Composites Involving Exponential Functions

Find the domain and range for each of the functions in Exercises 21–24.

21. $f(x) = \dfrac{1}{2 + e^x}$

22. $g(t) = \cos(e^{-t})$

23. $g(t) = \sqrt{1 + 3^{-t}}$

24. $f(x) = \dfrac{3}{1 - e^{2x}}$

Applications

T In Exercises 25–28, use graphs to find approximate solutions.

25. $2^x = 5$

26. $e^x = 4$

27. $3^x - 0.5 = 0$

28. $3 - 2^{-x} = 0$

T In Exercises 29–36, use an exponential model and a graphing calculator to estimate the answer in each problem.

29. Population growth The population of Knoxville is 500,000 and is increasing at the rate of 3.75% each year. Approximately when will the population reach 1 million?

30. Population growth The population of Silver Run in the year 1890 was 6250. Assume the population increased at a rate of 2.75% per year.

a. Estimate the population in 1915 and 1940.

b. Approximately when did the population reach 50,000?

31. Radioactive decay The half-life of phosphorus-32 is about 14 days. There are 6.6 grams present initially.

a. Express the amount of phosphorus-32 remaining as a function of time t.

b. When will there be 1 gram remaining?

32. If John invests \$2300 in a savings account with a 6% interest rate compounded annually, how long will it take until John's account has a balance of \$4150?

33. Doubling your money Determine how much time is required for an investment to double in value if interest is earned at the rate of 6.25% compounded annually.

34. Tripling your money Determine how much time is required for an investment to triple in value if interest is earned at the rate of 5.75% compounded continuously.

35. Cholera bacteria Suppose that a colony of bacteria starts with 1 bacterium and doubles in number every half hour. How many bacteria will the colony contain at the end of 24 hr?

36. Eliminating a disease Suppose that in any given year the number of cases of a disease is reduced by 20%. If there are 10,000 cases today, how many years will it take

a. to reduce the number of cases to 1000?

b. to eliminate the disease; that is, to reduce the number of cases to less than 1?

1.6 Inverse Functions and Logarithms

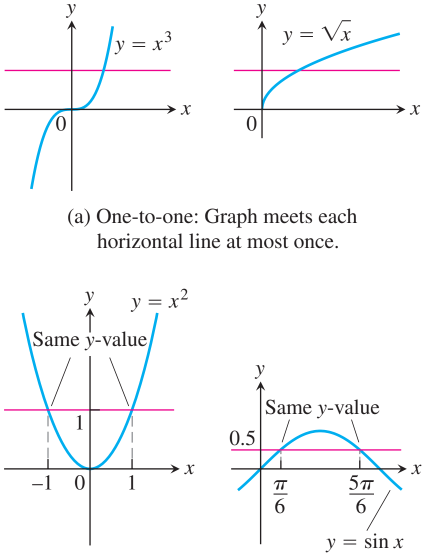
A function that undoes, or inverts, the effect of a function f is called the *inverse* of f. Many common functions, though not all, are paired with an inverse. In this section we present the natural logarithmic function $y = \ln x$ as the inverse of the exponential function $y = e^x$, and we also give examples of several inverse trigonometric functions.

One-to-One Functions

A function is a rule that assigns a value from its range to each element in its domain. Some functions assign the same range value to more than one element in the domain. The function $f(x) = x^2$ assigns the same value, 1, to both of the numbers -1 and $+1$; the sines of $\pi/3$ and $2\pi/3$ are both $\sqrt{3}/2$. Other functions assume each value in their range no more than once. The square roots and cubes of different numbers are always different. A function that has distinct values at distinct elements in its domain is called one-to-one. These functions take on any one value in their range exactly once.

DEFINITION A function $f(x)$ is **one-to-one** on a domain D if $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ whenever $x_1 \neq x_2$ in D.

EXAMPLE 1 Some functions are one-to-one on their entire natural domain. Other functions are not one-to-one on their entire domain, but by restricting the function to a smaller domain we can create a function that is one-to-one. The original and restricted functions are not the same functions, because they have different domains. However, the two functions have the same values on the smaller domain, so the original function is an extension of the restricted function from its smaller domain to the larger domain.



(a) One-to-one: Graph meets each horizontal line at most once.

(b) Not one-to-one: Graph meets one or more horizontal lines more than once.

FIGURE 1.60 (a) $y = x^3$ and $y = \sqrt{x}$ are one-to-one on their domains $(-\infty, \infty)$ and $[0, \infty)$. (b) $y = x^2$ and $y = \sin x$ are not one-to-one on their domains $(-\infty, \infty)$.

(a) $f(x) = \sqrt{x}$ is one-to-one on any domain of nonnegative numbers because $\sqrt{x_1} \neq \sqrt{x_2}$ whenever $x_1 \neq x_2$.

