

Higher Secondary - First Year - Mathematics

Chapter : 1 - Sets, Relations and Functions- Key Points

• Set

- Subset, super set, trivial subset, proper subset, improper subset
- Empty set, power set, universal set, singleton set, finite set, infinite set
- Cardinality of a set
- Union, Intersection, Complement, Set Difference, Symmetric Difference
- Properties and De Morgan Laws
- Cartesian Product

Intervals

- Constants, dependent and independent variables
- Open, Closed, finite and infinite intervals and neighbourhoods;

• Relations

- Domain and range of relation
- Extreme relations (empty and universal)
- Inverse of a relation
- Reflexive, Symmetric, Transitive, Equivalence Relations

• Functions

- Definition, domain, co-domain, range, image, pre-image,
- Tabular, graphical, analytical and piecewise representations,
- Identity function, constant function, zero function, modulus function, signum function, greatest integer function, smallest integer function,
- Injective, surjective and bijective functions,
- Vertical test and Horizontal test,
- Composition of functions, inverse of a function,
- Addition and multiplication of real valued functions,
- Polynomial function, linear function, exponential function, logarithmic function, rational function, reciprocal function,
- Odd and Even functions.

Graphing functions

- Reflection, translation, dilation
- Drawing graph of some seems to be complicated functions.

**Sets:** a set is a collection of well-defined objects.

Exp :

- (i) The collection of all beautiful flowers in Ooty Rose Garden.
- (ii) The collection of all old men in Tamilnadu.

the union of two sets  $A$  and  $B$  is denoted by  $A \cup B$  and is defined as

$$A \cup B = \{x : x \in A \text{ or } x \in B\}$$

the intersection as

$$A \cap B = \{x : x \in A \text{ and } x \in B\}.$$

Two sets  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint if they do not have any common element. That is,  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint if  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ .

If  $A$  is a set, then the set of all subsets of  $A$  is called the power set of  $A$  and is usually denoted as  $P(A)$ . That is,  $P(A) = \{B : B \subseteq A\}$ . The number of elements in  $P(A)$  is  $2^n$ , where  $n$  is the number of elements in  $A$ .

all sets under consideration in a mathematical process are assumed to be subsets of some fixed set. This basic set is called the universal set. For example, depending on the situation, for the set of prime numbers, the universal set can be any one of the sets containing the set of prime numbers.

The complement of  $A$  with respect to  $U$  is denoted as  $A_*$  or  $A^c$  and defined as

$$A_* = \{x : x \in U \text{ and } x \notin A\}.$$

The set difference of the set  $A$  to the set  $B$  is denoted by either  $A - B$  or  $A \setminus B$  and is defined as

$$A - B = \{a : a \in A \text{ and } a \notin B\}.$$

Note that,

$$(i) U - A = A_* \quad (ii) A - A = \emptyset \quad (iii) \emptyset - A = \emptyset \quad (iv) A - \emptyset = A \quad (v) A - U = \emptyset.$$

The symmetric difference between two sets  $A$  and  $B$  is denoted by  $A \Delta B$  and is defined as  $A \Delta B = (A - B) \cup (B - A)$ . Actually the elements of  $A \Delta B$  are the elements of  $A \cup B$  which are not in  $A \cap B$ . Thus  $A \Delta B = (A \cup B) - (A \cap B)$ .

A set  $X$  is said to be a finite set if it has  $k$  elements for some  $k \in \mathbb{W}$ . In this case, we say the finite set  $X$  is of cardinality  $k$  and is denoted by  $n(X)$ . A set is an infinite set if it is not finite. For an infinite set  $A$ , the cardinality is infinity. If  $n(A) = 1$ , then it is called a singleton set. Note that

$$n(\emptyset) = 0 \text{ and } n(\{\emptyset\}) = 1$$

## Properties of Set Operations

We now list out some of the properties.

### Commutative

(i)  $A \cup B = B \cup A$  (ii)  $A \cap B = B \cap A$ .

### Associative

(i)  $(A \cup B) \cup C = A \cup (B \cup C)$  (ii)  $(A \cap B) \cap C = A \cap (B \cap C)$ .

### Distributive

(i)  $A \cup (B \cap C) = (A \cup B) \cap (A \cup C)$  (ii)  $A \cap (B \cup C) = (A \cap B) \cup (A \cap C)$ .

