h \neq 0$, evaluate $\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$.

SOLUTION We first evaluate $f(a+h)$ by replacing x by $a+h$ in the expression for $f(x)$:

$$\begin{aligned} f(a+h) &= 2(a+h)^2 - 5(a+h) + 1 \\ &= 2(a^2 + 2ah + h^2) - 5(a+h) + 1 \\ &= 2a^2 + 4ah + 2h^2 - 5a - 5h + 1 \end{aligned}$$

Then we substitute into the given expression and simplify:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h} &= \frac{(2a^2 + 4ah + 2h^2 - 5a - 5h + 1) - (2a^2 - 5a + 1)}{h} \\ &= \frac{2a^2 + 4ah + 2h^2 - 5a - 5h + 1 - 2a^2 + 5a - 1}{h} \\ &= \frac{4ah + 2h^2 - 5h}{h} = 4a + 2h - 5 \end{aligned}$$

The expression

$$\frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

in Example 3 is called a **difference quotient** and occurs frequently in calculus. As we will see in Chapter 2, it represents the average rate of change of $f(x)$ between $x = a$ and $x = a + h$.

■ Representations of Functions

There are four possible ways to represent a function:

- verbally (by a description in words)
- numerically (by a table of values)
- visually (by a graph)
- algebraically (by an explicit formula)

If a single function can be represented in all four ways, it's often useful to go from one representation to another to gain additional insight into the function. (In Example 2, for instance, we started with algebraic formulas and then obtained the graphs.) But certain functions are described more naturally by one method than by another. With this in mind, let's reexamine the four situations that we considered at the beginning of this section.

t (years since 1900)	Population (millions)
0	1650
10	1750
20	1860
30	2070
40	2300
50	2560
60	3040
70	3710
80	4450
90	5280
100	6080
110	6870

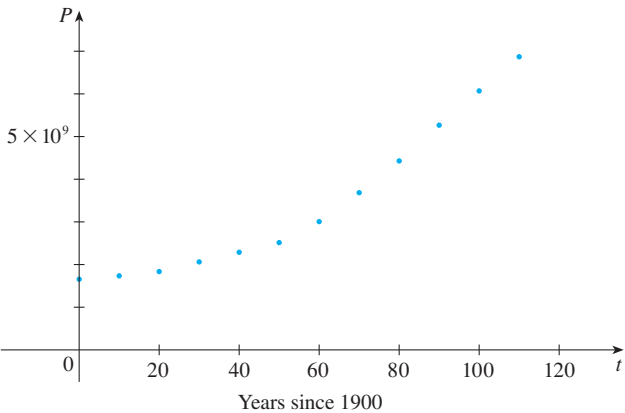


FIGURE 9

A function defined by a table of values is called a *tabular* function.

w (ounces)	$C(w)$ (dollars)
$0 < w \leq 1$	0.98
$1 < w \leq 2$	1.19
$2 < w \leq 3$	1.40
$3 < w \leq 4$	1.61
$4 < w \leq 5$	1.82
\vdots	\vdots
\vdots	\vdots

- A. The most useful representation of the area of a circle as a function of its radius is probably the algebraic formula $A(r) = \pi r^2$, though it is possible to compile a table of values or to sketch a graph (half a parabola). Because a circle has to have a positive radius, the domain is $\{r \mid r > 0\} = (0, \infty)$, and the range is also $(0, \infty)$.
- B. We are given a description of the function in words: $P(t)$ is the human population of the world at time t . Let's measure t so that $t = 0$ corresponds to the year 1900. The table of values of world population provides a convenient representation of this function. If we plot these values, we get the graph (called a *scatter plot*) in Figure 9. It too is a useful representation; the graph allows us to absorb all the data at once. What about a formula? Of course, it's impossible to devise an explicit formula that gives the exact human population $P(t)$ at any time t . But it is possible to find an expression for a function that *approximates* $P(t)$. In fact, using methods explained in Section 1.2, we obtain the approximation

$$P(t) \approx f(t) = (1.43653 \times 10^9) \cdot (1.01395)^t$$

Figure 10 shows that it is a reasonably good “fit.” The function f is called a *mathematical model* for population growth. In other words, it is a function with an explicit formula that approximates the behavior of our given function. We will see, however, that the ideas of calculus can be applied to a table of values; an explicit formula is not necessary.

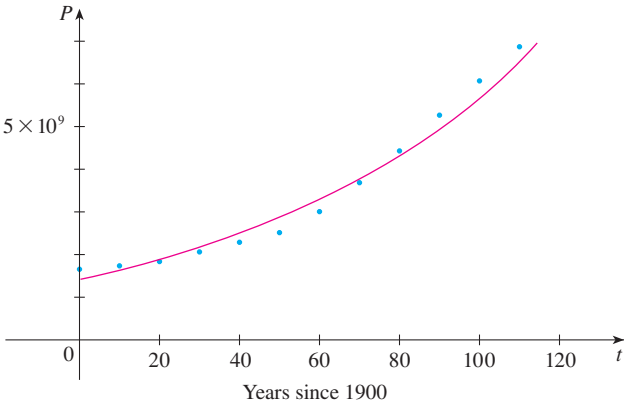


FIGURE 10

The function P is typical of the functions that arise whenever we attempt to apply calculus to the real world. We start with a verbal description of a function. Then we may be able to construct a table of values of the function, perhaps from instrument readings in a scientific experiment. Even though we don't have complete knowledge of the values of the function, we will see throughout the book that it is still possible to perform the operations of calculus on such a function.

