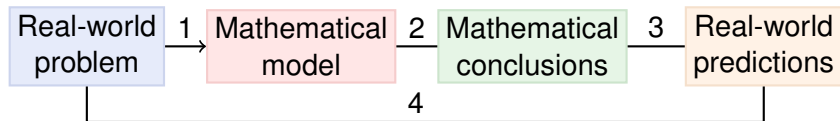


# Mathematical Models

A **mathematical model** is a mathematical description of a real-world phenomenon.



- 1. Formulate**  
Identify independent & dependent variables, simplify and obtain equations (possibly guessing from measurements).
- 2. Solve**  
Apply mathematics such as calculus to derive conclusions.
- 3. Interpret**  
Interpret the model conclusions to predict the real-world.
- 4. Test**  
Compare predictions with reality (revise model if needed).

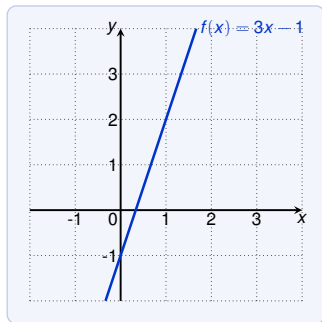
# Linear Functions

A **linear function** is a function  $f$  that can be written in the form:

$$f(x) = mx + b$$

where  $m$  is the **slope** and  $b$  is the **y-intercept**.

The graph of a linear function is a line:



# Linear Functions: Example

When dry air moves upward it expands and cools.

- ▶ ground temperature is  $20^\circ$
- ▶ temperature in height of 1km is  $10^\circ$

Express the temperature as a linear function of the height  $h$ .  
What is the temperature in 2.5km height?

Since we are looking for a linear function:

$$T(h) = mh + b$$

We know that:

$$T(0) = m \cdot 0 + b = 20 \quad \implies \quad b = 20$$

$$T(1) = m \cdot 1 + b = m \cdot 1 + 20 = 10 \quad \implies \quad m = 10 - 20 = -10$$

Thus  $T(h) = -10h + 20$ , and  $T(2.5) = -5^\circ$ .

# Polynomials

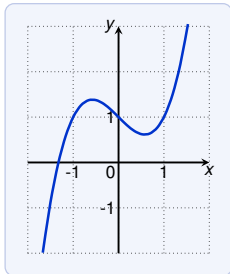
A function  $P$  is called **polynomial** if

$$P(x) = a_n x^n + a_{n-1} x^{n-1} + \dots + a_2 x^2 + a_1 x + a_0$$

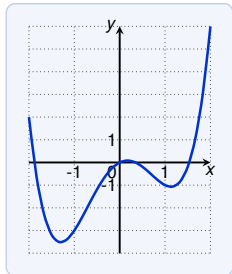
where

- ▶  $n$  is a non-negative integer, and
- ▶  $a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n$  are constants, called **coefficients**.

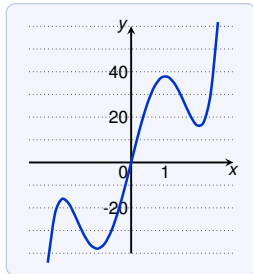
If  $a_n \neq 0$  then  $n$  is the **degree** of the polynomial.



$$x^3 - x + 1$$



$$x^4 - 3x^2 + x$$

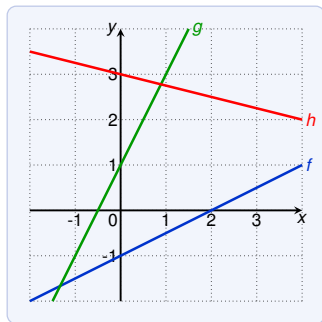


$$3x^5 - 25x^3 + 60x$$

# Polynomials of Degree 1: Linear Functions

A polynomial of degree 1 is a **linear function**:

$$f(x) = mx + b$$



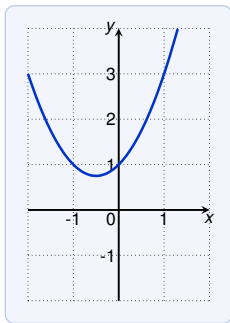
Find equations for the functions  $f$ ,  $g$  and  $h$ :

- ▶ for  $f$ :  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x - 1$
- ▶ for  $g$ :  $f(x) = 2x + 1$
- ▶ for  $h$ :  $f(x) = -\frac{1}{4}x + 3$

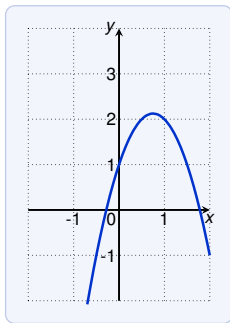
# Polynomials of Degree 2: Quadratic Functions

A polynomial of degree 2 is a **quadratic function**:

$$f(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$$



$$x^2 + x + 1$$



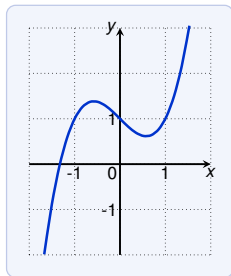
$$-2x^2 + 3x + 1$$

The graph of is always a shifting of the parabola  $ax^2$ . It open upwards if  $a > 0$ , and downwards if  $a < 0$ .

# Polynomials of Degree 3: Cubic Functions

A polynomial of degree 3 is a **cubic function**:

$$f(x) = ax^3 + bx^2 + cx + d$$



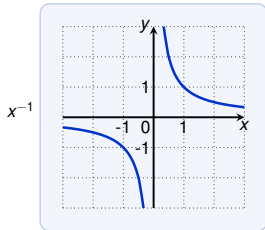
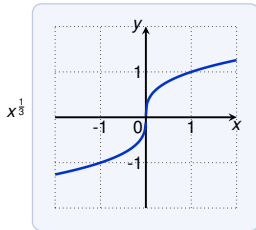
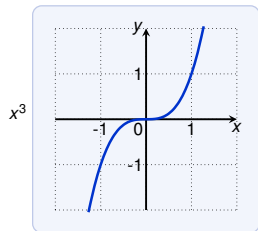
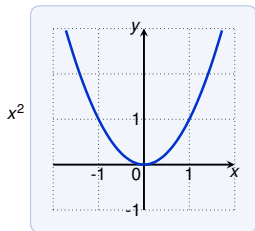
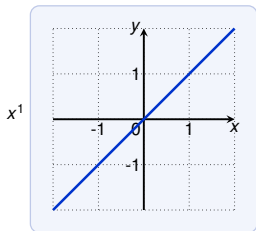
$$x^3 - x + 1$$

