

# Chapter 6: Inverse Functions

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# Motivation

We often think of a function as a rule which takes in an input and assigns to it an output.

Usually we have a nice formula or recipe which tells us how to calculate the output for a given input.

Many hard and interesting problems go the other way: **You know the output and you want to work out what the input must have been.**

**Example:** Find all the  $x$  such that  $f(x) = x^3 - 3x^2 + x - 4 = 0$ . This is much harder than finding  $f(x)$  for a given input!

The challenge is to **reconstruct the 'input data' from the output information.**

More abstractly, the problem is:

Given a function  $f : A \rightarrow B$ , if we set  $y = f(x)$ , under what circumstances is it possible to express  $x$  **as a function of**  $y$ , that is, to find a function  $g : B \rightarrow A$  such that  $x = g(y)$ ?

So, what we try to do is to “undo” the function  $f$ , that is to find a function  $g$  (called the **inverse** of  $f$ ) such that  $f(g(y)) = y$  and  $g(f(x)) = x$ .

The first things to worry about are:

- 1 Is it true that: for any  $y \in B$  there is  $x \in A$  such that  $x = g(y)$  and  $y = f(x)$ ?
- 2 If so, is this  $x$  unique?

In answering these questions it is vital that one **considers not just the formula for  $f$ , but also what the domain of  $f$  is.**

# Example

Is it possible to invert the function  $f : (-1, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$y = f(x) = \frac{2x}{x+1}?$$

**Solution.** To find the function which “undoes”  $f$ , we need to express  $x$  as a function of  $y$ .

$$f(x) = y = \frac{2x}{x+1} \quad \text{so} \quad xy + y = 2x \quad , \quad x(y-2) = -y \quad \text{or} \quad x = \frac{y}{2-y}$$

Thus, we find the function  $g : \text{Range}(f) \rightarrow (-1, \infty)$ , defined by  $g(y) = \frac{y}{2-y}$ .

Here we could “undo”  $f$  using the function  $g$ , with rule  $y \mapsto \frac{y}{2-y}$ , where  $y$  is in the range of  $f$ .

# Standard example

Consider the rule

$$y = x^2.$$

Whether any function defined by this rule is invertible depends on the domain:

- $f_1 : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad y = f_1(x) = x^2$

The latter is **not** invertible since for any 'output'  $y \neq 0$  there exist two 'inputs'  $x = \sqrt{y}$  and  $x = -\sqrt{y}$ .

- $f_2 : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad y = f_2(x) = x^2$

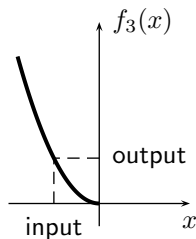
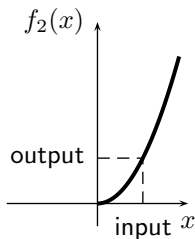
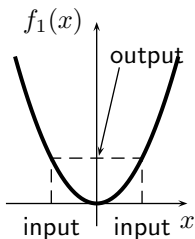
If we take into account that  $\text{Range}(f_2) = [0, \infty)$  then the inverse function is given by

$$g_2 : [0, \infty) \rightarrow [0, \infty), \quad x = g_2(y) = \sqrt{y}.$$

- $f_3 : (-\infty, 0] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad y = f_3(x) = x^2$

If we take into account that, again,  $\text{Range}(f_3) = [0, \infty)$  then the inverse function is given by

$$g_3 : [0, \infty) \rightarrow (-\infty, 0], \quad x = g_3(y) = -\sqrt{y}.$$



**Remark.** It is evident that it might be possible to construct an invertible function by **restricting the domain** of a given function.

**Conclusion.** The main criterion for invertibility is the existence of a **one-to-one correspondence** between 'inputs' and 'outputs'.

# One-to-one functions

**Idea.** A function is one-to-one if every ‘output’ corresponds to a **unique** ‘input’.

## Definition

A function  $f$  is said to be **one-to-one**

$$\text{if } f(x_1) = f(x_2) \text{ implies that } x_1 = x_2$$

for all  $x_1, x_2 \in \text{Dom}(f)$ .

**Terminology.** One-to-one functions are also called **injective** functions.

**Remark.** An 1-to-1 function is equivalently characterised by

$$\text{For every } x_1, x_2 \in \text{Dom}(f), \text{ if } x_1 \neq x_2, \text{ then } f(x_1) \neq f(x_2).$$

”different points in the domain give different values in the codomain”.

# Easy example

## Example.

Any linear function  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = ax + b$ ,  $a \neq 0$ , is one-to-one.

