

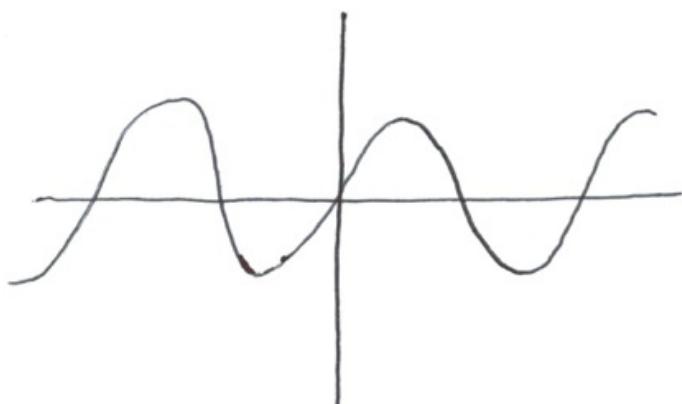
Lecture 22 §1.6-3.6

Last day we saw inverse functions and logarithms.
Today, inverse trig functions. We begin with $\sin(x)$.

Recall that last day we saw:

The graph of $f^{-1}(x)$ is the same as $f(x)$, reflected in the line $y=x$.

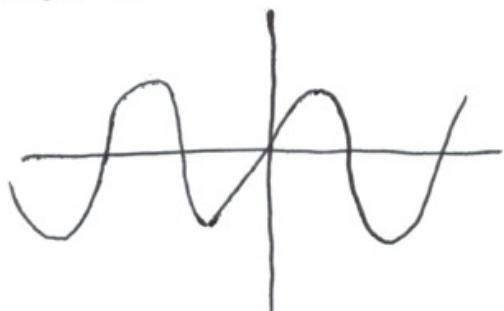
Since $\sin(x)$ looks like:



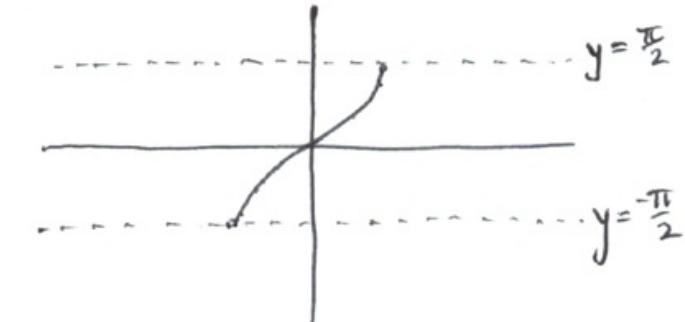
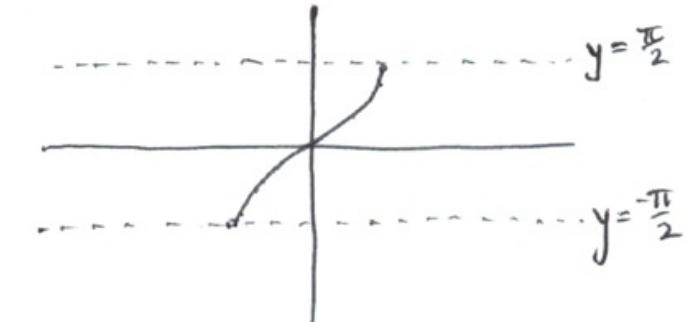
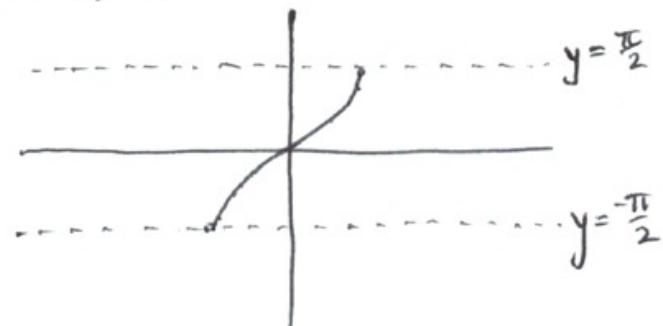
we would hope for $\sin'(x)$ to have graph:



