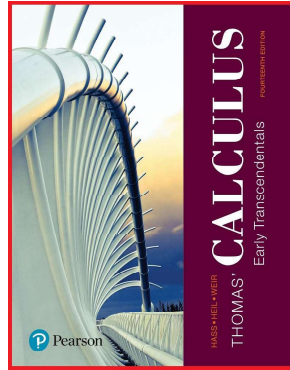


Calculus 1

Chapter 3. Derivatives

3.9. Inverse Trigonometric Functions—Examples and Proofs

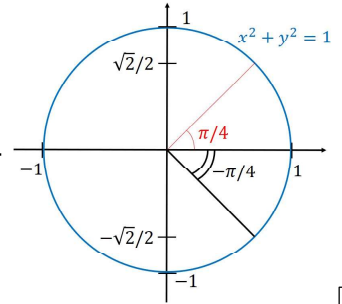


Exercise 3.9.4

Exercise 3.9.4. Use reference angles in an appropriate quadrant to find the angles: **(a)** $\sin^{-1}(1/2)$, **(b)** $\sin^{-1}(-1/\sqrt{2})$, **(c)** $\arcsin(\sqrt{3}/2)$.

Solution. **(a)** With $\theta = \sin^{-1}(1/2)$, we need $\sin \theta = 1/2$ and $\theta \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$. So θ is a “special angle” and from our knowledge of special angles, we have $\theta = \pi/6$. \square

(b) With $\theta = \sin^{-1}(-1/\sqrt{2})$, we need $\sin \theta = -1/\sqrt{2} = -\sqrt{2}/2$ and $\theta \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$. From our knowledge of special angles, we know that $\sin \pi/4 = \sqrt{2}/2$. So we seek an angle θ with a reference angle of $\pi/4$ where $\theta \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ and $\sin \theta < 0$. We take $\theta = -\pi/4$: \square



Exercise 3.9.4 (continued)

Exercise 3.9.4. Use reference angles in an appropriate quadrant to find the angles: **(a)** $\sin^{-1}(1/2)$, **(b)** $\sin^{-1}(-1/\sqrt{2})$, **(c)** $\arcsin(\sqrt{3}/2)$.

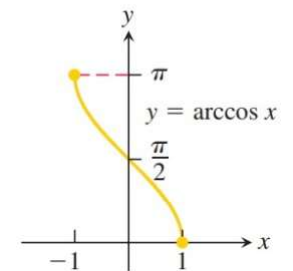
Solution. **(c)** With $\theta = \arcsin(\sqrt{3}/2)$, we need $\sin \theta = \sqrt{3}/2$ and $\theta \in [-\pi/2, \pi/2]$. So θ is a “special angle” and from our knowledge of special angles, we have $\theta = \pi/3$. \square

Exercise 3.9.14

Exercise 3.9.14. Find the limit: $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1^+} \cos^{-1}(x)$.

Solution. First, notice that -1 is a left endpoint of the domain of $\cos^{-1}x$. Based on the graph of $y = \cos^{-1}x$, we see (by Dr. Bob’s Anthropomorphic Definition of Limit, a one-sided version) that as $x \rightarrow -1$ from the right (i.e., from the positive side) that the graph “tries to contain the point” $(-1, \pi)$. So $\lim_{x \rightarrow -1^+} \cos^{-1}(x) = \pi$. \square

Domain: $-1 \leq x \leq 1$
Range: $0 \leq y \leq \pi$



Theorem 3.9.A

Theorem 3.9.A. We differentiate \sin^{-1} as follows:

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\sin^{-1} u] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}} \left[\frac{du}{dx} \right]$$

where $|u| < 1$.

Proof. We know that if $y = \sin^{-1} x$ then (for appropriate domain and range values) $\sin y = x$ and so by implicit differentiation

$\frac{d}{dx} [\sin y] = \frac{d}{dx} [x]$ or $\cos y \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right] = 1$ or $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\cos y}$. Since we have restricted y to the interval $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$, we know that $\cos y \geq 0$ and so $\cos y = +\sqrt{1 - (\sin y)^2} = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$. Making this substitution we get $\frac{d}{dx} [\sin^{-1} x] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$. The full theorem then follows from the Chain Rule. \square

Exercise 3.9.24

Exercise 3.9.24. For dy/dt when $y = \sin^{-1}(1-t)$.

