

## 4.1 Inverse Functions

**Definition** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be two functions, such that

$$g(f(x)) = x \text{ for every } x \in \text{Domain } f$$

$$f(g(y)) = y \text{ for every } y \in \text{Domain } g.$$

Then we say  $f$  and  $g$  are **inverses**. Moreover we set  $f^{-1} = g$  and  $g^{-1} = f$ .

**Example**  $f(x) = 2x - 1$  and  $g(x) = \frac{x+1}{2}$  are inverses. For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  (Domain  $f$ ) we have

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

and for all  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  (Domain  $g$ ) we have

$$f(g(y)) = 2g(y) - 1 = 2 \cdot \frac{y+1}{2} - 1 = y.$$

**Example**  $f(x) = x^3$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$  are inverses. For all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  (Domain  $f$ ) we have

$$g(f(x)) = \sqrt[3]{x^3} = x$$

and for all  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  (Domain  $g$ ) we have

$$f(g(y)) = (g(y))^3 = (\sqrt[3]{y})^3 = y.$$

**Example**  $f(x) = x^2$  and  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  are not inverses. For each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  (Domain  $f$ ) we have

$$g(f(x)) = \sqrt{f(x)} = \sqrt{x^2} = |x| \neq x \text{ (if } x < 0).$$

**Example** If we restrict the domain of  $f(x) = x^2$  to be  $[0, \infty)$ , then

$$f(x) = x^2 : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$$

and

$$g(x) = \sqrt{x} : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty)$$

become inverses: for all  $x \in [0, \infty)$ , we have

$$g(f(x)) = \sqrt{g(x)} = \sqrt{x^2} = |x| = x \text{ (since } x \geq 0)$$

and for all  $y \in [0, \infty)$ , we have  $f(g(y)) = \sqrt{y}^2 = y$ .

**Example** If we restrict the domain of  $f(x) = x^2$  to be  $[0, 1]$ , then

$$f(x) = x^2 : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$$

has an inverse, which can be easily seen to be:

$$g(x) = \sqrt{x} : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1].$$

### How to find Inverse Functions?

If an equation  $y = f(x)$  can be solved for  $x$  as a function  $x = g(y)$ , then  $f$  and  $g$  are inverse functions and  $f^{-1}(x) = g(x)$ .

**Example** Consider  $f(x) = \frac{2x-5}{3}$ . Solving  $y = \frac{2x-5}{3}$  for  $x$ , we get  $2x - 5 = 3y$ , hence  $x = \frac{3y+5}{2} = g(y)$ .

So  $f$  has inverse given by  $f^{-1}(x) = \frac{3x-5}{2}$ .

**Definition** A function  $f: D \rightarrow R$  is called **1-1 (injective)**, if

$$x_1 \neq x_2 \implies f(x_1) \neq f(x_2) \text{ for all } x_1, x_2 \in D,$$

or equivalently

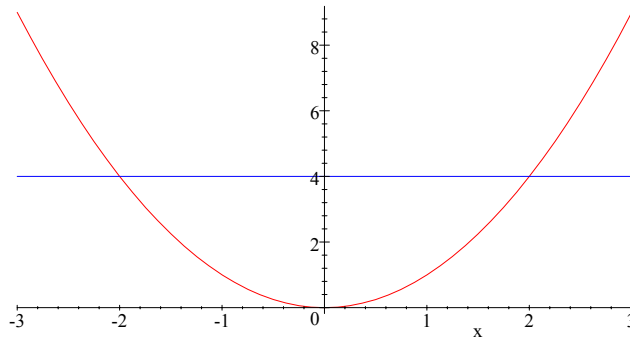
$$f(x_1) = f(x_2) \implies x_1 = x_2 \text{ for all } x_1, x_2 \in D.$$

**Summary** If there exists (at least one) horizontal line that intersects the graph of  $y = f(x)$  more than once, then  $f(x)$  is not 1-1.

**Example** The function

$$f(x) = x^2 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad 0,$$

is not 1-1, since  $f(-2) = 4 = f(2)$ . Notice that the line  $y = 4$  intersects the graph of  $y = x^2$  twice.



$$f(x) = x^2; y = 4$$

Notice that  $f(x) = x^2$  becomes 1-1, if we restrict  $D$  to  $[0, \infty)$  or to  $(-\infty, 0]$ .

**Summary** If a function  $f: D \rightarrow R$  is 1-1 on  $D$  and has range  $R$ , then it has inverse  $f^{-1}: R \rightarrow D$ , and moreover  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ , where  $x \in D$ .

**Example** Consider  $f(x) = 2x^3 - 5$ . If  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  for some  $x_1, x_2 \in D \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$2x_1^3 - 5 = 2x_2^3 - 5 \implies 2x_1^3 = 2x_2^3 \implies x_1^3 = x_2^3 \implies x_1 = x_2.$$

Hence  $f(x)$  is 1-1 with range  $\mathbb{R}$ . Solving  $y = 2x^3 - 5$  for  $x$ , we find  $x = \sqrt[3]{\frac{y+5}{2}}$  and so  $f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt[3]{\frac{x+5}{2}}$ .

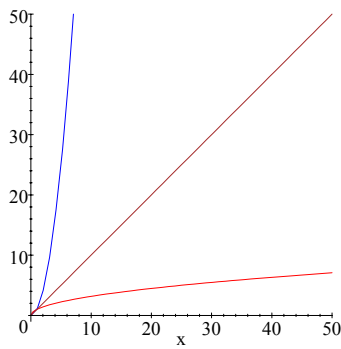
**Theorem** If  $f$  and  $g$  are inverse functions, then the graph of  $y = g(x)$  is the mirror image of the graph of  $y = f(x)$  in the line  $y = x$ .

