Calculus II Lecture 1

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https://github.com/tmilev/freecalc

2020

Outline

- Review of trigonometry
 - The Trigonometric Functions
 - Trigonometric Identities
 - Trigonometric Identities and Complex Numbers
 - Graphs of the Trigonometric Functions
- 2 Inverse Trigonometric Functions

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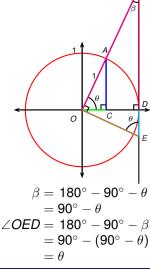
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Geometric interpretation of all trigonometric functions



Fix unit circle, center O, coordinates (0,0). Let $\angle DOB = \theta$. Let OB intersect the circle at point A. Coordinates of A are $(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$.

$$\sin \theta = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{hyp}} = \frac{|AC|}{|OA|} = \frac{|AC|}{1} = |AC|$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{hyp}} = \frac{|OC|}{|OA|} = \frac{|OC|}{1} = |OC|$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{\text{opp}}{\text{adj}} = \frac{|BD|}{|OD|} = \frac{|BD|}{1} = |BD|$$

$$\cot \theta = \frac{\text{adj}}{\text{opp}} = \frac{|DE|}{|OD|} = \frac{|DE|}{1} = |DE|$$

$$\sec \theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{adj}} = \frac{|OB|}{|OD|} = \frac{|OB|}{1} = |OB|$$

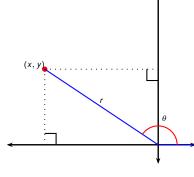
$$\csc \theta = \frac{\text{hyp}}{\text{opp}} = \frac{|OE|}{|DO|} = \frac{|OE|}{1} = |OE|$$

Trigonometric Identities

Definition (Trigonometric Identity)

A trigonometric identity is an equality between the trigonometric functions in one or more variables that holds for all values of the involved variables in the domains of all of the expressions.

- By convention, when dealing with trigonometric identities we do not account for the domains of the involved expressions.
- For example, $\frac{\sin \theta}{\sin \theta} = 1$ is considered a valid trigonometric identity, although, when considered as a function, the left hand side is not defined for $\theta \neq 0$.



$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r} \quad \csc \theta = \frac{r}{y}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r} \quad \sec \theta = \frac{r}{x}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \quad \cot \theta = \frac{x}{y}$$

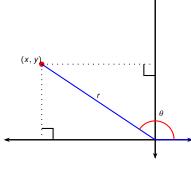
•
$$\csc \theta = \frac{1}{\sin \theta}$$

•
$$\sec \theta = \frac{1}{\cos \theta}$$

•
$$\cot \theta = \frac{1}{\tan \theta}$$

• $\tan \theta = \frac{\sin \theta}{\cos \theta}$

•
$$\cot \theta = \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \sin\theta &= \frac{y}{r} & \csc\theta &= \frac{r}{y} \\ \cos\theta &= \frac{x}{r} & \sec\theta &= \frac{r}{x} \\ \tan\theta &= \frac{y}{x} & \cot\theta &= \frac{x}{y} \end{aligned}$$

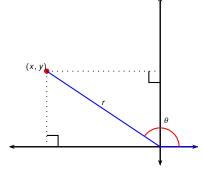
$$\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta$$

$$= \frac{y^2}{r^2} + \frac{x^2}{r^2}$$

$$= \frac{y^2 + x^2}{r^2}$$

$$= \frac{r^2}{r^2}$$

Therefore $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$.



$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r}$$
 $\csc \theta = \frac{r}{y}$
 $\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r}$ $\sec \theta = \frac{r}{x}$
 $\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x}$ $\cot \theta = \frac{x}{y}$

Example (tan² θ + 1 = sec² θ)

Prove the identity $\tan^2 \theta + 1 = \sec^2 \theta$.