$\sin(x)$ is:



and $\sin'(x)$ is



In other words,

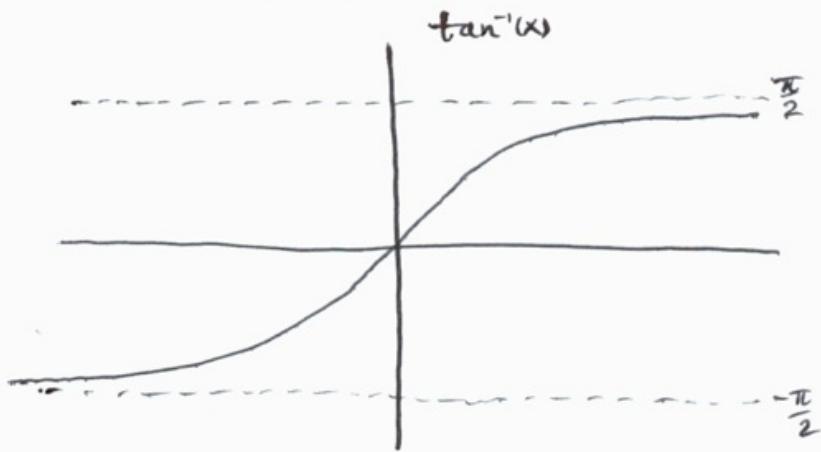
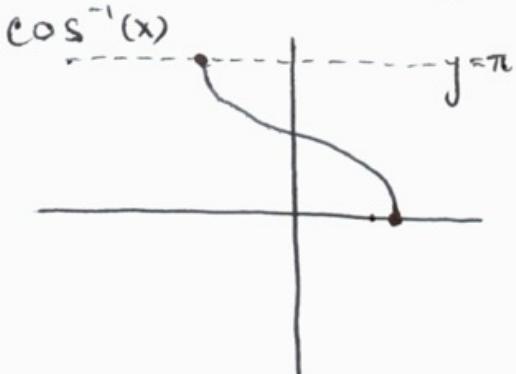
$$\sin^{-1}(x) = y \Leftrightarrow \sin y = x \text{ and } -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq y \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

so that

$$\sin^{-1}(\sin(x)) = x \text{ for } -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\text{and } \sin(\sin^{-1}(x)) = x \text{ for } -1 \leq x \leq 1.$$

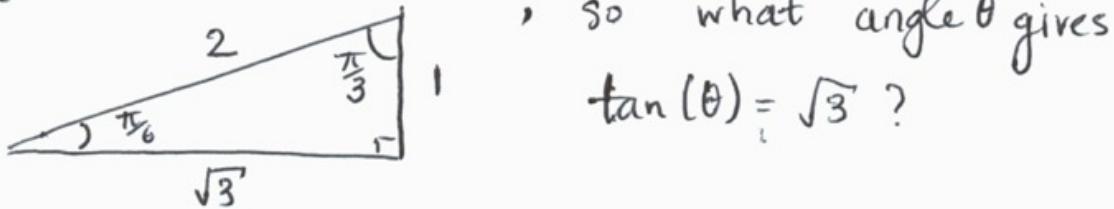
The other trig functions $\cos^{-1}(x)$, $\tan^{-1}(x)$ are defined in a similar way, and their graphs are:



Example: In general, $\cos^{-1}(x)$, $\sin^{-1}(x)$, $\tan^{-1}(x)$ are numbers whose exact value we cannot calculate. In some cases, we know the answer based on triangles that we remember:

What is the exact value of $\tan^{-1}(\sqrt{3})$?

Recall

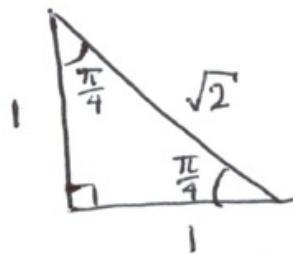


, so what angle θ gives $\tan(\theta) = \sqrt{3}$?