- C. Again the function is described in words: Let $C(w)$ be the cost of mailing a large envelope with weight w . The rule that the US Postal Service used as of 2015 is as follows: The cost is 98 cents for up to 1 oz, plus 21 cents for each additional ounce (or less) up to 13 oz. The table of values shown in the margin is the most convenient representation for this function, though it is possible to sketch a graph (see Example 10).
- D. The graph shown in Figure 1 is the most natural representation of the vertical acceleration function $a(t)$. It's true that a table of values could be compiled, and it is even possible to devise an approximate formula. But everything a geologist needs to

know—amplitudes and patterns—can be seen easily from the graph. (The same is true for the patterns seen in electrocardiograms of heart patients and polygraphs for lie-detection.)

In the next example we sketch the graph of a function that is defined verbally.

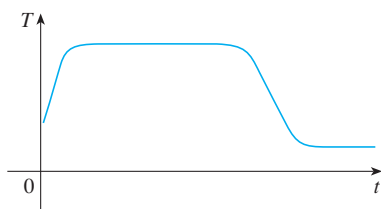


FIGURE 11

EXAMPLE 4 When you turn on a hot-water faucet, the temperature T of the water depends on how long the water has been running. Draw a rough graph of T as a function of the time t that has elapsed since the faucet was turned on.

SOLUTION The initial temperature of the running water is close to room temperature because the water has been sitting in the pipes. When the water from the hot-water tank starts flowing from the faucet, T increases quickly. In the next phase, T is constant at the temperature of the heated water in the tank. When the tank is drained, T decreases to the temperature of the water supply. This enables us to make the rough sketch of T as a function of t in Figure 11. ■

In the following example we start with a verbal description of a function in a physical situation and obtain an explicit algebraic formula. The ability to do this is a useful skill in solving calculus problems that ask for the maximum or minimum values of quantities.

EXAMPLE 5 A rectangular storage container with an open top has a volume of 10 m^3 . The length of its base is twice its width. Material for the base costs \$10 per square meter; material for the sides costs \$6 per square meter. Express the cost of materials as a function of the width of the base.

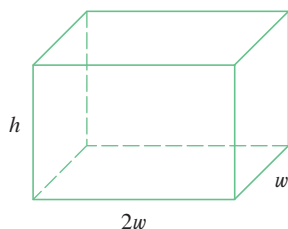


FIGURE 12

SOLUTION We draw a diagram as in Figure 12 and introduce notation by letting w and $2w$ be the width and length of the base, respectively, and h be the height.

The area of the base is $(2w)w = 2w^2$, so the cost, in dollars, of the material for the base is $10(2w^2)$. Two of the sides have area wh and the other two have area $2wh$, so the cost of the material for the sides is $6[2(wh) + 2(2wh)]$. The total cost is therefore

$$C = 10(2w^2) + 6[2(wh) + 2(2wh)] = 20w^2 + 36wh$$

To express C as a function of w alone, we need to eliminate h and we do so by using the fact that the volume is 10 m^3 . Thus

$$w(2w)h = 10$$

which gives

$$h = \frac{10}{2w^2} = \frac{5}{w^2}$$

Substituting this into the expression for C , we have

$$C = 20w^2 + 36w\left(\frac{5}{w^2}\right) = 20w^2 + \frac{180}{w}$$

Therefore the equation

$$C(w) = 20w^2 + \frac{180}{w} \quad w > 0$$

expresses C as a function of w . ■

PS In setting up applied functions as in Example 5, it may be useful to review the principles of problem solving as discussed on page 71, particularly *Step 1: Understand the Problem*.

EXAMPLE 6 Find the domain of each function.

(a) $f(x) = \sqrt{x+2}$

(b) $g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - x}$

Domain Convention

If a function is given by a formula and the domain is not stated explicitly, the convention is that the domain is the set of all numbers for which the formula makes sense and defines a real number.

SOLUTION

(a) Because the square root of a negative number is not defined (as a real number), the domain of f consists of all values of x such that $x + 2 \geq 0$. This is equivalent to $x \geq -2$, so the domain is the interval $[-2, \infty)$.

(b) Since

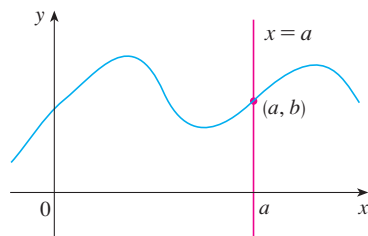
$$g(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 - x} = \frac{1}{x(x - 1)}$$

and division by 0 is not allowed, we see that $g(x)$ is not defined when $x = 0$ or $x = 1$. Thus the domain of g is

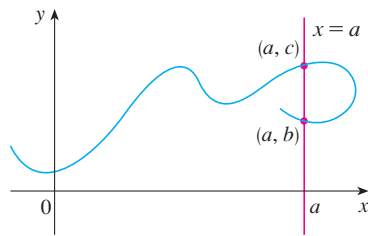
$$\{x \mid x \neq 0, x \neq 1\}$$

which could also be written in interval notation as

$$(-\infty, 0) \cup (0, 1) \cup (1, \infty)$$



(a) This curve represents a function.



(b) This curve doesn't represent a function.

FIGURE 13

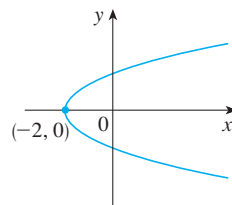
The graph of a function is a curve in the xy -plane. But the question arises: Which curves in the xy -plane are graphs of functions? This is answered by the following test.