# Power Functions

A function of the form

$$f(x) = x^a$$

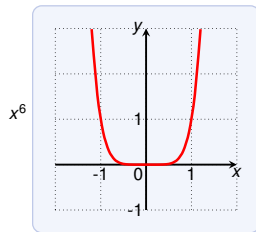
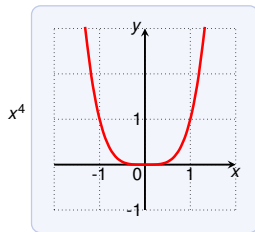
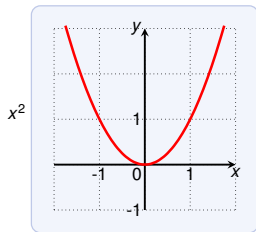
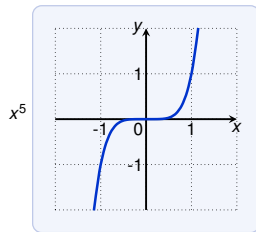
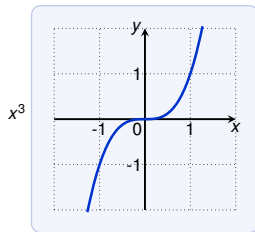
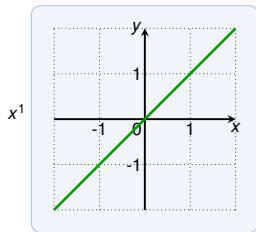
where  $a$  is a constant, is called a **power function**.





# Power Functions: Special Cases

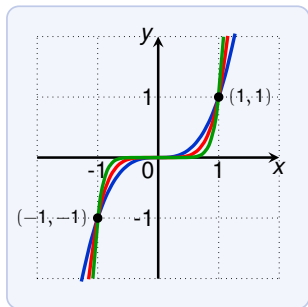
We consider  $x^n$  with  $n$  a positive integer.



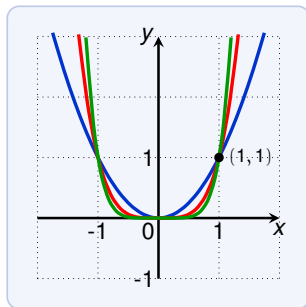
# Power Functions: Special Cases

We consider  $x^n$  with  $n$  a positive integer.

- ▶ For even  $n$  the graph similar to the parabola  $x^2$ .
- ▶ For odd  $n$  the graph looks similar to  $x^3$ .



—  $x^3$  —  $x^5$  —  $x^9$



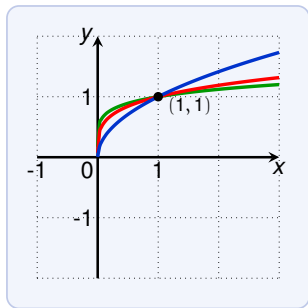
—  $x^2$  —  $x^4$  —  $x^6$

If  $n$  increases, then the graph of  $x^n$  becomes flatter near 0, and steeper for  $|x| \geq 1$ .

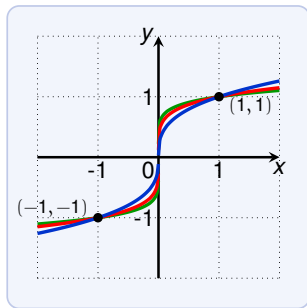
# Power Functions: Special Cases

We consider  $x^{\frac{1}{n}}$  where  $n$  is a positive integer:

- ▶  $f(x) = x^{\frac{1}{n}} = \sqrt[n]{x}$  is a **root function** (square root for  $n = 2$ )



—  $x^{\frac{1}{2}}$  —  $x^{\frac{1}{4}}$  —  $x^{\frac{1}{6}}$

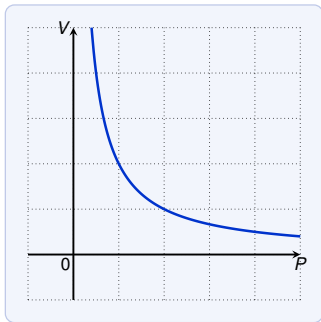
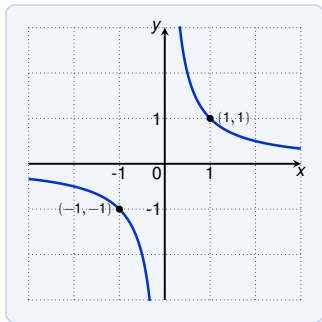


—  $x^{\frac{1}{3}}$  —  $x^{\frac{1}{5}}$  —  $x^{\frac{1}{7}}$

- ▶ For even  $n$  the domain is  $[0, \infty)$ , the graph is similar to  $\sqrt{x}$ .
- ▶ For odd  $n$  the domain is  $\mathbb{R}$ , the graph is similar to  $\sqrt[3]{x}$ .

# Power Functions: Special Cases

The power function  $f(x) = x^{-1} = \frac{1}{x}$  is the **reciprocal function**.



This function arises in physics and chemistry. E.g. Boyle's law says that, when the temperature is constant, then the volume  $V$  of a gas is inversely proportional to the pressure  $P$ :

$$V = \frac{C}{P}$$

where  $C$  is a constant

# Power Function: Applications

Power functions are used for modeling:

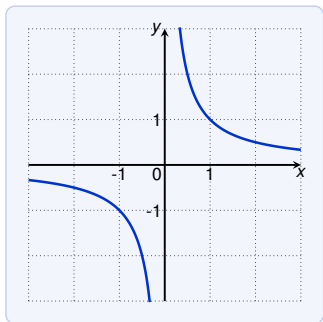
- ▶ the illumination as a function of the distance from a light source
- ▶ the period of the revolution of a planet as a function of the distance from the sun

# Rational Functions

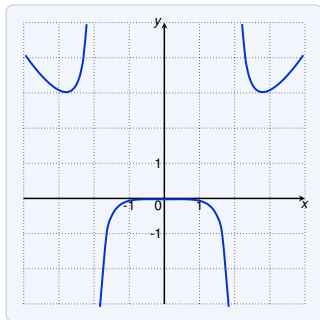
A **rational function**  $f$  is ratio of two polynomials:

$$f(x) = \frac{P(x)}{Q(x)} \quad \text{where } P \text{ and } Q \text{ are polynomials}$$

- ▶ the domain of  $\frac{P(x)}{Q(x)}$  is  $\{x \mid Q(x) \neq 0\}$



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

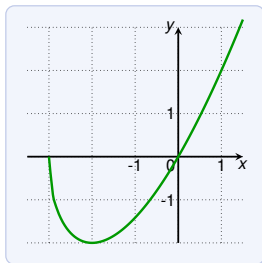


$$f(x) = \frac{2x^4 - x^2 + 1}{10x^2 - 40}$$

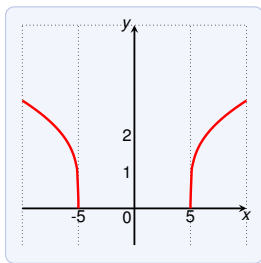
# Algebraic Functions

A function  $f$  is called **algebraic function** if it can be constructed using algebraic operations (addition, subtraction, multiplication, division and taking roots) starting with polynomials.