(b) $g(x) = \sin x$ is *not* one-to-one on the interval $[0, \pi]$ because $\sin(\pi/6) = \sin(5\pi/6)$. In fact, for each element x_1 in the subinterval $[0, \pi/2)$ there is a corresponding element x_2 in the subinterval $(\pi/2, \pi]$ satisfying $\sin x_1 = \sin x_2$, so distinct elements in the domain are assigned to the same value in the range. The sine function *is* one-to-one on $[0, \pi/2]$, however, because it is an increasing function on $[0, \pi/2]$ giving distinct outputs for distinct inputs. ∎

The graph of a one-to-one function $y = f(x)$ can intersect a given horizontal line at most once. If the function intersects the line more than once, it assumes the same y-value for at least two different x-values and is therefore not one-to-one (Figure 1.60).

The Horizontal Line Test for One-to-One Functions

A function $y = f(x)$ is one-to-one if and only if its graph intersects each horizontal line at most once.

Inverse Functions

Since each output of a one-to-one function comes from just one input, the effect of the function can be inverted to send an output back to the input from which it came.

DEFINITION Suppose that f is a one-to-one function on a domain D with range R. The **inverse function** f^{-1} is defined by

$$f^{-1}(b) = a \text{ if } f(a) = b.$$

The domain of f^{-1} is R and the range of f^{-1} is D.

The symbol f^{-1} for the inverse of f is read "f inverse." The "-1" in f^{-1} is *not* an exponent; $f^{-1}(x)$ does not mean $1/f(x)$. Notice that the domains and ranges of f and f^{-1} are interchanged.

EXAMPLE 2 Suppose a one-to-one function $y = f(x)$ is given by a table of values

x	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
$f(x)$	3	4.5	7	10.5	15	20.5	27	34.5

A table for the values of $x = f^{-1}(y)$ can then be obtained by simply interchanging the values in the columns (or rows) of the table for f:

y	3	4.5	7	10.5	15	20.5	27	34.5
$f^{-1}(y)$	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

∎

If we apply f to send an input x to the output $f(x)$ and follow by applying f^{-1} to $f(x)$ we get right back to x, just where we started. Similarly, if we take some number y in the range of f, apply f^{-1} to it, and then apply f to the resulting value $f^{-1}(y)$, we get back the value y with which we began. Composing a function and its inverse has the same effect as doing nothing.

$$(f^{-1} \circ f)(x) = x, \qquad \text{for all } x \text{ in the domain of } f$$

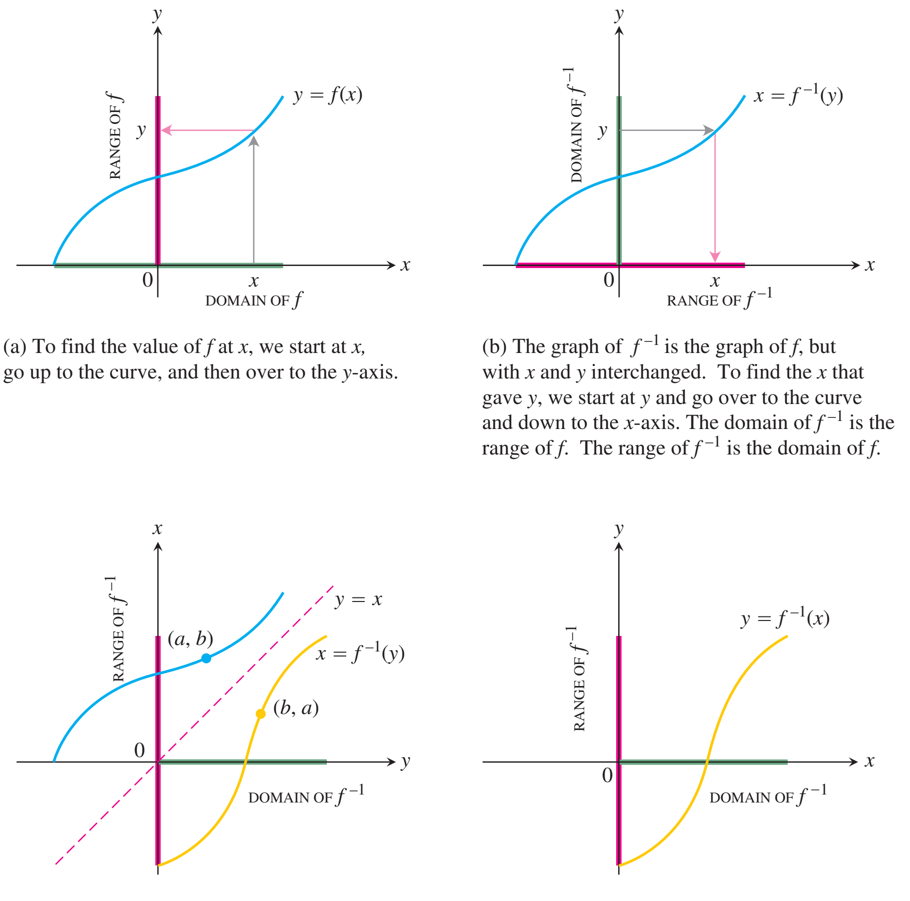
$$(f \circ f^{-1})(y) = y, \qquad \text{for all } y \text{ in the domain of } f^{-1} \text{ (or range of } f\text{)}$$

