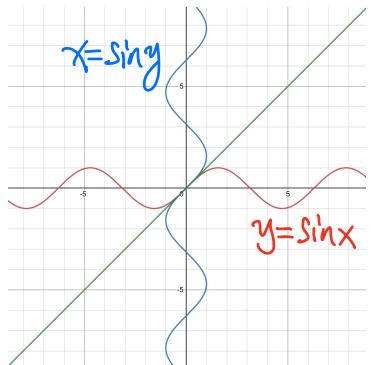


# Lecture 17, Tuesday, November 07/2023

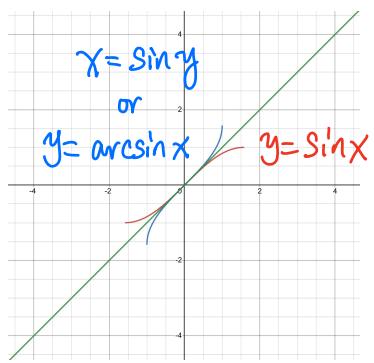
## Outline

- Inverse differentiation (7.1)
- Inverse trigonometric functions (7.6)
- Natural logarithmic function (7.2)
  - ↳ Basic properties
  - ↳ Algebraic properties
  - ↳ Graph and range
  - ↳  $\ln(|f(x)|)$

## Inverse Trigonometric Functions



The Sine function is not injective on its natural domain  $\mathbb{R}$ , so it does not have an inverse in this case.



But  $\sin : [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$  is increasing,  
so it is injective and has an inverse

$$\arcsin : [-1, 1] \rightarrow [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}].$$

This is the **inverse sine function**, which is also denoted by  $\sin^{-1}$ .  $(\sin x)' = \cos x$ .

Q:  $\arcsin'(x) = ?$

$$\frac{1}{\cos \arcsin x}$$

原  $\sin x$  原导  $\cos x$   
反  $\arcsin x$  反导

Let  $y_0 \in (-1, 1)$  and let  $x_0 \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  be such that

$$\sin x_0 = y_0$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

$\sin x$

Then, by inverse differentiation,

$$\arcsin'(y_0) = \frac{1}{\sin' x_0} = \frac{1}{\cos x_0} \stackrel{\cos x_0 > 0}{=} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\sin^2 x_0}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-y_0^2}}$$

Hence:

$$= \frac{1}{\cos \theta} \quad \cos \theta = \frac{\sqrt{1-x^2}}{1}$$

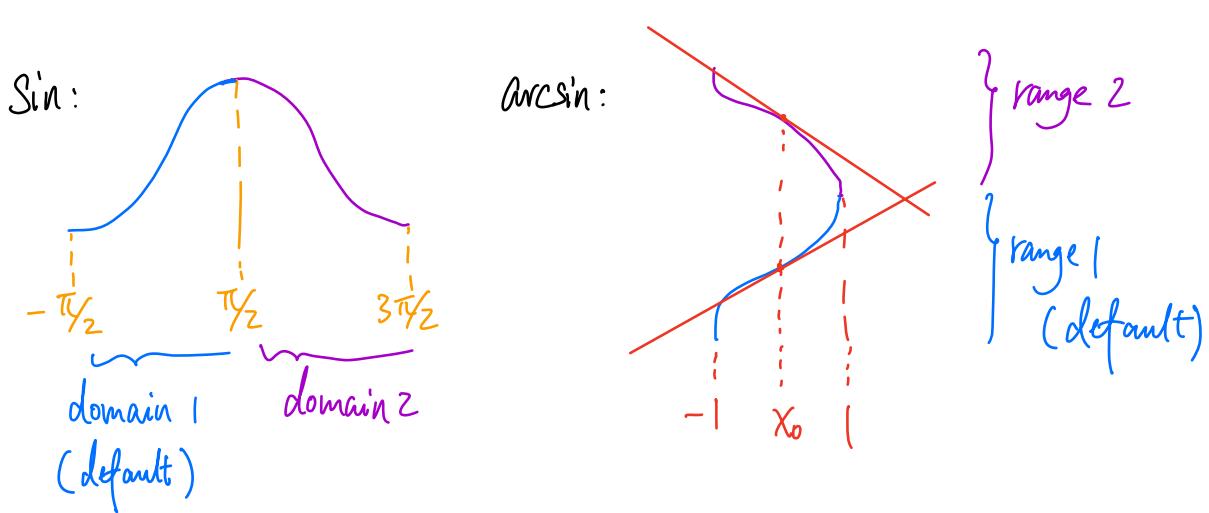
$$\arcsin' x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}, \quad \forall x \in (-1, 1). \quad (*)$$