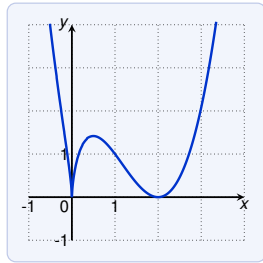
$$f(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + 1} \qquad g(x) = \frac{x^2 - 16x^2}{x + \sqrt{x}} + (x - 2)\sqrt[3]{x + 1}$$



$$x\sqrt{x+3}$$



$$\sqrt[4]{x^2 - 25}$$



$$x^{2/3}(x-2)^2$$

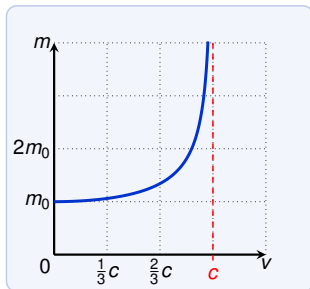
# Algebraic Functions: Real-world Example

The following algebraic function occurs in the theory of relativity. The mass of an object with velocity  $v$  is:

$$m = f(v) = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

where

- ▶  $m_0$  is the rest mass of the object
- ▶  $c \approx 3.0 \cdot 10^5 \frac{\text{km}}{\text{h}}$  is the speed of light (in vacuum)

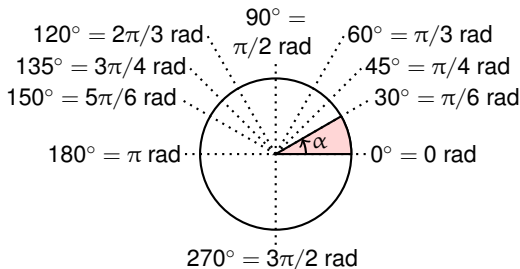




# Angles

Angles can be measured in **degrees** ( $^\circ$ ) or in **radians** (rad):

- ▶  $180^\circ = \pi$  rad
- ▶  $360^\circ = 2\pi$  rad is a full revolution



From  $180^\circ = \pi$  rad we conclude

$$1^\circ = \frac{\pi}{180} \text{ rad}$$

and

$$x^\circ = \frac{x \cdot \pi}{180} \text{ rad}$$

$$1 \text{ rad} = \left( \frac{180}{\pi} \right)^\circ$$

and

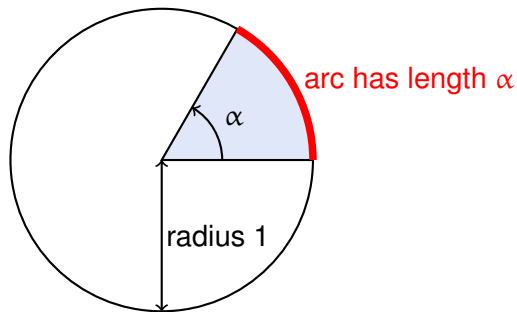
$$x \text{ rad} = \left( \frac{x \cdot 180}{\pi} \right)^\circ$$

# Angles: Radian

In Calculus, the default measurement for angles is **radian**.

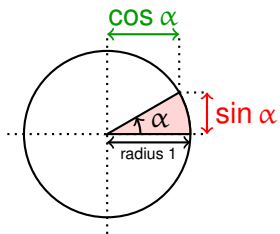
Historical note on radians:

- ▶ consider a circle with radius 1, and
- ▶ an sector of this circle with angle  $\alpha$  (radians)



Then the arc of the sector has length  $\alpha$  (equal to the angle).

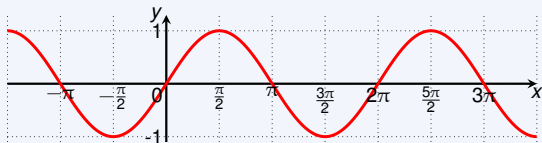
# Trigonometric Functions



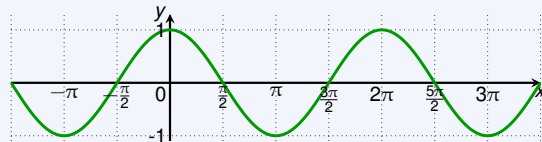
Properties of sin and cos:

- ▶ domain = ?
- ▶ range = ?

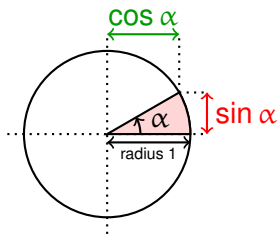
sin x



cos x



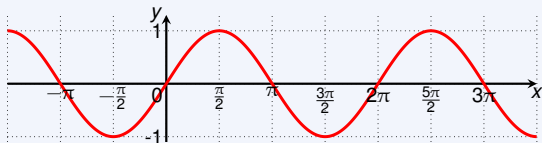
# Trigonometric Functions



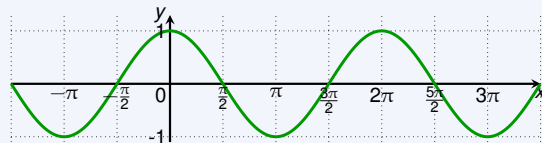
Properties of sin and cos:

- ▶ domain =  $(-\infty, \infty)$
- ▶ range =  $[-1, 1]$

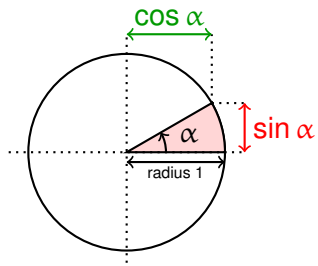
$\sin x$



$\cos x$

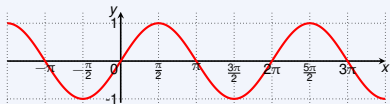


# Trigonometric Functions: Identities

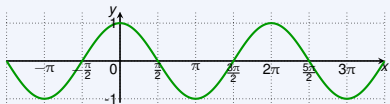


Important identities:

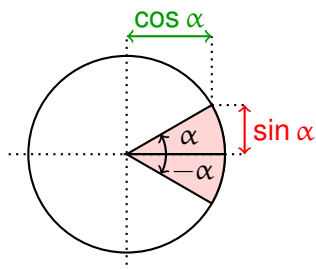
$\sin x$



$\cos x$



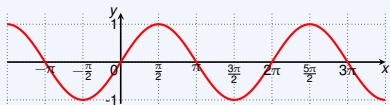
# Trigonometric Functions: Identities



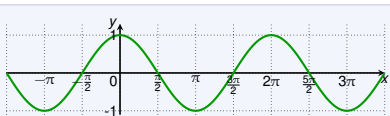
Important identities:

►  $\sin(-\alpha) = -\sin \alpha$  and  $\cos(-\alpha) = \cos \alpha$

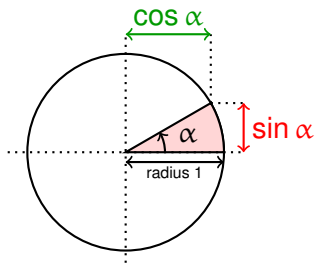
$\sin x$



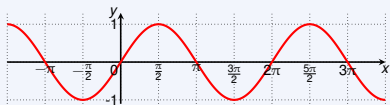
$\cos x$



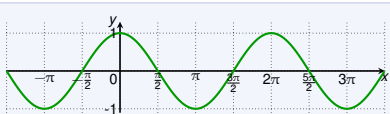
# Trigonometric Functions: Identities



$\sin x$



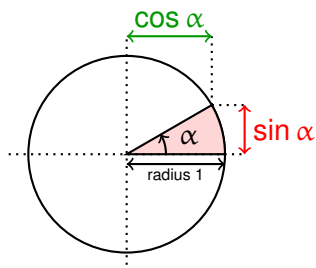
$\cos x$



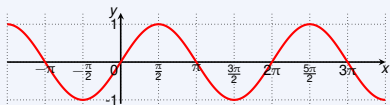
Important identities:

- ▶  $\sin(-\alpha) = -\sin \alpha$  and  $\cos(-\alpha) = \cos \alpha$
- ▶  $\sin(\alpha + 2\pi) = \sin \alpha$  and  $\cos(\alpha + 2\pi) = \cos \alpha$
- ▶  $\cos \alpha = \sin(\alpha \pm ?)$

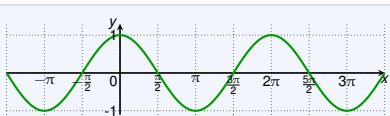
# Trigonometric Functions: Identities



$\sin x$



$\cos x$



Important identities:

- ▶  $\sin(-\alpha) = -\sin \alpha$  and  $\cos(-\alpha) = \cos \alpha$
- ▶  $\sin(\alpha + 2\pi) = \sin \alpha$  and  $\cos(\alpha + 2\pi) = \cos \alpha$
- ▶  $\cos \alpha = \sin(\alpha + \frac{\pi}{2})$
- ▶  $\sin^2 \alpha + \cos^2 \alpha = 1$  (follows from the Pythagorean theorem)

$\alpha$	0	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{2\pi}{3}$	$\frac{3\pi}{4}$	$\frac{5\pi}{6}$	$\pi$	$\frac{3\pi}{2}$	$2\pi$
$\sin \alpha$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	-1	0
$\cos \alpha$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	-1	0	1

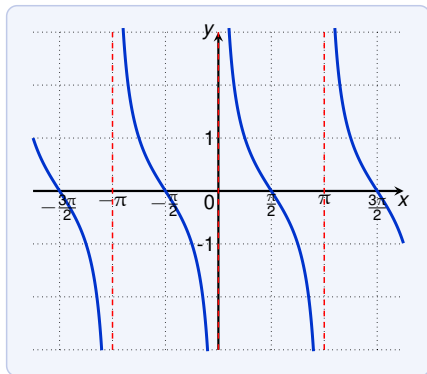
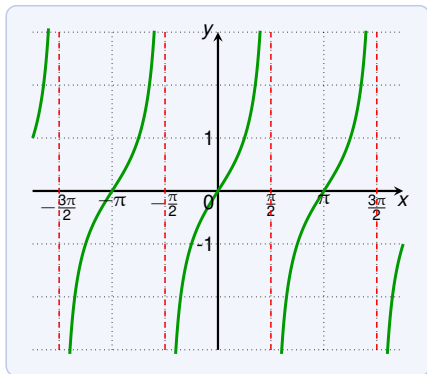


# Trigonometric Functions: Tangent and Cotangent

The tangent and cotangent are defined as:

$$\tan \alpha = \frac{\sin \alpha}{\cos \alpha}$$

$$\cot \alpha = \frac{\cos \alpha}{\sin \alpha}$$



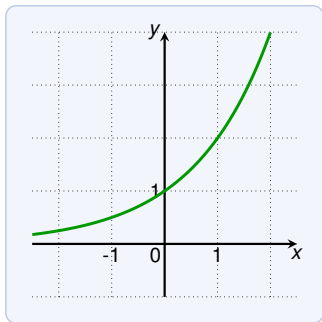
- ▶ range =  $(-\infty, \infty)$
- ▶ domain of  $\tan = \{x \mid \cos x \neq 0\} = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{\pi/2 + z\pi \mid z \in \mathbb{Z}\}$
- ▶ domain of  $\cot = \{x \mid \sin x \neq 0\} = \mathbb{R} \setminus \{z\pi \mid z \in \mathbb{Z}\}$

# Exponential Functions

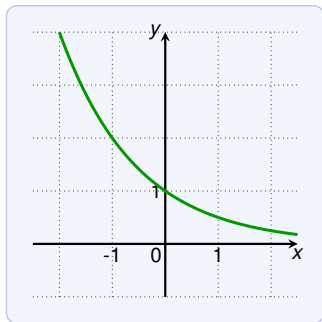
An **exponential function** is a function of the form

$$f(x) = a^x$$

where the **base**  $a$  is positive real number ( $a > 0$ ).



$$f(x) = 2^x$$



$$f(x) = 0.5^x$$

These functions are called exponential since the variable  $x$  is in the exponent. Do not confuse them with power functions  $x^a$ !

# Exponential Functions

How is  $a^x$  defined for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ?

For  $x = 0$  we have  $a^0 = 1$ .

For positive integers  $x = n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have

$$a^n = \underbrace{a \cdot a \cdot \dots \cdot a}_{n\text{-times}}$$

For negative integers  $x = -n$  we have

$$a^{-n} = \frac{1}{a^n}$$

For rational numbers  $x = \frac{p}{q}$  with  $p, q$  integers we have

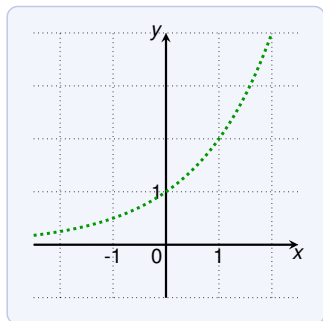
$$a^x = a^{\frac{p}{q}} = \sqrt[q]{a^p} = (\sqrt[q]{a})^p$$

$$4^{\frac{3}{2}} = (\sqrt[2]{4})^3 = 2^3 = 8$$

# Exponential Functions: Irrational Numbers

But what about irrational numbers? What is  $2^{\sqrt{3}}$  or  $5^{\pi}$ ?

Roughly, one can imagine the situation like in this figure:



We have defined the function for all rational points, and now want to close the gaps.

Clearly, the result should be an increasing function. . .

# Exponential Functions: Irrational Numbers

But what about irrational numbers? What is  $2^{\sqrt{3}}$  or  $5^{\pi}$ ?