**Example** The function

$$f(x) = x^2 : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty),$$

has inverse

$$g(x) = \sqrt{x} : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty).$$



$$y = x^2, y = x, y = \sqrt{x}$$

**Definition** A function  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **increasing** on  $I \subseteq D$ , if for all  $x_1, x_2 \in I$  :

$$x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) < f(x_2) .$$

It's **decreasing** on  $I \subseteq D$ , if for all  $x_1, x_2 \in I$  :

$$x_1 < x_2 \implies f(x_1) > f(x_2) .$$

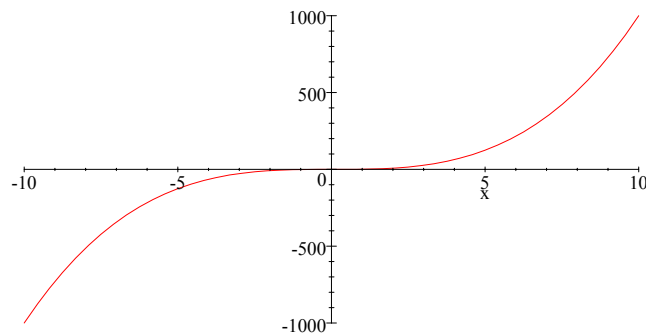
**Remark** If a function is increasing or decreasing on its domain, then it's 1-1 on that domain.

**Lemma** Let  $D$  be an interval and  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable.

1. If  $f'(x) > 0$  for all  $x \in D$ , then  $f$  is increasing on  $D$ .
2. If  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x \in D$ , then  $f$  is decreasing on  $D$ .

**Theorem** If  $D$  is an interval and  $f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  (where  $\mathbb{R} = \text{Range } f$ ) is differentiable with  $f'(x) > 0$  or  $f'(x) < 0$  for all  $x \in D$ , then  $f$  has an inverse function  $f^{-1} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow D$ .

**Example**  $f(x) = x^3$  is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}$ , . So  $f(x)$  is 1-1, and has inverse  $f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$ .



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

**Theorem** Let  $D$  be an interval and

$$f : D \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ (where } \mathbb{R} = \text{Range } f \text{)}$$

be a 1-1 continuous function. Then  $\mathbb{R}$  is an interval and  $f^{-1} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow D$  is also continuous.

## Derivatives of Inverse Functions

**Theorem** Let  $D$  be an open interval and

$f : D \rightarrow R$  (where  $R = \text{Range } f$ )  
be differentiable and 1-1 on  $D$ . If  $f'(f^{-1}(x)) \neq 0$  for some  $x \in R$ , then

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

**Proof** Let  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  with  $f'(y) \neq 0$ . Then  $f(y) = x$  and we get by implicit differentiation  $f'(y) \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} = 1$ , hence

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

Note also we get that  $\frac{dx}{dy} = f'(y)$ , hence

$$f^{-1}'(x) = \frac{1}{f'(y)} = \frac{1}{dx/dy}.$$

**Corollary** Let  $D$  be an interval and

$f : D \rightarrow R$  (where  $R = \text{Range } f$ )  
be differentiable with  $f'(x) \neq 0$  or  $f'(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in D$ . Then  $f$  has inverse  $f^{-1} : R \rightarrow D$  and  $f^{-1}$  is differentiable on  $R$  with

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

**Example** Consider  $f(x) = x^3 - x + 1$ . Then  $f'(x) = 3x^2 - 1 \neq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , . So  $f(x)$  is increasing on  $\mathbb{R}$ , (hence 1-1) and therefore has inverse. Let  $y = f^{-1}(x)$ , so that  $x = f(y) = y^3 - y + 1$ . Then  $\frac{dx}{dy} = 3y^2 - 1$  and

$$\frac{d}{dx} f^{-1}(x) = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{dx/dy} = \frac{1}{3y^2 - 1}.$$

One may also differentiate

$$x = y^3 - y + 1$$

implicitly to get

$$1 = 3y^2 \frac{dy}{dx} - 1 \quad \text{and so} \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{3y^2 - 1}.$$

In particular

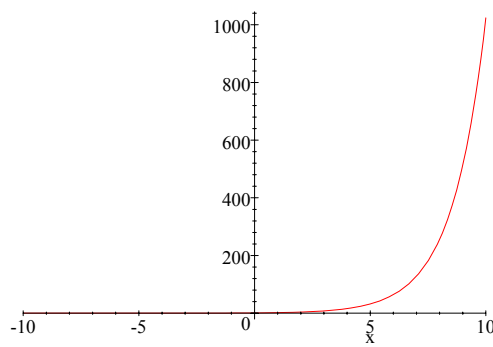
$$f^{-1}'(1) = \frac{1}{f'(0)} = \frac{1}{3 \cdot 0^2 - 1} = -1.$$

## 4.2 Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

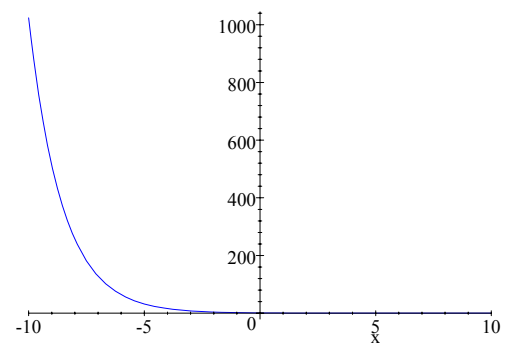
**Definition** An exponential function is one of the form  $f(x) = b^x$ , where  $b > 0, b \neq 1$ .

