Partial Solutions of Exercises found in College Algebra Notes

Subject to change.

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1 Some Arithmetic and Geometry of Real Numbers

Exercise 1.17.

- (a) Explain with cases why, if a is a real number, then $a \leq |a|$.
- (b) Explain, if, for any real number a, sgn(a) = 1 if a > 0, sgn(a) = -1 if a < 0 and sgn(a) = 0 if a = 0, then a = sgn(a)|a| and |a| = sgn(a)a.

Solution:

- (a) Suppose a is a real number. Then either $a \ge 0$ or a < 0 by Trichotomy of order.
 - If $a \ge 0$, then $|a| = a \ge a$.
 - If a < 0, then |a| = -a > 0 > a.

In any case, $|a| \ge a$.

(b) Suppose a is a real number. Then either a > 0, a = 0 or a < 0 by Trichotomy of order.

- If a > 0, then |a| = a and $\operatorname{sgn}(a) = 1$. Hence, $a = 1 \cdot a = \operatorname{sgn}(a)|a|$. Also, $|a| = a = 1 \cdot a = \operatorname{sgn}(a)a$.
- If a = 0, then |a| = 0 and sgn(a) = 0. Hence, $a = 0 \cdot 0 = sgn(a)|a|$. Also, $|a| = 0 = 0 \cdot 0 = sgn(a)a$.
- If a < 0, then |a| = -a and $\operatorname{sgn}(a) = -1$. Hence, $a = (-1) \cdot (-a) = \operatorname{sgn}(a)|a|$. Also, $|a| = -a = (-1) \cdot a = \operatorname{sgn}(a)a$. The claims $a = (-1) \cdot (-a)$ and $-a = (-1) \cdot a$ for any real number a are not definitions, but can be explained using the distributive property.

In any case, $a = \operatorname{sgn}(a)|a|$ and $|a| = \operatorname{sgn}(a)a$.

2 Relations and Functions

Exercise 2.9. In Example ??, determine which are functions as relations in \mathbb{R}^2 and explain why.

Solution:

- (a) < is the set $\{(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a < b\}$. This is not a function. For example, both 0 < 1 and 0 < 2. Importantly, $1 \neq 2$. That is, $(0, 1) \in <$ and $(0, 2) \in <$ (there are two outputs for the same input). Another way to phrase this is < fails the vertical line test.
- (b) = on \mathbb{R}^2 is the set $\{(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a = b\}$. This is a function. For any $a \in \mathbb{R}$, if a = b and a = c for two real numbers b and c, then b = c by transitivity of equality.
- (c) The horizontal axis is the set $\{(a, b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid b = 0\}$. This is a function. For every $a \in \mathbb{R}$, if (a, b) and (a, c) are on the horizontal axis for some real numbers b and c, then b = 0 = c, by definition.
- (d) The vertical axis is the set $\{(a,b) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid a = 0\}$. This is not a function. For example, both (0,1) and (0,2) are members of this set. So, there exists an input which has two outputs.

Exercise 2.10.

For this exercise, let $B = \{a, b\}$, the set consisting of the characters a and b.

- (a) If $A_1 = \{1\}$, the set consisting of the number 1, describe all functions with domain A_1 and codomain B.
- (b) If $A_2 = \{1, 2\}$, describe all functions with domain A_2 and codomain B.
- (c) If $A_3 = \{1, 2, 3\}$, describe all functions with domain A_3 and codomain B.
- (d) If n is a natural number (an integer > 0), try to deduce a formula for the number of functions with domain consisting of n elements and codomain B. Can you explain your result?

Solution: Remember what it means to be a function. Each input is assigned exactly one output.

(a) There are two functions.

	A_1	B	
•	1	a '	
	A_1	B	
	1	b	

(b) There are four functions.

A_2	В	A_2	B
1	a	1	a
2	a	2	b
A_2	B	A_2	B
A_2 1	B	A_2	B

(c) There are eight functions

	A_3	B		A_3	В		A_3	В	[A_3	B
3.	1	a		1	a		1	a		1	a
	2	a	, _	2	a	'	2	b	'	2	b
	3	a		3	b		3	a		3	b
	A_3	В		A_3	B]	A_3	В	[A_3	B
	1	b		1	b		1	b		1	b
	2	a	'	2	a	ľ	2	b	'	2	b
	3	a		3	b		3	a		3	b

(d) Notice each time we double the amount of functions. This is because there are two elements in the set B. If n is a natural number greater than 1, for every function f between A_{n-1} and B, there are exactly two functions between A_n and B whose restriction to A_{n-1} , as a subset of A_n , is f. One of these functions sends n to a, the other sends n to b. So, the number of functions with domain A_n and target B is 2^n .

Exercise 2.17.

- (a) Express the real number line as a disjoint union of two intervals.
- (b) Express the real number line as a disjoint union of three intervals.
- (c) Express the relation \leq as a union of two relations.

Solution:

- (a) There are infinitely many intervals to choose from. We choose $(-\infty, \infty) = (-\infty, 0) \cup [0, \infty)$. This equality (and the disjointness of the intervals on the right) is the statement of Trichotomy of positivity. Any number is exactly either negative, zero, or positive.
- (b) $(-\infty, \infty) = (-\infty, 0) \cup [0, 1] \cup (1, \infty)$. Let's demonstrate these two sets are equal. Certainly, $(-\infty, 0) \cup [0, 1] \cup (1, \infty)$ is a subset of $(-\infty, \infty)$. If $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$, then either x < 0, meaning $x \in (-\infty, 0), x \ge 0$ and $x \le 1$, meaning $x \in [0, 1]$, or x > 1, meaning $x \in (1, \infty)$. These follow from repeated use of Trichotomy of order. Hence, $x \in (-\infty, 0) \cup [0, 1] \cup (1, \infty)$. Since x is an arbitrary real number, it follows $\mathbb{R} = (-\infty, 0) \cup [0, 1] \cup (1, \infty)$.