$$\frac{1}{\cos \theta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$$

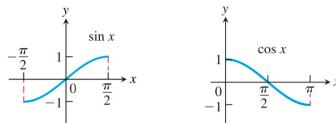
$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \arcsin x + C \quad \text{on } (-1, 1)$$

Remarks  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dx = \arcsin x + C$

- $\arcsin' x$  does not exist at  $x=\pm 1$  (infinite slope).
- The formula (\*) assumes that the domain of sine is  $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ . It may be different otherwise.



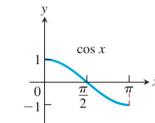
The following figures summarize the Six trigonometric functions and their inverses. Be aware of the given **default** domains.



$$y = \sin x$$

Domain:  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$

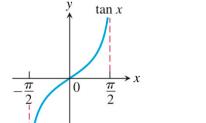
Range:  $[-1, 1]$



$$y = \cos x$$

Domain:  $[0, \pi]$

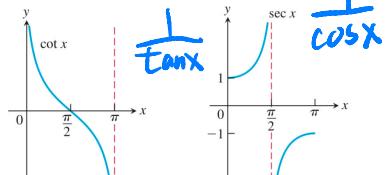
Range:  $[-1, 1]$



$$y = \tan x$$

Domain:  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$

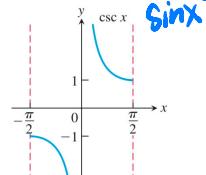
Range:  $(-\infty, \infty)$



$$y = \cot x$$

Domain:  $(0, \pi)$

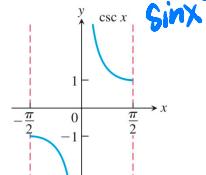
Range:  $(-\infty, \infty)$



$$y = \sec x$$

Domain:  $[0, \pi/2) \cup (\pi/2, \pi]$

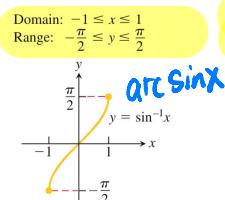
Range:  $(-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$



$$y = \csc x$$

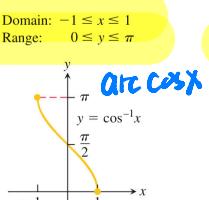
Domain:  $[-\pi/2, 0) \cup (0, \pi/2]$

Range:  $(-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$



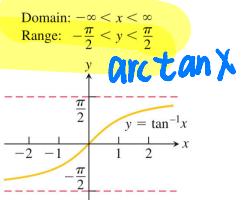
$$\text{Domain: } -1 \leq x \leq 1$$

Range:  $-\pi/2 \leq y \leq \pi/2$



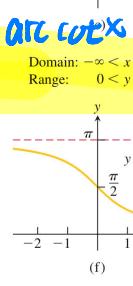
$$\text{Domain: } -1 \leq x \leq 1$$

Range:  $0 \leq y \leq \pi$



$$\text{Domain: } -\infty < x < \infty$$

Range:  $-\pi/2 < y < \pi/2$



$$\text{Domain: } -\infty < x < \infty$$

Range:  $0 < y < \pi$

We can use inverse differentiation to obtain the derivative formulae for other inverse trigonometric functions.