We see $\tan\left(\frac{\pi}{3}\right) = \sqrt{3}$, so taking \tan^{-1} of both sides

$$\frac{\pi}{3} = \tan^{-1}(\tan(\frac{\pi}{3})) = \tan^{-1}(\sqrt{3})$$

or the exact value of $\cos^{-1}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$ comes from



and therefore $\cos(\frac{\pi}{4}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$, and \cos^{-1} of both sides gives $\cos^{-1}(\cos(\frac{\pi}{4})) = \cos^{-1}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$.

=====
log, ln and inverse
~~trig~~, so

Now we have a new collection of functions,¹ we jump to § 3.6 to learn how to differentiate them.

The derivative of a^x is: $\frac{d}{dx}(a^x) = a^x \ln(a)$

On the other hand, $\log_a(x)$ is a number y

satisfying $a^y = x$

so implicit differentiation gives

$$\frac{d}{dx}(a^y) = \frac{d}{dx}(x)$$

(chain rule) $\Rightarrow a^y \ln(a) \frac{dy}{dx} = 1$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{a^y \ln(a)}, \text{ where } y = \log_a(x)$$

so plugging in $y = \log_a(x)$ gives

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\log_a(x)) = \frac{1}{a^{\log_a(x)} \ln(a)} = \frac{1}{x \ln(a)}.$$

and in particular if $a=e$ then

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(x)) = \frac{1}{x \ln(e)} = \frac{1}{x}.$$

Example: What is the slope of the line tangent to $y = \ln(2x^2 + 1)$ at $x=0$? what is its equation?

Solution: Using $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(x) = \frac{1}{x}$ and the chain rule,

$$\text{we get } \frac{d}{dx}(\ln(2x^2 + 1)) = \frac{1}{2x^2 + 1} \cdot 4x = \frac{4x}{2x^2 + 1}$$

so the slope of the tangent line at $x=0$ is

$$\frac{0}{2(0)^2 + 1} = 0.$$

The tangent line at $x=0$ passes through the point $x=0, y = \ln(2(0)^2 + 1) = \ln(1) = 0$.

So $y = mx + b$ with $m=0$, and we get

$$y = b$$

with $b=0$ so that the line goes through $(0,0)$.

So equation is $y=0$.

Example: Differentiate $\log_{10}(\cos(x^2) + 5)$.

Solution: We use $\frac{d}{dx}(\log_{10}(x)) = \frac{1}{x \ln(10)}$

and the chain rule. So we get; with:

$$f(u) = \log_{10}(u), \quad u(v) = \cos(v) + 5, \quad v(x) = x^2$$

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{df}{du} \cdot \frac{du}{dv} \cdot \frac{dv}{dx}, \text{ and}$$

$$\frac{df}{du} = \frac{1}{u \ln(10)}, \quad \frac{du}{dv} = -\sin(v), \quad \frac{dv}{dx} = 2x$$

So

$$\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{1}{u \ln(10)} \cdot (-\sin(v)) \cdot 2x, \text{ changing everything to } x \text{ gives}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(\cos(x^2) + 5) \ln(10)} \cdot (-\sin(x^2)) \cdot 2x$$

$$= \frac{-2x \sin(x^2)}{(\cos(x^2) + 5) \ln(10)}.$$

We can also differentiate complicated expressions by taking \ln of both sides first, this trick is called logarithmic differentiation.

Example: Differentiate $y = x^{\sqrt{x}}$.

Solution: Take \ln of both sides. Then

$$\ln(y) = \ln(x^{\sqrt{x}}) = \sqrt{x} \ln(x)$$

and now differentiate:

$$\frac{d}{dx}(\ln(y)) = \frac{d}{dx}(\sqrt{x} \ln(x))$$

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx} &= \left[\frac{d}{dx}(\sqrt{x}) \right] \ln(x) + \sqrt{x} \frac{d}{dx}(\ln(x)) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} x^{-\frac{1}{2}} \ln(x) + \sqrt{x} \cdot \frac{1}{x}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{so } \frac{dy}{dx} = y \left(\frac{\ln(x)}{2\sqrt{x}} + \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} \right)$$

$$= x^{\sqrt{x}} \left(\frac{\ln(x)}{2\sqrt{x}} + \frac{\sqrt{x}}{x} \right).$$

Lecture 23

§3.6 Questions 2-22, 39-50.