By increasingness we know:

$$1.73 < \sqrt{3} < 1.74 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 2^{1.73} < 2^{\sqrt{3}} < 2^{1.74}$$

$$1.732 < \sqrt{3} < 1.733 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 2^{1.732} < 2^{\sqrt{3}} < 2^{1.733}$$

$$1.7320 < \sqrt{3} < 1.7321 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 2^{1.7320} < 2^{\sqrt{3}} < 2^{1.7321}$$

$$1.73205 < \sqrt{3} < 1.73206 \quad \Rightarrow \quad 2^{1.73205} < 2^{\sqrt{3}} < 2^{1.73206}$$

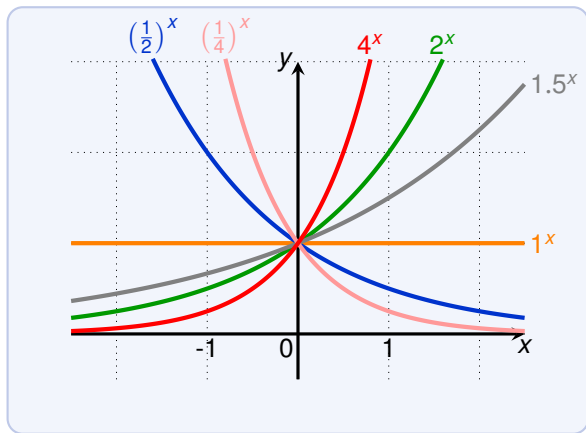
⋮

There is exactly one number that fulfills all **conditions** on the right.

E.g.,  $2^{1.73205} < 2^{\sqrt{3}} < 2^{1.73206}$  determines the first 6 digits:

$$2^{\sqrt{3}} \approx 3.321997$$

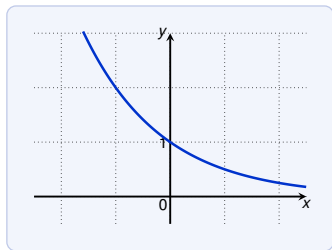
# Exponential Functions: Examples



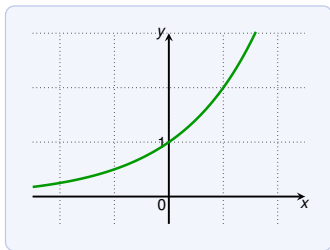
Properties:

- ▶ All exponential functions pass through  $(0, 1)$  (since  $a^0 = 1$ )
- ▶ Larger base  $a$  yields more rapid growth for  $x > 0$ .

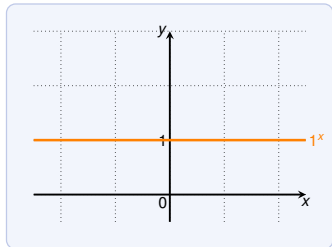
# Exponential Functions: Three Types



$$f(x) = a^x \text{ with } 0 < a < 1$$



$$f(x) = a^x \text{ with } a > 1$$



$$f(x) = 1^x$$

- ▶ constant for  $a = 1$
- ▶ increasing for  $a > 1$
- ▶ decreasing for  $0 < a < 1$
- ▶ domain =  $(-\infty, \infty)$
- ▶ range =  $(0, \infty)$  if  $a \neq 1$

# Laws of Exponents

## Laws of Exponents

If  $a$  and  $b$  are positive real numbers, then:

$$1. a^{x+y} = a^x \cdot a^y$$

$$2. a^{x-y} = \frac{a^x}{a^y}$$

$$3. (a^x)^y = a^{xy}$$

$$4. (ab)^x = a^x b^x$$

$$1. a^{3+4} = a \cdot a \cdot a \cdot a \cdot a \cdot a \cdot a = (a \cdot a \cdot a) \cdot (a \cdot a \cdot a \cdot a) = a^3 \cdot a^4$$

$$2. a^{5-2} = a \cdot a \cdot a = \frac{(a \cdot a \cdot a) \cdot (a \cdot a)}{a \cdot a} = \frac{a^5}{a^2}$$

$$3. (a^2)^3 = (a \cdot a)^3 = (a \cdot a) \cdot (a \cdot a) \cdot (a \cdot a) = a^6 = a^{2 \cdot 3}$$

$$4. (ab)^3 = (ab) \cdot (ab) \cdot (ab) = (a \cdot a \cdot a) \cdot (b \cdot b \cdot b) = a^3 b^3$$

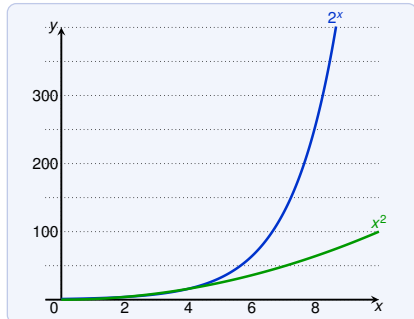
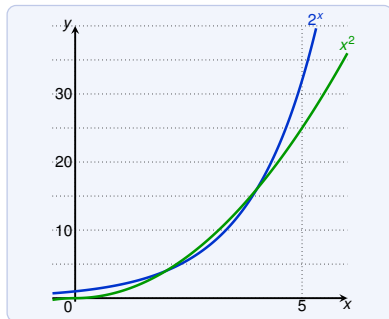


# Exponential Functions vs. Power Functions

Which function grows quicker when  $x$  is large:

$$f(x) = x^2$$

$$g(x) = 2^x$$



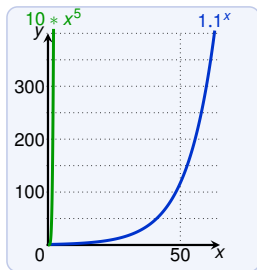
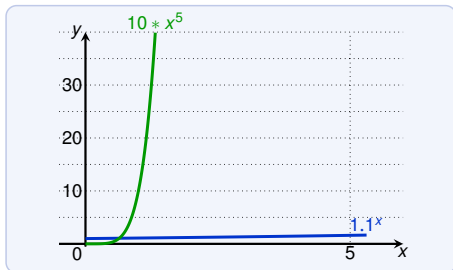
For large  $x$ , the function  $2^x$  grows much much faster than  $x^2$ .

# Exponential Functions vs. Power Functions

Which functions grows quicker when  $x$  is large:

$$f(x) = 10 \cdot x^5$$

$$g(x) = 1.1^x$$

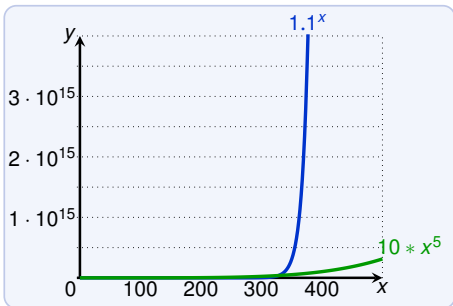


# Exponential Functions vs. Power Functions

Which function grows quicker when  $x$  is large:

$$f(x) = 10 \cdot x^5$$

$$g(x) = 1.1^x$$



For any  $1 < a$ , the **exponential function**  $f(x) = a^x$  grows for large  $x$  much **faster than any polynomial**.