### Identity

(i)  $A \cup \emptyset = A$  (ii)  $A \cap U = A$ .

### Idempotent

(i)  $A \cup A = A$  (ii)  $A \cap A = A$ .

### Absorption

(i)  $A \cup (A \cap B) = A$  (ii)  $A \cap (A \cup B) = A$ .

## De Morgan Laws

(i)  $(A \cup B)_- = A_- \cap B_-$

(ii)  $(A \cap B)_- = A_- \cup B_-$

(iii)  $A - (B \cup C) = (A - B) \cap (A - C)$

(iv)  $A - (B \cap C) = (A - B) \cup (A - C)$ .

## On Symmetric Difference

(i)  $A \Delta B = B \Delta A$

(ii)  $(A \Delta B) \Delta C = A \Delta (B \Delta C)$

(iii)  $A \cap (B \Delta C) = (A \cap B) \Delta (A \cap C)$ .

## On Empty Set and Universal Set

(i)  $\emptyset_- = U$

(ii)  $U_- = \emptyset$

(iii)  $A \cup A_- = U$

(iv)  $A \cap A_- = \emptyset$

(v)  $A \cup U = U$

(vi)  $A \cap U = A$ .

## On Cardinality

(i) For any two finite sets  $A$  and  $B$ ,  $n(A \cup B) = n(A) + n(B) - n(A \cap B)$ .

(ii) If  $A$  and  $B$  are disjoint finite sets, then  $n(A \cup B) = n(A) + n(B)$ .

(iii) For any three finite sets  $A, B$  and  $C$ ,

$n(A \cup B \cup C) = n(A) + n(B) + n(C) - n(A \cap B) - n(A \cap C) - n(B \cap C) + n(A \cap B \cap C)$ .

## Constants and Variables, Intervals and Neighbourhoods

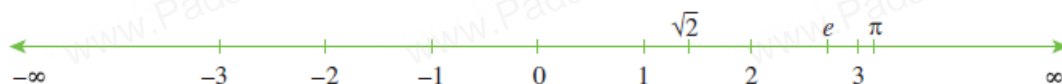
**Constants and Variables** A quantity that remains unaltered throughout a mathematical process is called a constant. A quantity that varies in a mathematical process is called a variable. A variable is an independent variable when it takes any arbitrary (independent) value not depending on any other variables, whereas if its value depends on other variables, then it is called a dependent variable.

examples:

(i) area of a rectangle  $A = lb$ . (ii) area of a circle  $A = \pi r^2$ . (iii) volume of a cuboid  $V = lbh$

## Intervals and Neighbourhoods

The system  $R$  of real numbers can be represented by the points on a line and a point on the line can be related to a unique real number as in Figure 1.2. By this, we mean that any real number can be identified as a point on the line. With this identification we call the line as the real line.



### Definition 1.1

A subset  $I$  of  $\mathbb{R}$  is said to be an *interval* if

(i)  $I$  contains at least two elements and

(ii)  $a, b \in I$  and  $a < c < b$  then  $c \in I$ .

Geometrically, intervals correspond to rays and line segments on the real line.

### Type of Intervals

| Interval | Notation                               | Set  | Diagrammatic Representation |
|----------|--|--|-----------------------------|
| finite   | $(a, b)$                               | $\{x : a < x < b\}$  |                             |
|          | $[a, b]$                               | $\{x : a \leq x \leq b\}$                                    |                             |
|          | $(a, b]$                               | $\{x : a < x \leq b\}$                                       |                             |
|          | $[a, b)$                               | $\{x : a \leq x < b\}$                                       |                             |
| infinite | $(a, \infty)$                          | $\{x : a < x < \infty\}$                                     |                             |
|          | $[a, \infty)$                          | $\{x : a \leq x < \infty\}$                                  |                             |
|          | $(-\infty, b)$                         | $\{x : -\infty < x < b\}$                                    |                             |
|          | $(-\infty, b]$                         | $\{x : -\infty < x \leq b\}$                                 |                             |
|          | $(-\infty, \infty)$<br>or $\mathbb{R}$ | $\{x : -\infty < x < \infty\}$<br>or the set of real numbers |                             |