	$b > 1$	$0 < b < 1$
Domain $b^x$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$
Range $b^x$	$(0, \infty)$	$(0, \infty)$
<i>y</i> -intercept	1	1
Monotonicity	increasing	decreasing
Far-Right Behaviour	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} b^x = \infty$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} b^x = 0$
Far-Left Behaviour	$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} b^x = 0$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} b^x = \infty$
Asymptotes	$y = 0$	$y = 0$

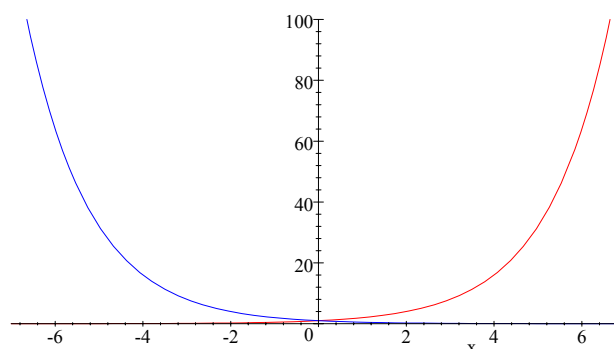
**Remark** Let  $b > 0, b \neq 1$ . Then the graph of  $f(x) = b^x$  is the reflection (mirror image) of the graph of  $g(x) = b^{-x} = \frac{1}{b^x}$  in the *y*-axis.



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



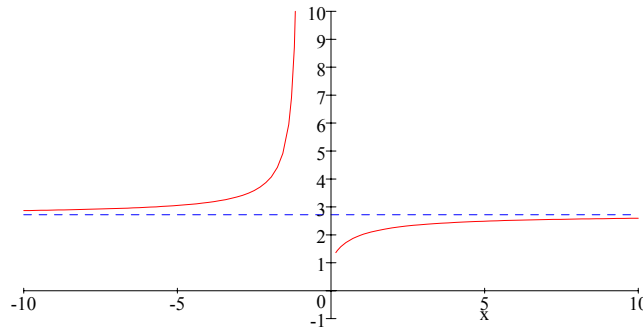
$$g(x) = \frac{1}{2^x}$$



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

## The Irrational Number $e$

Consider the function  $f(x) = 1 + \frac{1}{x}^x$ .



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

**Summary** It's clear that  $f(x)$  has a horizontal asymptote. We define

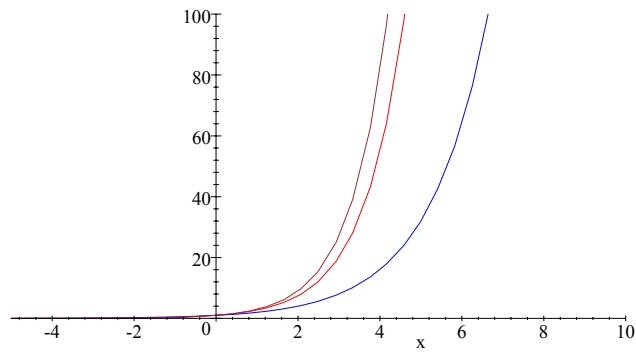
$$e := \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x = \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{x}\right)^x.$$

With the substitution  $v = \frac{1}{x}$ , we see that as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $v \rightarrow 0$  and so

$$\lim_{v \rightarrow 0} \left(1 + v\right)^{\frac{1}{v}} = e.$$

In fact “ $e$ ” can be proved to be an irrational real number and can be approximated as follows:

$x$	$1 + \frac{1}{x}^x$
1	2
10	2.593742
100	2.704814
1000	2.716924
10,000	2.718156
100,000	2.718268
1,000,000	2.718280



$$y = 3^x, y = e^x, y = 2^x$$

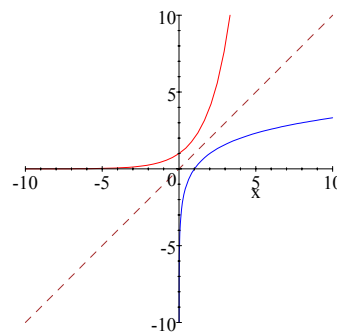
## The Logarithmic Functions

Let  $b > 0, b \neq 1$ . The function

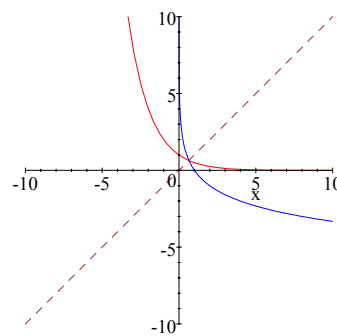
$$f(x) = b^x : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$$

is **monotone** (increasing, if  $b > 1$  and decreasing, if  $0 < b < 1$ ). So it's 1-1 and has inverse

$$g(x) = \log_b x : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$



$$f(x) = b^x, f^{-1}(x) = \log_b x; b > 1$$



$$f(x) = b^x, f^{-1}(x) = \log_b x; 0 < b < 1$$

In fact for  $b > 0, b \neq 1$  we have

$$y = b^x \iff x = \log_b y \text{ for every } x \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } y > 0$$

and

$$y = \log_b x \iff x = b^y \text{ for every } x > 0 \text{ and } y \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Summary** Let  $b > 1$ .