$$\sin^{2}\theta + \cos^{2}\theta = 1$$

$$\frac{\sin^{2}\theta}{\cos^{2}\theta} + \frac{\cos^{2}\theta}{\cos^{2}\theta} = \frac{1}{\cos^{2}\theta}$$

$$\tan^{2}\theta + 1 = \sec^{2}\theta$$

The remaining identities are consequences of the addition formulas:

$$sin(x + y) = sin x cos y + cos x sin y$$

 $cos(x + y) = cos x cos y - sin x sin y$

Substitute -y for y, and use the fact that sin(-y) = -sin y and cos(-y) = cos y:

$$sin(x - y) = sin x cos y - cos x sin y$$

 $cos(x - y) = cos x cos y + sin x sin y$

The remaining identities are consequences of the addition formulas:

$$sin(x + y) = sin x cos y + cos x sin y$$

 $cos(x + y) = cos x cos y - sin x sin y$

To get the double angle formulas, substitute *x* for *y*:

$$\sin(2x) = 2\sin x \cos x$$

$$\cos(2x) = \cos^2 x - \sin^2 x$$

Rewrite the second double angle formula in two ways, using $\cos^2 x = 1 - \sin^2 x$ and $\sin^2 x = 1 - \cos^2 x$:

$$cos(2x) = 2cos^2 x - 1$$

$$cos(2x) = 1 - 2sin^2 x$$

To get the half-angle formulas, solve these equations for $\cos^2 x$ and $\sin^2 x$ respectively.

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

The remaining identities are consequences of the addition formulas:

$$sin(x + y) = sin x cos y + cos x sin y$$

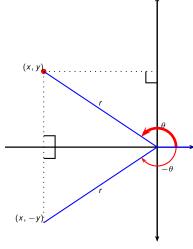
 $cos(x + y) = cos x cos y - sin x sin y$

Divide the first equation by the second, and then cancel $\cos x \cos y$ from the top and bottom:

$$tan(x + y) = \frac{tan x + tan y}{1 - tan x tan y}$$

Do the same for the subtraction formulas:

$$tan(x - y) = \frac{tan x - tan y}{1 + tan x tan y}$$

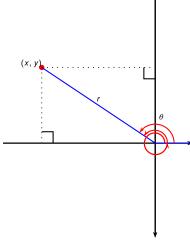


$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r} \quad \csc \theta = \frac{r}{y}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r} \quad \sec \theta = \frac{r}{x}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \quad \cot \theta = \frac{x}{y}$$

- Positive angles are obtained by rotating counterclockwise.
- Negative angles are obtained by rotating clockwise.
- If (x, y) is on the terminal arm of the angle θ , then (x, -y) is on the terminal arm of $-\theta$.
- $\bullet \sin(-\theta) = \frac{-y}{r} = -\frac{y}{r} = -\sin\theta.$
- sin is an odd function.
- cos is an even function.



$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{r} \quad \csc \theta = \frac{r}{y}$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{x}{r} \quad \sec \theta = \frac{r}{x}$$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{y}{x} \quad \cot \theta = \frac{x}{y}$$

- 2π represents a full rotation.
- $\theta + 2\pi$ has the same terminal arm as θ .
- $\theta + 2\pi$ uses the same point (x, y) and the same length r.
- $\sin(\theta + 2\pi) = \sin \theta$.
- We say sin and cos are 2π -periodic.

You will not be tested on the material in the following slide.

Definition (Complex numbers)

The set of complex numbers $\ensuremath{\mathbb{C}}$ is defined as the set

$$\{a + bi | a, b - \text{real numbers}\},\$$

where the number *i* is a number for which

$$i^2 = -1$$
.

The number *i* is called the imaginary unit. By definition, $\sqrt{-1} = i$.

Complex addition/subtraction

$$(a+bi)\pm(c+di)=(a\pm c)+(b\pm d)i \quad .$$

Complex multiplication

$$(a+bi)(c+di) = ac+adi+bci+bdi^2 = ac+adi+bci-bd$$

= $(ac-bd)+i(ad+bc)$

You will not be tested on the material in the following slide.

Euler's Formula

Theorem (Euler's Formula)

$$e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$$

where $e \approx 2.71828$ is Euler's/Napier's constant .

Proof.

Recall $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cdots \cdot (n-1) \cdot n$. Borrow from Calc II the f-las:

$$\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!} + \dots$$

$$\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \dots + \frac{(-1)^n x^{2n}}{(2n)!} + \dots$$

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{2!} + \dots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \dots$$

Theorem (Euler's Formula)

$$e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$$

where $e \approx 2.71828$ is Euler's/Napier's constant .