Moreover, the intervals $(-\infty, 0)$, [0, 1] and $(1, \infty)$ are mutually disjoint by Trichotomy of order. If x < 0, then it's not true that $x \ge 0$. So, if $x \in (0, \infty)$, then $x \notin [0, 1] \cup (1, \infty)$. Similarly, if $0 \le x \le 1$, then it is not true that x < 0 or x > 1. So, if $x \in [0, 1]$, then $x \notin (-\infty, 0) \cup (1, \infty)$. Finally, if x > 1, then it is not true that $x \le 1$. Hence, if $x \in (1, \infty)$, then $x \notin (-\infty, 0) \cup [0, 1]$.

(c) The relation \leq is the relation $\langle \cup = .$ If $a \leq b$, then either a < b or a = b by definition. Hence, \leq is a subset of $\langle \cup = .$ If either a < b or a = b, then $a \leq b$ by definition. Hence, $\langle \cup = .$ is a subset of $\leq .$ Since these relations are subsets of each other, they are equal. **Exercise 2.20.** Determine when the union of two functions $f \cup g$ is itself a function. Such a function is called a **piecewise function**. Hint: If the domain of f and the domain of g are disjoint, then $f \cup g$ is a function.

Solution: Suppose f and g are functions. By definition, the relation $f \cup g$ is a function exactly when, whenever $(x, y) \in f \cup g$ and $(x, z) \in f \cup g$, y = z. Now by definition, $(x, y) \in f \cup g$ if either $(x, y) \in f$ or $(x, y) \in g$ and $(x, z) \in f \cup g$ if either $(x, z) \in f$ or $(x, z) \in g$. So, if (x, y) and (x, z) are members of f or both members of g, then y = z because f and g are functions themselves. So, we need only consider when (x, y) is a member of f and (x, z) is a member of g or vice versa. In this case, $x \in \text{domain}(f) \cap \text{domain}(g)$, the intersection of the domains of f and g. In order to ensure y = z, f must agree with g on the intersection of their domain.

Claim: $f \cup g$ is a function if and only if, whenever $x \in \text{domain}(f) \cap \text{domain}(g)$, f(x) = g(x). Proof:

- Suppose $f \cup g$ is a function. Now fix $x \in \text{domain}(f) \cap \text{domain}(g)$. Then $(x, f(x)) \in f$ and $(x, g(x)) \in g$. Since $f \cup g$ is a function, f(x) = g(x).
- Conversely, suppose, whenever x ∈ domain(f) ∩ domain(g), f(x) = g(x). Further, to demonstrate f∪g is a function under this hypothesis, suppose (x, y) ∈ f∪g and (x, z) ∈ f∪g. Then either (x, y) and (x, z) are members of either f or g separately, in which case y = z since f and g are functions, or x ∈ domain(f) ∩ domain(g), in which case, y = f(x) = g(x) = z, where f(x) = g(x) by hypothesis. Hence, f ∪ g is a function.

In the language of function restriction, this claim can be rephrased as $f \cup g$ is a function if and only if $f|_{\text{domain}(f) \cap \text{domain}(g)} = g|_{\text{domain}(f) \cap \text{domain}(g)}$.

Exercise 2.25. Suppose f and g are both functions.

- (n) If A is a subset of the codomain of f, explain why $f(f^{-1}(A))$ is a subset of A.
- (o) Give an example of a function f and subset of its codomain A for which A is not a subset of $f(f^{-1}(A))$.
- (p) Find the domain of $f \circ g$ in terms of the domain of f and g as a preimage.

Solution:

(n) Suppose A is a subset of the codomain of f. Recall the image of $f^{-1}(A)$ under f is the set

 $f(f^{-1}(A)) = \{ y \in \operatorname{codomain}(f) \mid \text{ there is some } x \in f^{-1}(A) \text{ such that } f(x) = y \}.$

Recall the preimage of A under f is the set

$$f^{-1}(A) = \{ x \in \operatorname{domain}(f) \mid f(x) \in A \}.$$

We want to demonstrate the image of the preimage of A under f is a subset of A. If $y \in f(f^{-1}(A))$, then there is some $x \in f^{-1}(A)$ such that f(x) = y. Since $x \in f^{-1}(A)$, then $f(x) \in A$ by definition. Since y = f(x), $y \in A$. Since y is an arbitrary element of $f(f^{-1}(A))$, we conclude $f(f^{-1}(A))$ is a subset of A.

(o) Define f with domain $\{0\}$ and codomain $\{1,2\}$ by f(0) = 1. Now, if $A = \{1,2\}$, the codomain itself, then $f^{-1}(A) = \{0\}$, since $f^{-1}(\operatorname{codomain}(f)) = \operatorname{domain}(f)$ for all functions f. Then $f(f^{-1}(A)) = \{1\}$, since $f(\operatorname{domain}(f)) = \operatorname{range}(f)$ for all functions f. Hence, A is not a subset of $f(f^{-1}(A))$.