Last day we saw that the derivatives of log functions are

$$\frac{d}{dx} \log_a(x) = \frac{1}{x \ln(a)}$$

and when $a=e$, this reduces to $\frac{d}{dx} (\ln(x)) = \frac{1}{x}$, since $\ln(e) = 1$.

We also saw a glimpse of a trick called logarithmic differentiation, which we saw last day.

Example: Calculate y' if $y = (x^2+3x+1)^{18}(x^4-3)^6$

Solution: We could use the product rule, or we could take \ln of both sides and do logarithmic differentiation.

Product rule:

$$\begin{aligned} y' &= ((x^2+3x+1)^{18})'(x^4-3)^6 + (x^2+3x+1)^{18}((x^4-3)^6)' \\ &= 18(x^2+3x+1)^{17} \cdot (2x+3) \cdot (x^4-3)^6 + (x^2+3x+1)^{18} \cdot (4x^3) \cdot (6(x^4-3)^5) \\ &= 18(x^2+3x+1)^{17}(x^4-3)^6(2x+3) + 24(x^2+3x+1)^{18}(x^4-3)^5 \cdot x^3 \end{aligned}$$

Logarithmic differentiation: Take \ln of both sides.

$$\begin{aligned} \ln(y) &= \ln((x^2+3x+1)^{18}(x^4-3)^6) \\ &= 18\ln(x^2+3x+1) + 6\ln(x^4-3) \end{aligned}$$

Then doing $\frac{d}{dx}$ of both sides gives.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx} &= 18 \frac{d}{dx} (\ln(x^2+3x+1)) + 5 \frac{d}{dx} (\ln(x^4-3)) \\ \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} \cdot \frac{1}{y} &= \frac{18(2x+3)}{(x^2+3x+1)} + \frac{6(4x^3)}{(x^4-3)} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} &= y \left(\frac{18(2x+3)}{(x^2+3x+1)} + \frac{24x^3}{x^4-3} \right) \\ &= (x^2+3x+1)^{18}(x^4-3)^5 \left(\frac{18(2x+3)}{(x^2+3x+1)} + \frac{24x^3}{x^4-3} \right) \\ &= 18(x^2+3x+1)^{17}(x^4-3)^6(2x+3) + 24x^3(x^2+3x+1)^{18}(x^4-3)^5. \end{aligned}$$

Example : Take the derivative of $y = \sqrt{\frac{x^2-1}{x^4+3}}$ using logarithmic differentiation.

Solution : Take \ln of both sides. We get:

$$\ln(y) = \ln \left(\sqrt{\frac{x^2-1}{x^4+3}} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^2-1) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(x^4+3)$$

so taking derivatives, we get

$$\frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{x^2-1} \cdot 2x - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{x^4+3} \cdot 4x^3$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{dy}{dx} = y \left(\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{2x}{x^2-1} - \frac{4x^3}{x^4+3} \right) \right)$$

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

Example: If $f(x) = \ln|x|$, what is $f'(x)$?

Solution: Normally, absolute value gives problems when taking derivatives, since $|x|$ is not differentiable at $x=0$. Here we get two cases:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} \ln(x) & \text{if } x>0 \\ \ln(-x) & \text{if } x<0. \end{cases}$$

So then if $x>0$, we get $f'(x) = (\ln(x))' = \frac{1}{x}$.

If $x<0$, we get $f'(x) = (\ln(-x))' = \frac{1}{-x} \cdot (-1) = \frac{1}{x}$.