$$\frac{\sin x}{\cos x} \rightarrow \frac{\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x}{\cos^2 x} = \frac{1}{\cos^2 x} = \sec^2 x$$

e.g. For  $\tan: (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , the inverse function is  $\arctan: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ . For  $y_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\tan x_0 = y_0$ ,

$$\sqrt{x^2+1} \quad \tan x \rightarrow \sec^2 x \quad \arctan x \quad \text{Hence,} \quad \arctan'(y_0) = \frac{1}{\tan'(x_0)} = \frac{1}{\sec^2(x_0)} = \frac{1}{1+\tan^2(x_0)} = \frac{1}{1+y_0^2}.$$

Try to express in terms of  $y_0$

$$\arctan'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R},$$

$$\int \frac{1}{1+x^2} dx = \arctan x + C \quad \text{on } \mathbb{R}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sec^2 \theta} = \cos^2 \theta = \frac{1}{x^2+1} \quad \int \frac{1}{x^2+1} dx = \arctan x$$

e.g. For  $\sec: \underbrace{[0, \frac{\pi}{2}) \cup (\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi]}_D \rightarrow \underbrace{[1, \infty) \cup (-\infty, -1]}_{Y = \text{range}}$ , we have

原 inverse  $\text{arcsec}: Y \rightarrow D$ . For any  $y_0 \in Y \setminus \{-1, 1\}$  with  $\sec x_0 = y_0$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sec x &= \frac{1}{\cos x} \\ \text{原导} &= \frac{\sin x}{\cos^2 x} = \sec x \tan x \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{arcsec}'(y_0) = \frac{1}{\sec'(x_0)} = \frac{1}{\underbrace{\sec(x_0) \tan(x_0)}_{y_0}}.$$

Since  $\tan^2 x_0 + 1 = \sec^2 x_0$ , we have

反

$$\begin{aligned} \text{arcsec } x &| \tan x_0 = \begin{cases} \sqrt{\sec^2 x_0 - 1} = \sqrt{y_0^2 - 1}, & \text{if } x_0 \in (0, \frac{\pi}{2}) \\ -\sqrt{\sec^2 x_0 - 1} = -\sqrt{y_0^2 - 1}, & \text{if } x_0 \in (\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi) \end{cases} \\ \sec(\text{arcsec } x) \tan(\text{arcsec } x) & \end{aligned}$$

which means

$$\begin{aligned} \text{arcsec}'(y_0) &= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{y_0 \sqrt{y_0^2 - 1}}, & \text{if } y_0 > 1 \\ \frac{-1}{y_0 \sqrt{y_0^2 - 1}}, & \text{if } y_0 < -1 \end{cases} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sec \theta \tan \theta} \quad C=x \\ &\quad \text{a} = \sqrt{x^2 - 1} \quad \frac{1}{|y_0| \sqrt{y_0^2 - 1}} \cdot \frac{1}{\cos x} \quad \cos x = \frac{b}{C} \end{aligned} \quad (**)$$

Hence,  $b=1$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{arcsec}'(x) &= \frac{1}{|x| \sqrt{x^2 - 1}}, \quad \forall x \text{ with } |x| > 1 \\ &= x \sqrt{x^2 - 1} \end{aligned}$$

Alternatively, from (\*\*), one can also see that

$$\frac{d}{dx} \text{arcsec}|x| = \frac{1}{x \sqrt{x^2 - 1}}, \quad \forall x \text{ with } |x| > 1.$$

$$\int \frac{1}{x \sqrt{x^2 - 1}} dx = \text{arcsec}|x| + C \text{ on any interval } I \subseteq \mathbb{R} \setminus [-1, 1].$$

## Others

Since  $\sin(y) = \cos(y - \frac{\pi}{2}) = \cos(\frac{\pi}{2} - y)$ , if  $x_0 = \sin y_0$  then