As another example, the square function, sq, has domain \mathbb{R} and codomain \mathbb{R} , but range $[0, \infty)$. If A = [-1,1], then $f^{-1}(A) = [-1,1]$, since if $-1 \leq x^2 \leq 1$, then $-1 \leq x \leq 1$. Then $f(f^{-1}(A)) = [0,1]$, since if $-1 \leq x \leq 1$, then $0 \leq x^2 \leq 1$. Hence, A is not a subset of $f(f^{-1}(A))$.

In both cases, A is chosen so that some of its members are not in the range of f. This is the only condition needed to ensure A is not a subset of $f(f^{-1}(A))$.

(p) Suppose f and g are functions. Recall the domain of the composition of f with g, $f \circ g$, is defined to be the set of all $x \in \text{domain}(g)$ such that $g(x) \in \text{domain}(f)$. So,

 $\operatorname{domain}(f \circ g) = g^{-1}(\operatorname{domain}(f)).$

Exercise 2.26. If f, g, l, m are functions for which $f \cup g$ and $l \cup m$ are functions, find the domain of $(f \cup g) \circ (l \cup m)$ as a union of preimages.

Solution: Suppose f, g, l, m are functions for which $f \cup g$ and $l \cup m$ are functions. By Theorem 2.23 (Composition of Piecewise) in the notes, we know

$$(f \cup g) \circ (l \cup m) = f \circ l \cup g \circ l \cup f \circ m \cup g \circ m.$$

By Definition of the union of functions,

 $\operatorname{domain}((f \cup g) \circ (l \cup m)) = \operatorname{domain}(f \circ l) \cup \operatorname{domain}(g \circ l) \cup \operatorname{domain}(f \circ m) \cup \operatorname{domain}(g \circ m)$

By Exercise 2.25 p,

 $\operatorname{domain}((f \cup g) \circ (l \cup m)) = l^{-1}(\operatorname{domain}(f)) \cup l^{-1}(\operatorname{domain}(g)) \cup m^{-1}(\operatorname{domain}(f)) \cup m^{-1}(\operatorname{domain}(g)).$

Exercise 2.36.

(b) The **difference** of two real-valued functions f and g is defined by

$$f - g := f + \operatorname{const}_{-1} \cdot g.$$

That is, for all $x \in \text{domain}(f) \cap \text{domain}(g)$, f - g(x) = f(x) - g(x). Express sgn as the the difference of two indicator functions.

Solution:

(b) Recall, for a given set *B*, and given subset *A* of *B*, the indicator function of *A* of *B* is defined to be

$$\chi_{A,B}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } x \notin A \end{cases}$$

for all $x \in B$. $\chi_{A,B}(x)$ tells us whether x is in A or x is not in A. $\chi_{A,B}$ distinguishes members of A apart from other members of B.

The sgn function is defined to be

$$\operatorname{sgn}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x > 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0\\ -1 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. $\operatorname{sgn}(x)$ tells us whether x is positive, zero, or negative. By Trichotomy, these sets are disjoint. It's not difficult to verify

$$\operatorname{sgn} = \chi_{[0,\infty),\mathbb{R}} - \chi_{(-\infty,0],\mathbb{R}}.$$

Notice these are both closed unbounded intervals. Notice also

$$\operatorname{sgn} = \chi_{(0,\infty),\mathbb{R}} - \chi_{(-\infty,0),\mathbb{R}}$$

Exercise 2.38.

- (d) If m_1, m_2, b_1, b_2 are real numbers, express $l_{m_2, b_2} \cdot l_{m_1, b_1}$ as a quadratic function.
- (f) Demonstrate by way of example. The degree of the sum of two polynomials can be equal to the maximum of their degrees.
- (h) Provide an example of two degree three polynomials whose sum has degree 0.

Solution:

(d) For every $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$l_{m_2,b_2} \cdot l_{m_1,b_1}(x) = (m_2x + b_2)(m_1x + b_1) = m_1m_2x^2 + (m_1b_2 + m_2b_1)x + b_1b_2$$

Hence,

$$l_{m_2,b_2} \cdot l_{m_1,b_1} = q_{m_1m_2,m_1b_2+m_2b_1,b_1b_2}.$$

- (f) If f(x) = x (degree 1) and g(x) = 1 (degree 0), then (f + g)(x) = x + 1 (degree 1).
- (h) If $f(x) = x^3$ and $g(x) = -x^3 + 1$, then f and g both have degree 3 and $(f+g)(x) = x^3 x^3 + 1 = 1$. This means f + g is a nonzero constant and hence has degree 0.

4 Polynomials

Exercise 4.11.

- (a) Is there any real number c for which $q_{1,-(c+1),c}$ does not have real zeros?
- (b) Find $a \in \mathbb{R}$ for which $q_{1,0,a}$ has
 - no zeros,
 - one zero, and
 - two zeros.

Solution:

(a) The zeros of $q_{1,-(c+1),c}$ are the numbers

$$\left\{\frac{c+1\pm\sqrt{(c+1)^2-4c}}{2}\right\} = \left\{\frac{c+1\pm\sqrt{(c-1)^2}}{2}\right\} = \left\{\frac{c+1\pm(c-1)}{2}\right\} = \left\{c,1\right\}.$$

These are real numbers if c is a real number.

(b) Note $q_{1,0,a}(x) = x^2 + a$ and $(x^2 + a) = (x - \sqrt{a})(x + \sqrt{a})$ for all real x.