Only a one-to-one function can have an inverse. The reason is that if $f(x_1) = y$ and $f(x_2) = y$ for two distinct inputs x_1 and x_2, then there is no way to assign a value to $f^{-1}(y)$ that satisfies both $f^{-1}(f(x_1)) = x_1$ and $f^{-1}(f(x_2)) = x_2$.

A function that is increasing on an interval so it satisfies the inequality $f(x_2) > f(x_1)$ when $x_2 > x_1$ is one-to-one and has an inverse. Decreasing functions also have an inverse. Functions that are neither increasing nor decreasing may still be one-to-one and have an inverse, as with the function $f(x) = 1/x$ for $x \neq 0$ and $f(0) = 0$, defined on $(-\infty, \infty)$ and passing the horizontal line test.

Finding Inverses

The graphs of a function and its inverse are closely related. To read the value of a function from its graph, we start at a point x on the x-axis, go vertically to the graph, and then move horizontally to the y-axis to read the value of y. The inverse function can be read from the graph by reversing this process. Start with a point y on the y-axis, go horizontally to the graph of $y = f(x)$, and then move vertically to the x-axis to read the value of $x = f^{-1}(y)$ (Figure 1.61).



(a) To find the value of f at x, we start at x, go up to the curve, and then over to the y-axis.

(b) The graph of f^{-1} is the graph of f, but with x and y interchanged. To find the x that gave y, we start at y and go over to the curve and down to the x-axis. The domain of f^{-1} is the range of f. The range of f^{-1} is the domain of f.

(c) To draw the graph of f^{-1} in the more usual way, we reflect the system across the line $y = x$.

(d) Then we interchange the letters x and y. We now have a normal-looking graph of f^{-1} as a function of x.

FIGURE 1.61 Determining the graph of $y = f^{-1}(x)$ from the graph of $y = f(x)$. The graph of f^{-1} is obtained by reflecting the graph of f about the line $y = x$.

We want to set up the graph of f^{-1} so that its input values lie along the x-axis, as is usually done for functions, rather than on the y-axis. To achieve this we interchange the x

and y axes by reflecting across the 45° line $y = x$. After this reflection we have a new graph that represents f^{-1}. The value of $f^{-1}(x)$ can now be read from the graph in the usual way, by starting with a point x on the x-axis, going vertically to the graph, and then horizontally to the y-axis to get the value of $f^{-1}(x)$. Figure 1.61 indicates the relationship between the graphs of f and f^{-1}. The graphs are interchanged by reflection through the line $y = x$.

The process of passing from f to f^{-1} can be summarized as a two-step procedure.

1. Solve the equation $y = f(x)$ for x. This gives a formula $x = f^{-1}(y)$ where x is expressed as a function of y.
2. Interchange x and y, obtaining a formula $y = f^{-1}(x)$ where f^{-1} is expressed in the conventional format with x as the independent variable and y as the dependent variable.

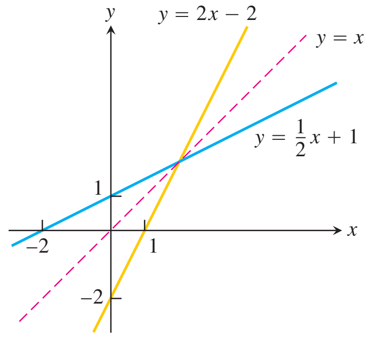


FIGURE 1.62 Graphing $f(x) = (1/2)x + 1$ and $f^{-1}(x) = 2x - 2$ together shows the graphs' symmetry with respect to the line $y = x$ (Example 3).

EXAMPLE 3 Find the inverse of $y = \frac{1}{2}x + 1$, expressed as a function of x.

Solution

1. *Solve for x in terms of y*:
$$y = \frac{1}{2}x + 1$$
$$2y = x + 2$$
$$x = 2y - 2.$$
2. *Interchange x and y*: $y = 2x - 2$.

The inverse of the function $f(x) = (1/2)x + 1$ is the function $f^{-1}(x) = 2x - 2$. (See Figure 1.62.) To check, we verify that both composites give the identity function:

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = 2\left(\frac{1}{2}x + 1\right) - 2 = x + 2 - 2 = x$$

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

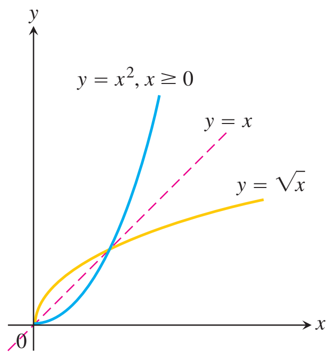


FIGURE 1.63 The functions $y = \sqrt{x}$ and $y = x^2, x \geq 0$, are inverses of one another (Example 4).

