# Section 6.8, The Inverse Trigonometric Functions and Their Derivatives

Homework: 6.8 # 1-73 odds

Since all trigonometric functions are  $2\pi$ -periodic, they are not one-to-one. Therefore, in order to define inverse functions, we need to restrict the domain.

For sine and cosine, we restrict their domains to  $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$  and  $[0, \pi]$ , respectively. Then,

$$x = \sin^{-1} y \Leftrightarrow y = \sin x, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} \le x \le \frac{\pi}{2}$$
$$x = \cos^{-1} y \Leftrightarrow y = \cos x, \quad 0 \le x \le \pi$$

For tangent and secant, the domains are restricted to  $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$  and  $[0, \pi/2) \cup (\pi/2, \pi]$ , respectively. Furthermore,

$$x = \tan^{-1} y \Leftrightarrow y = \tan x, \quad -\frac{\pi}{2} < x < \frac{\pi}{2}$$
$$x = \sec^{-1} y \Leftrightarrow y = \sec x, \quad 0 \le x \le \pi, x \ne \frac{\pi}{2}$$

This book has no need to define  $\csc^{-1}$  or  $\cot^{-1}$ . Also, the domain of secant is sometimes restricted in different ways.

There is alternate notation for inverse trigonometric functions:  $\arcsin x = \sin^{-1} x$ ,  $\arccos x = \cos^{-1} x$ , and  $\arctan x = \tan^{-1} x$ .

### Examples

Calculate each of the following:

- 1.  $\sin^{-1} \frac{1}{2}$ Since  $\sin(\pi/6) = 1/2$ ,  $\sin^{-1} \frac{1}{2} = \frac{\pi}{6}$ .
- 2.  $\operatorname{arccos}(-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2})$ Since  $\cos(3\pi/4) = -\sqrt{2}/2$ ,  $\operatorname{arccos}(-\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}) = \frac{3\pi}{4}$ .
- 3.  $\operatorname{arccos}(\cos(\frac{5\pi}{4}))$ Since  $5\pi/4$  is not in the range for arccos, we can use that  $\cos(\frac{5\pi}{4}) = \cos(\frac{3\pi}{4})$ . Therefore,  $\operatorname{arccos}(\cos(\frac{5\pi}{4})) = \frac{3\pi}{4}$ .
- 4.  $\tan(\tan^{-1}(1))$  $\tan(\tan^{-1}(1)) = 1$  since  $\tan$  and  $\tan^{-1}$  are inverse functions.
- 5.  $\cos(\sec^{-1}(2))$ We can use that  $\sec x = 1/\cos x$ , so  $\cos(\sec^{-1}(2)) = \cos(\cos^{-1}(1/2)) = 1/2$ .
- 6.  $\cos\left(\sin^{-1}\frac{2}{3}\right)$

We want the value of the cosine for the angle whose sine is 2/3. Drawing a right triangle with hypotenuse 1, we get that the two legs have lengths 2/3 and  $\sqrt{1 - (2/3)^2} = \sqrt{5}/3$ , so  $\cos\left(\sin^{-1}\frac{2}{3}\right) = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{3}$ .

There are many identities that can be used for inverse trigonometric functions. Some of them are: Theorem A

1.  $\sin(\cos^{-1} x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ 2.  $\cos(\sin^{-1} x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ 

3. 
$$\sec(\tan^{-1} x) = \sqrt{1 + x^2}$$
  
4.  $\tan(\sec^{-1} x) = \begin{cases} \sqrt{x^2 - 1} & x \ge 1\\ -\sqrt{x^2 - 1} & x \le -1 \end{cases}$ 

Sketch of Proof: The first two statements can be shown by drawing a triangle and using that  $\sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$ . The last two use that  $\sec^2 \theta = 1 + \tan^2 \theta$ .

## 1 Derivatives

#### Theorem B

1. 
$$D_x \sin^{-1} x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}, -1 < x < 1$$
  
2.  $D_x \cos^{-1} x = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}, -1 < x < 1$   
3.  $D_x \tan^{-1} x = \frac{1}{1 + x^2}$   
4.  $D_x \sec^{-1} x = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}$ 

-1

**Proof of** (2): Let  $y = \cos^{-1} x$ . Then  $x = \cos y$  and  $1 = -\sin y D_x y = -\sin(\cos^{-1} x) D_x y$ . Solving for  $D_x y$ , we get:

$$D_x y = -\frac{1}{\sin(\cos^{-1} x)} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$$

Proofs of the other statements are similar (the proof of the first one is the book).

#### Examples

Find the derivatives of each of the following functions:

1. 
$$y = e^x \arccos(3x^3)$$

$$y' = e^x \arccos(3x^3) + e^x \frac{9x^2}{\sqrt{1 - 9x^6}}$$

2.  $f(x) = -\ln(\csc x + \cot x)$ 

$$f'(x) = \frac{\csc x \cot x + \csc^2 x}{\csc x + \cot x}$$
$$= \csc x \frac{\cot x + \csc x}{\csc x + \cot x} = \csc x$$

3. 
$$g(t) = (\sin^{-1}(2t))^2$$

$$g'(t) = 2\sin^{-1}(2t) \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt{1 - 4t^2}}$$
$$= \frac{4\sin^{-1}(2t)}{\sqrt{1 - 4t^2}}$$

## 2 Integrals

The derivative formulas can be converted to integral formulas and generalized to

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

2. 
$$\int \frac{1}{a^2 + x^2} dx = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$$
  
3. 
$$\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} dx = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1} \left(\frac{|x|}{a}\right) + C$$

**Proof of** (1): Assume a > 0

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} \, dx = \int \frac{1}{a\sqrt{1 - (\frac{x}{a})^2}} \, dx. \text{ Let } u = x/a.$$
$$= \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2}} \, du$$
$$= \sin^{-1}(u) + C = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$$

Examples

1. 
$$\int_{\sqrt{2}}^{2} \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^{2}-1}} dx \ (\#62)$$
$$\int_{\sqrt{2}}^{2} \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^{2}-1}} dx = \sec^{-1}(x) \Big|_{\sqrt{2}}^{2}$$
$$= \frac{\pi}{4} - \frac{\pi}{3} = -\frac{\pi}{12}$$

2. 
$$\int \frac{e^{2t}}{9 + 4e^{4t}} dt$$
  
Let  $u = 2e^{2t}$ . Then,  
$$\int \frac{e^{2t}}{9 + 4e^{4t}} dt = \frac{1}{4} \int \frac{1}{3^2 + u^2} du$$
$$= \frac{1}{4} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{u}{3}\right) + C$$
$$= \frac{1}{12} \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{2e^{2t}}{3}\right) + C$$

Note: This section also reviews some of the derivatives and integrals for trigonometric functions.