The Vertical Line Test A curve in the xy -plane is the graph of a function of x if and only if no vertical line intersects the curve more than once.

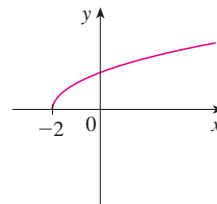
The reason for the truth of the Vertical Line Test can be seen in Figure 13. If each vertical line $x = a$ intersects a curve only once, at (a, b) , then exactly one function value is defined by $f(a) = b$. But if a line $x = a$ intersects the curve twice, at (a, b) and (a, c) , then the curve can't represent a function because a function can't assign two different values to a .

For example, the parabola $x = y^2 - 2$ shown in Figure 14(a) is not the graph of a function of x because, as you can see, there are vertical lines that intersect the parabola twice. The parabola, however, does contain the graphs of *two* functions of x . Notice that the equation $x = y^2 - 2$ implies $y^2 = x + 2$, so $y = \pm\sqrt{x + 2}$. Thus the upper and lower halves of the parabola are the graphs of the functions $f(x) = \sqrt{x + 2}$ [from Example 6(a)] and $g(x) = -\sqrt{x + 2}$. [See Figures 14(b) and (c).]

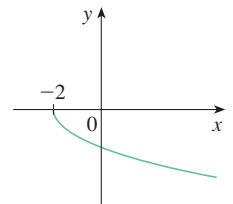
We observe that if we reverse the roles of x and y , then the equation $x = h(y) = y^2 - 2$ *does* define x as a function of y (with y as the independent variable and x as the dependent variable) and the parabola now appears as the graph of the function h .



(a) $x = y^2 - 2$



(b) $y = \sqrt{x + 2}$



(c) $y = -\sqrt{x + 2}$

FIGURE 14

Piecewise Defined Functions

The functions in the following four examples are defined by different formulas in different parts of their domains. Such functions are called **piecewise defined functions**.

EXAMPLE 7 A function f is defined by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - x & \text{if } x \leq -1 \\ x^2 & \text{if } x > -1 \end{cases}$$

Evaluate $f(-2)$, $f(-1)$, and $f(0)$ and sketch the graph.

SOLUTION Remember that a function is a rule. For this particular function the rule is the following: First look at the value of the input x . If it happens that $x \leq -1$, then the value of $f(x)$ is $1 - x$. On the other hand, if $x > -1$, then the value of $f(x)$ is x^2 .

$$\text{Since } -2 \leq -1, \text{ we have } f(-2) = 1 - (-2) = 3.$$

$$\text{Since } -1 \leq -1, \text{ we have } f(-1) = 1 - (-1) = 2.$$

$$\text{Since } 0 > -1, \text{ we have } f(0) = 0^2 = 0.$$

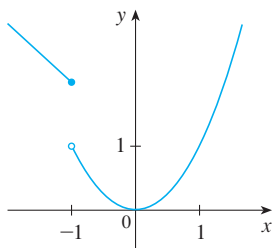


FIGURE 15

How do we draw the graph of f ? We observe that if $x \leq -1$, then $f(x) = 1 - x$, so the part of the graph of f that lies to the left of the vertical line $x = -1$ must coincide with the line $y = 1 - x$, which has slope -1 and y -intercept 1 . If $x > -1$, then $f(x) = x^2$, so the part of the graph of f that lies to the right of the line $x = -1$ must coincide with the graph of $y = x^2$, which is a parabola. This enables us to sketch the graph in Figure 15. The solid dot indicates that the point $(-1, 2)$ is included on the graph; the open dot indicates that the point $(-1, 1)$ is excluded from the graph. ■

The next example of a piecewise defined function is the absolute value function. Recall that the **absolute value** of a number a , denoted by $|a|$, is the distance from a to 0 on the real number line. Distances are always positive or 0 , so we have

$$|a| \geq 0 \quad \text{for every number } a$$

For example,

$$|3| = 3 \quad |-3| = 3 \quad |0| = 0 \quad |\sqrt{2} - 1| = \sqrt{2} - 1 \quad |3 - \pi| = \pi - 3$$

In general, we have

$$\begin{aligned} |a| &= a & \text{if } a \geq 0 \\ |a| &= -a & \text{if } a < 0 \end{aligned}$$

(Remember that if a is negative, then $-a$ is positive.)

EXAMPLE 8 Sketch the graph of the absolute value function $f(x) = |x|$.

SOLUTION From the preceding discussion we know that

$$|x| = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \\ -x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Using the same method as in Example 7, we see that the graph of f coincides with the line $y = x$ to the right of the y -axis and coincides with the line $y = -x$ to the left of the y -axis (see Figure 16). ■

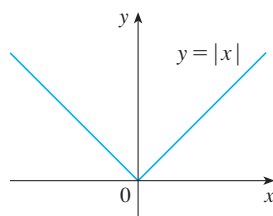


FIGURE 16

For a more extensive review of absolute values, see Appendix A.

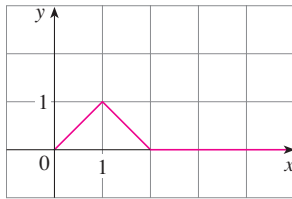


FIGURE 17

Point-slope form of the equation of a line:

$$y - y_1 = m(x - x_1)$$

See Appendix B.

