

# Inverse Trigonometric Functions

## Reading

Section 7.8

## Problems

Practice Exercises: 7.8 1-6, 7-12, 17, 18, 21, 23, 29, 30, 33, 35, 37, 53, 57, 59, 61, 63, 70, 71

Exercises to turn in (along with those from 7.9): 7.8 22, 38, 60

## Inverse Trigonometric Functions

As you know, trigonometric functions are periodic, with period  $2\pi$ , i.e. their values repeat every  $2\pi$ . This prevents the function from being one-to-one.

In order to obtain an invertible function we must restrict to an interval:

The function

$$\sin: \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$$

is invertible. Its inverse is the inverse sine function:

$$\sin^{-1}: [-1, 1] \rightarrow \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$$

In other words,  $\sin^{-1}(x)$  is the unique  $y \in \left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$  such that  $\sin(y) = x$ .

In order to remember the basic trigonometric numbers, it is good to keep the following two triangles in mind:

For example,  $\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$ . We can read this conversely to say that  $\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{3}$ .

Note that in general  $\sin^{-1}(\sin(x)) \neq x$ . This is only true if  $x$  is in the specific interval  $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$ . If it is not, we have to convert it, using the periodicity of  $\sin$ , turning every angle into the range  $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$ .

For instance, consider  $\sin^{-1}(\sin(\frac{5\pi}{3}))$ . since  $\frac{5\pi}{3} = \frac{6\pi}{3} - \frac{\pi}{3} = 2\pi - \frac{\pi}{3}$ , we have that  $\sin\left(\frac{5\pi}{3}\right) = \sin\left(-\frac{\pi}{3}\right)$ . Therefore that would be the answer:

$$\sin^{-1}(\sin(\frac{5\pi}{3})) = -\frac{\pi}{3}$$

We have similar definitions for  $\cos^{-1}$  and  $\tan^{-1}$ :

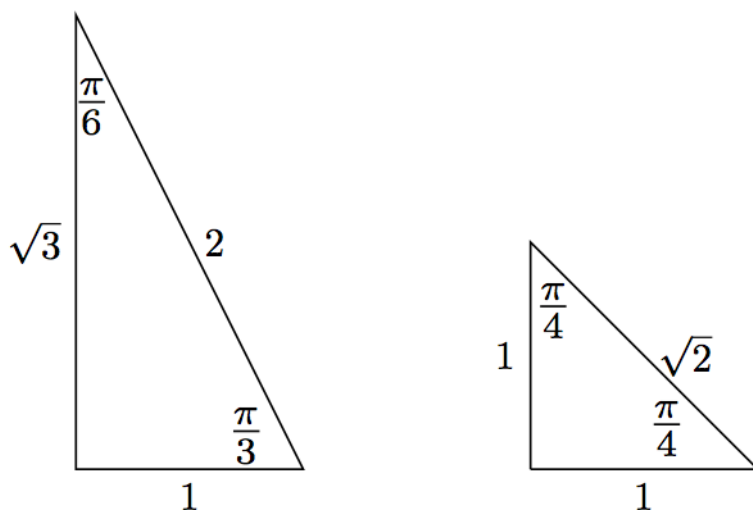


Figure 1: Triangles for trig numbers

The function

$$\cos: [0, \pi] \rightarrow [-1, 1]$$

is invertible. Its inverse is the inverse cosine function:

$$\cos^{-1}: [-1, 1] \rightarrow [0, \pi]$$

In other words,  $\cos^{-1}(x)$  is the unique  $y \in [0, \pi]$  such that  $\cos(y) = x$ .

The function

$$\tan: \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \rightarrow (-\infty, \infty)$$

is invertible. Its inverse is the inverse tangent function:

$$\tan^{-1}: (-\infty, \infty) \rightarrow \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

In other words,  $\tan^{-1}(x)$  is the unique  $y \in \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$  such that  $\tan(y) = x$ .

An important question is how to combine for instance  $\cos$  and  $\sin^{-1}$ . We have the following result:

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(\sin^{-1}(x)) &= \sqrt{1-x^2} \\ \tan(\sin^{-1}(x)) &= \frac{x}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}\end{aligned}$$

The idea for this result is as follows: Draw a right angle triangle where the hypotenuse is equal to 1 and a side is  $x$ . Then the angle opposite that side is exactly  $\sin^{-1}(x)$ . Now by the pythagorean theorem, the third side of that triangle has to have length  $\sqrt{1-x^2}$ .

From that triangle we can now read the cosine and tangent of that angle. This gives us the above formulas. It also gives us the following:

$$\sin^{-1}(x) + \cos^{-1}(x) = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

This is because the same triangle that gives us the sine as  $x$  for one of the non-right angles, gives us the cosine as  $x$  for the other non-right angle, and those two need to add up to  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

A consequence of these formulas is that we can figure out the derivatives of the inverse trigonometric functions:

### **Derivatives of inverse trigonometric functions**

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

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

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

Let us prove these using the formula for the derivative of the inverse of a function:

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

And a similar formula works for the inverse tangent:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1}(x) = \frac{1}{\tan'(\tan^{-1}(x))} = \frac{1}{\sec^2(\tan^{-1}(x))} = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

The last step follows by considering a right-angle triangle with one side  $x$  and another 1, and hence the hypotenuse is  $\sqrt{1+x^2}$ . The secant of the angle with tangent  $x$  would then be exactly  $\sqrt{1+x^2}$ .

### **Basic Integral Formulas**

These derivatives can be read backwards as facts about integrals. The two most relevant to us are:

$$\frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \sin^{-1}(x) + C$$

$$\frac{dx}{1+x^2} = \tan^{-1}(x) + C$$

These are often preceded by a  $u$  substitution. For example, suppose we want to compute:

$$\int_{-3/4}^0 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{9-16x^2}}$$

Looking at that denominator, it looks a bit like a  $\sqrt{1-u^2}$ , except it's got some extra numbers all around. Let us rewrite it a bit:

$$\int_{-3/4}^0 \frac{dx}{\sqrt{9}\sqrt{1-\left(\frac{4x}{3}\right)^2}}$$

So it makes sense to set  $u = \frac{4x}{3}$ . Then  $du = \frac{4}{3}dx$ , and the interval becomes:

$$\int_{-1}^0 \frac{\frac{3}{4}du}{3\sqrt{1-u^2}} \frac{1}{4} (\sin^{-1}(0) - \sin^{-1}(-1)) = -\frac{1}{4} \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{8}$$