EXAMPLE 4 Find the inverse of the function $y = x^2, x \geq 0$, expressed as a function of x.

Solution We first solve for x in terms of y:

$$y = x^2$$
$$\sqrt{y} = \sqrt{x^2} = |x| = x \qquad |x| = x \text{ because } x \geq 0$$

We then interchange x and y, obtaining

$$y = \sqrt{x}.$$

The inverse of the function $y = x^2, x \geq 0$, is the function $y = \sqrt{x}$ (Figure 1.63).

Notice that the function $y = x^2, x \geq 0$, with domain *restricted* to the nonnegative real numbers, *is* one-to-one (Figure 1.63) and has an inverse. On the other hand, the function $y = x^2$, with no domain restrictions, *is not* one-to-one (Figure 1.60b) and therefore has no inverse. $\blacksquare$

Logarithmic Functions

If a is any positive real number other than 1, the base a exponential function $f(x) = a^x$ is one-to-one. It therefore has an inverse. Its inverse is called the *logarithm function with base a*.

> **DEFINITION** The **logarithm function with base *a***, $y = \log_a x$, is the inverse of the base a exponential function $y = a^x$ $(a > 0, a \neq 1)$.

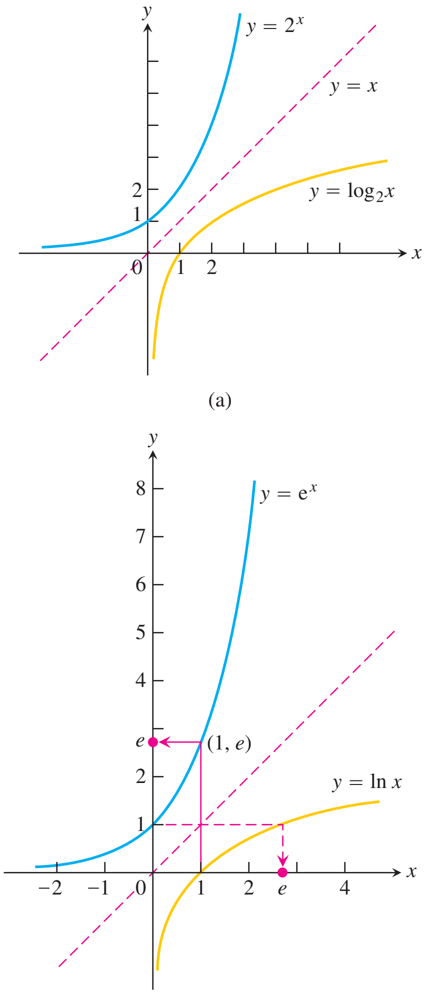


FIGURE 1.64 (a) The graph of 2^x and its inverse, $\log_2 x$. (b) The graph of e^x and its inverse, $\ln x$.

HISTORICAL BIOGRAPHY*

John Napier
(1550–1617)

The domain of $\log_a x$ is $(0, \infty)$, the range of a^x. The range of $\log_a x$ is $(-\infty, \infty)$, the domain of a^x.

Figure 1.23 in Section 1.1 shows the graphs of four logarithmic functions with $a > 1$. Figure 1.64a shows the graph of $y = \log_2 x$. The graph of $y = a^x$, $a > 1$, increases rapidly for $x > 0$, so its inverse, $y = \log_a x$, increases slowly for $x > 1$.

Because we have no technique yet for solving the equation $y = a^x$ for x in terms of y, we do not have an explicit formula for computing the logarithm at a given value of x. Nevertheless, we can obtain the graph of $y = \log_a x$ by reflecting the graph of the exponential $y = a^x$ across the line $y = x$. Figure 1.64 shows the graphs for $a = 2$ and $a = e$.

Logarithms with base 2 are commonly used in computer science. Logarithms with base e and base 10 are so important in applications that calculators have special keys for them. They also have their own special notation and names:

$$\log_e x \quad \text{is written as} \quad \ln x.$$
$$\log_{10} x \quad \text{is written as} \quad \log x.$$

The function $y = \ln x$ is called the **natural logarithm function**, and $y = \log x$ is often called the **common logarithm function**. For the natural logarithm,

$$\boxed{\ln x = y \iff e^y = x.}$$

In particular, if we set $x = e$, we obtain

$$\boxed{\ln e = 1}$$

because $e^1 = e$.

Properties of Logarithms

Logarithms, invented by John Napier, were the single most important improvement in arithmetic calculation before the modern electronic computer. What made them so useful is that the properties of logarithms reduce multiplication of positive numbers to addition of their logarithms, division of positive numbers to subtraction of their logarithms, and exponentiation of a number to multiplying its logarithm by the exponent.