Proof.

Recall $n! = 1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cdots \cdot (n-1) \cdot n$. Borrow from Calc II the f-las:

$$i\sin x = ix \qquad -i\frac{x^3}{3!} \qquad +i\frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots$$

$$cos x = 1 -\frac{x^2}{2!} +\frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$$

$$e^{ix} = 1 +ix -\frac{x^2}{2!} -i\frac{x^3}{3!} +\frac{x^4}{4!} +i\frac{x^5}{5!} - \dots$$

Rearrange. Plug-in z = ix. Use $i^2 = -1$. Multiply $\sin x$ by i. Add to get $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$.

You will not be tested on the material in the following slide.

Trigonometric Identities Revisited

- $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$ (Euler's Formula).
- $e^{ix}e^{iy} = e^{ix+iy} = e^{i(x+y)}$ (exponentiation rule: valid for \mathbb{C}).
- $e^0 = 1$ (exponentiation rule). • $\sin(-x) = -\sin x$, $\cos(-x) = \cos x$ (easy to remember).

Example

$$sin(x + y) = sin x cos y + sin y cos x$$

 $cos(x + y) = cos x cos y - sin x sin y$

Proof.

```
e^{i(x+y)} = \cos(x+y) + i\sin(x+y)
e^{ix}e^{iy} = \cos(x+y) + i\sin(x+y)
(\cos x + i\sin x)(\cos y + i\sin y) = \cos(x+y) + i\sin(x+y)
\cos x \cos y - \sin x \sin y + i(\sin x \cos y + \sin y \cos x) = \cos(x+y) + i\sin(x+y)
```

Compare coefficient in front of i and remaining terms to get the desired equalities.

Trigonometric Identities Revisited

- $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$ (Euler's Formula).
- $e^{ix}e^{iy} = e^{ix+iy} = e^{i(x+y)}$ (exponentiation rule: valid for \mathbb{C}). • $e^0 = 1$ (exponentiation rule)
- $e^0 = 1$ (exponentiation rule). • $\sin(-x) = -\sin x$, $\cos(-x) = \cos x$ (easy to remember).

Example

$$\sin^2 x + \cos^2 x = 1$$

Proof.

$$1 = e^{0}
= e^{ix-ix} = e^{ix}e^{-ix} = (\cos x + i\sin x)(\cos(-x) + i\sin(-x))
= (\cos x + i\sin x)(\cos x - i\sin x) = \cos^{2} x - i^{2}\sin^{2} x
= \cos^{2} x + \sin^{2} x .$$

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Trigonometric Identities Revisited

- $e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$ (Euler's Formula).
- $e^{ix}e^{iy} = e^{ix+iy} = e^{i(x+y)}$ (exponentiation rule: valid for \mathbb{C}). • $e^0 = 1$ (exponentiation rule).
- $\sin(-x) = -\sin x$, $\cos(-x) = \cos x$ (easy to remember).

Example

$$sin(2x) = 2 sin x cos x$$

$$cos(2x) = cos^2 x - sin^2 x .$$

Proof.

$$e^{i(2x)} = \cos(2x) + i\sin(2x)$$

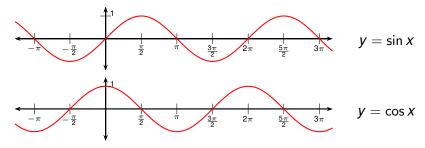
$$e^{ix}e^{ix} = \cos(2x) + i\sin(2x)$$

$$(\cos x + i\sin x)^2 = (\cos x + i\sin x)(\cos x + i\sin x) = \cos(2x) + i\sin(2x)$$

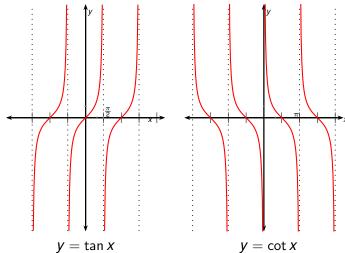
$$\cos^2 x - \sin^2 x + i(2\sin x\cos x) = \cos(2x) + i\sin(2x)$$

Compare coefficient in front of *i* and remaining terms to get the desired equalities.