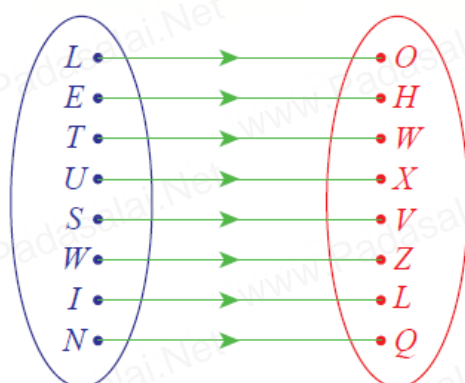
### Neighbourhood

Neighbourhood of a point ' $a$ ' is any open interval containing ' $a$ '. In particular, if  $\epsilon$  is a positive number, usually very small, then the  $\epsilon$ -neighbourhood of ' $a$ ' is the open interval  $(a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon)$ . The set  $(a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon) - \{a\}$  is called deleted neighbourhood of ' $a$ ' and it is denoted as  $0 < |x - a| < \epsilon$



### Relations

Cryptography: The study of the techniques used in creating coding and decoding these ciphers is called cryptography. One of the earliest methods of coding a message was a simple substitution. For example, each letter in a message might be replaced by the letter that appears three places later in the alphabet

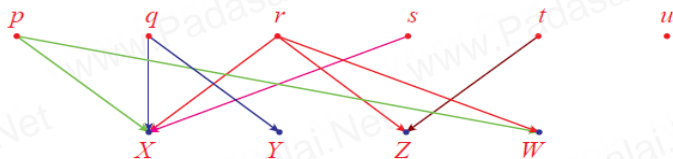




## Definition of Relation

(i)  $\begin{matrix} p & p & q & q & r & r & r & s & t \\ X & W & X & Y & X & Z & W & X & Z \end{matrix}$

(ii)



(iii)  $\{ (p, X), (p, W), (q, X), (q, Y), (r, X), (r, Z), (r, W), (s, X), (t, Z) \}$

(iv)  $pRX, pRW, qRX, qRY, rRX, rRZ, rRW, sRX, tRZ.$

## Definition 1.2

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be any two non-empty sets. A relation  $R$  from  $A$  to  $B$  is defined as a subset of the Cartesian product of  $A$  and  $B$ . Symbolically  $R \subseteq A \times B$ .

The domain of a relation is a subset of the first set in the Cartesian product and the range is a subset of second set. Usually we call the second set as co-domain of the relation.

For any set  $A$ ,  $\emptyset$  and  $A \times A$  are subsets of  $A \times A$ . These two relations are called extreme relations. The former relation is an empty relation and the later is an universal relation.

## Type of Relations

Consider the following examples:

- (i) Let  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$  and  $R = \{(1, 1), (1, 3), (2, 3)\}$  on  $S$ .
- (ii) Let  $S = \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 10\}$  and define " $m$  is related to  $n$ , if  $m$  divides  $n$ ".
- (iii) Let  $C$  be the set of all circles in a plane and define " $a$  circle  $C$  is related to a circle  $C_1$  if the radius of  $C$  is equal to the radius of  $C_1$ ".
- (iv) In the set  $S$  of all people define " $a$  is related to  $b$ , if  $a$  is a brother of  $b$ ".
- (v) Let  $S$  be the set of all people. Define the relation on  $S$  by the rule "mother of".

## Definition 1.3

Let  $S$  be any non-empty set. Let  $R$  be a relation on  $S$ . Then

- $R$  is said to be reflexive if  $a$  is related to  $a$  for all  $a \in S$ .
- $R$  is said to be symmetric if  $a$  is related to  $b$  implies that  $b$  is related to  $a$ .
- $R$  is said to be transitive if " $a$  is related to  $b$  and  $b$  is related to  $c$ " implies that  $a$  is related to  $c$ .

These three relations are called basic relations.

Let  $S$  be any non-empty set. Let  $R$  be a relation on  $S$ . Then  $R$  is

- reflexive if " $(a, a) \in R$  for all  $a \in S$ ".
- symmetric if " $(a, b) \in R \Rightarrow (b, a) \in R$ ".
- transitive if " $(a, b), (b, c) \in R \Rightarrow (a, c) \in R$ ".

#### **Definition 1.4**

Let  $S$  be any set. A relation on  $S$  is said to be an equivalence relation if it is reflexive, symmetric and transitive.

Let us consider the following two relations.

(1) In the set  $S_1$  of all people, define a relation  $R_1$  by the rule: " $a$  is related to  $b$ , if  $a$  is a brother of  $b$ ".