$$\arcsin x_0 = y_0 \text{ and } \arccos x_0 = \frac{\pi}{2} - y_0$$

So

$$\arcsin x + \arccos x = \frac{\pi}{2}, \quad \forall x \in [-1, 1].$$

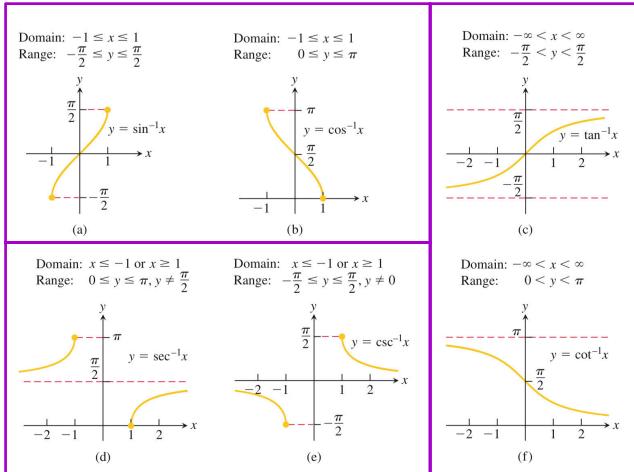
Similarly, one can show that

$$\arctan x + \operatorname{arccot} x = \frac{\pi}{2}; \quad \operatorname{arcsec} x + \operatorname{arccsc} x = \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

This means

$$0 = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{\pi}{2} \right) = \arcsin' x + \arccos' x = \arctan' x + \operatorname{arccot}' x. \\ = \operatorname{arcsec}' x + \operatorname{arccsc}' x.$$

- $\sin : (-\pi/2, \pi/2) \rightarrow (-1, 1)$ ,  $\arcsin'(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ .
  - $\cos : (0, \pi) \rightarrow (-1, 1)$ ,  $\arccos'(x) = \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$ .
  - $\tan : (-\pi/2, \pi/2) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\arctan'(x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$ .
  - $\cot : (0, \pi) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\operatorname{arccot}'(x) = \frac{-1}{1+x^2}$ .
  - $\sec : (0, \pi/2) \cup (\pi/2, \pi) \rightarrow (-\infty, -1) \cup (1, \infty)$ ,
- $$\operatorname{arcsec}'(x) = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}.$$
- $\csc : (-\pi/2, 0) \cup (0, \pi/2) \rightarrow (-\infty, -1) \cup (1, \infty)$ ,
- $$\operatorname{arccsc}'(x) = \frac{-1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}}.$$



$$\int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{3-4x^2}} \quad u = \frac{2x}{\sqrt{3}} \quad \int \frac{\sqrt{3} du}{2\sqrt{3-3u^2}}$$

Examples

$$x = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} u \quad du = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} dx$$

$$\int \frac{du}{2\sqrt{1-u^2}} = -\frac{1}{2} \arcsin(u) + C$$

$$1. \int \frac{dx}{\sqrt{3-4x^2}} = \frac{1}{2} \arcsin\left(\frac{2x}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + C = \frac{1}{2} \arcsin\left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}x\right) + C$$

$$2. \int \frac{dx}{4x^2+4x+2} = \frac{1}{2} \arctan(2x+1) + C.$$

$$3. \int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-a^2}} = \frac{1}{a} \operatorname{arcsec}\left|\frac{x}{a}\right| + C \quad u=2x+1 \\ (a>0) \quad \text{on } (a, \infty) \text{ or on } (-\infty, -a). \quad u=x-2 \\ du=2dx$$

Natural Logarithmic Function

$$\int \frac{dx}{4x^2+4x+2} = \int \frac{dx}{(2x+1)^2+1}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{du}{u^2+1}$$

Def. (Saint-Vincent, 1649)

The (natural) logarithmic function is the function  $\ln$  defined

on  $(0, \infty)$  by

$$= \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc tan} u + C$$

$$\ln(x) := \int_1^x \frac{dt}{t} \quad = \frac{1}{2} \operatorname{arc tan}[2x+1] + C$$

Hence,  $\ln(x)$  is the signed area under the curve  $y = \frac{1}{t}$

from  $t=1$  to  $t=x$ ,  $x > 0$ .