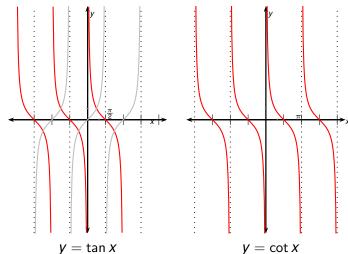
Graphs of the Trigonometric Functions



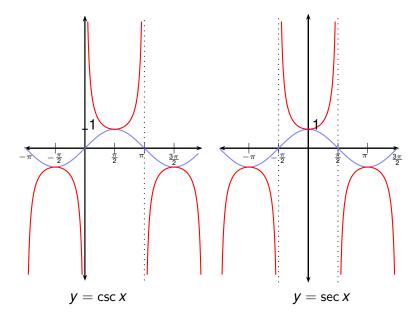
- $\sin x$ has zeroes at $n\pi$ for all integers n.
- $\cos x$ has zeroes at $\frac{\pi}{2} + n\pi$ for all integers n.
- $-1 < \sin x < 1$.
- \bullet -1 < cos x < 1.
- If we translate the graph of $\cos x$ by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ units to the right we get the graph of $\sin x$. This is a consequence of $\cos \left(x \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \sin x$.



If we move the graph of $\tan x$ by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ units to the left (or right) and reflect across the x axis, we get the graph of $\cot x$. This follows from $\tan \left(x \pm \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\cot x$.

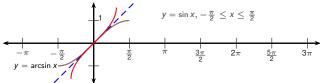


If we move the graph of $\tan x$ by $\frac{\pi}{2}$ units to the left (or right) and reflect across the x axis, we get the graph of $\cot x$. This follows from $\tan \left(x \pm \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = -\cot x$.

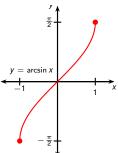


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Inverse Trigonometric Functions



- sin x isn't one-to-one.
- It is if we restrict the domain to $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$.
- Then it has an inverse function.
- We call it arcsin or sin⁻¹.
- $\arcsin x = y \Leftrightarrow \sin y = x$ and $-\frac{\pi}{2} \le y \le \frac{\pi}{2}$.



Find $\arcsin\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$.

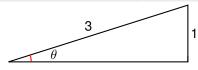
$$\bullet \, \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

$$\bullet -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \frac{\pi}{6} \leq \frac{\pi}{2}.$$

• Therefore $\arcsin\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{6}$.

Find
$$\tan \left(\arcsin \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)\right)$$
.

- Let $\theta = \arcsin\left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$, so $\sin \theta = \frac{1}{3}$.
- Draw a right triangle with opposite side 1 and hypotenuse 3.
- Let the angle θ be as labeled. Then $\sin \theta = \frac{1}{3}$ and so $\theta = \arcsin \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)$.
- Length of adjacent side $= \sqrt{3^2 1^2} = \sqrt{8} = 2\sqrt{2}$.
- Then $tan \left(arcsin \left(\frac{1}{3} \right) \right) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}$.



Find $\arcsin(\sin(1.5))$.

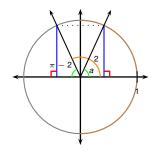
- $\frac{\pi}{2} \approx 1.57$.
- Therefore $-\frac{\pi}{2} \le 1.5 \le \frac{\pi}{2}$.
- Therefore $\arcsin(\sin 1.5) = 1.5$.

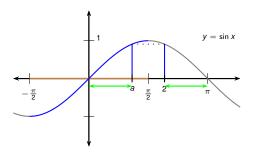
Find arcsin(sin 2).

- 2 is not between $-\frac{\pi}{2}$ and $\frac{\pi}{2}$.
- We need the angle a between $-\frac{\pi}{2}$ and $\frac{\pi}{2}$ for which $\sin 2 = \sin a$.

$$a = \pi - 2.$$

Therefore $\arcsin(\sin 2) = \arcsin(\sin a)$
 $= a = \pi - 2.$





Theorem (The Derivative of arcsin x)

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

Proof.