	$f(x) = b^x$	$f^{-1}(x) = \log_b x$
<b>Domain</b>	$\mathbb{R}$	$(0, \infty)$
<b>Range</b>	$(0, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$
<b>intercepts</b>	$(0, 1)$	$(1, 0)$
	$(1, b)$	$(b, 1)$
<b>Monotonicity</b>	increasing	increasing
<b>Injectivity</b>	1-1 (injective)	1-1 (injective)
<b>Far-Right Behaviour</b>	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} b^x = \infty$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \log_b x = \infty$
<b>Far-Left Behaviour</b>	$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} b^x = 0$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \log_b x = -\infty$

Let  $0 < b < 1$ .

	$f(x) = b^x$	$f^{-1}(x) = \log_b x$
<b>Domain</b>	$\mathbb{R}$	$(0, \infty)$
<b>Range</b>	$(0, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$
<b>intercepts</b>	$(0, 1)$	$(1, 0)$
	$(1, b)$	$(b, 1)$
<b>Monotonicity</b>	decreasing	decreasing
<b>Injectivity</b>	1-1 (injective)	1-1 (injective)
<b>Far-Right Behaviour</b>	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} b^x = 0$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \log_b x = \infty$
<b>Far-Left Behaviour</b>	$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} b^x = \infty$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \log_b x = -\infty$

**Theorem (Algebraic Properties of  $\log_b x$ ).**

Let  $b > 0, \neq 1, a > 0, c > 0$  and  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \log_b a + \log_b c &= \log_b(ac) && \text{Product Property} \\ \log_b \frac{a}{c} &= \log_b a - \log_b c && \text{Quotient Property} \\ \log_b a^r &= r \log_b a. && \text{Power Property} \\ \log_b \frac{1}{c} &= -\log_b c && \text{Reciprocal Property} \end{aligned}$$

**Remark** Let  $b > 0, \neq 1, a > 0, c > 0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \log_b a + \log_b c &= \log_b(ac); \\ \log_b a - \log_b c &= \log_b \frac{a}{c}. \end{aligned}$$



**Example** Consider the equation

$$\frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{2} = 1.$$

Then we get after multiplying with  $e^x$  and rearranging the equation

$$e^{2x} - 2e^x - 1 = 0.$$

With the substitution  $u = e^x$ , we get the quadratic equation

$$u^2 - 2u - 1 = 0,$$

which has two solutions

$$u = \frac{2 \pm \sqrt{2^2 - 4 \cdot 1 \cdot (-1)}}{2 \cdot 1}$$

$$= \frac{2 \pm 2\sqrt{2}}{2} = 1 \pm \sqrt{2}.$$

Since  $u = e^x > 0$ , we ignore  $u = 1 - \sqrt{2} < 0$  and consider

$$e^x = u = 1 + \sqrt{2},$$

which yields

$$x = \ln u = \ln(1 + \sqrt{2}).$$

**Remark** Let  $b, c > 0, \neq 1$ . Let  $x > 0$  and  $y = \log_b x$ . Then  $b^y = x$  and we get

$$\log_c b^y = \log_c x$$

$$y \log_c b = \log_c x,$$

which yields

$$\log_b x = \frac{\log_c x}{\log_c b}.$$

In particular for any  $x > 0$ , we have

$$\log_b x = \frac{\log x}{\log b} = \frac{\ln x}{\ln b}.$$

**Example** To find  $\log_3$ , we use the calculator and the formula

$$\log_3 = \frac{\ln}{\ln 3} = \frac{1.1447}{1.0986} = 1.042$$

## 4.3 Derivatives of Logarithmic and Exponential Functions

**Theorem** Let  $b > 0, b \neq 1$ . Then

$$\frac{d}{dx} \log_b x = \frac{1}{x \ln b}, \text{ where } x > 0.$$

In particular

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x \ln e} = \frac{1}{x}, \text{ where } x > 0.$$

**Example**

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln x^2 = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{x^2 - 1} = 2x$$

**Example** Let

$$f(x) = \ln |x| = \begin{cases} \ln x, & x > 0 \\ \ln(-x), & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

Then

$$f'(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{x}, & x > 0 \\ \frac{1}{-x} = -\frac{1}{x}, & x < 0. \end{cases}$$

**Example** We can use **logarithmic differentiation** to find the derivative of functions like

$$y = \frac{x^3 \sqrt[3]{x-3}}{1-x^4}.$$

Taking the absolute value of both sides, we get

$$|y| = \frac{|x|^3 |x-3|^{\frac{1}{3}}}{1-x^4}.$$

Applying the “ln” to both sides we get

$$\ln |y| = 3 \ln |x| + \frac{1}{3} \ln |x-3| - 2 \ln |1-x^4|.$$

Differentiating the new equation implicitly yields:

$$\frac{1}{y} y' = \frac{3}{x} + \frac{1}{3} \frac{1}{x-3} - 2 \frac{1}{1-x^4} \cdot 4x^3,$$

hence

$$y' = \frac{x^3 \sqrt[3]{x-3}}{1-x^4} \left[ \frac{3}{x} + \frac{1}{3(x-3)} - \frac{8x^3}{1-x^4} \right], \quad x > 0, x \neq 3.$$