Indeed,  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  gives  $ax_1 + b = ax_2 + b$  which implies  $x_1 = x_2$ .

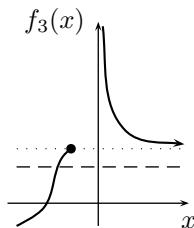
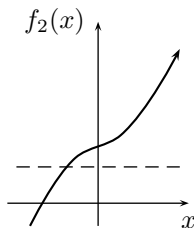
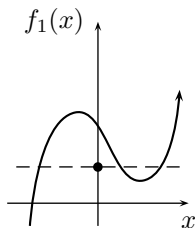
**Remark.** If  $f : A \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ , then you can easily identify one-to-one functions by looking at the graph of  $f$ .



# Useful test

## The horizontal line test

Suppose that  $f$  is a real-valued function defined on some subset of  $\mathbb{R}$ . Then,  $f$  is one-to-one if and only if every horizontal line in the Cartesian plane intersects the graph of  $f$  at most once.



- $f_1$  is not one-to-one.
- $f_2$  is one-to-one.
- $f_3$  is one-to-one (even though it is neither strictly increasing nor strictly decreasing).

# Theorem

Although not every one-to-one function is strictly increasing (or strictly decreasing), it is true that every strictly increasing function is one-to-one.

## Theorem

If a function  $f$  is either strictly increasing or strictly decreasing then  $f$  is one-to-one.

**(Idea of proof.** If  $x_1 \neq x_2$ , say  $x_1 < x_2$ , then  $f(x_1) < f(x_2)$ , and thus  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ .)

This includes cases like:

- 1  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = x^3$  which is strictly increasing;
- 2  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = 3x - |x|$  which is strictly increasing.

# Example

**Example.** Is the function  $f : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = 3 + 2 \tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2}x\right)$  one-to-one?

**Solution.** The function  $\tan\left(\frac{\pi}{2}x\right)$  is continuous and differentiable at **every** point of the interval  $(-1, 1)$ . Therefore, the function  $f$  is also continuous and differentiable on  $(-1, 1)$ . We have

$$f'(x) = \frac{\pi}{\cos^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2}x\right)} > 0,$$

for every  $x \in (-1, 1)$ . Hence, by the theorem above, the function  $f$  is one-to-one.

**Remark.** Not every function whose derivative is only positive (or only negative) is one-to-one. For example,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tan x = \sec^2 x \geq 1$$

but  $\tan$  is **not** one-to-one on its maximal domain! The problem here is that  $\text{Dom}(\tan)$  has gaps.

# Inverse functions

## Theorem

Suppose that  $f$  is a one-to-one function. Then, there exists a unique function  $g$  satisfying

$$g(f(x)) = x \quad \text{for all } x \in \text{Dom}(f)$$

and

$$f(g(y)) = y \quad \text{for all } y \in \text{Range}(f).$$

Moreover,

$$\text{Dom}(g) = \text{Range}(f), \quad \text{Range}(g) = \text{Dom}(f)$$

and  $g$  is one-to-one.

The theorem allows us to define the term **inverse function**.

## Definition

Suppose that  $f$  is a one-to-one function. Then the **inverse function** of  $f$  is the unique function  $g$  given by the above theorem. The inverse function for  $f$  is often denoted by  $f^{-1}$ .

# Inverse functions

**Remark.** If  $f^{-1}$  denotes the inverse function of a one-to-one function  $f$  then the relations in the above theorem may be expressed as

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x \quad \text{for all } x \in \text{Dom}(f)$$

and

$$f(f^{-1}(y)) = y \quad \text{for all } y \in \text{Range}(f)$$

so that  $f$  may also be interpreted as the inverse of the function  $f^{-1}$ .

**Note.**  $f^{-1}(y)$  does **NOT** mean  $1/f(y)$ !

# Inverse functions

**Remark.** Since  $f^{-1}$  is a function just like any other function, we regard it as a function

$$x \mapsto f^{-1}(x)$$

so that we can graph  $f^{-1}$  in the usual manner.

**Example.** Determine  $f^{-1}$ , where  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = 4 - \frac{1}{3}x^3$ .

**Solution.** First, since  $f'(x) = -x^2 \leq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  (with  $f'(x) = 0$  only when  $x = 0$ ),  $f$  is decreasing and thus one-to-one.