Let
$$y = \arcsin x$$
.

Then
$$\sin y = x$$
 and $-\frac{\pi}{2} \le y \le \frac{\pi}{2}$.

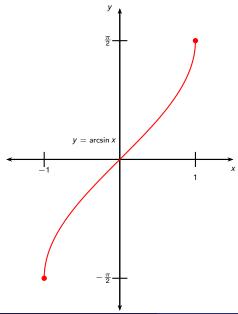
Differentiate implicitly: $\cos y \cdot y' = 1$

licitly:
$$\cos y \cdot y' = 1$$

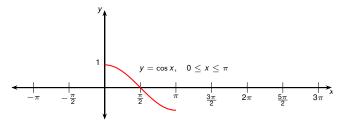
$$y' = \frac{1}{\cos y}$$

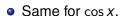
$$= \frac{1}{\pm \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 y}}$$
But $\cos y > 0$:
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \sin^2 y}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

Important facts about arcsin:

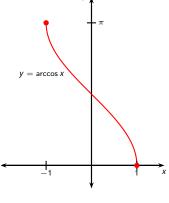


- Domain: [-1,1].
- ② Range: $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$.
- arcsin $x = y \Leftrightarrow \sin y = x$ and $-\frac{\pi}{2} \le y \le \frac{\pi}{2}$.
- arcsin(sin X) = X for $-\frac{\pi}{2} \le X \le \frac{\pi}{2}$.
- $5 \sin(\arcsin x) = x \text{ for } -1 \le x \le 1.$

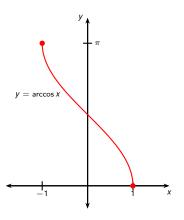




- Restrict the domain to $[0, \pi]$.
- The inverse is called arccos or cos⁻¹.
- $\operatorname{arccos}(x) = y \Leftrightarrow \cos y = x$ and $0 \le y \le \pi$.



Important facts about arccos:



- Domain: [-1,1].
- **2** Range: $[0, \pi]$.
- 3 $\arccos x = y \Leftrightarrow \cos y = x$ and $0 \le y \le \pi$.
- arccos(cos x) = x for $0 \le x \le \pi$.
- $\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{5} & \cos(\arccos x) = x \text{ for} \\ -1 \leq x \leq 1. \end{array}$
- 6 $\frac{d}{dx}(\arccos x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$. (The proof is similar to the proof of the formula for the derivative of $\arcsin x$.)

Rewrite $\sin(2\arccos(x))$ as an algebraic expression of x and $\sqrt{1-x^2}$. To simplify $\arccos x$ we try to use $\cos(\arccos x) = x$. Therefore our aim is to rewrite the expression only using the \cos function.

$$sin(2 \operatorname{arccos}(x)) = \sin(2y)
= 2 \cos y \sin y
= 2 \cos y \left(\pm \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 y}\right)
= 2 \cos y \sqrt{1 - \cos^2 y}
= 2x\sqrt{1 - x^2}$$
Set $y = \operatorname{arccos} x$
Express via $\sin y$, $\cos y$
Set $y = \operatorname{arccos} x$
Express via $\sin y$, $\cos y$

$$\sin y > 0 \text{ because } 0 \le y \le \pi$$

use $x = \cos y$

Rewrite $\cos(3\arccos(x))$ as an algebraic expression of x and $\sqrt{1-x^2}$. To simplify $\arccos x$ we try to use $\cos(\arccos x) = x$. Therefore our aim is to rewrite the expression only using the \cos function.