**Theorem** Let  $r$  be an arbitrary real number and  $y = x^r$ . Then  $y' = rx^{r-1}$ .

**Proof** When  $x > 0$  the result is obvious. If  $x < 0$ , then applying the “ln” to

$$|y| = |x|^r, \quad x < 0$$

yields

$$\ln|y| = \ln|x|^r = r \ln|x|.$$

Differentiating the new equation implicitly results in

$$\frac{1}{y} y' = r \frac{1}{x},$$

hence

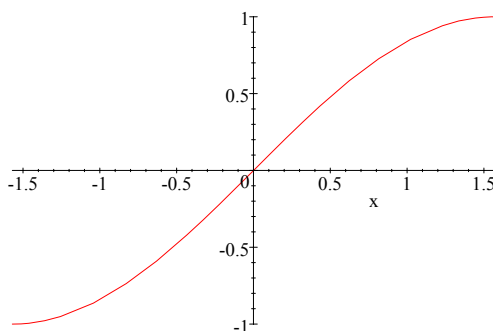
$$y' = rx^{r-1}.$$

**Example** Let  $f(x) = x^{2e} = x^{1.2e}$ . Then  $f'(x) = 2e x^{2e-1} = 1.2e x^{1.2e-1}$ .

## 4.4 Inverse Trigonometric Functions

**Definition** Consider the 1-1 function

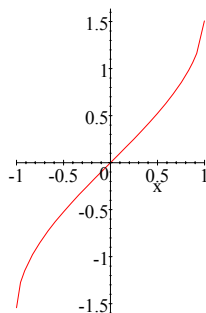
$$f(x) = \sin x : \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right] \rightarrow [-1, 1].$$



$$f(x) = \sin x$$

Then  $f(x)$  has inverse the **inverse sine function**:

$$g(x) = \sin^{-1} x : [-1, 1] \rightarrow \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right].$$



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

**Remarks** From the graph of  $f(x) = \sin x$  and  $g(x) = \sin^{-1} x$  we have

$f(x) = \sin x$	$g(x) = \sin^{-1} x$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \sin x = 1$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \sin^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\frac{\pi}{2}} \sin x = -1$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} \sin^{-1} x = -\frac{\pi}{2}$
$\sin 0 = 0$	$\sin^{-1} 0 = 0$
$\sin(-x) = -\sin x$ “odd”	$\sin^{-1}(-x) = -\sin^{-1} x$ “odd”
increasing	increasing
continuous	continuous



**Theorem** Let  $g(x) = \sin^{-1}x$ . Then

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}, \quad x \in (-1, 1).$$

Proof Let  $y = g(x) = \sin^{-1}x$ . Then  $\sin y = x$  and we get with implicit differentiation

$$\cos y \frac{dy}{dx} = 1,$$

hence

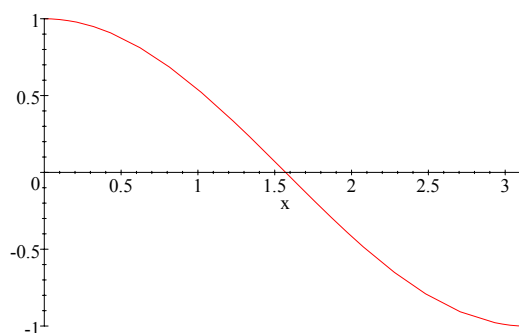
$$g'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\sin^2 y}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}, \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

**Example**

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sin^{-1}x^7 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^{14}}} \cdot 7x^6 = \frac{7x^6}{\sqrt{1-x^{14}}}.$$

**Definition** Consider the 1-1 function

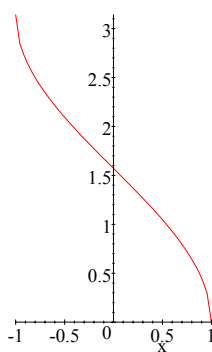
$$f(x) = \cos x : [0, \pi] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$$



$$f(x) = \cos x$$

Then  $f(x)$  has inverse the **inverse cosine function**:

$$g(x) = \cos^{-1} x : [-1, 1] \rightarrow [0, \pi]$$



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

Remarks From the graph of  $f(x) = \cos x$  and  $g(x) = \cos^{-1} x$  we have

$f(x) = \cos x$	$g(x) = \cos^{-1} x$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x = 1$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \cos^{-1} x = 0$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} \cos x = -1$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow -1} \cos^{-1} x = \pi$
$\cos \frac{\pi}{2} = 0$	$\cos^{-1} 0 = \frac{\pi}{2}$
decreasing	decreasing
continuous	continuous

**Theorem** Let  $g(x) = \cos^{-1}x$ . Then

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}, \quad x \in (-1, 1).$$

**Proof** Let  $y = g(x) = \cos^{-1}x$ . Then  $\cos y = x$  and we get with implicit differentiation  $\sin y \frac{dy}{dx} = -1$ , hence

$$g'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-1}{\sin y} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\cos^2 y}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}, \quad -1 < x < 1.$$