$$x = a \sec u \quad \sec u = \frac{x}{a}$$

$$dx = a \sec u \tan u du \quad u = \operatorname{arc sec} \frac{x}{a}$$

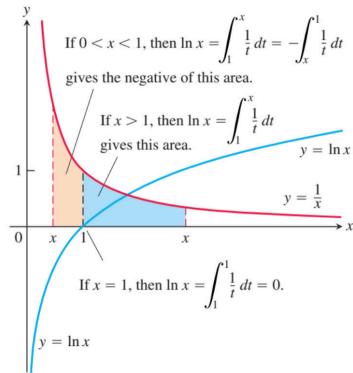
$$\int a \sec u \tan u du = \frac{1}{a} \int du = \frac{1}{a} u + C.$$

$$\int a \sec u \tan u du = \frac{1}{a} \operatorname{arc sec} \frac{x}{a} + C$$

$$\int \frac{dx}{x\sqrt{x^2-a^2}}$$

## I. Basic Properties

- $\ln 1 = \int_1^1 \frac{1}{t} dt = 0$ .
- $\ln' x = \frac{d}{dx} \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt \stackrel{\text{FTC}}{=} \frac{1}{x}$ ,  
 $\forall x \in (0, \infty)$ .



- By the point above,  $\ln$  is differentiable on  $(0, \infty)$ , so it is also continuous on  $(0, \infty)$ .
- Since  $\ln'(x) = \frac{1}{x} > 0 \quad \forall x \in (0, \infty)$ ,  $\ln$  is increasing on  $(0, \infty)$ .
- Since  $\frac{1}{t}$  is decreasing,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{1}{x})^x = e$

$\ln 4 = \int_1^4 \frac{1}{t} dt = \int_1^2 \frac{1}{t} dt + \int_2^3 \frac{1}{t} dt + \int_3^4 \frac{1}{t} dt$

$\geq \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{6+4+3}{12} > 1$ .

By IVT and monotonicity, there is a unique number  $x_0$  such that  $\ln(x_0) = 1$ .

Def Define  $e$  to be the unique number in  $(0, \infty)$  such that  $\ln(e) = 1$ . also called Euler's number.

## Historical Remarks about $e$

- Bernoulli, 1683, in the context of compound interest.
- Euler, 1731, in the context of logarithm.

## 2. Algebraic Properties.

Theorem (Algebraic Properties of  $\ln$ ) For any  $b \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$ :

1.  $\ln(bx) = \ln b + \ln x$ .
2.  $\ln \frac{b}{x} = \ln b - \ln x$ .
3.  $\ln \frac{1}{x} = -\ln x$ . *Rational number set*
4.  $\ln(x^r) = r \ln x$ , for any  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

Proof: 1. Let  $f(x) = \ln(bx)$ , defined on  $(0, \infty)$ . Then

$$f'(x) = \frac{b}{bx} = \frac{1}{x} = \ln'(x),$$

So  $\exists$  constant  $C$  such that  $f(x) = \ln x + C$ ,  $\forall x \in (0, \infty)$ .

$$\Rightarrow \ln(bx) = \ln(x) + C, \quad \forall x \in (0, \infty)$$

Substituting  $x=1$  yields

$$\ln b = \ln 1 + C = C,$$

So  $C = \ln b$ , i.e.,  $\ln(bx) = \ln x + \ln b$ .

4. Let  $f(x) = \ln(x^r)$ , defined on  $(0, \infty)$ . Then

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

So  $\exists$  constant  $C$  such that  $f(x) = r\ln x + C$ ,  $\forall x \in (0, \infty)$ .

$$\Rightarrow \ln(x^r) = r\ln x + C.$$

Substituting  $x=1$  yields  $\ln(1) = r\ln(1) + C$ , i.e.,  $C=0$ .