# Exponential Functions: Applications

We consider a population of bacteria:

- ▶ suppose the population doubles every hour
- ▶ we write  $p(t)$  for the population after  $t$  hours
- ▶ initial population is  $p(0) = 1000$

We have:

$$p(1) = 2 \cdot p(0) = 2 \cdot 1000$$

$$p(2) = 2 \cdot p(1) = 2^2 \cdot 1000$$

$$p(3) = 2 \cdot p(2) = 2^3 \cdot 1000$$

⋮

Thus in general

$$p(t) = 1000 \cdot 2^t$$

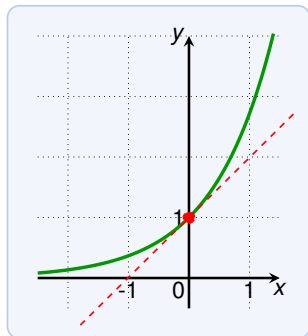
Under ideal conditions such rapid growth occurs in nature.

# Exponential Functions: The Number $e$

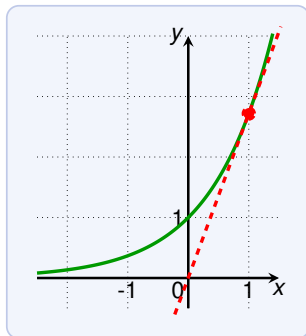
The number

$$e \approx 2.71828\dots$$

is a very special base for exponential functions.



tangent has slope  $1 = e^0$



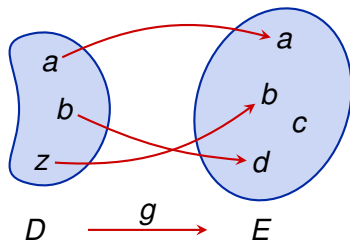
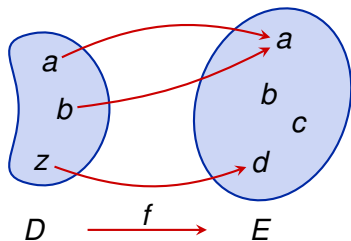
tangent has slope  $e = e^1$

The slope of the function  $e^x$  at point  $(x, e^x)$  is  $e^x$ .

# One-To-One Functions

A **one-to-one function** is a function that never takes the same value twice, that is:

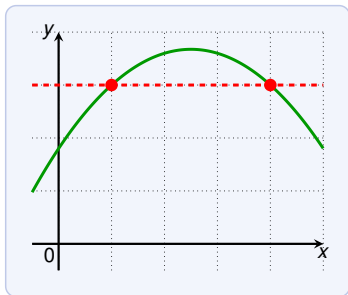
$$f(x) \neq f(y) \quad \text{whenever } x \neq y$$



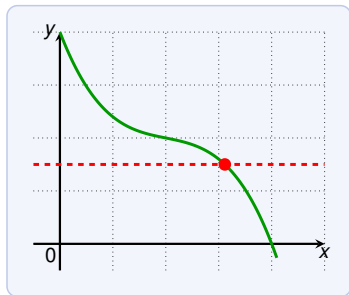
Which of these function is one-to-one? The function  $g$ .

# One-To-One Functions

How can we see from a graph if the function is one-to-one?



not one-to-one



one-to-one

## Horizontal Line Test

A function is one-to-one if and only if no horizontal line intersects its graph more than once.

# One-To-One Functions: Examples

Which of the following functions is one-to-one?

- ▶  $x^3$  ? Yes
- ▶  $x^2$  ? No
- ▶  $4^x$  ? Yes
- ▶  $x - x^3$  ? No
- ▶  $x + 4^x$  ? Yes
- ▶  $-x - x^3$  ? Yes

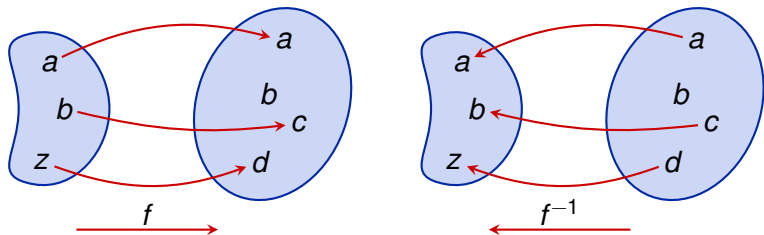


# Inverse Functions

A function  $g$  is the inverse of a function  $f$  if

$$g(f(x)) = x \quad \text{for all } x \text{ in the domain of } f$$

(and the domain of  $g$  is the range of  $f$ ).



A function  $f$  has an inverse if and only if  $f$  is one-to-one.

# Inverse Functions

The inverse of a one-to-one function can be defined as follows.

Let  $f$  be a one-to-one function with domain  $A$  and range  $B$ .

Then its **inverse function**  $f^{-1}$  is defined by:

$$f^{-1}(y) = x \iff f(x) = y$$

and has domain  $B$  and range  $A$ .

The inverse function of  $f(x) = x^3$  is  $f^{-1}(y) = y^{\frac{1}{3}}$ :

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = f^{-1}(x^3) = (x^3)^{\frac{1}{3}} = x$$

We have the following **cancellation equations**:

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

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

# Inverse Functions

To find the inverse function of  $f$ :

- ▶ solve the equation  $y = f(x)$  for  $x$  in terms of  $y$

Find the inverse function of  $f(x) = x^3 + 2$ .

$$y = x^3 + 2$$

$$\implies x^3 = y - 2$$

$$\implies x = \sqrt[3]{y - 2}$$

Therefore the inverse function of  $f$  is  $f^{-1}(y) = \sqrt[3]{y - 2}$

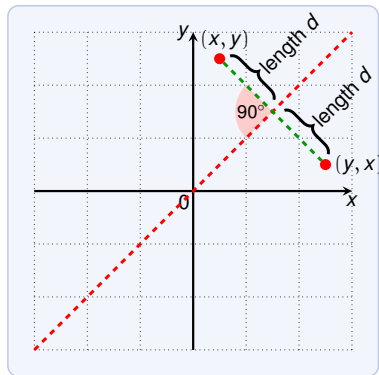
# Inverse Functions: Graphs

We have  $f(x) = y \iff f^{-1}(y) = x$  and hence

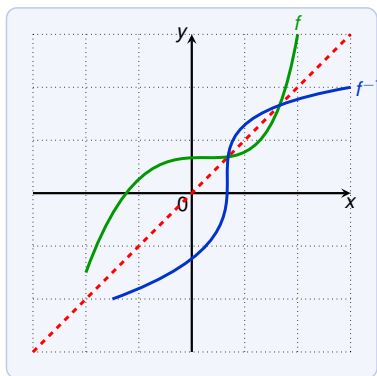
point  $(x, y)$  in the graph of  $f$

$\iff$

point  $(y, x)$  in the graph of  $f^{-1}$



reflected about the line  $y = x$



# Logarithmic Functions

The **logarithmic functions**

$$f(x) = \log_a x$$

where  $a > 0$  and  $a \neq 1$ .