We summarize these properties for the natural logarithm as a series of rules that we prove in Chapter 3. Although here we state the Power Rule for all real powers r, the case when r is an irrational number cannot be dealt with properly until Chapter 4. We also establish the validity of the rules for logarithmic functions with any base a in Chapter 7.

THEOREM 1—Algebraic Properties of the Natural Logarithm For any numbers $b > 0$ and $x > 0$, the natural logarithm satisfies the following rules:

1. *Product Rule*: $\ln bx = \ln b + \ln x$
2. *Quotient Rule*: $\ln \dfrac{b}{x} = \ln b - \ln x$
3. *Reciprocal Rule*: $\ln \dfrac{1}{x} = -\ln x$ Rule 2 with $b = 1$
4. *Power Rule*: $\ln x^r = r \ln x$

*To learn more about the historical figures mentioned in the text and the development of many major elements and topics of calculus, visit **www.aw.com/thomas**.

EXAMPLE 5 Here are examples of the properties in Theorem 1.

(a) $\ln 4 + \ln \sin x = \ln(4 \sin x)$ Product Rule

(b) $\ln \dfrac{x+1}{2x-3} = \ln(x+1) - \ln(2x-3)$ Quotient Rule

(c) $\ln \dfrac{1}{8} = -\ln 8$ Reciprocal Rule

$= -\ln 2^3 = -3 \ln 2$ Power Rule ■

Because a^x and $\log_a x$ are inverses, composing them in either order gives the identity function.

> **Inverse Properties for a^x and $\log_a x$**
>
> **1.** Base a: $a^{\log_a x} = x, \quad \log_a a^x = x, \quad a > 0, a \neq 1, x > 0$
>
> **2.** Base e: $e^{\ln x} = x, \quad \ln e^x = x, \quad x > 0$

Substituting a^x for x in the equation $x = e^{\ln x}$ enables us to rewrite a^x as a power of e:

$$\begin{aligned} a^x &= e^{\ln(a^x)} && \text{Substitute } a^x \text{ for } x \text{ in } x = e^{\ln x}. \\ &= e^{x \ln a} && \text{Power Rule for logs} \\ &= e^{(\ln a)x}. && \text{Exponent rearranged} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the exponential function a^x is the same as e^{kx} for $k = \ln a$.

> Every exponential function is a power of the natural exponential function.
>
> $$a^x = e^{x \ln a}$$
>
> That is, a^x is the same as e^x raised to the power $\ln a$: $a^x = e^{kx}$ for $k = \ln a$.

For example,

$$2^x = e^{(\ln 2)x} = e^{x \ln 2}, \quad \text{and} \quad 5^{-3x} = e^{(\ln 5)(-3x)} = e^{-3x \ln 5}.$$

Returning once more to the properties of a^x and $\log_a x$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \ln x &= \ln(a^{\log_a x}) && \text{Inverse Property for } a^x \text{ and } \log_a x \\ &= (\log_a x)(\ln a). && \text{Power Rule for logarithms, with } r = \log_a x \end{aligned}$$

Rewriting this equation as $\log_a x = (\ln x)/(\ln a)$ shows that every logarithmic function is a constant multiple of the natural logarithm $\ln x$. This allows us to extend the algebraic properties for $\ln x$ to $\log_a x$. For instance, $\log_a bx = \log_a b + \log_a x$.

> **Change of Base Formula**
>
> Every logarithmic function is a constant multiple of the natural logarithm.
>
> $$\log_a x = \frac{\ln x}{\ln a} \qquad (a > 0, a \neq 1)$$

Applications

In Section 1.5 we looked at examples of exponential growth and decay problems. Here we use properties of logarithms to answer more questions concerning such problems.

EXAMPLE 6 If \$1000 is invested in an account that earns 5.25% interest compounded annually, how long will it take the account to reach \$2500?

Solution From Example 1, Section 1.5 with $P = 1000$ and $r = 0.0525$, the amount in the account at any time t in years is $1000(1.0525)^t$, so we need to solve the equation

$$1000(1.0525)^t = 2500.$$

Thus we have

$$\begin{aligned}
(1.0525)^t &= 2.5 && \text{Divide by 1000.}\\
\ln(1.0525)^t &= \ln 2.5 && \text{Take logarithms of both sides.}\\
t \ln 1.0525 &= \ln 2.5 && \text{Power Rule}\\
t &= \frac{\ln 2.5}{\ln 1.0525} \approx 17.9 && \text{Values obtained by calculator}
\end{aligned}$$

The amount in the account will reach \$2500 in 18 years, when the annual interest payment is deposited for that year. ■

EXAMPLE 7 The **half-life** of a radioactive element is the time required for half of the radioactive nuclei present in a sample to decay. It is a remarkable fact that the half-life is a constant that does not depend on the number of radioactive nuclei initially present in the sample, but only on the radioactive substance.

