- Today we're talking about:
 - Inverse trig functions (continued from last time).
 - Derivatives of inverse functions.
 - Exponentials and logarithms.
 - Logarithmic differentiation.
 - (If there's time) the Mean Value Theorem.

Last class we determined that only injective functions have inverses.

Many functions, like $f(x) = x^2$, are not injective. However we can restrict them to intervals like $(-\infty, 0]$ or $[0, \infty)$ on which they are injective, and which can't be expanded any further while maintaining injectivity.

Exercise

Let f be the following function:



() What is the largest interval containing -1 on which f has an inverse?

2 What is the largest interval containing 0 on which f has an inverse?

Sketch the graphs of these inverses.

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Last time, we defined the function $\arcsin(x)$ as the inverse of the function

$$g(x) = \sin(x)$$
 for $x \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$.

In other words,

$$\operatorname{arcsin}(x) = \theta \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \theta \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right] \text{ and } \operatorname{sin}(\theta) = x.$$

Remember that the interval $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$ is simply a choice we make in order to obtain an injective function.

This is just like how we choose to define \sqrt{x} as the <u>positive</u> number whose square is *x*.

We can restricte sin(x) to another interval, like

$$\left[\frac{\pi}{2},\frac{3\pi}{2}\right]$$
 or $\left[0,\frac{\pi}{2}\right]\cup\left[\frac{3\pi}{2},2\pi\right]$.

and define an inverse for those restrictions as well. Those wouldn't be arcsin though.

cos(x) and tan(x) are also not injective, so we also need to restrict their domains to be able to define inverses.

By convention, we...

- ...restrict cos(x) to the interval $[0, \pi]$;
- ...restrict tan(x) to the interval $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$.

There is a convenient table with this information for all six trig functions in Tyler's notes, page 75.

Exercise

Using this definition from above...

$$\operatorname{arcsin}(x) = heta \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad heta \in \left[-rac{\pi}{2}, rac{\pi}{2}
ight] \, \, ext{and} \, \, \sin(heta) = x.$$

...compute the following:

- sin(arcsin(¹/₂)), cos(arcsin(¹/₂)), tan(arcsin(¹/₂)). (Do these without computing arcsin(¹/₂).)
- sin(arcsin(2))
- arcsin(sin(1))
- arcsin(sin(7)) (Hint: The answer is not 7.)

o arcsin(sin(6))

To compute
$$\frac{d}{dx} \arcsin(x)$$
, we use implicit differentiation.

By definition, we know that

sin(arcsin(x)) = x

for all $x \in [-1, 1]$.

Differentiate both sides of this expression with respect to x. Then rearrange to obtain:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \arcsin(x) = \frac{1}{\cos(\arcsin(x))} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}.$$

Repeat this analysis but for arctan. That is, find...

- ...its domain.
- ...its range.
- ...a sketch of its graph.
- ...its derivative.

Here are the derivatives of the remaining inverse trig functions.

•
$$\frac{d}{dx} \arccos(x) = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}.$$

•
$$\frac{d}{dx} \operatorname{arcsec}(x) = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}.$$

•
$$\frac{d}{dx} \operatorname{arccsc}(x) = \frac{-1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}.$$

•
$$\frac{d}{dx} \operatorname{arccot}(x) = \frac{-1}{1 + x^2}$$

(Don't memorize these.)

The same analysis we did for $\arcsin(x)$ can work for any inverse function.

Let f be an injective function. We'd like to compute $(f^{-1})'$.

By definition, we know that

$$f(f^{-1}(x)) = x.$$

Differentiate both sides of this expression with respect to x. Then rearrange to obtain:

$$(f^{-1})'(x) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(x))}.$$

(I think Tyler's notes call this the "Inverse Function Theorem".)

Suppose f is an injective function such that:

Compute $(f^{-1})'(7)$.

Let f(x) = -2x + 7.

- Sketch the graph of f, and convince yourself that f is injective on its whole domain.
- **2** Sketch the graph of f^{-1} by reflecting your previous graph.
- Solution Using the general formula from earlier, derive a formula for $(f^{-1})'(x)$.
- Derive a formula for $f^{-1}(x)$.
- Oifferentiate the formula you obtained, and confirm that the result agrees with your earlier answer.

Recall from the videos:

An exponential function is a function of the form $f(x) = a^x$ for some fixed a > 0.

Given an a > 0, the base a logarithm \log_a is defined to be the inverse of a^x . That is,

$$y = \log_a(x) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad a^y = x$$

or in other words

$$a^{\log_a(x)} = x = \log_a(a^x).$$

e is a special number which is defined to be the unique number such that

$$\frac{d}{dx}e^{x}=e^{x}.$$

Because e is so important, we call the base e logarithm the "natural logarithm", and denote it simply by log or ln. (I tend to use log.)

For a general a > 0, we have:

$$\frac{d}{dx}a^{x} = \log(a) a^{x}$$

1. Solve the following equation for x.

$$\log_x(x+6)=2.$$

2. Compute
$$f'(x)$$
 if $f(x) = \tan(7^{x^7})$.

3. Let
$$a > 0$$
. Compute $\frac{d}{dx} \log_a(x)$.

(Hint: Remember that $\log_a(x)$ is the inverse of a^x .)

4. Compute
$$g'(x)$$
 if $g(x) = \log |x|$.

Idea: Logarithms simplify things.

Multiplication \rightarrow addition: $\log(xy) = \log(x) + \log(y)$.

Division \rightarrow subtraction: $\log(x/y) = \log(x) - \log(y)$.

Exponentiation \rightarrow multiplication: $\log(x^y) = y \log(x)$.

We can use this to make complicated functions look simpler, so we can differentiate them.

Example: Compute f'(x) if $f(x) = x^x$.

Answer: $f'(x) = x^{x}(\log(x) + 1)$.

Example: Let f, g, and h all be differentiable functions. Use logarithmic differentiation to differentiate f(x)g(x)h(x).

Example: Compute g'(x) if $g(x) = \log_x(x+2)$.

Logarithmic differentiation allowed us to extend the power rule to its final form:

$$\frac{d}{dx}x^a = ax^{a-1} \text{ for any real number } a.$$

With this new tool, you can essentially differentiate any function you write down.