EXAMPLE 9 Find a formula for the function f graphed in Figure 17.

SOLUTION The line through $(0, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$ has slope $m = 1$ and y -intercept $b = 0$, so its equation is $y = x$. Thus, for the part of the graph of f that joins $(0, 0)$ to $(1, 1)$, we have

$$f(x) = x \quad \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1$$

The line through $(1, 1)$ and $(2, 0)$ has slope $m = -1$, so its point-slope form is

$$y - 0 = (-1)(x - 2) \quad \text{or} \quad y = 2 - x$$

So we have

$$f(x) = 2 - x \quad \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2$$

We also see that the graph of f coincides with the x -axis for $x > 2$. Putting this information together, we have the following three-piece formula for f :

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ 2 - x & \text{if } 1 < x \leq 2 \\ 0 & \text{if } x > 2 \end{cases}$$

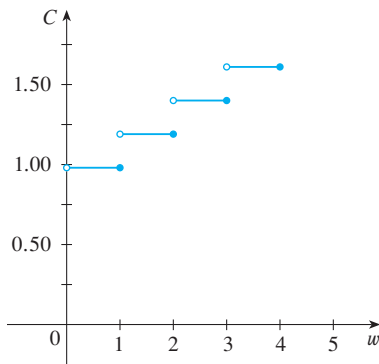


FIGURE 18

EXAMPLE 10 In Example C at the beginning of this section we considered the cost $C(w)$ of mailing a large envelope with weight w . In effect, this is a piecewise defined function because, from the table of values on page 13, we have

$$C(w) = \begin{cases} 0.98 & \text{if } 0 < w \leq 1 \\ 1.19 & \text{if } 1 < w \leq 2 \\ 1.40 & \text{if } 2 < w \leq 3 \\ 1.61 & \text{if } 3 < w \leq 4 \\ \vdots & \end{cases}$$

The graph is shown in Figure 18. You can see why functions similar to this one are called **step functions**—they jump from one value to the next. Such functions will be studied in Chapter 2.

Symmetry

If a function f satisfies $f(-x) = f(x)$ for every number x in its domain, then f is called an **even function**. For instance, the function $f(x) = x^2$ is even because

$$f(-x) = (-x)^2 = x^2 = f(x)$$

The geometric significance of an even function is that its graph is symmetric with respect to the y -axis (see Figure 19). This means that if we have plotted the graph of f for $x \geq 0$, we obtain the entire graph simply by reflecting this portion about the y -axis.

If f satisfies $f(-x) = -f(x)$ for every number x in its domain, then f is called an **odd function**. For example, the function $f(x) = x^3$ is odd because

$$f(-x) = (-x)^3 = -x^3 = -f(x)$$

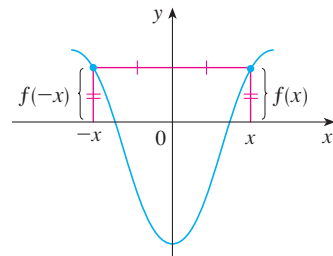


FIGURE 19

An even function

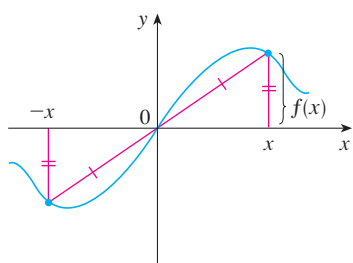


FIGURE 20
An odd function

The graph of an odd function is symmetric about the origin (see Figure 20). If we already have the graph of f for $x \geq 0$, we can obtain the entire graph by rotating this portion through 180° about the origin.

EXAMPLE 11 Determine whether each of the following functions is even, odd, or neither even nor odd.

(a) $f(x) = x^5 + x$ (b) $g(x) = 1 - x^4$ (c) $h(x) = 2x - x^2$

SOLUTION

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(a)} \quad f(-x) &= (-x)^5 + (-x) = (-1)^5 x^5 + (-x) \\ &= -x^5 - x = -(x^5 + x) \\ &= -f(x) \end{aligned}$$

Therefore f is an odd function.

$$\text{(b)} \quad g(-x) = 1 - (-x)^4 = 1 - x^4 = g(x)$$

So g is even.

$$\text{(c)} \quad h(-x) = 2(-x) - (-x)^2 = -2x - x^2$$

Since $h(-x) \neq h(x)$ and $h(-x) \neq -h(x)$, we conclude that h is neither even nor odd. ■

The graphs of the functions in Example 11 are shown in Figure 21. Notice that the graph of h is symmetric neither about the y -axis nor about the origin.

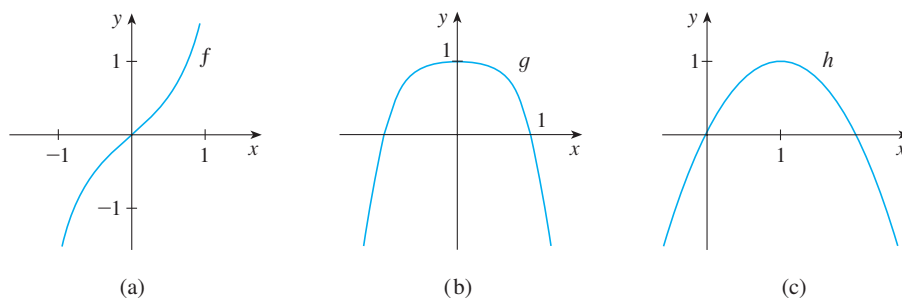


FIGURE 21

■ Increasing and Decreasing Functions

The graph shown in Figure 22 rises from A to B , falls from B to C , and rises again from C to D . The function f is said to be increasing on the interval $[a, b]$, decreasing on $[b, c]$, and increasing again on $[c, d]$. Notice that if x_1 and x_2 are any two numbers between a and b with $x_1 < x_2$, then $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$. We use this as the defining property of an increasing function.