Solution. By Theorem 3.9.A (with $u(t) = 1-t$ and $du/dt = -1$), we have

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} [\sin^{-1}(1-t)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(1-t)^2}} \left[-1 \right] = \boxed{\frac{-1}{\sqrt{2t-t^2}}}$$

\square

Theorem 3.9.B

Theorem 3.9.B. We differentiate \tan^{-1} as follows:

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\tan^{-1} u] = \frac{1}{1+u^2} \left[\frac{du}{dx} \right]$$

Proof. We know that if $y = \tan^{-1} x$ then (for appropriate domain and range values) $\tan y = x$ and so by implicit differentiation

$\frac{d}{dx} [\tan y] = \frac{d}{dx} [x]$ or $\sec^2 y \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right] = 1$ or $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec^2 y} = \frac{1}{1+(\tan y)^2} = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$. The full theorem then follows from the Chain Rule. \square

Exercise 3.9.34

Exercise 3.9.34. Find dy/dx when $y = \tan^{-1}(\ln x)$.

Solution. By Theorem 3.9.B (with $u(x) = \ln x$ and $du/dx = 1/x$), we have

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} [\tan^{-1}(\ln x)] = \frac{1}{1+(\ln x)^2} \left[\frac{1}{x} \right] = \boxed{\frac{1}{x(1+(\ln x)^2)}}$$

\square

Theorem 3.9.C

Theorem 3.9.C. We differentiate \sec^{-1} as follows:

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\sec^{-1} u] = \frac{1}{|u|\sqrt{u^2-1}} \left[\frac{du}{dx} \right]$$

where $|u| > 1$.

Proof. We know that if $y = \sec^{-1} x$ then (for appropriate domain and range values) $\sec y = x$ and so by implicit differentiation

$\frac{d}{dx} [\sec y] = \frac{d}{dx} [x]$ or $\sec y \tan y \left[\frac{dy}{dx} \right] = 1$ or $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sec y \tan y}$. We now need to express this last expression in terms of x . First, $\sec y = x$ and $\tan y = \pm \sqrt{\sec^2 y - 1} = \pm \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$. Therefore we have

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\sec^{-1} x] = \pm \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}.$$

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Theorem 3.9.C (continued)

Proof (continued). ...

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\sec^{-1} x] = \pm \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}}.$$

Notice from the graph of $y = \sec^{-1} x$ above, that the slope of this function is positive wherever it is defined. So

$$\frac{d}{dx} [\sec^{-1} x] = \begin{cases} +\frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}} & \text{if } x > 1 \\ -\frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2-1}} & \text{if } x < -1. \end{cases}$$

Notice that if $x > 1$ then $x = |x|$ and if $x < -1$ then $-x = |x|$. Therefore

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

The full theorem then follows from the Chain Rule. □

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Exercise 3.9.40

Exercise 3.9.40. Find dy/dx when $y = \cot^{-1}(1/x) - \tan^{-1} x$.

Solution. By Table 3.1(3 and 4) (with $u(x) = 1/x = x^{-1}$ and $du/dx = -x^{-2} = -1/x^2$), we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} [\cot^{-1}(1/x) - \tan^{-1} x] = \frac{d}{dx} [\cot^{-1}(1/x)] - \frac{d}{dx} [\tan^{-1} x] \\ &= \frac{-1}{1+(1/x)^2} \left[\frac{-1}{x^2} \right] - \frac{1}{1+x^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{x^2(1+1/x^2)} - \frac{1}{1+x^2} = \frac{1}{x^2+1} - \frac{1}{1+x^2} = \boxed{0}. \end{aligned}$$

□

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Exercise 3.9.44

Exercise 3.9.44. Find dy/dx at point $P(0, 1/2)$ when $\sin^{-1}(x+y) + \cos^{-1}(x-y) = 5\pi/6$.

Solution. Differentiating implicitly we have by Table 3.1(1 and 2) that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} [\sin^{-1}(x+y) + \cos^{-1}(x-y)] &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{5\pi}{6} \right] \text{ or} \\ \frac{d}{dx} [\sin^{-1}(x+y)] + \frac{d}{dx} [\cos^{-1}(x-y)] &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{5\pi}{6} \right] \text{ or} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}} \left[1 + \frac{dy}{dx} \right] + \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2}} \left[1 - \frac{dy}{dx} \right] &= 0 \text{ or} \\ \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2}} \right) \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2}} \text{ or} \\ \text{(getting a common denominator)} & \end{aligned}$$

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Exercise 3.9.44 (continued)

Exercise 3.9.44. Find dy/dx at point $P(0, 1/2)$ when $\sin^{-1}(x+y) + \cos^{-1}(x-y) = 5\pi/6$.