- If a < 0, then $q_{1,0,a}$ has no real zeros.
- If a = 0, then $q_{1,0,a}$ has one real zero.
- If a > 0, then $q_{1,0,a}$ has two real zeros.

Exercise 4.14. Suppose f is any polynomial.

- (a) If d is a nonzero constant polynomial, what are the unique polynomials q and r for which $f = q \cdot d + r$ and the degree of r is strictly less than the degree of d?
- (b) If the degree of f is equal to the degree of d, what are the unique polynomials q and r for which $f = q \cdot d + r$ and the degree of r is strictly less than the degree of d?
- (c) If the degree of f is strictly less than the degree of d, what are the unique polynomials q and r for which $f = q \cdot d + r$ and the degree of r is strictly less than the degree of d?
- (d) Construct polynomials f, d, q, r for which $f = q \cdot d + r$ and the degree of r is two less than the degree of d and the degree of q is equal to the degree of d.

Solution:

- (a) If d is a nonzero constant polynomial (degree 0), then r must be the zero polynomial, since the zero polynomial is the only polynomial with degree less than 0. Then $q = \frac{f}{d}$. Since f is a polynomial and d is a nonzero constant function, then q is a polynomial.
- (b) If the degree of f is equal to the degree of d, then q must be a nonzero constant, since the degree of a product of two polynomials is the sum of their degrees. If a is the leading coefficient of f and b is the leading coefficient of d, then a and b are not zero. Define

$$q = \operatorname{const}_{\frac{a}{b}}$$

and

$$r = f - q \cdot d.$$

Notice the degree and leading coefficient of f and $q \cdot d$ are the same. Hence, their difference has degree less than f, and hence d. So, the degree of r is less than the degree of d. Moreover,

$$f = q \cdot d + f - q \cdot d = q \cdot d + r.$$

- (c) If the degree of f is strictly less than the degree of d, define $q = \text{const}_0$ and r = f. Then the degree of r is less than the degree of d and $f = \text{const}_0 \cdot d + f = q \cdot d + r$.
- (d) If $r = \text{const}_1$, d = q = sq, and $f(x) = x^4 + 1$ for every real x, then the degree of d and q are both two, the degree of r is zero, and $f = q \cdot d + r$.

Exercise 4.16.

- (a) Find q in the conclusion of the remainder theorem.
- (b) Generalize the remainder theorem to work for $l_{m,d}$ if $m \neq 0$ instead of only $l_{1,-k}$. In other words, what is the remainder after dividing f by $l_{m,d}$ if $m \neq 0$?

Solution:

- (a) For any polynomial f, for any real number k, we wish to find polynomial q such that $f = q \cdot l_{1,-k} + \text{const}_{f(k)}$. We can write $f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^{n} a_i (x-k)^i$ for some a_i , n and every x. In this case, $a_0 = f(k)$ and $q(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_i (x-k)^{i-1}$.
- (b) The remainder will still be a constant, since the degree of the divisor is one. Hence, $f = q \cdot l_{m,d} + r$ for some polynomial q and some constant r. Then $f\left(-\frac{d}{m}\right) = q\left(-\frac{d}{m}\right) \cdot \left(m\left(-\frac{d}{m}\right) + d\right) + r = r$. Hence,

$$r = f\left(-\frac{d}{m}\right)$$

Exercise 4.21.

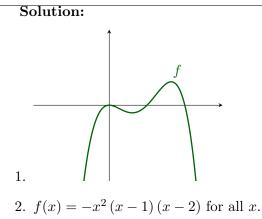
- 1. Give an example of a real function which is positive on the closed interval [-1,0] and is negative on the half-open interval (0,1].
- 2. Is it possible for this function to be a polynomial? Why or why not?

Solution:

- 1. Let $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } -1 \le x \le 0 \\ -1 & \text{if } 0 < x \le 1. \end{cases}$
- 2. No. This is by the intermediate value theorem. If f is a polynomial which is positive on [-1,0) and negative on (0,1], then f(0) = 0 necessarily by the intermediate value theorem. Hence, f(0) is not positive. So, f(0) cannot be positive if f is negative on (0,1].

Exercise 4.27.

- 1. Sketch the graph of a polynomial which has exactly two local maximum values, one local minimum value and three zeros. *Hint:* Think about what the multiplicity of at least one of the zeros has to be.
- 2. Find an equation for the polynomial found in part (a).



5 Rational Functions

Exercise 5.10.

(a) If a is a real number, does the rational function

$$l_{1,-a} \cdot (\operatorname{recip} \circ q_{1,-2a,a^2})$$

have any infinite limits at a point?

(b) If a is a real number, does the rational function

$$q_{1,-2a,a^2} \cdot (\operatorname{recip} \circ l_{1,-a})$$

have any infinite limits at a point?

(c) Does the rational function

$$l_{1,0} \cdot (\operatorname{recip} \circ q_{1,0,1})$$

have any infinite limits at a point?

Solution: Note $q_{1,-2a,a^2} = l_{1,-a} \cdot l_{1,-a}$. Hence, the multiplicity of a as a zero of $l_{1,-a}$ is one and the multiplicity of a as a zero of $q_{1,-2a,a^2}$ is two.