To see why, let y_0 be the number of radioactive nuclei initially present in the sample. Then the number y present at any later time t will be $y = y_0 e^{-kt}$. We seek the value of t at which the number of radioactive nuclei present equals half the original number:

$$\begin{aligned}
y_0 e^{-kt} &= \frac{1}{2} y_0\\
e^{-kt} &= \frac{1}{2}\\
-kt &= \ln\frac{1}{2} = -\ln 2 && \text{Reciprocal Rule for logarithms}\\
t &= \frac{\ln 2}{k}. && (1)
\end{aligned}$$

This value of t is the half-life of the element. It depends only on the value of k; the number y_0 does not have any effect.

The effective radioactive lifetime of polonium-210 is so short that we measure it in days rather than years. The number of radioactive atoms remaining after t days in a sample that starts with y_0 radioactive atoms is

$$y = y_0 e^{-5\times 10^{-3} t}.$$

The element's half-life is

$$\begin{aligned}
\text{Half-life} &= \frac{\ln 2}{k} && \text{Eq. (1)}\\
&= \frac{\ln 2}{5 \times 10^{-3}} && \text{The } k \text{ from polonium's decay equation}\\
&\approx 139 \text{ days.}
\end{aligned}$$

■

Inverse Trigonometric Functions

The six basic trigonometric functions of a general radian angle x were reviewed in Section 1.3. These functions are not one-to-one (their values repeat periodically). However, we can restrict their domains to intervals on which they are one-to-one. The sine function

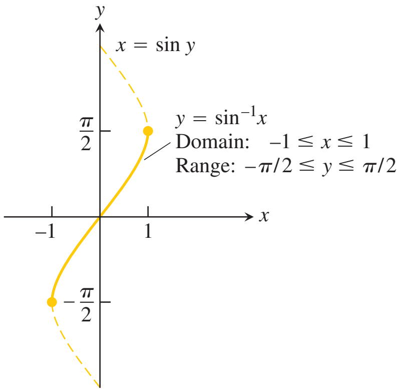
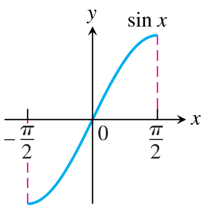


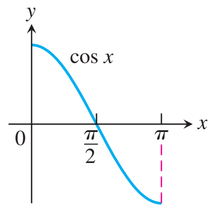
FIGURE 1.65 The graph of $y = \sin^{-1} x$.

increases from -1 at $x = -\pi/2$ to $+1$ at $x = \pi/2$. By restricting its domain to the interval $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ we make it one-to-one, so that it has an inverse $\sin^{-1} x$ (Figure 1.65). Similar domain restrictions can be applied to all six trigonometric functions.

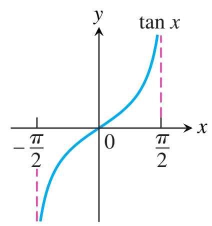
Domain restrictions that make the trigonometric functions one-to-one



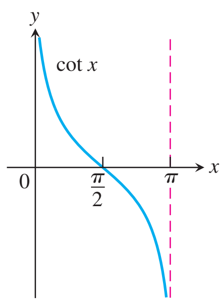
$y = \sin x$
Domain: $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$
Range: $[-1, 1]$



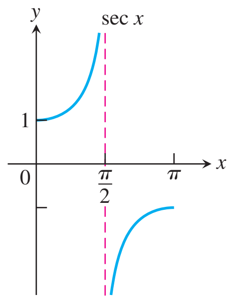
$y = \cos x$
Domain: $[0, \pi]$
Range: $[-1, 1]$



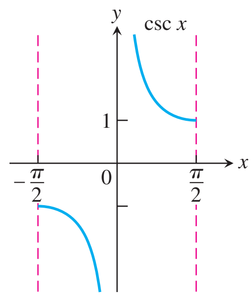
$y = \tan x$
Domain: $(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$
Range: $(-\infty, \infty)$



$y = \cot x$
Domain: $(0, \pi)$
Range: $(-\infty, \infty)$



$y = \sec x$
Domain: $[0, \pi/2) \cup (\pi/2, \pi]$
Range: $(-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$



$y = \csc x$
Domain: $[-\pi/2, 0) \cup (0, \pi/2]$
Range: $(-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$

Since these restricted functions are now one-to-one, they have inverses, which we denote by

$$
\begin{array}{lcl}
y = \sin^{-1} x & \text{or} & y = \arcsin x \\
y = \cos^{-1} x & \text{or} & y = \arccos x \\
y = \tan^{-1} x & \text{or} & y = \arctan x \\
y = \cot^{-1} x & \text{or} & y = \operatorname{arccot} x \\
y = \sec^{-1} x & \text{or} & y = \operatorname{arcsec} x \\
y = \csc^{-1} x & \text{or} & y = \operatorname{arccsc} x
\end{array}
$$

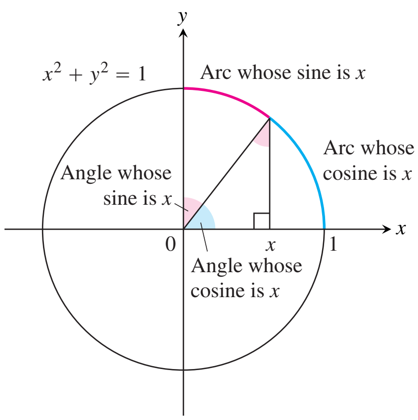
These equations are read "y equals the arcsine of x" or "y equals arcsin x" and so on.