$\underbrace{}$
chain
rule

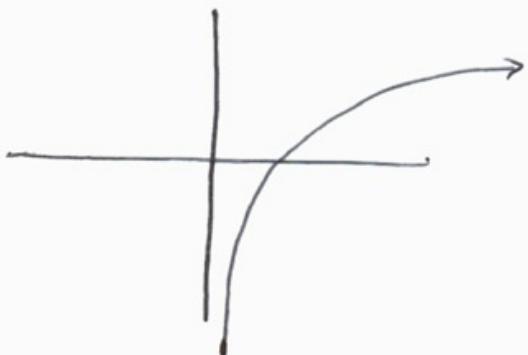
So we get $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$. (there's still a problem at $x=0$)

The point is that starting with $|x|$, upon differentiating we get a much simpler formula: If $f(x) = \ln|x|$,

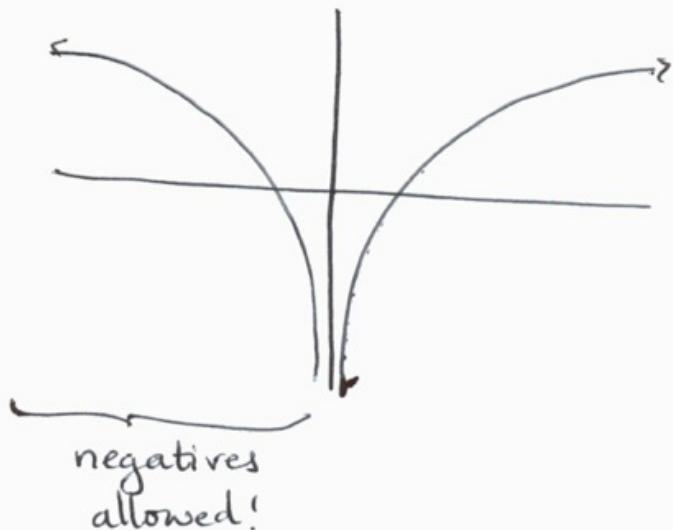
then $f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$.

This last example means that by taking absolute value of x , we can plug negative numbers into $\ln|x|$ and differentiate, if we have to. "Normally" this is not possible, because working with $\ln(x)$ we can't plug in $(-x)$.

Graph of $\ln(x)$



Graph of $\ln|x|$



Example: Calculate the derivative of $f(x) = x^n$, using logarithmic differentiation.

Solution: We write $y = x^n$, then do $\ln|\cdot|$ of both sides. We use absolute value here because we want to allow for $x^n < 0$, e.g. x^3 when $x < 0$.

Then $y = x^n$ gives $\ln|y| = \ln|x^n|$
 $\Rightarrow \ln|y| = \ln|x|^n$
 $= n \ln|x|.$

So now, taking derivatives we get:

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln|y| = \frac{d}{dx} (n \ln|x|)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{y} \frac{dy}{dx} = n \cdot \frac{1}{x}. \text{ So}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = y \cdot \frac{n}{x}, \text{ but } y = x^n \text{ so}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = x^n \cdot \frac{n}{x} = n x^{n-1}. \text{ This works even if } n \text{ is not integral!}$$

Recall: We gave two definitions of the number e . The most significant was that we use e as the base of an exponential function $f(x)$ satisfying $f'(x) = f(x)$.

We can also show $e = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1+x)^{1/x}$ using