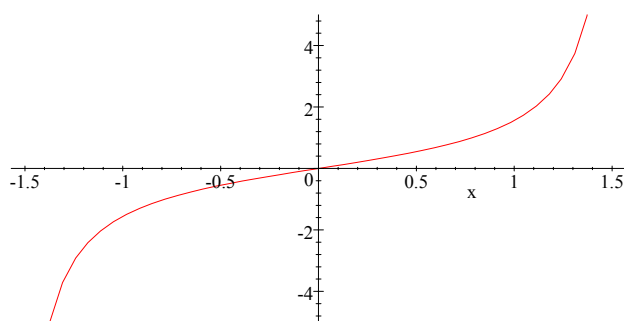
**Example**

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



**Definition** Consider the 1-1 function

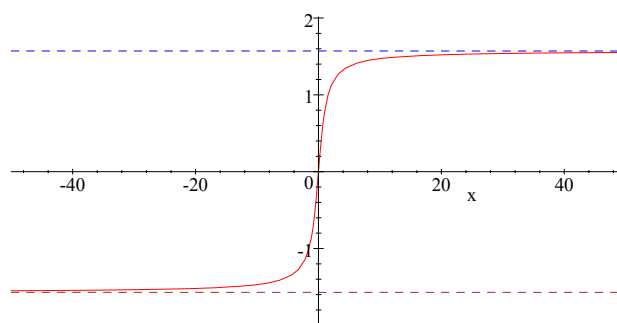
$$f(x) = \tan x : \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right),$$



$$f(x) = \tan x$$

Then  $f(x)$  is invertible with inverse the **inverse tan function**:

$$g(x) = \tan^{-1} x : \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$



$$g(x) = \tan^{-1} x, y \in \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

Remarks From the graph of  $f(x) = \tan x$  and  $g(x) = \tan^{-1} x$  we have

$f(x) = \tan x$	$g(x) = \tan^{-1} x$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \tan x$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \tan^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\frac{\pi}{2}^+} \tan x$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\frac{\pi}{2}^+} \tan^{-1} x = -\frac{\pi}{2}$
vertical asymptotes $x = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$	horizontal asymptotes $y = \pm \frac{\pi}{2}$
$\tan 0 = 0$	$\tan^{-1} 0 = 0$
increasing	increasing
continuous	continuous

**Theorem** Let  $g(x) = \tan^{-1}x$ . Then

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Proof** Let  $y = g(x) = \tan^{-1}x$ . Then  $\tan y = x$  and we get with implicit differentiation  $\sec^2 y \frac{dy}{dx} = 1$ , hence

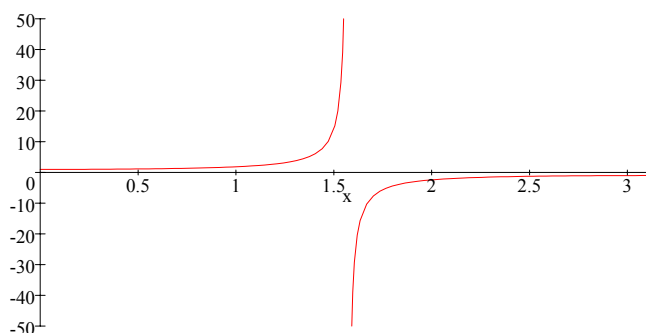
$$g'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec^2 y} = \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2 y} = \frac{1}{1 + x^2} \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Example**

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{1-3x}{1+3x^2} \right) = \frac{1}{9x^2 + 6x + 2}.$$

**Definition** Consider the 1-1 function

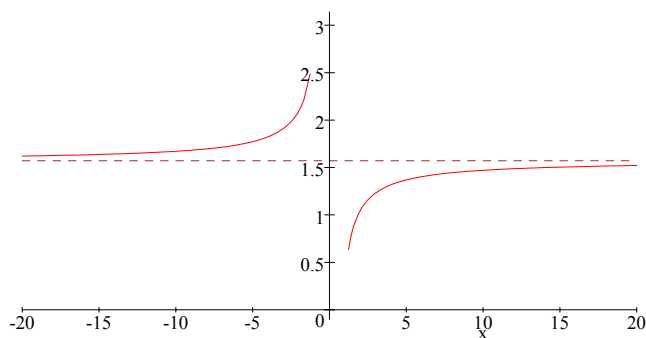
$$f(x) = \sec x : \left(0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left(\frac{3\pi}{2}, 2\pi\right)$$



$$f(x) = \sec x$$

Then  $f(x)$  has inverse the **inverse secant function**

$$g(x) = \sec^{-1} x : \left(-\infty, -1\right) \cup \left(1, \infty\right), \quad \left(0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left(\frac{3\pi}{2}, 2\pi\right)$$



$$g(x) = \sec^{-1} x, \quad y \in \left(0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left(\frac{3\pi}{2}, 2\pi\right)$$

Remarks

$f(x) = \sec x$	$g(x) = \sec^{-1} x$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \sec x = +\infty$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^-} \sec^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^+} \sec x = -\infty$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}^+} \sec^{-1} x = \frac{3\pi}{2}$
vertical asymptote $x = \frac{\pi}{2}$	horizontal asymptote $y = \frac{\pi}{2}$
$\sec 0 = 1$ & $\sec \pi = -1$	$\sec^{-1} 1 = 0$ & $\sec^{-1} (-1) = \pi$
increasing on $\left(0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$	increasing on $\left(0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left(\frac{3\pi}{2}, 2\pi\right)$
increasing on $\left(\frac{3\pi}{2}, 2\pi\right)$	increasing on $\left(1, \infty\right)$

**Theorem** Let  $g(x) = \sec^{-1}x$ . Then

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}, \quad |x| > 1.$$

Proof Let  $y = g(x) = \sec^{-1}x = \cos^{-1}\frac{1}{x}$  for  $|x| > 1$ .