Set

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

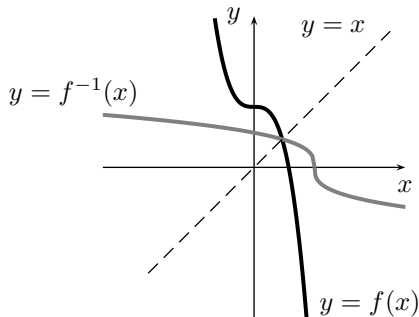
so that

$$x^3 = 3(4 - y) \quad \text{and} \quad x = \sqrt[3]{12 - 3y}.$$

Hence, (interchanging  $x$  and  $y$ ),

$$f^{-1} : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt[3]{12 - 3x}.$$

# Inverse functions



Note that the graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  is the reflection of the graph of  $f$  in the line  $y = x$ .

**Proof.** The point  $(x, y)$  lies on the graph of  $f$  if  $y = f(x)$ . This is equivalent with  $f^{-1}(y) = f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ . The latter is equivalent with the point  $(y, x)$  belonging to the graph of  $f^{-1}$ .

# Example

**Example.** Given  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $f(x) = -x^3 + 3x^2 + 24x - 13$ , find all intervals  $I$ , as large as possible, such that  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has an inverse function.



## Chapter 6: Inverse Functions

**Example.** Given  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with  $f(x) = -x^3 + 3x^2 + 24x - 13$ , find all intervals  $I$ , as large as possible, such that  $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  has an inverse function.

### Example

**Solution.** We need to find intervals  $I$  where  $f$  is one-to-one. As  $f$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , just need to find intervals where  $f$  is either increasing or decreasing. As the given  $f$  is differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$ , we just need to find intervals where  $f'(x)$  has the same sign.

$$f'(x) = -3x^2 + 6x + 24 = -3(x^2 - 2x - 8) = -3(x + 2)(x - 4),$$

$$f'(x) \leq 0 \quad \text{for } -\infty < x \leq -2$$

$$f'(x) \geq 0 \quad \text{for } -2 \leq x \leq 4$$

$$f'(x) \leq 0 \quad \text{for } 4 \leq x < \infty.$$

Thus

- $f$  restricted to  $I_1 = (-\infty, -2]$  has an inverse,
- $f$  restricted to  $I_2 = [-2, 4]$  has an inverse,
- $f$  restricted to  $I_3 = [4, \infty)$  also has an inverse.

# The inverse function theorem

**Question.** If the derivative of an invertible function exists, under what circumstances is the inverse function also differentiable?

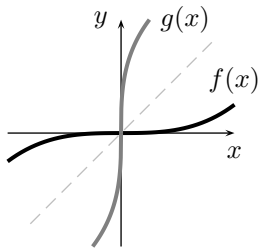
**Subtlety.** Consider the function

$$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x) = x^3.$$

Its inverse is given by

$$g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad g(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$$

but  $g$  is **not** differentiable at  $x = 0$  since  $g'(x) = \frac{1}{3\sqrt[3]{x^2}}$ !



**Observation:** The points at which the derivative of  $f$  vanishes must be excluded!

## The inverse function theorem

Suppose that  $I$  is an open interval,  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable and

$$f'(x) \neq 0$$

for all  $x$  in  $I$ . Then,

- $f$  is one-to-one and has an inverse function

$$g : \text{Range}(f) \rightarrow \text{Dom}(f)$$

- $g$  is differentiable at all points in  $\text{Range}(f)$
- The derivative of  $g$  is given by

$$g'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(g(y))}$$

for all  $y \in \text{Range}(f)$ .

# The inverse function theorem: proof

## Proof.

- Since  $f'(x) \neq 0$  on  $I$ ,  $f$  is one-to-one (MVT!)
- $g$  is differentiable ... too hard! (not for MATH1131)
- Differentiation of

$$f(g(y)) = y$$

with respect to  $y$  yields

$$f'(g(y)) \times g'(y) = 1.$$

Since  $f'$  is never zero on  $I$ , we can divide by  $f'(g(y))$  to obtain

$$g'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(g(y))}.$$

# The inverse function theorem

**Remark.** Once again, we usually write the derivative of the inverse function  $g$  as

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{f'(g(x))}$$

for  $x \in \text{Range}(f)$ .

**Remark.** Let us look again at the following examples:

- ❶  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = x^3$  which is one-to-one (being strictly increasing), but where  $f'(x)$  is sometimes zero  $\rightarrow$  can not use the inverse function theorem!
- ❷  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = 3x - |x|$  which is one-to-one (being strictly increasing), but not differentiable  $\rightarrow$  can not use the inverse function theorem!