$$\frac{d}{dx} \ln(x) = \frac{1}{x}.$$

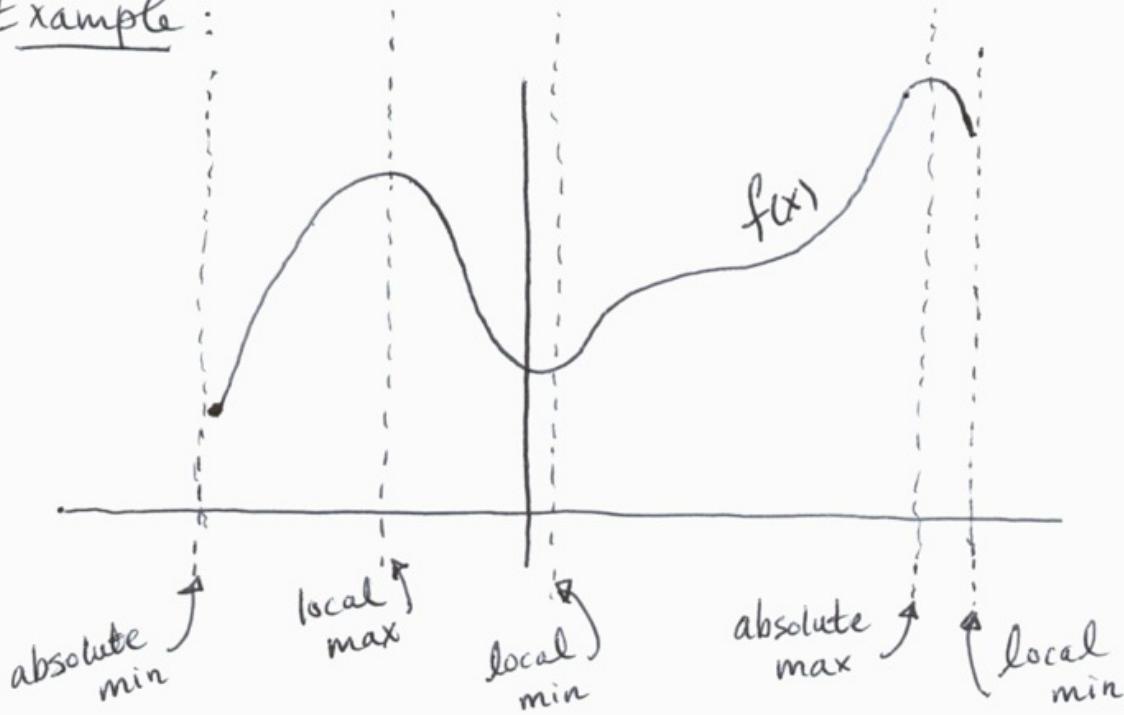
Substituting $n = \frac{1}{x}$, in which case $n \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow 0$, we also get $e = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{1}{n}\right)^n$.

§ 4.1 Questions 1-44

Today we calculate max and min values of a function, but first some terminology:

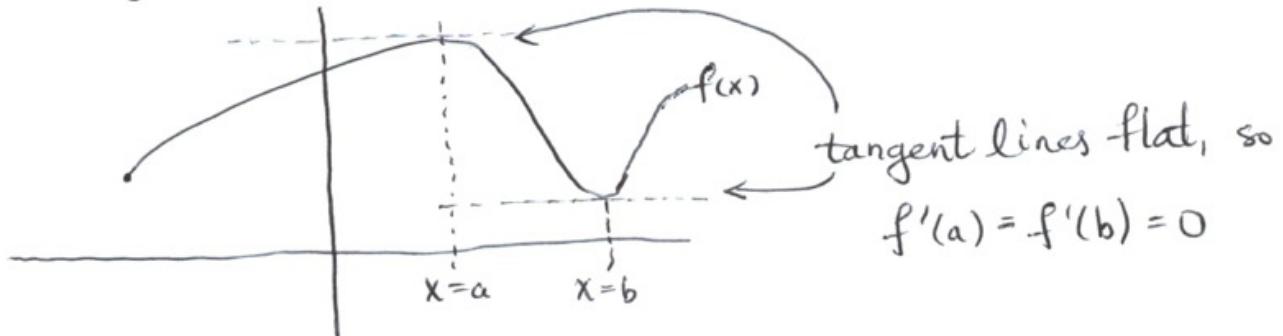
- If $f(x)$ is a function and $f(c)$ is the biggest (respectively smallest) number you can get by plugging in values from the domain of $f(x)$, then $f(c)$ is called an absolute maximum (respectively minimum).
- If $f(c)$ is the biggest (respectively smallest) number you get by plugging in numbers near c , then $f(c)$ is called a local maximum (respectively local minimum).