$$\cos(3\arccos(x)) = \cos(3y) = \cos(2y + y)$$

$$= \cos(2y)\cos y - \sin(2y)\sin y$$

$$= (\cos^2 y - \sin^2 y)\cos y$$

$$- 2\sin y\cos y\sin y$$

$$= \cos^3 y - \sin^2 y\cos y - 2\sin^2 y\cos y$$

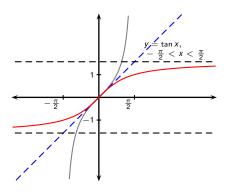
$$= \cos^3 y - 3\sin^2 y\cos y$$

$$= \cos^3 y - 3(1 - \cos^2 y)\cos y$$

$$= 4\cos^3 y - 3\cos y$$

$$= 4x^3 - 3x$$

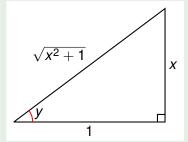
$$| y = \arccos x$$
Angle sum f-la
Express via
$$\sin y, \cos y$$
Express $\sin y$
via $\cos y$



- tan x isn't one-to-one.
- Restrict the domain to $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$.
- The inverse is called tan⁻¹ or arctan.
- $\arctan x = y \Leftrightarrow \tan y = x$ and $-\frac{\pi}{2} < y < \frac{\pi}{2}$.
- Domain of arctan: $(-\infty, \infty)$.
- Range of arctan: $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$.
- $\bullet \lim_{x\to\infty}\arctan x=\frac{\pi}{2}.$
- $\lim_{x \to -\infty} \arctan x = -\frac{\pi}{2}$.

Simplify the expression cos(arctan x).

- Let $y = \arctan x$, so $\tan y = x$.
- Draw a right triangle with opposite *x* and adjacent 1.
- Length of hypotenuse = $\sqrt{1^2 + x^2}$.
- Then $\cos(\arctan x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$.



Evaluate

$$\lim_{x\to 2^+}\arctan\left(\frac{1}{x-2}\right).$$

$$\frac{1}{x-2} \to \infty$$
 as $x \to 2^+$.

Therefore

$$\lim_{x\to 2^+}\arctan\left(\frac{1}{x-2}\right)=\frac{\pi}{2}.$$

Theorem (The Derivative of arctan x)

$$\frac{\mathsf{d}}{\mathsf{d}x}(\arctan x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}.$$

Proof.

Then
$$\tan y = x$$
.

Differentiate implicitly: $\sec^2 y \cdot y' = 1$

$$y' = \frac{1}{\sec^2 y}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \tan^2 y}$$

Let $y = \arctan x$.

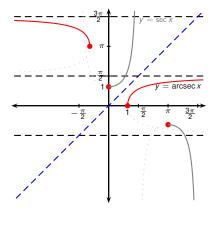
The remaining inverse trigonometric functions aren't used as often:

$$y = \operatorname{arccsc} x \quad (|x| \ge 1) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \csc y = x \quad \text{ and } \quad y \in \left(0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right] \cup \left(\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right]$$

 $y = \operatorname{arcsec} x \quad (|x| \ge 1) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \sec y = x \quad \text{ and } \quad y \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left[\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right]$
 $y = \operatorname{arccot} x \quad (|x| \in \mathbb{R}) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \cot y = x \quad \text{ and } \quad y \in (0, \pi)$

We will however make use of arcsec x: we discuss in detail its domain.

$$y = \operatorname{arcsec} x \quad (|x| \ge 1) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \sec y = x \quad \text{ and } \quad y \in \mathbf{?} \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left[\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right)$$



- Plot sec x.
- Restrict domain to make one-to-one: Two common choices: $x \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi\right]$ and $x \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left[\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right)$.
- $x \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left(\frac{\pi}{2}, \pi\right]$ is good because the domain is easiest to remember: an interval without a point. **NOT** our choice.
- $x \in \left[0, \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \cup \left[\pi, \frac{3\pi}{2}\right)$ is good because $\tan x$ is positive on both intervals, resulting in easier differentiation and integration formulas. **Our choice.**

Table of derivatives of inverse trigonometric functions:

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

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

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

Example (Chain Rule)

Differentiate
$$y = \frac{1}{\arcsin x}$$
.
Let $u = \arcsin x$.
Then $y = u^{-1}$.
Chain Rule: $\frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{dy}{du} \frac{du}{dx}$
 $= \left(-u^{-2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}\right)$
 $= -\frac{1}{(\arcsin x)^2 \sqrt{1-x^2}}$.

All of the inverse trigonometric derivatives also give rise to integration formulas. These two are the most important:

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

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