# Examples

**Example.** Consider the function  $f : (0, \infty) \rightarrow (0, \infty)$ ,  $f(x) = x^3$ .

$f$  is differentiable and  $f'(x) \neq 0$  on  $(0, \infty)$ , so by the inverse function theorem, its inverse is:

$$g : (0, \infty) \rightarrow (0, \infty), \quad g(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}.$$

and,

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{f'(g(x))} = \frac{1}{3[g(x)]^2} = \frac{1}{3x^{2/3}}$$

as expected.

# Example

**Previous example.** Determine the derivative of the inverse of the function  $f : (-1, 1) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$f(x) = 3 + 2 \tan \left( \frac{\pi}{2} x \right)$$

at the point  $f(x) = 3$ .





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└ Cont.

**Solution.** We showed that  $f$  is one-to-one, and thus  $g = f^{-1}$  exists.

Calculate

$$f'(x) = \frac{\pi}{\cos^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2}x\right)} \quad \text{for } -1 < x < 1.$$

Now we can apply the Inverse Function Theorem to get

$$g'(x) = \frac{1}{f'(g(x))} = \frac{1}{\pi} \cos^2\left(\frac{\pi g(x)}{2}\right).$$

We do not know  $g(x)$  explicitly, so can go no further for general values of  $x$ .

But, by chance, we observe that  $f(0) = 3$  which means that

$$g(f(0)) = g(3) \quad \text{i.e.} \quad 0 = g(3),$$

so

$$g'(3) = \frac{1}{\pi} \cos^2(0) = \frac{1}{\pi}.$$

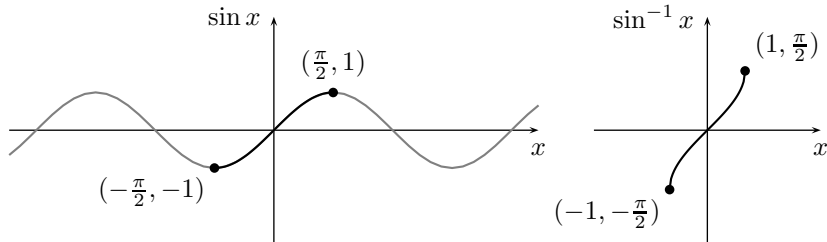
# Applications to the trigonometric functions: $\sin^{-1}$

**The inverse sine function.** The function  $\sin : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is **not** a one-to-one function, and thus has no inverse. We consider thus the restricted sine function

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

This function is one-to-one (strictly increasing) and therefore has an inverse

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



# Derivative of $\sin^{-1}$

Since the derivative of  $\sin x$  is not zero on  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ , by the Inverse Function Theorem,  $\sin^{-1}: (-1, 1) \rightarrow (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$  is differentiable and its derivative is given by

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

Using the identity  $\cos^2 y + \sin^2 y = 1$ , we have  $\cos y = \pm\sqrt{1 - \sin(y)^2}$  with  $y = \sin^{-1} x$ .

Since  $\cos$  is positive on  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ , we need  $\cos y = +\sqrt{1 - \sin(y)^2}$ .

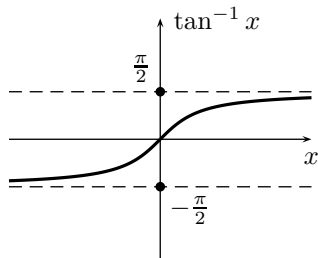
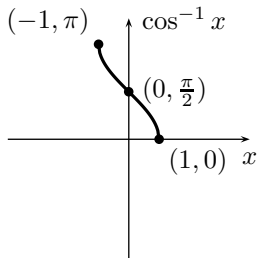
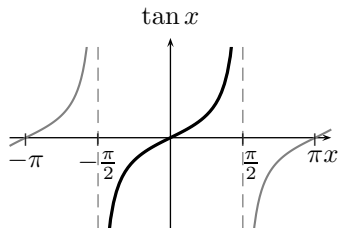
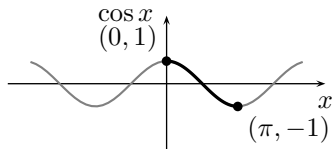
Finally

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

whenever  $-1 < x < 1$ .

**Note.**  $\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1} x) > 0$  on  $(-1, 1)$  and thus  $\sin^{-1}$  is an increasing function.