(2) In the set  $S_2$  of all males, define a relation  $R_2$  by the rule: " $a$  is related to  $b$ , if  $a$  is a brother of  $b$ ".

#### **Definition 1.5**

If  $R$  is a relation from  $A$  to  $B$ , then the relation  $R^{-1}$  defined from  $B$  to  $A$  by  $R^{-1} = \{(b, a) : (a, b) \in R\}$  is called the inverse of the relation  $R$ .

### **Functions**

#### **Definition 1.6**

Let  $A$  and  $B$  be two sets. A relation  $f$  from  $A$  to  $B$ , a subset of  $A \times B$ , is called a function from  $A$  to  $B$  if it satisfies the following:

- (i) for all  $a \in A$ , there is an element  $b \in B$  such that  $(a, b) \in f$ .
- (ii) if  $(a, b) \in f$  and  $(a, c) \in f$  then  $b = c$ .

$A$  is called the domain of  $f$  and  $B$  is called the co-domain of  $f$ . If  $(a, b)$  is in  $f$ , then we write  $f(a) = b$ ; the element  $b$  is called the image of  $a$  and the element  $a$  is called a pre-image of  $b$  and  $f(a)$  is known as the value of  $f$  at  $a$ . The set  $\{b : (a, b) \in f \text{ for some } a \in A\}$  is called the range of the function. If  $B$  is a subset of  $R$ , then we say that the function is a real-valued function.

Two functions  $f$  and  $g$  are said to be equal functions if their domains are same and  $f(a) = g(a)$  for all  $a$  in the domain.

### **Ways of Representing Functions**

#### **(a) Tabular Representation of a Function**

When the elements of the domain are listed like  $x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots x_n$ , we can use this tabular form. Here, the values of the arguments  $x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots x_n$  and the corresponding values of the function  $y_1, y_2, y_3 \dots y_n$  are written out in a definite order.

|     |       |       |         |       |
|-----|-------|-------|---------|-------|
| $x$ | $x_1$ | $x_2$ | $\dots$ | $x_n$ |
| $y$ | $y_1$ | $y_2$ | $\dots$ | $y_n$ |

#### **(b) Graphical Representation of a Function**

When the domain and the co-domain are subsets of  $R$ , many functions can be represented using a graph with  $x$ -axis representing the domain and  $y$ -axis representing the co-domain in the  $(x, y)$ -plane. the variable  $x$  is treated as independent variable and  $y$  as a dependent variable. The variable  $x$  is called the *argument* and  $f(x)$  is called the value

#### **(c) Analytical Representation of a Function**

If the functional relation  $y = f(x)$  is such that  $f$  denotes an analytical expression

**Vertical Line Test:** Testing whether a given curve represents a function or not by drawing vertical lines is called vertical line test or simply vertical test.

### Some Elementary Functions

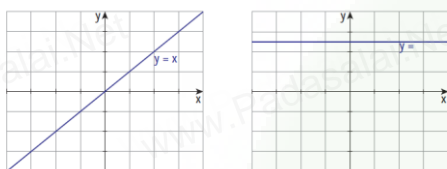
(i) Let  $X$  be any non-empty set. The function  $f: X \rightarrow X$  defined by  $f(x) = x$  for all  $x \in X$  is called the identity function on  $X$



Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be two sets. Let  $c$  be a fixed element of  $Y$ . The function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  defined by  $f(x) = c$  for all  $x \in X$  is called a constant function

The value of a constant function is same for all values of  $x$  throughout the domain.

If  $X$  is any set, then the constant function defined by  $f(x) = 0$  for all  $x$  is called the zero function. So zero function is a particular case of constant function.



The function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = |x|$ , where  $|x|$  is the modulus or absolute value of  $x$ , is called the modulus function or absolute value function.

The function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{|x|} & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$  is called the signum function.

This function is denoted by  $\text{sgn}$ . (See Figure 1.24)

The function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x)$  is the greatest integer less than or equal to  $x$  is called the integral part function or the greatest integer function or the floor function. This function is denoted by  $[x]$ . (See Figure 1.25.)