Example :

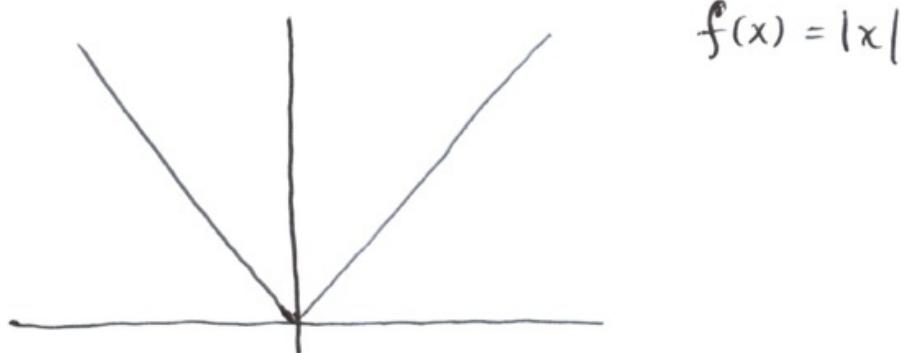


The maximum and minimum values of f are called extreme values of f .

The way we detect maxima and minima will be to use differentiation. Observe that at a max or min, the tangent line is flat:



Therefore we try to solve $f'(x)=0$ to find max/min.
We could also have:



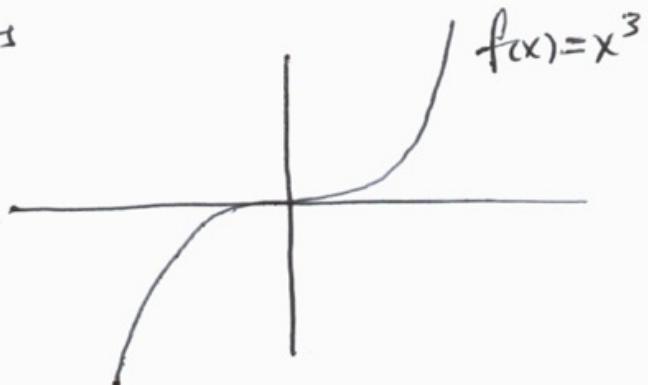
which has a minimum at a point where $f'(x)$ does not exist ($x=0$). So we observe:

Fact: If $f(x)$ has a local maximum or minimum at $x=c$ then either $f'(c)=0$ or $f'(c)$ does not exist.
If $f'(c)=0$ or $f'(c)$ does not exist, then c is called a critical point of $f(x)$. So to find max and mins we find critical points!

Note: Just because $f'(c)$ doesn't exist or $f'(c)=0$, it doesn't mean we have a max or min there!

Example: The function $f(x)=x^3$ has derivative $f'(x)=3x^2$, so $f'(0)=3 \cdot 0^2=0$ and $x=0$ is a critical point:

however the graph is



which has no max or min at zero.

Example: Find the critical values of $f(x)=\frac{x^2}{x^2-1}$.

Solution: The derivative is

$$f'(x) = \frac{2x(x^2-1) - x^2(2x)}{(x^2-1)^2} = \frac{-2x}{(x^2-1)^2} = \frac{-2x}{((x+1)(x-1))^2}.$$

We need to find all values c s.t. $f'(c)=0$ or $f'(c)$ does not exist.

- Because $x^2-1=0$ causes division by zero, we get $(x+1)(x-1)=0 \Rightarrow x=\pm 1$ are values where f' doesn't exist.

- $\frac{-2x}{(x^2-1)^2}=0 \Rightarrow -2x=0 \Rightarrow x=0$. gives $f'=0$.

So the critical values of f are $x=\pm 1, x=0$.

Example: Find the critical points of $f(x) = |x^2 - x|$.

Solution: We need to know where $x^2 - x > 0$ and where $x^2 - x < 0$ in order to keep track of the absolute value.

Since $x^2 - x = (x-1)x$, we can analyze the sign of $x^2 - x$ with a table: (noting only 0, 1 are interesting).

function	$(-\infty, 0)$	$(0, \pm 1)$	$(1, \infty)$
x	-	+	+
$x-1$	-	-	+
$x^2 - x$	+	-	+

Therefore $f(x) = |x^2 - x|$ can be described as a piecewise function

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 - x & \text{if } x \leq 0 \\ -(x^2 - x) & \text{if } 0 \leq x \leq 1 \\ x^2 - x & \text{if } x \geq 1. \end{cases}$$

So then the derivative of each piece gives us

$$f'(x) = \begin{cases} 2x-1 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ -2x+1 & \text{if } 0 < x < 1 \\ 2x-1 & \text{if } x > 1. \end{cases}$$

Now we test for two kinds of points:

- where does $f'(c)$ not exist?
- where is $f'(c) = 0$?