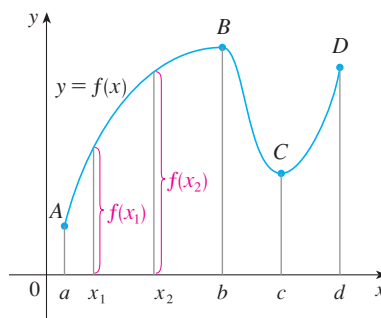


FIGURE 22

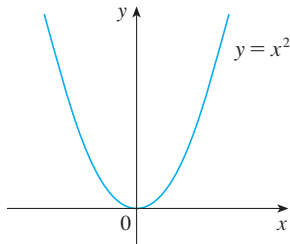


FIGURE 23

A function f is called **increasing** on an interval I if

$$f(x_1) < f(x_2) \quad \text{whenever } x_1 < x_2 \text{ in } I$$

It is called **decreasing** on I if

$$f(x_1) > f(x_2) \quad \text{whenever } x_1 < x_2 \text{ in } I$$

In the definition of an increasing function it is important to realize that the inequality $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ must be satisfied for *every* pair of numbers x_1 and x_2 in I with $x_1 < x_2$.

You can see from Figure 23 that the function $f(x) = x^2$ is decreasing on the interval $(-\infty, 0]$ and increasing on the interval $[0, \infty)$.

1.1 EXERCISES

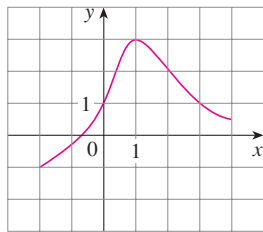
1. If $f(x) = x + \sqrt{2-x}$ and $g(u) = u + \sqrt{2-u}$, is it true that $f = g$?

2. If

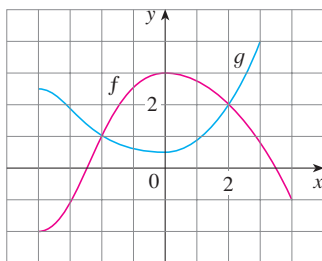
$$f(x) = \frac{x^2 - x}{x - 1} \quad \text{and} \quad g(x) = x$$

is it true that $f = g$?

3. The graph of a function f is given.
- State the value of $f(1)$.
 - Estimate the value of $f(-1)$.
 - For what values of x is $f(x) = 1$?
 - Estimate the value of x such that $f(x) = 0$.
 - State the domain and range of f .
 - On what interval is f increasing?



4. The graphs of f and g are given.



- State the values of $f(-4)$ and $g(3)$.
- For what values of x is $f(x) = g(x)$?

- (c) Estimate the solution of the equation $f(x) = -1$.

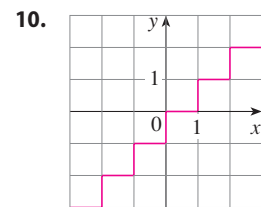
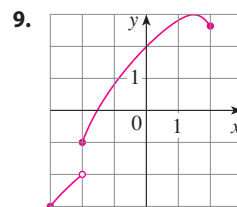
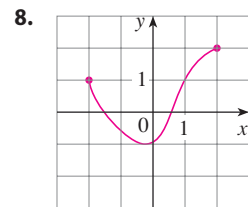
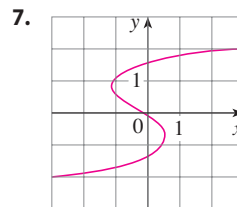
- (d) On what interval is f decreasing?

- (e) State the domain and range of f .

- (f) State the domain and range of g .

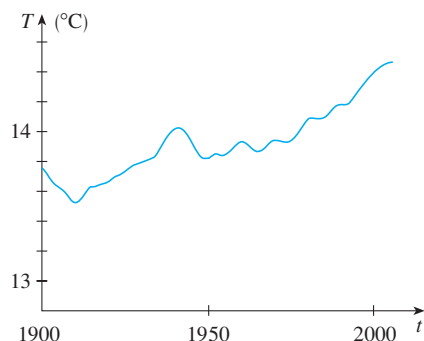
5. Figure 1 was recorded by an instrument operated by the California Department of Mines and Geology at the University Hospital of the University of Southern California in Los Angeles. Use it to estimate the range of the vertical ground acceleration function at USC during the Northridge earthquake.
6. In this section we discussed examples of ordinary, everyday functions: Population is a function of time, postage cost is a function of weight, water temperature is a function of time. Give three other examples of functions from everyday life that are described verbally. What can you say about the domain and range of each of your functions? If possible, sketch a rough graph of each function.

7–10 Determine whether the curve is the graph of a function of x . If it is, state the domain and range of the function.