Caution The -1 in the expressions for the inverse means "inverse." It does *not* mean reciprocal. For example, the *reciprocal* of $\sin x$ is $(\sin x)^{-1} = 1/\sin x = \csc x$.

The graphs of the six inverse trigonometric functions are shown in Figure 1.66. We can obtain these graphs by reflecting the graphs of the restricted trigonometric functions through the line $y = x$. We now take a closer look at two of these functions.

The "Arc" in Arcsine and Arccosine

The accompanying figure gives a geometric interpretation of $y = \sin^{-1} x$ and $y = \cos^{-1} x$ for radian angles in the first quadrant. For a unit circle, the equation $s = r\theta$ becomes $s = \theta$, so central angles and the arcs they subtend have the same measure. If $x = \sin y$, then, in addition to being the angle whose sine is x, y is also the length of arc on the unit circle that subtends an angle whose sine is x. So we call y "the arc whose sine is x."



The Arcsine and Arccosine Functions

We define the arcsine and arccosine as functions whose values are angles (measured in radians) that belong to restricted domains of the sine and cosine functions.

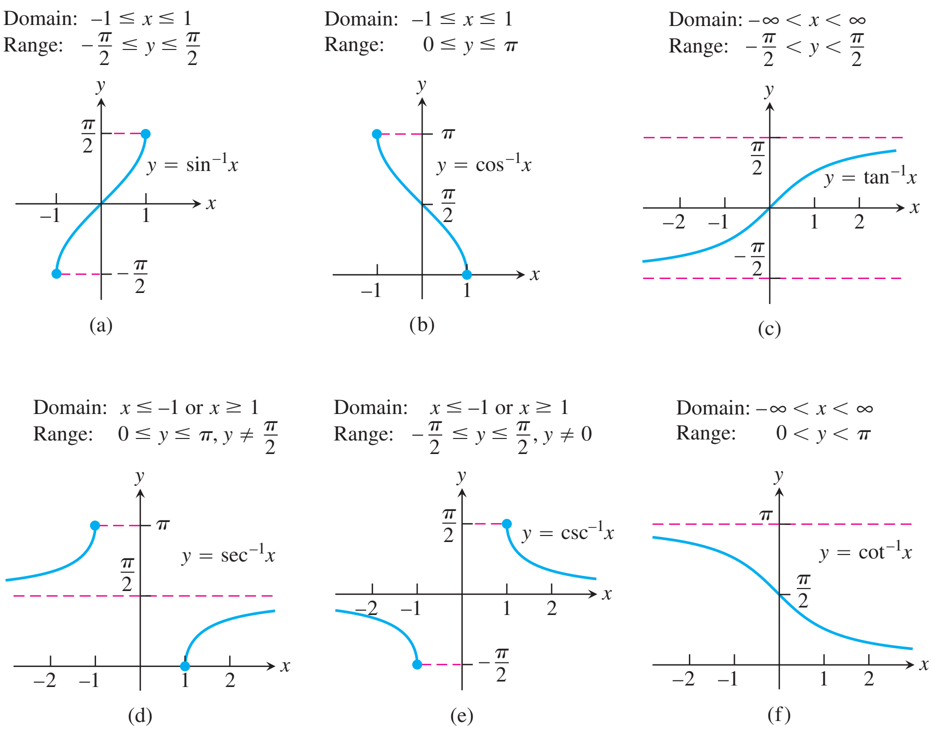


FIGURE 1.66 Graphs of the six basic inverse trigonometric functions.

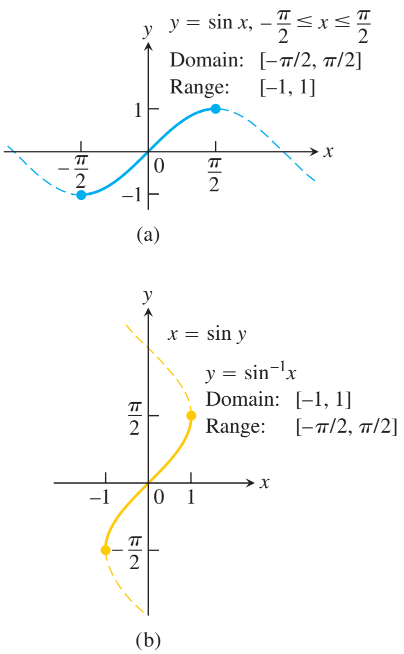


FIGURE 1.67 The graphs of (a) $y = \sin x$, $-\pi/2 \le x \le \pi/2$, and (b) its inverse, $y = \sin^{-1} x$. The graph of $\sin^{-1} x$, obtained by reflection across the line $y = x$, is a portion of the curve $x = \sin y$.