Then: Testing $f'(c) = 0$ we ask 3 cases:

- ① What $x < 0$ makes $2x - 1 = 0$?

Ans: no such x , so there is no $c < 0$ with $f'(c) = 0$.

- ② What x with $0 < x < 1$ makes $-2x + 1 = 0$?

Ans: Solving, we get $-2x = -1$
 $\Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{2}$.

$$\boxed{\text{So } f'\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = -2\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) + 1 = 0.}$$

- ③ What $x > 1$ makes $2x - 1 = 0$?

Ans: no such x , so there is no $c > 1$ with $f'(c) = 0$.

Testing $f'(c)$ does not exist, there are two candidates:
 $c=0$ and $c=1$.

At $c=0$ we see that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} f'(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^-} 2x - 1 = -1$$

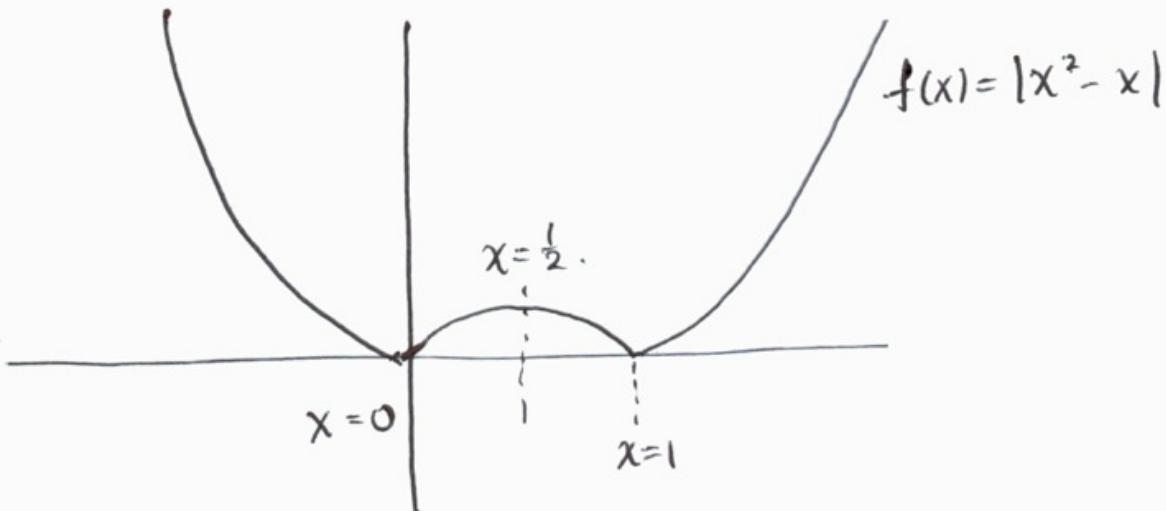
and $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} f'(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} -2x + 1 = 1$

So $f'(0)$ doesn't exist. Similarly $f'(1)$ doesn't exist.

Overall, the critical points are

$$x = 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1.$$

The graph of $f(x) = |x^2 - x|$ is:



So indeed, we have found all places where max/min occur.

Example: What are the critical values of $f(x) = \tan(x)$?

Solution: We find $f'(x) = \sec^2(x)$.

So we need to know where $(\sec(x))^2 = \frac{1}{(\cos(x))^2}$ is

zero and where it is defined.

First, it's obviously never zero since $\frac{1}{(\cos(x))^2} = 0$

$\Leftrightarrow 0 = 1$, which never happens.

It's not defined when $\cos(x) = 0$, which is at $x = \frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{3\pi}{2}, \frac{5\pi}{2}$, etc. or $x = \frac{\pi}{2} + k\pi$.

So the critical values of $\tan(x)$ are $\frac{\pi}{2} + k\pi$.