Solution (continued). ... $\left(\frac{\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2} + \sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}}{\sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2}} \right) \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2} + \sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}}{\sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2}}$ or $\left(\frac{\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2} + \sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}}{\sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2}} \right) \frac{dy}{dx} = -\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2} + \sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}$ or $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{-\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2} + \sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}}{\sqrt{1-(x+y)^2}\sqrt{1-(x-y)^2}}$. With $(x, y) = (0, 1/2)$ we have $\sqrt{1-(x \pm y)^2} = \sqrt{3/4} = \sqrt{3}/2$ and at $P(0, 1/2)$ we then have $\boxed{dy/dx|_{(x,y)=(0,1/2)} = 0}$. \square

Exercise 3.9.60

Exercise 3.9.60. What is special about the functions $f(x) = \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}$ and $g(x) = \tan^{-1}(1/x)$?

Solution. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{df}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[\sin^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}} \right] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(1/\sqrt{x^2+1})^2}} \frac{d}{dx} \left[(x^2+1)^{-1/2} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(1/\sqrt{x^2+1})^2}} \left[\frac{-1}{2} (x^2+1)^{-3/2} [2x] \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-1/(x^2+1)}} (-x(x^2+1)^{-3/2}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{((x^2+1)-1)/(x^2+1)}} \frac{-x}{(x^2+1)^{3/2}} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{x^2+1}}{\sqrt{x^2}} \frac{-x}{(x^2+1)\sqrt{x^2+1}} = \frac{-x}{|x|(x^2+1)} \end{aligned}$$

Exercise 3.9.60 (continued 1)

Solution. Notice that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dg}{dx} &= \frac{d}{dx} \left[\tan^{-1} \frac{1}{x} \right] = \frac{1}{1+(1/x)^2} \frac{d}{dx} \left[\frac{1}{x} \right] = \frac{1}{1+(1/x)^2} \left[\frac{-1}{x^2} \right] \\ &= \frac{-1}{(1+(1/x)^2)x^2} = \frac{-1}{x^2+1}. \end{aligned}$$

So for $x > 0$, $f'(x) = g'(x)$. We will see in Corollary 4.2 (see Section 4.2. The Mean Value Theorem) that this implies $f(x) - g(x)$ is constant. We can evaluate f and g at some $x > 0$ to see what this constant is. With $x = 1$ we have

$$f(1) = \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1^2+1}} = \sin^{-1}(1/\sqrt{2}) = \sin^{-1}(\sqrt{2}/2) = \pi/4 \text{ and}$$

$$g(1) = \tan^{-1}(1/(1)) = \tan^{-1}(1) = \pi/4, \text{ so that the constant is 0 and so}$$

$$\text{we must have } \boxed{f(x) = \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}} = \tan^{-1}(1/x) = g(x) \text{ for } x > 0.}$$

Exercise 3.9.60 (continued 2)

Exercise 3.9.60. What is special about the functions $f(x) = \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}}$ and $g(x) = \tan^{-1}(1/x)$?

Solution (continued). For $x < 0$, $f'(x) = -g'(x)$ or $f'(x) + g'(x) = 0$. Again, by Corollary 4.2 (see Section 4.2. The Mean Value Theorem) this implies $f(x) + g(x)$ is constant. We can evaluate f and g at some $x < 0$ to see what this constant is. With $x = -1$ we have $f(-1) = \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(-1)^2+1}} = \sin^{-1}(1/\sqrt{2}) = \sin^{-1}(\sqrt{2}/2) = \pi/4$ and $g(-1) = \tan^{-1}(1/(-1)) = \tan^{-1}(-1) = -\pi/4$, so that $f(x) + g(x) = \pi/4 + (-\pi/4) = 0$ for $x < 0$, or

$$\boxed{f(x) = \sin^{-1} \frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2+1}} = -\tan^{-1}(1/x) = -g(x) \text{ for } x < 0.} \square$$