(a) By Theorem 5.6(a), this rational function has an infinite limit at a. In particular,

$$\lim_{a^-} l_{1,-a} \cdot (\operatorname{recip} \circ q_{1,-2a,a^2}) = -\infty$$

and

$$\lim_{a^+} l_{1,-a} \cdot (\operatorname{recip} \circ q_{1,-2a,a^2}) = \infty.$$

(b) By Theorem 5.11, this rational function does not have an infinite limit at a, since it has a removable discontinuity there. In fact,

$$\lim_{a^{\pm}} q_{1,-2a,a^2} \cdot (\operatorname{recip} \circ l_{1,-a}) = 0.$$

And the domain of this rational function is $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{a\}$. So, this function does not have any infinite limits at a point.

(c) No. This is because $q_{1,0,1}$ does not have any real zeros. This means the domain of $l_{1,0}$. (recip $\circ q_{1,0,1}$) is \mathbb{R} .

6 Invertibility and Radical Functions

Exercise 6.5.

- (c) When is an affine function $l_{m,d}$, for real numbers m, d, invertible? What is its inverse in this case?
- (d) Find all the affine functions which are their own inverse.
- (e) For which real numbers a is $l_{1,a}$ invertible? For those a, find the inverse of $l_{1,a}$. $l_{1,a}$ is called addition on the right by a.
- (f) For which real numbers a is $l_{a,0}$ invertible? For those a, find the inverse of $l_{a,0}$. $l_{a,0}$ is called multiplication on the left by a.

Solution:

(c) Suppose $l_{m,d}$ is invertible. In particular, $l_{m,d}$ is one-to-one. That is, $l_{m,d}(x) = l_{m,d}(y)$ implies x = y. But $l_{m,d}(x) = l_{m,d}(y)$ if and only if mx + d = my + d if and only if mx = my. And mx = my implies x = y if and only if $m \neq 0$. So, we conclude $l_{m,d}$ is invertible if and only if $m \neq 0$. If $m \neq 0$, then

$$l_{m,d}^{-1} = l_{m^{-1},-m^{-1}d}$$

To check, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$l_{m^{-1},-m^{-1}d}(l_{m,d}(x)) = m^{-1}(mx+d) - m^{-1}d = x$$

and

$$l_{m,d}(l_{m^{-1},-m^{-1}d}(x)) = m(m^{-1}x - m^{-1}d) + d = x.$$

Hence,

$$l_{m^{-1},-m^{-1}d} \circ l_{m,d} = \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{R}}$$

and

$$l_{m,d} \circ l_{m^{-1},-m^{-1}d} = \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{R}^d}$$

(d) We note $l_{m,d} \circ l_{m,d} = \mathrm{id}_{\mathbb{R}}$ if and only if, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$m(mx+d) + d = x$$

if and only if, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(m^2 - 1)x + (m + 1)d = 0$$

And $m^2 - 1 = (m + 1)(m - 1)$. By Exercise 2.38(a), a polynomial is completely determined by its coefficients. So, if a polynomial is identically zero, then its coefficients are. That is,

$$\begin{cases} (m+1)(m-1) = 0\\ (m+1)d = 0. \end{cases}$$

Hence, by second equation and the zero product property, either m + 1 = 0 or d = 0. If m + 1 = 0, then m = -1. If d = 0 but $m + 1 \neq 0$, then by the first equation and the zero product property, m = 1. Hence, if $l_{m,d}$ is its own inverse for some real m, d, then either m = 1 and d = 0, which is $id_{\mathbb{R}}$, or m = -1 and d is arbitrary. That is, the only lines which are their own inverse are the identity function and any line perpendicular to the identity.

- (e) For any number $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $l_{1,a}$ is invertible. In this case, the inverse of $l_{1,a}$ is $l_{1,-a}$, since x+a-a=x and x-a+a=x for all real x. In words, the inverse of addition on the right by a is subtraction on the right by a.
- (f) For any nonzero number $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $l_{a,0}$ is invertible. In this case, the inverse of $l_{a,0}$ is $l_{a^{-1},0}$, since $aa^{-1}x = x$ and $a^{-1}ax = x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. In words, if $a \neq 0$, the inverse of multiplication on the left by a is multiplication on the left by a^{-1} . If a = 0, $l_{a,0}$ is not one-to-one because it's the constant zero function, hence it is not invertible.

Exercise 6.7. Suppose *a* is a nonzero real number.

- (g) Find the inverse of id^a as another power function.
- (i) Explain why $id^{\frac{1}{2}} \circ sq = abs \setminus \{(0,0)\}$ as relations by way of Theorem ??.
- (j) Find the domain, range and inverse of the function

$$R = l_{1,1} \circ \mathrm{id}^3 \cdot (\mathrm{recip} \circ l_{1,-8} \circ \mathrm{id}^3).$$

Solution:

(g) If f is the inverse of id^a , then

$$x = f(\mathrm{id}^a(x)) = f(x^a)$$

for all x > 0 and

$$(f(y))^a = \mathrm{id}^a(f(y)) = y$$

for all y in the domain of f. This last equation implies

$$f(y) = y^{\frac{1}{a}}$$

for all y in the domain of f. The first equation implies, if $y = x^a$, then $x = y^{\frac{1}{a}}$ and

$$y^{\frac{1}{a}} = f(y).$$

And recall, for every positive number x, there is a unique positive number y such that $x = y^{\frac{1}{a}}$. Hence, we conclude

$$(\mathrm{id}^a)^{-1} = \mathrm{id}^{\frac{1}{a}}.$$

(i) First, the domain of $id^{\frac{1}{2}} \circ sq$ is $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ since

$$\operatorname{domain}(\operatorname{id}^{\frac{1}{2}} \circ \operatorname{sq}) = \operatorname{sq}^{-1}(\operatorname{domain}(\operatorname{id}^{\frac{1}{2}})) = \operatorname{sq}^{-1}((0,\infty)) = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$$

The last equality is the statement of Theorem 4.2(a). $\mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ is the domain of abs $\setminus \{(0,0)\}$ as well.