So

$$\ln(x^r) = r\ln x.$$

$$\begin{aligned} 2. \quad \ln\left(\frac{b}{x}\right) &= \ln(bx^{-1}) = \ln b + \ln(x^{-1}) \quad (\text{by 1}) \\ &= \ln b - \ln x \quad (\text{by 4}). \end{aligned}$$

$$3. \quad \ln\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) \stackrel{\text{by 2}}{=} \ln 1 - \ln x = -\ln x.$$

□

### 3. Graph and Range

#### • Concavity

Since  $\ln''(x) = \frac{d}{dx}\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = -\frac{1}{x^2} < 0$  for all  $x \in (0, \infty)$ ,

the curve  $y = \ln x$  is concave down on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

• Range

Since  $\ln 2 = \int_1^2 \frac{1}{t} dt > (2-1)\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}$ , it follows that for any  $n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ,  $\ln(2^n) = n \ln 2 > \frac{n}{2}$ . Since  $\ln$  is increasing and  $\frac{n}{2} \rightarrow \infty$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we see that  $\ln(x)$  can exceed any fixed number  $M$  for all sufficiently large  $x$ , which means  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln x = \infty$ .

Also,

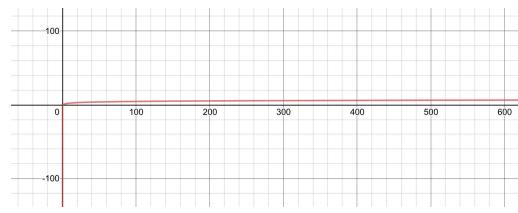
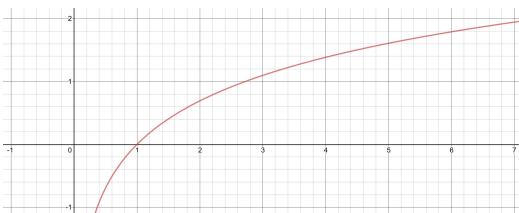
$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln x = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} \ln \frac{1}{y} = \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} (-\ln y) = -\infty,$$

so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln x = -\infty$ , and  $x=0$  is a vertical asymptote.

Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln x = \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} \ln x = -\infty$ , using IVT, one can show that  $\text{range}(\ln) = \mathbb{R}$ .

• Limits of Derivatives

Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \ln'(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x} = 0$ , the graph  $y = \ln x$  tends to have a "flat" tangent line as  $x$  grows big, yet it is unbounded above.



4. Composite Functions:  $\ln$  with  $|f(x)|$ .

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} f'(x) = 0$$

$f'(x)$  是不是 bdd ?  
e.g. 不是  $f(x) = \ln x$



If we take  $g(x) = |x|$  with  $D = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$ , then  $g'(x) = \frac{|x|}{x}$ .

By the chain rule,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln|x| = \frac{1}{|x|} \cdot \frac{|x|}{x} = \frac{1}{x}.$$

This means that on the intervals  $(-\infty, 0)$  and  $(0, \infty)$ ,

$\ln|x|$  is an antiderivative of  $\frac{1}{x}$ , i.e.,

$$\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C$$

$$\boxed{\int \frac{1}{x} dx = \ln|x| + C}$$

holds for any one of the two intervals above.

More generally, if  $g(x) = |f(x)|$  where  $f$  is differentiable and never zero, then by the chain rule,

$$g'(x) = \underbrace{\frac{|f(x)|}{f(x)} \cdot f'(x)}, \quad g'(x) = \frac{|f(x)|}{f(x)} \cdot f'(x).$$

So

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln|f(x)| = \frac{1}{|f(x)|} \cdot \left( \frac{|f(x)|}{f(x)} f'(x) \right) = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}.$$

$$\frac{d \ln|f(x)|}{dx} = \frac{1}{|f(x)|} \cdot \frac{|f(x)|}{f(x)} \cdot f'(x)$$

That is,

$$\int \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} dx = \ln|f(x)| + C.$$

Note that it only works on an interval on which  $f$  is defined and never zero.

### Extended Discussion: Relative Rates of Change

The quantity  $\frac{f'(x_0)}{f(x_0)}$  is called the relative rate of change

of  $f$  at  $x=x_0$ . We will see its meaning in class by a concrete example.

$$\text{e.g. Population: } R_{f(x)} = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)} = \frac{\frac{dy}{dx}}{f(x)} \quad \frac{f'(x_0)}{f(x_0)} \text{ 相对变化率}$$

If  $f(x) > 0 \forall x$ , then  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(f(x)) = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$  gives

the function of relative rate of change.

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln f(x) = \frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$$