11. Shown is a graph of the global average temperature T during the 20th century. Estimate the following.

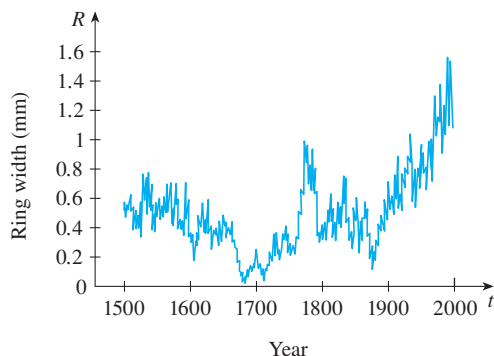
- The global average temperature in 1950
- The year when the average temperature was 14.2°C
- The year when the temperature was smallest? Largest?
- The range of T



Source: Adapted from *Globe and Mail* [Toronto], 5 Dec. 2009. Print.

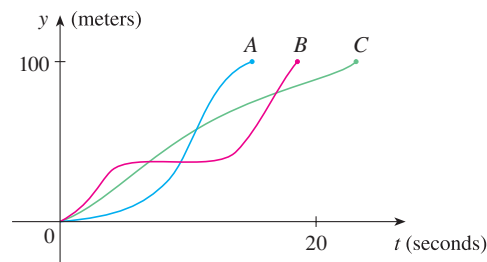
12. Trees grow faster and form wider rings in warm years and grow more slowly and form narrower rings in cooler years. The figure shows ring widths of a Siberian pine from 1500 to 2000.

- What is the range of the ring width function?
- What does the graph tend to say about the temperature of the earth? Does the graph reflect the volcanic eruptions of the mid-19th century?



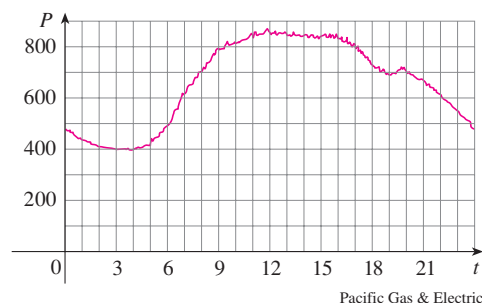
Source: Adapted from G. Jacoby et al., "Mongolian Tree Rings and 20th-Century Warming," *Science* 273 (1996): 771–73.

- You put some ice cubes in a glass, fill the glass with cold water, and then let the glass sit on a table. Describe how the temperature of the water changes as time passes. Then sketch a rough graph of the temperature of the water as a function of the elapsed time.
- Three runners compete in a 100-meter race. The graph depicts the distance run as a function of time for each runner. Describe in words what the graph tells you about this race. Who won the race? Did each runner finish the race?



15. The graph shows the power consumption for a day in September in San Francisco. (P is measured in megawatts; t is measured in hours starting at midnight.)

- What was the power consumption at 6 AM? At 6 PM?
- When was the power consumption the lowest? When was it the highest? Do these times seem reasonable?



- Sketch a rough graph of the number of hours of daylight as a function of the time of year.
- Sketch a rough graph of the outdoor temperature as a function of time during a typical spring day.
- Sketch a rough graph of the market value of a new car as a function of time for a period of 20 years. Assume the car is well maintained.
- Sketch the graph of the amount of a particular brand of coffee sold by a store as a function of the price of the coffee.
- You place a frozen pie in an oven and bake it for an hour. Then you take it out and let it cool before eating it. Describe how the temperature of the pie changes as time passes. Then sketch a rough graph of the temperature of the pie as a function of time.
- A homeowner mows the lawn every Wednesday afternoon. Sketch a rough graph of the height of the grass as a function of time over the course of a four-week period.
- An airplane takes off from an airport and lands an hour later at another airport, 400 miles away. If t represents the time in minutes since the plane has left the terminal building, let $x(t)$ be the horizontal distance traveled and $y(t)$ be the altitude of the plane.
 - Sketch a possible graph of $x(t)$.
 - Sketch a possible graph of $y(t)$.

- (c) Sketch a possible graph of the ground speed.
 (d) Sketch a possible graph of the vertical velocity.

- 23.** Temperature readings T (in $^{\circ}\text{F}$) were recorded every two hours from midnight to 2:00 PM in Atlanta on June 4, 2013. The time t was measured in hours from midnight.

t	0	2	4	6	8	10	12	14
T	74	69	68	66	70	78	82	86

- (a) Use the readings to sketch a rough graph of T as a function of t .
 (b) Use your graph to estimate the temperature at 9:00 AM.
- 24.** Researchers measured the blood alcohol concentration (BAC) of eight adult male subjects after rapid consumption of 30 mL of ethanol (corresponding to two standard alcoholic drinks). The table shows the data they obtained by averaging the BAC (in mg/mL) of the eight men.
- (a) Use the readings to sketch the graph of the BAC as a function of t .
 (b) Use your graph to describe how the effect of alcohol varies with time.

t (hours)	BAC	t (hours)	BAC
0	0	1.75	0.22
0.2	0.25	2.0	0.18
0.5	0.41	2.25	0.15
0.75	0.40	2.5	0.12
1.0	0.33	3.0	0.07
1.25	0.29	3.5	0.03
1.5	0.24	4.0	0.01

Source: Adapted from P. Wilkinson et al., "Pharmacokinetics of Ethanol after Oral Administration in the Fasting State," *Journal of Pharmacokinetics and Biopharmaceutics* 5 (1977): 207–24.

- 25.** If $f(x) = 3x^2 - x + 2$, find $f(2)$, $f(-2)$, $f(a)$, $f(-a)$, $f(a + 1)$, $2f(a)$, $f(2a)$, $f(a^2)$, $[f(a)]^2$, and $f(a + h)$.
- 26.** A spherical balloon with radius r inches has volume $V(r) = \frac{4}{3}\pi r^3$. Find a function that represents the amount of air required to inflate the balloon from a radius of r inches to a radius of $r + 1$ inches.