Next, if

$$(x,y) \in \mathrm{id}^{\frac{1}{2}} \circ \mathrm{sq},$$

then $x \neq 0$ and $y = \sqrt{x^2}$. If x > 0, then $y = \sqrt{x^2} = x = |x|$. Hence,

$$(x,y) = (x,|x|) \in abs \setminus \{(0,0)\}.$$

If x < 0, then -x > 0, and $y = \sqrt{x^2} = \sqrt{(-x)^2} = -x = |x|$. Hence,

$$(x,y) = (x,|x|) \in abs \setminus \{(0,0)\}$$

in this case as well.

If

$$(x,y) \in abs \setminus \{(0,0)\}$$

then $x \neq 0$ and y = |x|. As we have just demonstrated, $|x| = \sqrt{x^2}$. Hence,

$$(x,y) \in \mathrm{id}^{\frac{1}{2}} \circ \mathrm{sq}$$

As an aside, how do we justify the statement x > 0 implies $\sqrt{x^2} = x$? We know, if $b \ge 0$, there is a unique $a \ge 0$ such that $b = a^2$. Namely, $a = \sqrt{b}$. Since $x^2 > 0$, there is a unique a > 0 such that $x^2 = a^2$. Since sq is strictly increasing on $(0, \infty)$, it is one-to-one there. Hence, a = x. That is, $\sqrt{x^2} = a = x$. Similarly, if x < 0, then -x > 0, and we can apply the same reasoning to conclude $\sqrt{x^2} = \sqrt{(-x)^2} = -x$. $\sqrt{x^2} = \sqrt{(-x)^2}$ because $x^2 = (-x)^2$ and id^{1/2} is a function.

(j) The domain of R is

$$\operatorname{domain}(l_{1,1} \circ \operatorname{id}^3) \cap \operatorname{domain}(\operatorname{recip} \circ l_{1,-8} \circ \operatorname{id}^3) = (\operatorname{id}^3)^{-1}(\operatorname{domain}(l_{1,1})) \cap (l_{1,-8} \circ \operatorname{id}^3)^{-1}(\operatorname{domain}(\operatorname{recip}))$$

$$= (\mathrm{id}^3)^{-1}(\mathbb{R}) \cap (\mathrm{id}^3)^{-1}((l_{1,-8})^{-1}(\mathbb{R}\setminus\{0\}))$$
$$= (0,\infty) \cap (\mathrm{id}^3)^{-1}(\mathbb{R}\setminus\{8\}) = (0,\infty) \cap (\mathbb{R}\setminus\{2\}) = (0,2) \cup (2,\infty)$$

The range of R is found like so. We notice

$$R(t) = \frac{t^3 + 1}{t^3 - 8}$$

for all $t \in (0, 2) \cup (2, \infty)$. If 0 < t < 2, then

$$1 < t^3 + 1 < 9$$

and

$$\frac{1}{t^3 - 8} < -\frac{1}{8}.$$

So,

$$R(t) = \frac{t^3 + 1}{t^3 - 8} = (t^3 + 1) \cdot \frac{1}{t^3 - 8} < -\frac{1}{8}(t^3 + 1) < -\frac{1}{8}.$$

Notice

$$R(t) = 1 + \frac{9}{t^3 - 8}$$

by the division lemma. So, if t > 2, then R(t) > 1. Combining this, we've proved

$$\operatorname{range}(R) \subseteq (-\infty, -\frac{1}{8}) \cup (1, \infty).$$
(6.8)

we conjecture the range of R is

$$(-\infty, -\frac{1}{8}) \cup (1, \infty).$$

We will prove this in the following way.

Finding the inverse of a function is a matter of expressing the input of the function in terms of its output. Again,

$$R(t) = \frac{t^3 + 1}{t^3 - 8}$$

for all $t \in (0, 2) \cup (2, \infty)$. Hence, if s = R(t), then

$$s(t^3 - 8) = t^3 + 1.$$

Hence,

$$st^3 - t^3 = 1 + 8s.$$

Hence,

$$t^3(s-1) = 1 + 8s.$$

Define

$$Q(s) = t = \left(\frac{8s+1}{s-1}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

for all $s \in (-\infty, -\frac{1}{8}) \cup (1, \infty)$.

We claim Q is the inverse of R. Showing $Q \circ R = id_{domain(R)}$ and $R \circ Q = id_{domain(Q)}$ will verify that Q is the inverse of R, and is left to the reader.

We instead show $(-\infty, -\frac{1}{8}) \cup (1, \infty)$ is the range of *R*. If $s < -\frac{1}{8}$, then 8(s-1) < 8s + 1 < 0 and s - 1 < 0. So,

$$0 < \frac{8s+1}{s-1} < 8$$

Hence, if $s < -\frac{1}{8}$, then

$$0 < Q(s) < 2$$

because $\operatorname{id}^{\frac{1}{3}}$ is increasing on \mathbb{R} . So, if

$$s < -\frac{1}{8},$$

then there exists $t \in (0, 2)$ such that R(t) = s. Namely,

$$t = Q(s).$$

Since

$$R(Q(s)) = s$$

for all $s \in \text{domain}(Q)$, this proves

$$(-\infty, -\frac{1}{8}) \subseteq \operatorname{range}(R).$$

Similarly, if s > 1, then 0 < 8(s - 1) < 8s + 1. So,

$$8 < \frac{8s+1}{s-1}.$$

Hence, if s > 1, then

2 < Q(s).