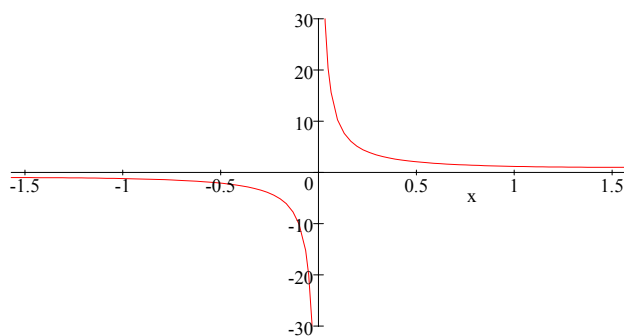
$$\begin{aligned} g'(x) &= \frac{dy}{dx} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{x^2}}} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{x^2}}{\sqrt{x^2-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2} \\ &= \frac{|x|}{\sqrt{x^2-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{|x|^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}} \quad \text{for } |x| > 1. \end{aligned}$$

**Example**

$$\frac{d}{dx} \sec^{-1} e^x = \frac{e^x}{|e^x|\sqrt{e^{2x}-1}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{e^{2x}-1}}.$$

**Definition** Consider the 1-1 function

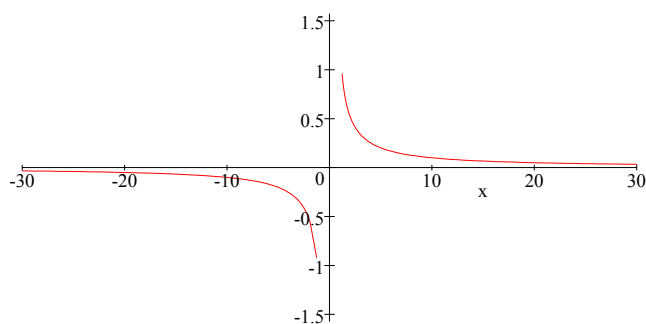
$$f(x) = \csc x : \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \setminus \{0\}, \quad 1 < y < \infty \cup (-\infty, -1).$$



$$f(x) = \csc x$$

Then  $f(x)$  has inverse the **inverse cosecant function**:

$$\csc^{-1} x : \quad 1 < x < \infty \cup (-\infty, -1), \quad \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \setminus \{0\}$$



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

**Remarks** Consider the functions  $f(x) = \csc x$  and its inverse  $g(x) = \csc^{-1} x$ .

$f(x) = \csc x$	$g(x) = \csc^{-1} x$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \csc x = \infty$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \csc^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} \csc x = -\infty$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} \csc^{-1} x = -\frac{\pi}{2}$
vertical asymptote $x = 0$	horizontal asymptote $y = \frac{\pi}{2}$
$\csc \frac{\pi}{2} = 1$ & $\csc \frac{3\pi}{2} = -1$	$\csc^{-1} 1 = \frac{\pi}{2}$ & $\csc^{-1} (-1) = -\frac{\pi}{2}$
decreasing on $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, 0)$	decreasing on $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$
decreasing on $(0, \frac{\pi}{2})$	decreasing on $(\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi)$

**Theorem** Let  $g(x) = \csc^{-1}x$ . Then

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}, \quad |x| > 1.$$

Proof Let  $y = g(x) = \csc^{-1}x = \sin^{-1}\frac{1}{x}$  where  $|x| > 1$ . Then

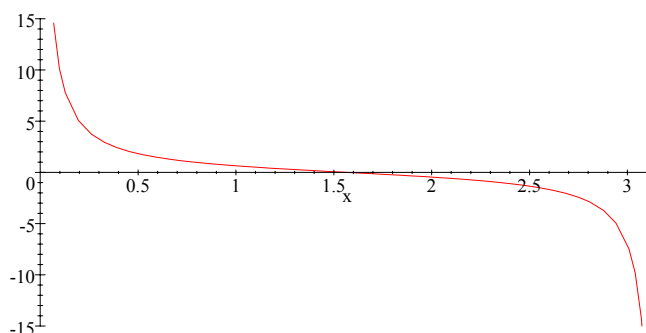
$$\begin{aligned} g'(x) &= \frac{dy}{dx} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{x^2}}} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{x^2}}{\sqrt{x^2-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{x^2} \\ &= \frac{|x|}{\sqrt{x^2-1}} \cdot \frac{1}{|x|^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}} \text{ for } |x| > 1. \end{aligned}$$

**Example**

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \csc^{-1} \ln x &= \frac{1}{|\ln x| \sqrt{\ln^2 x - 1}} \cdot \frac{1}{x} \\ &= \frac{1}{x|\ln x| \sqrt{\ln^2 x - 1}}. \end{aligned}$$

**Definition** Consider the 1-1 function

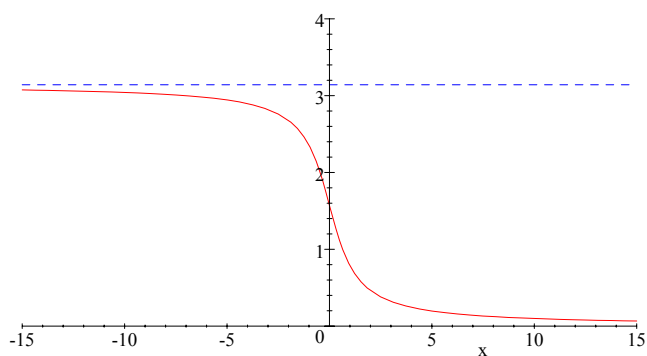
$$f(x) = \cot x : (0, \pi), \quad \mathbb{R}.$$



$$f(x) = \cot x$$

Then  $f(x)$  has inverse the **inverse cotan function**

$$g(x) = \cot^{-1} x : \mathbb{R}, \quad (0, \pi).$$



$$g(x) = \cot^{-1} x, y$$

Remarks

$f(x) = \cot x$	$g(x) = \cot^{-1} x$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cot x = +\infty$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cot^{-1} x = \frac{\pi}{2}$
$\lim_{x \rightarrow \pi} \cot x = -\infty$	$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \cot^{-1} x = 0$
vertical asymptotes $x = 0$ & $x = \pi$	horizontal asymptotes $y = 0$ & $y = \pi$
$\cot \frac{\pi}{2} = 0$	$\cot^{-1} 0 = \frac{\pi}{2}$
decreasing	decreasing
continuous	continuous