The function  $\log_a x$  is the inverse of the exponential function  $a^x$ :

$$\log_a y = x \iff a^x = y$$

The logarithm  $\log_a b$  gives us the exponent for  $a$  to get  $b$ .

For example:  $\log_{10} 0.001 = -3$  since  $10^{-3} = 0.001$ .

The logarithmic functions  $\log_a x$  have:

- ▶ domain =  $(0, \infty)$
- ▶ range =  $\mathbb{R}$

# Logarithmic Functions

We have the following cancellation equations:

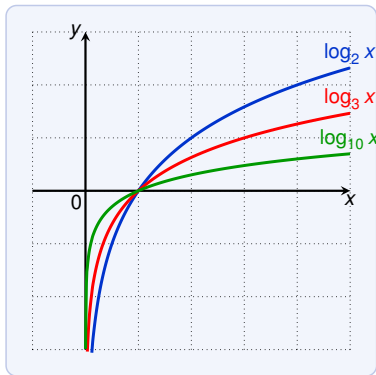
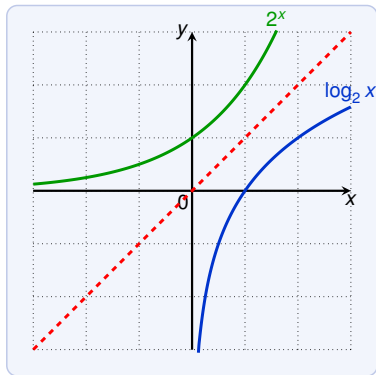
$$\log_a(a^x) = x \quad \text{for every } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$a^{\log_a x} = x \quad \text{for every } x > 0$$

$$\log_{10}(10^{23}) = 23$$

$$5^{\log_5 7} = 7$$

# Logarithmic Functions



For  $a > 1$ ,  $f(x) = a^x$  grows very fast.

As a consequence:

For  $a > 1$ ,  $f(x) = \log_a x$  grows very slow.

# Logarithmic Functions: Laws of Logarithm

If  $x, y > 0$ , then

1.  $\log_a(xy) = \log_a(x) + \log_a(y)$
2.  $\log_a\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_a(x) - \log_a(y)$
3.  $\log_a(x^r) = r \log_a x$

$$\log_2 80 - \log_2 5 = \log_2\left(\frac{80}{5}\right) = \log_2 16 = 4$$

We can prove the laws from the laws for exponents.

1.  $\log_a(xy) = z \iff a^z = xy$   
and  $a^{\log_a(x) + \log_a(y)} = a^{\log_a(x)} \cdot a^{\log_a(y)} = xy$
3.  $\log_a(x^r) = z \iff a^z = x^r$   
and  $a^{r \log_a(x)} = (a^{\log_a(x)})^r = x^r$



# Logarithmic Functions: Base Conversion

If we want to compute  $\log_a x$  but have only  $\log_b$  then we can:

## Base Conversion

$$\log_a x = \frac{\log_b x}{\log_b a}$$

Compute  $\log_4 16$  using  $\log_2$ .

$$\log_4 16 = \frac{\log_2 16}{\log_2 4} = \frac{4}{2} = 2$$

# Natural Logarithm

The **natural logarithm**  $\ln$  is a special logarithm with base  $e$ :

$$\ln x = \log_e x$$

Solve the equation  $e^{5-3x} = 10$ .

$$\ln(e^{5-3x}) = \ln 10 \quad \text{apply natural logarithm on both sides}$$

$$5 - 3x = \ln 10$$

$$3x = 5 - \ln 10$$

$$x = \frac{5 - \ln 10}{3}$$

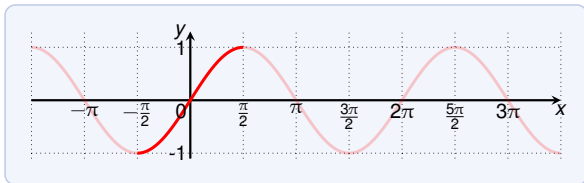
Express  $\ln a + \frac{1}{2} \ln b$  in a single logarithm.

$$\ln a + \frac{1}{2} \ln b = \ln a + \ln b^{\frac{1}{2}} = \ln a + \ln \sqrt{b} = \ln(a\sqrt{b})$$

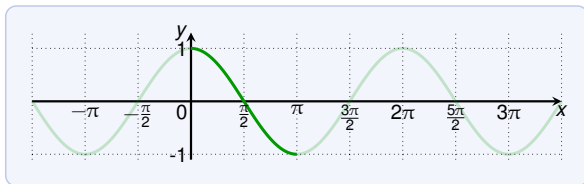
# Inverse Trigonometric Functions

We are interested in inverse functions of:

$\sin x$



$\cos x$

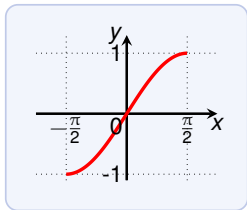


Problem: **these functions are not one-to-one!**

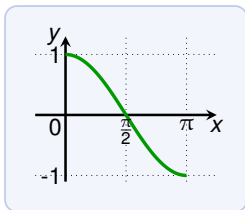
Solution: we restrict their domain

- ▶ for  $\sin$  we restrict the domain to  $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$
- ▶ for  $\cos$  we restrict the domain to  $[0, \pi]$

# Inverse Trigonometric Functions



$\sin x$  restricted to  $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$



$\cos x$  restricted to  $[0, \pi]$

From  $f^{-1}(y) = x \iff f(x) = y$  we get:

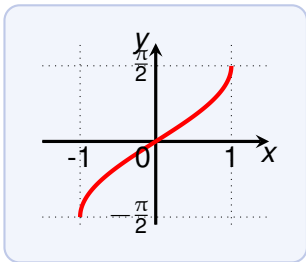
$$\sin^{-1}(y) = x \iff \sin(x) = y \text{ and } -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\cos^{-1}(y) = x \iff \cos(x) = y \text{ and } 0 \leq x \leq \pi$$

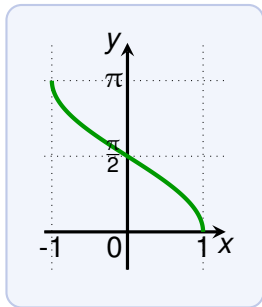
The **inverse sine function**  $\sin^{-1}$  is also denoted by  $\arcsin$ .

The **inverse cosine function**  $\cos^{-1}$  is denoted by  $\arccos$ .