So, if

s > 1,

then there exists $t \in (2, \infty)$ such that R(t) = s. Namely,

$$t = Q(s).$$

Since

R(Q(s))

for all $s \in \text{domain}(Q)$, this proves

$$(1,\infty) \subseteq \operatorname{range}(R).$$

Hence,

$$(-\infty, -\frac{1}{8}) \cup (1, \infty) \subseteq \operatorname{range}(R).$$

This, combined with Equation 6.8, proves

$$\operatorname{range}(R) = (-\infty, -\frac{1}{8}) \cup (1, \infty).$$

7 exponential functions

Exercise 7.3. Use the rules of exp and log to demonstrate these identities of their average rate of change.

Solution:

$$\frac{\exp_a(s+t) - \exp_a(s)}{t} = \frac{a^{s+t} - a^s}{t} = \frac{a^s \cdot a^t - a^s}{t} = \frac{a^s(a^t - 1)}{t} = a^s \cdot \frac{a^t - 1}{t}.$$
$$\frac{\log_a(A+B) - \log_a(A)}{B} = \frac{\log_a(A+B) + \log_a(A^{-1})}{B} = \frac{\log_a((A+B)A^{-1})}{B}$$
$$= \frac{1}{B} \cdot \log_a(1 + BA^{-1})$$
$$= \log_a((1 + BA^{-1})^{\frac{1}{B}}).$$

Exercise 7.4. Suppose a, b are positive, nonone real numbers, and m, n are nonzero real numbers, and k, d are real numbers.

- (a) Find the inverse of $l_{n,k} \circ \exp_a \circ l_{m,d}$ as a composition involving linear functions.
- (b) Use properties of exponents to write $l_{n,k} \circ \exp_a \circ l_{m,d}$ as $l_{s,u} \circ \exp_b \circ l_{w,v}$ for some real numbers s, u, w and v and where |s| = 1.
- (c) In the above exercise, find b for which w = 1.

Solution:

(a) Recall if f and g are invertible, then their composition $f \circ g$ is, with inverse $g^{-1} \circ f^{-1}$. Since \exp_a is invertible with inverse \log_a , and $l_{n,k}$ is invertible with inverse $l_{n^{-1},-n^{-1}k}$, it follows the inverse of $l_{n,k} \circ \exp_a \circ l_{m,d}$ is

$$(l_{n,k} \circ \exp_a \circ l_{m,d})^{-1} = l_{m,d}^{-1} \circ (l_{n,k} \circ \exp_a)^{-1} = l_{m^{-1},-m^{-1}d} \circ \log_a \circ l_{n^{-1},-n^{-1}k}.$$

(b) Notice $l_{n,k} \circ \exp_a \circ l_{m,d}(x) = na^{mx+d} + k$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. So, $l_{n,k} \circ \exp_a \circ l_{m,d} = l_{s,u} \circ \exp_b \circ l_{w,v}$ if and only if $na^{mx+d} + k = sb^{wx+v} + u$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

We note $n = \operatorname{sgn}(n)|n| = \operatorname{sgn}(n)a^{\log_a(|n|)}$ since |n| > 0 by assumption. Hence,

$$na^{mx+d} = \operatorname{sgn}(n)a^{\log_a(|n|)}a^{mx+d} = \operatorname{sgn}(n)a^{mx+d+\log_a(|n|)}$$

Also,

$$a^y = b^{\log_b(a)y}$$

for any real y. So,

$$na^{mx+d} = \operatorname{sgn}(n)b^{\log_b(a)(mx+d+\log_a(|n|))}$$

Hence, if

 $s = \operatorname{sgn}(n),$

then
$$|s| = 1$$
. And if

$$u = k,$$
$$w = m \log_b(a)$$

and

$$v = (\log_a(|n|) + d) \log_b(a),$$

then $na^{mx+d} + k = \operatorname{sgn}(n) \exp_b\left(m \log_b(a)x + (\log_a(|n|) + d) \log_b(a)\right) + k = sb^{wx+v} + u$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

$$l_{n,k} \circ \exp_a \circ \ l_{m,d} = l_{s,u} \circ \exp_b \circ \ l_{w,v}.$$

w = 1

(c) We know $w = m \log_b(a)$. So,

if and only if

 $b^{\frac{1}{m}} = a$ if and only if $b = a^{m}$.

Exercise 7.5.

(a) Find all real numbers t such that

$$\left(\frac{1}{\log_2 t}\right)^2 + \log_t 8 = 4.$$

(b) Find all real numbers t such that

$$\log_t(2) - \log_4(t) = \log_2(3t).$$

Solution:

(a) We note

$$\log_t(8) = \frac{\log_2(8)}{\log_2(t)} = \frac{3}{\log_2(t)}$$

by the change of base formula and that $2^3 = 8$. Hence,

$$\left(\frac{1}{\log_2 t}\right)^2 + \log_t 8 = 4$$

if and only if

$$\left(\frac{1}{\log_2 t}\right)^2 + \frac{3}{\log_2(t)} - 4 = 0.$$

If $u = \frac{1}{\log_2 t}$, then

$$u^2 + 3u - 4 = 0.$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{\log_2 t}\right)^2 + \log_t 8 = 4$$

if and only if

$$(u+4)(u-1) = 0$$

as long as $u = \frac{1}{\log_2 t}$. Hence, by the Zero Product Property, either

$$\frac{1}{\log_2 t} = -4$$

or

$$\frac{1}{\log_2 t} = 1.$$

Hence, either

$$\log_2(t) = -\frac{1}{4}$$

 $\log_2(t) = 1.$

Hence, either

$$t = 2^{-\frac{1}{4}}$$

or

t=2.