- 27–30** Evaluate the difference quotient for the given function. Simplify your answer.

27. $f(x) = 4 + 3x - x^2$, $\frac{f(3 + h) - f(3)}{h}$

28. $f(x) = x^3$, $\frac{f(a + h) - f(a)}{h}$

29. $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$, $\frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a}$

30. $f(x) = \frac{x + 3}{x + 1}$, $\frac{f(x) - f(1)}{x - 1}$

- 31–37** Find the domain of the function.

31. $f(x) = \frac{x + 4}{x^2 - 9}$

32. $f(x) = \frac{2x^3 - 5}{x^2 + x - 6}$

33. $f(t) = \sqrt[3]{2t - 1}$

34. $g(t) = \sqrt{3 - t} - \sqrt{2 + t}$

35. $h(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt[4]{x^2 - 5x}}$

36. $f(u) = \frac{u + 1}{1 + \frac{1}{u + 1}}$

37. $F(p) = \sqrt{2 - \sqrt{p}}$

- 38.** Find the domain and range and sketch the graph of the function $h(x) = \sqrt{4 - x^2}$.

- 39–40** Find the domain and sketch the graph of the function.

39. $f(x) = 1.6x - 2.4$

40. $g(t) = \frac{t^2 - 1}{t + 1}$

- 41–44** Evaluate $f(-3)$, $f(0)$, and $f(2)$ for the piecewise defined function. Then sketch the graph of the function.

41. $f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 2 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ 1 - x & \text{if } x \geq 0 \end{cases}$

42. $f(x) = \begin{cases} 3 - \frac{1}{2}x & \text{if } x < 2 \\ 2x - 5 & \text{if } x \geq 2 \end{cases}$

43. $f(x) = \begin{cases} x + 1 & \text{if } x \leq -1 \\ x^2 & \text{if } x > -1 \end{cases}$

44. $f(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x \leq 1 \\ 7 - 2x & \text{if } x > 1 \end{cases}$

- 45–50** Sketch the graph of the function.

45. $f(x) = x + |x|$

46. $f(x) = |x + 2|$

47. $g(t) = |1 - 3t|$

48. $h(t) = |t| + |t + 1|$

49. $f(x) = \begin{cases} |x| & \text{if } |x| \leq 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } |x| > 1 \end{cases}$

50. $g(x) = ||x| - 1|$

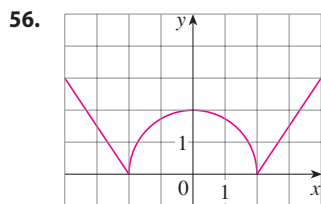
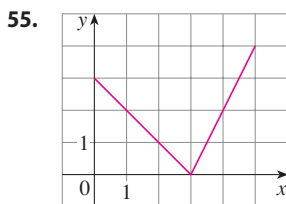
- 51–56** Find an expression for the function whose graph is the given curve.

51. The line segment joining the points $(1, -3)$ and $(5, 7)$

52. The line segment joining the points $(-5, 10)$ and $(7, -10)$

53. The bottom half of the parabola $x + (y - 1)^2 = 0$

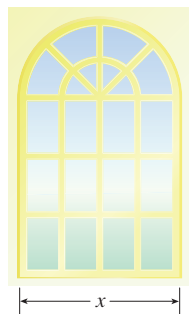
54. The top half of the circle $x^2 + (y - 2)^2 = 4$



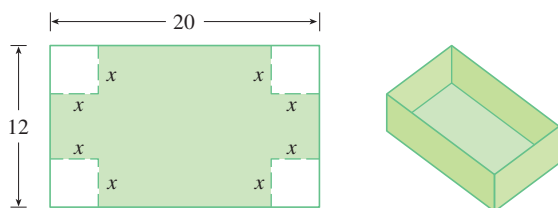
57–61 Find a formula for the described function and state its domain.

- 57.** A rectangle has perimeter 20 m. Express the area of the rectangle as a function of the length of one of its sides.
- 58.** A rectangle has area 16 m^2 . Express the perimeter of the rectangle as a function of the length of one of its sides.
- 59.** Express the area of an equilateral triangle as a function of the length of a side.
- 60.** A closed rectangular box with volume 8 ft^3 has length twice the width. Express the height of the box as a function of the width.
- 61.** An open rectangular box with volume 2 m^3 has a square base. Express the surface area of the box as a function of the length of a side of the base.

- 62.** A Norman window has the shape of a rectangle surmounted by a semicircle. If the perimeter of the window is 30 ft, express the area A of the window as a function of the width x of the window.

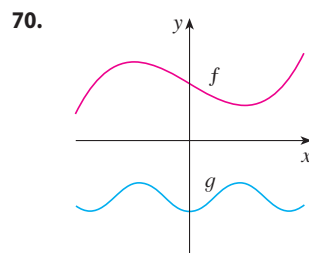
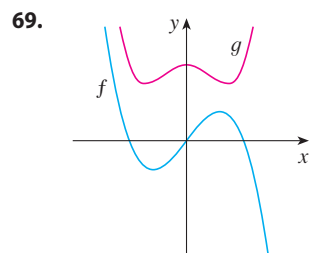


- 63.** A box with an open top is to be constructed from a rectangular piece of cardboard with dimensions 12 in. by 20 in. by cutting out equal squares of side x at each corner and then folding up the sides as in the figure. Express the volume V of the box as a function of x .