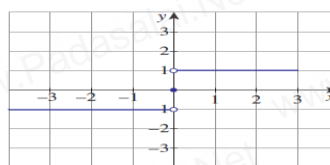
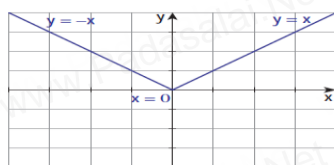
The function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x)$  is the smallest integer greater than or equal to  $x$  is called the smallest integer function or the ceil function (See Figure 1.26.). This function is denoted by  $\lceil \cdot \rceil$ ; that is  $f(x)$  is denoted by  $\lceil x \rceil$ .

The functions (v) and (vi) are also called step functions.

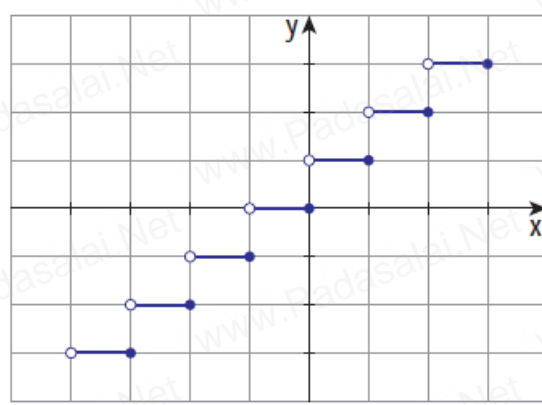
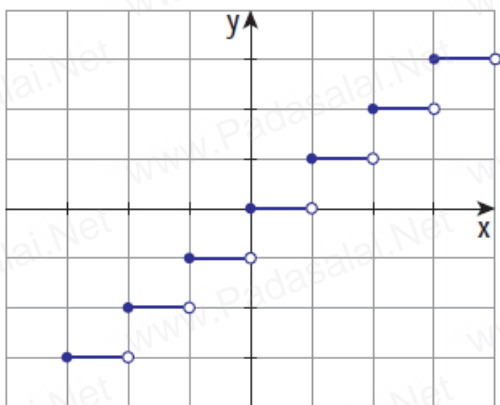
Let us note that  $[1\frac{1}{5}] = 1$ ,  $[7.23] = 7$ ,  $[-2\frac{1}{2}] = -3$  (not  $-2$ ),  $[6] = 6$  and  $[-4] = -4$ .

Let us note that  $\lceil 1\frac{1}{5} \rceil = 2$ ,  $\lceil 7.23 \rceil = 8$ ,  $\lceil -2\frac{1}{2} \rceil = -2$  (not  $-3$ ),  $\lceil 6 \rceil = 6$  and  $\lceil -4 \rceil = -4$ .

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







## Types of Functions

### Definition 1.7

A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is said to be **one-to-one** if  $x, y \in A, x \neq y \Rightarrow f(x) \neq f(y)$  [or equivalently  $f(x) = f(y) \Rightarrow x = y$ ]. A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is said to be **onto**, if for each  $b \in B$  there exists at least one element  $a \in A$  such that  $f(a) = b$ . That is, the range of  $f$  is  $B$ .

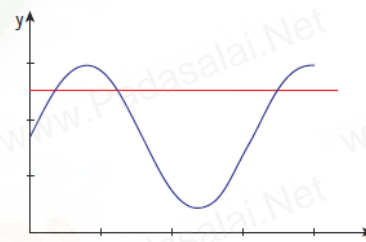
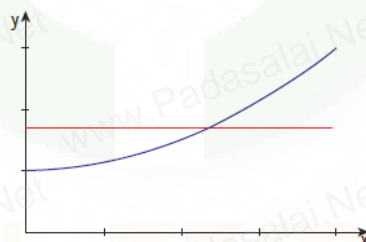
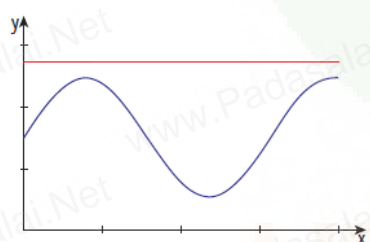
Another name for one-to-one function is **injective function**; onto function is **surjective function**. A function  $f: A \rightarrow B$  is said to be **bijective** if it is both one-to-one and onto.

A constant

function is not onto unless the co-domain contains only one element

### Horizontal Test

Similar to the vertical line test we have a test called horizontal test to check whether a function is one-to-one, onto or not. Let a function be given as a curve in the plane. If the horizontal line through a point  $y$  in the co-domain meets the curve at some points, then the  $x$ -coordinate of all the points give pre-images for  $y$ .