The verification is left to the reader.

(b) Notice $\log_t(2) = \frac{\log_2(2)}{\log_2(t)} = \frac{1}{\log_2(t)}$, $\log_4(t) = \frac{\log_2(t)}{2}$ and $\log_2(3t) = \log_2(3) + \log_2(t)$ for all positive, nonone t. Hence,

$$\log_t(2) - \log_4(t) = \log_2(3t)$$

if and only if

$$\frac{1}{\log_2(t)} - \frac{\log_2(t)}{2} = \log_2(3) + \log_2(t)$$

if and only if

$$2 - (\log_2(t))^2 = 2\log_2(3)\log_2(t) + 2(\log_2(t))^2$$

if and only if

$$3(\log_2(t))^2 + \log_2(9)\log_2(t) - 2 = 0$$

if and only if

$$\log_2(t) = \frac{\log_2(9) \pm \sqrt{(\log_2(9))^2 + 24}}{6}$$

by the quadratic formula if and only if

$$t = \exp_2\left(\frac{\left(-\log_2(9) \pm \sqrt{(\log_2(9))^2 + 24}\right)}{6}\right).$$

The verification of these solutions is left to the reader.

Exercise 7.6. Suppose b is a real number greater than one. Define

$$f = \exp_b \circ (-\operatorname{recip})|_{(0,\infty)} \cup \operatorname{const}_{(-\infty,0],0}.$$

Recall $-\operatorname{recip}|_{(0,\infty)}(x) = -\frac{1}{x}$ for all x > 0, the restriction of the negative reciprocal to $(0,\infty)$. And $\operatorname{const}_{(-\infty,0],0}(x) = 0$ if $x \le 0$, the constant zero function on $(-\infty,0]$.

- (a) What is the domain of f?
- (b) What is the range of f?
- (c) Is f invertible? If not, explain why.
- (d) What is the largest interval, I, on which f is one-to-one? Find the inverse of $f|_I$.
- (e) What is the global data of f? That is, does f have any limits at infinity?
- (f) Sketch the graph of f.

Solution:

- (a) The domain of f is \mathbb{R} , since it is the union of a function with domain $(0, \infty)$ with a function with domain $[0, \infty)$.
- (b) We claim the range of f is [0, 1). To prove this, we note, $\exp_b(\mathbb{R}) = (0, \infty)$. Since b > 1, \exp_b is increasing. And $\exp_b(0) = 1$. Hence, $\exp_e((-\infty, 0)) = (0, 1)$. If x > 0, then $-\frac{1}{x} < 0$ and $f(x) = e^{-\frac{1}{x}}$. Hence,

$$f(x) \in (0,1).$$

Hence,

$$f((0,\infty)) \subseteq \exp_b \circ (-\operatorname{recip})|_{(0,\infty)}((0,\infty)) \subseteq (0,1)$$

If $y \in (0,1)$, then there is some x > 0 such that f(x) = y. Namely, $x = -\frac{1}{\log_b(y)}$. Hence, $(0,1) \subseteq \operatorname{range}(f)$. And

$$f((-\infty, 0]) = \{0\},\$$

since f is constant there. Hence,

$$\operatorname{range}(f) = [0, 1).$$

- (c) f is not invertible because f is not one-to-one. For example, f(-1) = 0 = f(0).
- (d) Let $I = [0, \infty)$. $f|_I$ is one-to-one, as noted by part (b). Define

$$g = -\operatorname{recip} \circ \log_b |_{(0,1)} \cup \{(0,0)\}.$$

We claim g is the inverse of $f|_I$.

if 0 < y < 1, then $g(y) = -\frac{1}{\log_b(y)} > 0$ and

$$f|_{I}(g(y)) = \exp_{b}\left(-\frac{1}{-\frac{1}{\log_{b}(y)}}\right) = \exp_{b}(\log_{b}(y)) = y.$$

And f(g(0)) = 0. Similarly, if x > 0, then $0 < f|_I(x) < 1$ and

$$g(f|_I(x)) = -\frac{1}{\log_b(\exp_b(-\frac{1}{x}))} = -\frac{1}{-\frac{1}{x}} = x$$

And g(f(0)) = 0. Hence,

$$f|_I \circ g = \mathrm{id}_{\mathrm{domain}(g)}$$

and

$$g \circ f|_I = \mathrm{id}_{\mathrm{domain}(f|_I)}$$

Any other interval larger than I includes negative numbers. And we know f is not one-to-one on any interval containing 0 and a negative number.

(e) We prove

$$\lim_{\infty} f = 1$$

and

$$\begin{split} &\lim_{-\infty} f = 0.\\ &\lim_{\infty} f = \lim_{\infty} \exp_b \circ (-\operatorname{recip}) = \exp_b \circ (\lim_{\infty} (-\operatorname{recip})) = \exp_b (0) = 1. \end{split}$$

The second step follows from the continuity of $\exp_b.$ And

$$\lim_{-\infty} f = \lim_{-\infty} \operatorname{const}_0 = 0.$$

(f)