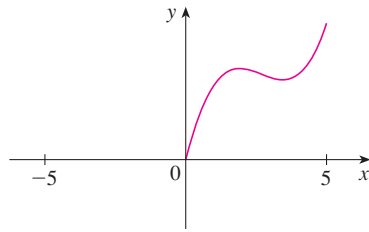


- 64.** A cell phone plan has a basic charge of \$35 a month. The plan includes 400 free minutes and charges 10 cents for each additional minute of usage. Write the monthly cost C as a function of the number x of minutes used and graph C as a function of x for $0 \leq x \leq 600$.
- 65.** In a certain state the maximum speed permitted on freeways is 65 mi/h and the minimum speed is 40 mi/h. The fine for violating these limits is \$15 for every mile per hour above the maximum speed or below the minimum speed. Express the amount of the fine F as a function of the driving speed x and graph $F(x)$ for $0 \leq x \leq 100$.
- 66.** An electricity company charges its customers a base rate of \$10 a month, plus 6 cents per kilowatt-hour (kWh) for the first 1200 kWh and 7 cents per kWh for all usage over 1200 kWh. Express the monthly cost E as a function of the amount x of electricity used. Then graph the function E for $0 \leq x \leq 2000$.
- 67.** In a certain country, income tax is assessed as follows. There is no tax on income up to \$10,000. Any income over \$10,000 is taxed at a rate of 10%, up to an income of \$20,000. Any income over \$20,000 is taxed at 15%.
- Sketch the graph of the tax rate R as a function of the income I .
 - How much tax is assessed on an income of \$14,000? On \$26,000?
 - Sketch the graph of the total assessed tax T as a function of the income I .
- 68.** The functions in Example 10 and Exercise 67 are called *step functions* because their graphs look like stairs. Give two other examples of step functions that arise in everyday life.

69–70 Graphs of f and g are shown. Decide whether each function is even, odd, or neither. Explain your reasoning.



- 71.** (a) If the point $(5, 3)$ is on the graph of an even function, what other point must also be on the graph?
 (b) If the point $(5, 3)$ is on the graph of an odd function, what other point must also be on the graph?
- 72.** A function f has domain $[-5, 5]$ and a portion of its graph is shown.
- Complete the graph of f if it is known that f is even.
 - Complete the graph of f if it is known that f is odd.



73–78 Determine whether f is even, odd, or neither. If you have a graphing calculator, use it to check your answer visually.

73. $f(x) = \frac{x}{x^2 + 1}$

74. $f(x) = \frac{x^2}{x^4 + 1}$

75. $f(x) = \frac{x}{x + 1}$

76. $f(x) = x|x|$

77. $f(x) = 1 + 3x^2 - x^4$

78. $f(x) = 1 + 3x^3 - x^5$

79. If f and g are both even functions, is $f + g$ even? If f and g are both odd functions, is $f + g$ odd? What if f is even and g is odd? Justify your answers.

80. If f and g are both even functions, is the product fg even? If f and g are both odd functions, is fg odd? What if f is even and g is odd? Justify your answers.

1.2 Mathematical Models: A Catalog of Essential Functions

A **mathematical model** is a mathematical description (often by means of a function or an equation) of a real-world phenomenon such as the size of a population, the demand for a product, the speed of a falling object, the concentration of a product in a chemical reaction, the life expectancy of a person at birth, or the cost of emission reductions. The purpose of the model is to understand the phenomenon and perhaps to make predictions about future behavior.

Figure 1 illustrates the process of mathematical modeling. Given a real-world problem, our first task is to formulate a mathematical model by identifying and naming the independent and dependent variables and making assumptions that simplify the phenomenon enough to make it mathematically tractable. We use our knowledge of the physical situation and our mathematical skills to obtain equations that relate the variables. In situations where there is no physical law to guide us, we may need to collect data (either from a library or the Internet or by conducting our own experiments) and examine the data in the form of a table in order to discern patterns. From this numerical representation of a function we may wish to obtain a graphical representation by plotting the data. The graph might even suggest a suitable algebraic formula in some cases.

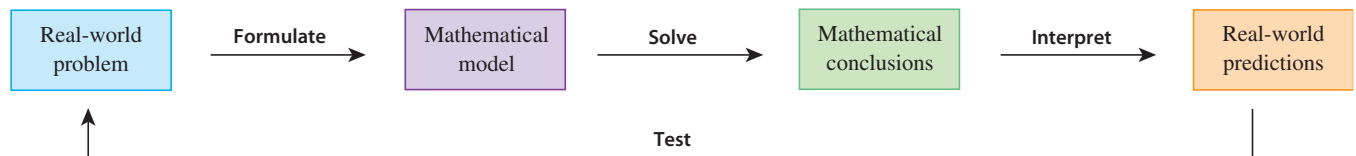


FIGURE 1
The modeling process

The second stage is to apply the mathematics that we know (such as the calculus that will be developed throughout this book) to the mathematical model that we have formulated in order to derive mathematical conclusions. Then, in the third stage, we take those mathematical conclusions and interpret them as information about the original real-world phenomenon by way of offering explanations or making predictions. The final step is to test our predictions by checking against new real data. If the predictions don't compare well with reality, we need to refine our model or to formulate a new model and start the cycle again.

A mathematical model is never a completely accurate representation of a physical situation—it is an *idealization*. A good model simplifies reality enough to permit math-