# Inverse Trigonometric



$\arcsin x$



$\arccos x$

The domain of  $\arcsin$  and  $\arccos$  is  $[-1, 1]$ .

The range of  $\arcsin$  is  $[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}]$  and of  $\arccos$  is  $[0, \pi]$ .

# Inverse Trigonometric: Cancellation Equations

The cancellation equations are:

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

$$\sin(\arcsin x) = x \quad \text{for } -1 \leq x \leq 1$$

$$\arccos(\cos x) = x \quad \text{for } 0 \leq x \leq \pi$$

$$\cos(\arccos x) = x \quad \text{for } -1 \leq x \leq 1$$

# Inverse Trigonometric: Examples

$\alpha$	0	$\frac{\pi}{6}$	$\frac{\pi}{4}$	$\frac{\pi}{3}$	$\frac{\pi}{2}$	$\frac{2\pi}{3}$	$\frac{3\pi}{4}$	$\frac{5\pi}{6}$	$\pi$	$\frac{3\pi}{2}$	$2\pi$
$\sin \alpha$	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	-1	0
$\cos \alpha$	1	$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	$-\frac{1}{2}$	$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$	$-\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}$	-1	0	1

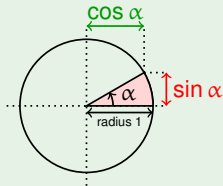
$$\sin^{-1}(y) = x \iff \sin(x) = y \text{ and } -\frac{\pi}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$$

$$\cos^{-1}(y) = x \iff \cos(x) = y \text{ and } 0 \leq x \leq \pi$$

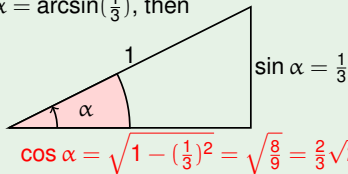
Evaluate the following:

►  $\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{6}$

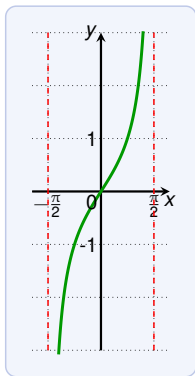
►  $\tan(\arcsin(\frac{1}{3})) = \frac{\sin(\arcsin(\frac{1}{3}))}{\cos(\arcsin(\frac{1}{3}))} = \frac{\frac{1}{3}}{\frac{2}{3}\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}$



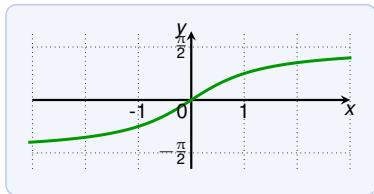
Let  $\alpha = \arcsin(\frac{1}{3})$ , then



# Trigonometric Functions: Inverse Tangent



$\tan x$  restricted to  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$



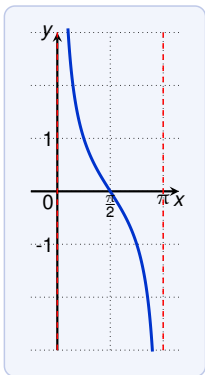
$\tan^{-1} x$  or  $\arctan x$

$$\tan^{-1} y = x \iff \tan x = y \text{ and } -\frac{\pi}{2} < x < \frac{\pi}{2}$$

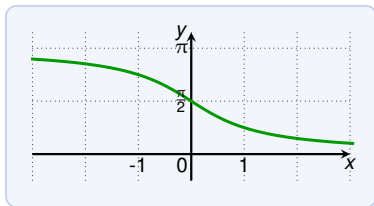
The function  $\arctan$  has domain  $(-\infty, \infty)$  and range  $(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$ .



# Trigonometric Functions: Inverse Cotangent



$\cot x$  restricted to  $(0, \pi)$



$\cot^{-1} x$

$$\cot^{-1} y = x \iff \cot x = y \text{ and } 0 < x < \pi$$

The function  $\cot^{-1}$  has domain  $(-\infty, \infty)$  and range  $(0, \pi)$ .

# Exercises

Classify the following functions as one of the types that we have discussed:

1.  $f(x) = 5^x$  is an exponential function
2.  $g(x) = x^5$  is a power function, a polynomial of degree 5, a rational function and an algebraic function.
3.  $h(x) = \frac{1+x}{1-\sqrt{x}}$  is an algebraic function.
4.  $u(t) = 1 - t + 5t^4$  is a polynomial of degree 4, a rational function and an algebraic function.
5.  $v(x) = x^{-3}$  is a power function, a rational function and an algebraic function.
6.  $p(x) = x^{-\frac{1}{3}}$  is a power function, and an algebraic function.
7.  $z(x) = \frac{1+x}{3+x^2}$  is a rational function, and algebraic function.

# Exercises

Assume that a ball is dropped, and we have the following measurements:

- ▶ height at time 0s is 490m
- ▶ height at time 2s is 472m
- ▶ height at time 4s is 414m

Find a quadratic function for the height of the ball after time  $t$ .  
When does the ball hit the ground?

We look for a function of the form:

$$h(t) = at^2 + bt + c$$

We know

$$h(0) = c = 490$$

$$h(2) = 2^2a + 2b + 490 = 472$$

$$h(4) = 4^2a + 4b + 490 = 414$$

# Exercises

We know  $c = 490$  and

$$(1) \quad h(2) = 2^2 a + 2b + 490 = 472$$

$$(2) \quad h(4) = 4^2 a + 4b + 490 = 414$$

We simplify

$$(1) \quad 4a + 2b + 18 = 0$$

$$(2) \quad 16a + 4b + 76 = 0$$

We solve by taking  $(2) - 2 \cdot (1)$ :

$$h(2) = 8a + 40 = 0 \quad \implies \quad 8a = -40 \implies a = -5$$

We get  $b$  by plugging  $a = -5$  in (1):

$$4 \cdot (-5) + 2b + 18 = 0 \quad \implies \quad 2b = 2 \implies b = 1$$

Thus  $h(t) = -5t^2 + t + 490$ .

## Exercises

Formula for the height:

$$h(t) = -5t^2 + t + 490$$

When does the ball hit the ground? When the height is 0:

$$-5t^2 + t + 490 = 0 \quad \implies \quad t^2 - \frac{t}{5} - 98 = 0$$

Solving the quadratic formula:

$$t = \frac{1}{10} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{10}\right)^2 + 98} = \frac{1}{10} \pm \sqrt{\frac{1}{100} + \frac{9800}{100}} = \frac{1}{10} \pm \frac{\sqrt{9801}}{10}$$

We know  $100^2 = 10000$  and  $(100 - n)^2 = 10000 - 200n + n^2$ .  
Thus  $\sqrt{9801} = 99$ .

$$t = \frac{1}{10} \pm \frac{99}{10} \quad \implies \quad t = 10 \quad \text{or} \quad t = -\frac{98}{10}$$

Thus the ball hits the ground after 10 seconds.