- (i) If the horizontal line through a point  $y$  in the co-domain does not meet the curve, then there will be no pre-image for  $y$  and hence the function is not onto.
- (ii) If the horizontal line through at least one point meets the curve at more than one point, then the function is not one-to-one.
- (iii) If for all  $y$  in the range the horizontal line through  $y$  meets the curve at only one point, then the function is one-to-one.

Testing whether a given curve represents a one-to-one function, onto function or not by drawing horizontal lines is called *horizontal line test* or simply horizontal test



## Operations on Functions

### Composition

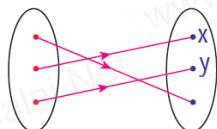
Let there be two functions  $f$  and  $g$  as given in the Figure 1.36 and Figure 1.37. Let us note that the co-domain of  $f$  and the domain of  $g$  are the same. Let us cut off Figure 1.37 of  $g$  and paste it on the of  $f$  so that the domain  $Y$  of  $g$  is pasted on co-domain  $Y$  of  $f$ .

### Definition 1.8

Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  and  $g: Y \rightarrow Z$  be two functions. Then the function  $h: X \rightarrow Z$  defined as  $h(x) = g(f(x))$  for every  $x \in X$  is called the *composition* of  $f$  with  $g$ . It is denoted by  $g \circ f$  (Read this as  $f$  composite with  $g$ ).

### Inverse of a Function

Let there be a bijection  $f: X \rightarrow Y$



### Definition 1.9

Let  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  be a bijection. The function  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  defined by  $g(y) = x$  if  $f(x) = y$ , is called the *inverse* of  $f$  and is denoted by  $f^{-1}$ .

If a function  $f$  has an inverse, then we say that  $f$  is *invertible*. There is a nice relationship between composition of functions and inverse.

**Definition 1.10** A function  $f: X \rightarrow Y$  is said to be *invertible* if there exists a function  $g: Y \rightarrow X$  such that  $g \circ f = IX$  and  $f \circ g = IY$  where  $IX$  and  $IY$  are identity functions on  $X$  and  $Y$  respectively. In this case,  $g$  is called the inverse of  $f$  and  $g$  is denoted by  $f^{-1}$ . Working Rule to Find the Inverse of Functions from  $R$  to  $R$ :

Let  $f: R \rightarrow R$  be the given function.

- i. write  $y = f(x)$ ;
- ii. write  $x$  in terms of  $y$ ;
- iii. write  $f^{-1}(y) =$  the expression in  $y$ .
- iv. replace  $y$  as  $x$ .

### Definition 1.11

Let  $X$  be any set. Let  $f$  and  $g$  be real valued functions defined on  $X$ . Define, for all  $x \in X$

- $(f + g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ .
- $(f - g)(x) = f(x) - g(x)$ .
- $(fg)(x) = f(x)g(x)$ .
- $fg(x) = f(x)g(x)$ , where  $g(x) \neq 0$ .
- $(cf)(x) = cf(x)$ , where  $c$  is a real constant.
- $(-f)(x) = -f(x)$ .

**Theorem 1.3:** If  $f$  and  $g$  are real-valued functions, then  $f(g + h) = fg + fh$ .

*Proof.* Let  $X$  be any set and  $f$  and  $g$  be real-valued functions defined on  $X$ . Let  $x \in X$ .

$$\begin{aligned}(f(g + h))(x) &= f(x)(g + h)(x) \text{ (by the definition of product)} \\ &= f(x)[g(x) + h(x)] \text{ (by the definition of addition)} \\ &= f(x)g(x) + f(x)h(x) \text{ (by the distributivity of reals)} \\ &= (fg)(x) + (fh)(x) \text{ (by the definition of product)} \\ &= (fg + fh)(x) \text{ (by the definition of addition)}\end{aligned}$$

Thus  $(f(g + h))(x) = (fg + fh)(x)$  for all  $x \in X$ ; hence  $f(g + h) = fg + fh$ .

### Some Special Functions

(i) The function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x) = a_0x^n + a_1x^{n-1} + a_2x^{n-2} + \dots + a_{n-1}x + a_n,$$

where  $a_i$  are constants, is called a **polynomial function**. Since the right hand side of the equality defining the function is a polynomial, this function is called a polynomial function.