# Applications to the trigonometric functions: $\cos^{-1}$ , $\tan^{-1}$



# Table of inverse trigonometric functions

Function	Domain	Range	Derivative
$\sin$	$[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$	$[-1, 1]$	$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin x) = \cos x$
$\sin^{-1}$	$[-1, 1]$	$[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$	$\frac{d}{dx}(\sin^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
$\cos$	$[0, \pi]$	$[-1, 1]$	$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos x) = -\sin x$
$\cos^{-1}$	$[-1, 1]$	$[0, \pi]$	$\frac{d}{dx}(\cos^{-1} x) = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
$\tan$	$(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$	$(-\infty, \infty)$	$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan x) = \sec^2 x$
$\tan^{-1}$	$(-\infty, \infty)$	$(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$	$\frac{d}{dx}(\tan^{-1} x) = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$

# Important Remark

**Remark.** Even though  $\sin(\sin^{-1} x) = x$  for  $x \in [-1, 1]$  (which is always the case, as  $\sin^{-1}$  is not defined otherwise),

in general,  $\sin^{-1}(\sin x) \neq x$ , unless  $x \in [-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$ .

(E.g.,  $0 = \sin(3\pi)$ , but  $3\pi \neq \sin^{-1}(0)$ .)

Similarly,  $\cos^{-1}(\cos x) \neq x$ , unless  $x \in [0, \pi]$ .

and,  $\tan^{-1}(\tan x) \neq x$ , unless  $x \in (-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ .

# Example

**Example.** Determine

$$\cos \left( 2 \sin^{-1} \frac{3}{5} \right).$$

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└ Example

Example

Example. Determine

$$\cos\left(2\sin^{-1}\frac{3}{5}\right).$$

**Solution.**

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\cos\left(2\sin^{-1}\frac{3}{5}\right) &= 1 - 2\sin^2\left(\sin^{-1}\frac{3}{5}\right) \\ &= 1 - 2\left(\frac{3}{5}\right)^2 = \frac{7}{25}.\end{aligned}$$



# Example

**Example.** Determine

$$\sin^{-1} \left( \sin \frac{5\pi}{6} \right).$$

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## └ Example

## Example

Example. Determine

$$\sin^{-1}\left(\sin \frac{5\pi}{6}\right).$$

**Solution.** Since  $\frac{5\pi}{6}$  does not belong to the interval  $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$  we do **not** have  $\sin^{-1}(\sin \frac{5\pi}{6}) = \frac{5\pi}{6}$ .

We have

$$\begin{aligned}\sin^{-1}\left(\sin \frac{5\pi}{6}\right) &= \sin^{-1}\left(\sin\left(\pi - \frac{\pi}{6}\right)\right) \\ &= \sin^{-1}\left(\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{6}\right)\right) = \frac{\pi}{6}.\end{aligned}$$

# Example

Show that  $h(x) = \cos^{-1}(x) + \cos^{-1}(-x) = \pi$ .

### Example

**Solution.** To show that the function  $h$  is constant, we have to show that the derivative is zero.

We have

$$\begin{aligned} h'(x) &= \frac{d}{dx} \cos^{-1}(x) + \left( \frac{d}{du} \cos^{-1}(u) \right) \frac{du}{dx} \quad \text{where } u = -x \\ &= \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} + \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-u^2}}(-1) \\ &= \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} - \frac{-1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $h(x)$  is a constant, so we can work out the constant by looking at [any](#) value of  $x$ ;  $x = 0$  is good choice so

$$h(x) = h(0) = \cos^{-1}(0) + \cos^{-1}(-0) = \pi/2 + \pi/2 = \pi.$$

# Example

Evaluate  $\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{x^2 - 1})$ .

**Solution.** Let  $u(x) = \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$  and  $g(u) = \tan^{-1}(u)$ . Then

$$\tan^{-1}(\sqrt{x^2 - 1}) = (g \circ u)(x),$$

i.e.,

$$\frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{x^2 - 1}) = g'(u(x))u'(x) = \frac{dg}{du} \frac{du}{dx}.$$

$$\frac{du}{dx} = \frac{d}{dx} \sqrt{x^2 - 1} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$$

and

$$\frac{dg}{du} = \frac{d}{du} \tan^{-1}(u) = \frac{1}{1 + u^2}.$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dx} \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{x^2 - 1}) &= \frac{dg}{du} \frac{du}{dx} = \frac{1}{1 + x^2 - 1} \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}} \\ &= \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}. \end{aligned}$$

## Summary: What did we learn in this chapter?

- One-to-one function (p. 7)
- Horizontal line test (p. 9)
- One-to-one and strictly increasing / decreasing (p. 10)
- Inverse function definition (p. 12)
- Inverse function theorem (p. 18)
- Inverse trigonometric functions (p. 24 and p. 26)
- Derivatives of inverse trigonometric functions (p. 27)