**Theorem** Let  $g(x) = \cot^{-1}x$ . Then

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2} \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Proof** Let  $y = g(x) = \cot^{-1}x$ . Then  $\cot y = x$  and we get with implicit differentiation  $\frac{d}{dx}(\cot y) = 1$ , hence

$$g'(x) = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\csc^2 y} = \frac{1}{1 + \cot^2 y} = \frac{1}{1 + x^2} \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

**Example**

$$\frac{d}{dx} \cot^{-1}(\sin x) = \frac{1}{1 + \sin^2 x} \cdot \cos x = \frac{\cos x}{1 + \sin^2 x}.$$



## Summary

$f(x)$	Domain	Range	Derivative	
$\sin^{-1}x$	$[-1, 1]$	$[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	$x \in [-1, 1]$
$\cos^{-1}x$	$[-1, 1]$	$[0, \pi]$	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	$x \in [-1, 1]$
$\tan^{-1}x$	$\mathbb{R}$	$(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$	$\frac{1}{1+x^2}$	$x \in \mathbb{R}$
$\sec^{-1}x$	$[-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$	$[0, \pi] \setminus \{\frac{\pi}{2}\}$	$\frac{1}{ x \sqrt{x^2-1}}$	$x \in [-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$
$\csc^{-1}x$	$[-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$	$(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}) \setminus \{0\}$	$-\frac{1}{ x \sqrt{x^2-1}}$	$x \in [-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$
$\cot^{-1}x$	$\mathbb{R}$	$(0, \pi)$	$-\frac{1}{1+x^2}$	$x \in \mathbb{R}$

## Summary

$\sec^{-1}x$	$\cos^{-1} \frac{1}{x}$	$ x  \geq 1$	
$\sin^{-1}x = \cos^{-1}x$	$\frac{\pi}{2} - x$	$x \in [-1, 1]$	
$\cos \sin^{-1}x$	$\sqrt{1-x^2}$	$x \in [-1, 1]$	
$\tan \sin^{-1}x$	$\frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	$x \in [-1, 1]$	
$\sin \cos^{-1}x$	$\sqrt{1-x^2}$	$x \in [-1, 1]$	
$\sec \tan^{-1}x$	$\sqrt{1+x^2}$	$x \in \mathbb{R}$	
$\sin \sec^{-1}x$	$\frac{\sqrt{x^2-1}}{ x }$	$ x  \geq 1$	

## 4.5 L'Hopital's Rule

**Theorem** Suppose that  $f$  &  $g$  are functions, such that:

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$  &  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ ;
2.  $f(x)$  &  $g(x)$  are differentiable on an open interval containing " $a$ " (except possibly at " $a$ " itself);
3.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)} = L$ , or  $\infty$  (where  $L \in \mathbb{R}$ ).

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}.$$

**Remark** The statement of the previous theorem remains true in the case  $x \rightarrow a^-$ ,  $x \rightarrow a^+$ ,  $x \rightarrow \infty$  or  $x \rightarrow -\infty$  (with the second condition modified as appropriate).

**Example** Let  $b > 0, b \neq 1$ . Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{b^x - 1}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{b^x \ln b}{1} = \ln b.$$

**Example**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln \cos x}{x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/\cos x \cdot (-\sin x)}{1} = 0.$$

**Example**

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{x} &= \frac{1}{e^x - 1} & \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{x} &= \frac{e^x}{e^x - 1} \\ & & \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{e^x - 1 - x} &= \frac{e^x}{1 - e^x - x} \\ & & \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{e^x - 1 - x - \frac{x^2}{2}} &= \frac{e^x}{e^x - 1 - x - \frac{x^2}{2}} \\ & & \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^x - 1}{e^x - 2 - x} &= \frac{e^x}{e^x - 2 - x} \\ & & \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2 - x} &= \frac{1}{2}. \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem** Suppose that  $f$  &  $g$  are functions, such that:

1.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = L$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = M$ ;
2.  $f(x)$  &  $g(x)$  are differentiable on an open interval containing " $a$ " (except possibly at " $a$ " itself);
3.  $M \neq 0$  (where  $L \in \mathbb{R}$ ).

Then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \frac{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)}{\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x)}.$$

**Remark** The statement of the previous theorem remains true in the case  $x \rightarrow a^+$ ,  $x \rightarrow a^-$ , or  $x \rightarrow \infty$  (with the second condition modified as appropriate).

**Example**

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln \sin x}{\ln x} &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{1/\sin x \cdot \cos x}{1/x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x \cos x}{\sin x} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x}{\sin x} \cdot \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \cos x \\ &= 1 \cdot 1 = 1. \end{aligned}$$

**Example**

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^x \cdot x^2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^2 \cdot \frac{e^x}{x^2} = 1 \cdot \infty = \infty.$$

Now

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^2} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{2x} = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{2} = \infty.$$

Hence

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} e^x \cdot x^2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} x^2 = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^x}{x^2} = 1 \cdot \infty = \infty.$$