(ii) The function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = ax + b$  where  $a \neq 0$  and  $b$  are constants, is called a **linear function**. A function which is not linear is called a **non-linear function**.

Clearly a linear function is a polynomial function. The graph of this function is a straight line; a straight line is called a linear curve; so this function is called a linear function. (one may come across different definitions for linear functions in higher study of mathematics.)

(iii) Let  $a$  be a non-negative constant. Consider the function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = ax$ . If  $a = 0$ ,  $x \neq 0$  then the function becomes the zero function and if  $a = 1$ , then function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = ax$  is the constant function  $f(x) = 1$ .

When  $a > 1$ , the function  $f(x) = ax$  is called an **exponential function**. Moreover, any function having  $x$  in the "power" is called as an exponential function.

(iv) Let  $a > 1$  be a constant. The function  $f: (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = \log_a x$  is called a **logarithmic function**. In fact, the inverse of an exponential function  $f(x) = ax$  on a suitable domain is called a logarithmic function. [See, Figure 1.44].

(v) The real valued function  $f$  defined by  $f(x) = \frac{p(x)}{q(x)}$

on a suitable domain, where  $p(x)$  and  $q(x)$  are polynomials,  $q(x) \neq 0$ , is called a **rational function**. In fact, the domain of these function

are the sets obtained from  $\mathbb{R}$  by removing the real numbers at which  $q(x) = 0$ .

If  $f$  is a real valued function such that  $f(x) \neq 0$ , then the real valued function  $g$  defined by  $g(x) = \frac{1}{f(x)}$  on a suitable domain is called the *reciprocal function* of  $f$ . The domain of  $g$  is the set obtained from  $\mathbb{R}$  by removing the real numbers at which  $f(x) = 0$ . For example, the largest possible domain of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x-1}$  is  $\mathbb{R} - \{1\}$ .

### Definition 1.12

A function  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is said to be an *odd function* if  $f(-x) = -f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . It is said to be an **even function** if  $f(-x) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Theorem 1.4:** The product of an odd function and an even function is an odd function.

**Proof.** Let  $f$  be an odd function and  $g$  be an even function. Let  $h = fg$ . Now

$$h(-x) = (fg)(-x) = f(-x)g(-x) = -f(x)g(x) \text{ (as } f \text{ is odd and } g \text{ is even)} = -h(x)$$

Thus  $h$  is an odd function. This shows that  $fg$  is an odd function.

If one function is not odd then don't think that the function is an even function. There are plenty of functions which are neither even nor odd.

### Graphing Functions using Transformations

(i) Reflection      (ii) Translation      (iii) Dilations.

### Reflection

Prepared by, S.Saravana Kumar, Maths Teacher, Jazz Public Matric Higher Secondary School, Melur, Madurai District, Phone : 7092681321, 9597410308

The **reflection** of the graph of a function with respect to a line  $l$  is the graph that is symmetric to it with respect to  $l$ . A reflection is the mirror image of the graph where line  $l$  is the mirror of the reflection.



$f'$  is the mirror image of  $f$  with respect to  $l$ . Every point of  $f$  has a corresponding image in  $f'$ . Some useful reflections of  $y = f(x)$  are

- (i) The graph  $y = -f(x)$  is the reflection of the graph of  $f$  about the  $x$ -axis.
- (ii) The graph  $y = f(-x)$  is the reflection of the graph of  $f$  about the  $y$ -axis.
- (iii) The graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  is the reflection of the graph of  $f$  in  $y = x$ .

### **Translation**

A **translation** of a graph is a vertical or horizontal shift of the graph that produces congruent graphs.

The graph of

$y = f(x + c)$ ,  $c > 0$  causes the shift to the left.

$y = f(x - c)$ ,  $c > 0$  causes the shift to the right.

$y = f(x) + d$ ,  $d > 0$  causes the shift to the upward.

$y = f(x) - d$ ,  $d > 0$  causes the shift to the downward.

### **Dilation**

**Dilation** is also a transformation which causes the curve stretches (expands) or compresses (contracts).

Multiplying a function by a positive constant vertically stretches or compresses its graph; that is, the graph moves away from  $x$ -axis or towards  $x$ -axis.

If the positive constant is greater than one, the graph moves away from the  $x$ -axis. If the positive constant is less than one, the graph moves towards the  $x$ -axis.