DEFINITION

$\boldsymbol{y = \sin^{-1} x}$ is the number in $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ for which $\sin y = x$.

$\boldsymbol{y = \cos^{-1} x}$ is the number in $[0, \pi]$ for which $\cos y = x$.

The graph of $y = \sin^{-1} x$ (Figure 1.67b) is symmetric about the origin (it lies along the graph of $x = \sin y$). The arcsine is therefore an odd function:

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

The graph of $y = \cos^{-1} x$ (Figure 1.68b) has no such symmetry.

EXAMPLE 8 Evaluate **(a)** $\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$ and **(b)** $\cos^{-1}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right)$.

Solution

(a) We see that

$$\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right) = \frac{\pi}{3}$$

because $\sin(\pi/3) = \sqrt{3}/2$ and $\pi/3$ belongs to the range $[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$ of the arcsine function. See Figure 1.69a.

(b) We have

$$\cos^{-1}\left(-\frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{2\pi}{3}$$

because $\cos(2\pi/3) = -1/2$ and $2\pi/3$ belongs to the range $[0, \pi]$ of the arccosine function. See Figure 1.69b. ■

Using the same procedure illustrated in Example 8, we can create the following table of common values for the arcsine and arccosine functions.

x	$\sin^{-1} x$	$\cos^{-1} x$
$\sqrt{3}/2$	$\pi/3$	$\pi/6$
$\sqrt{2}/2$	$\pi/4$	$\pi/4$
$1/2$	$\pi/6$	$\pi/3$
$-1/2$	$-\pi/6$	$2\pi/3$
$-\sqrt{2}/2$	$-\pi/4$	$3\pi/4$
$-\sqrt{3}/2$	$-\pi/3$	$5\pi/6$

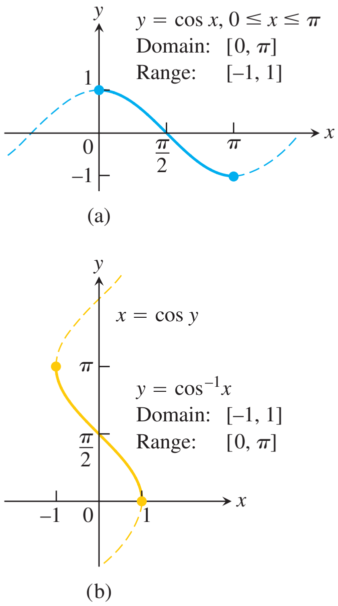


FIGURE 1.68 The graphs of (a) $y = \cos x$, $0 \le x \le \pi$, and (b) its inverse, $y = \cos^{-1} x$. The graph of $\cos^{-1} x$, obtained by reflection across the line $y = x$, is a portion of the curve $x = \cos y$.

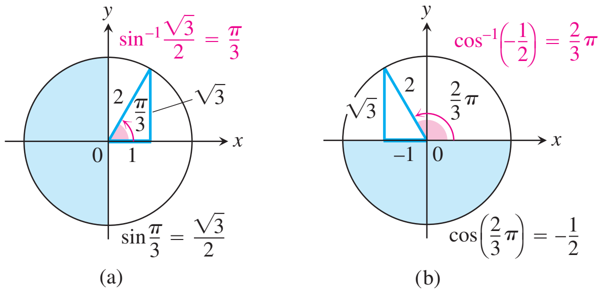


FIGURE 1.69 Values of the arcsine and arccosine functions (Example 8).

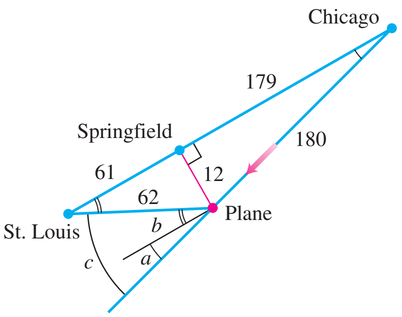


FIGURE 1.70 Diagram for drift correction (Example 9), with distances rounded to the nearest mile (drawing not to scale).

EXAMPLE 9 During an airplane flight from Chicago to St. Louis, the navigator determines that the plane is 12 mi off course, as shown in Figure 1.70. Find the angle a for a course parallel to the original correct course, the angle b, and the drift correction angle $c = a + b$.

Solution From Figure 1.70 and elementary geometry, we see that $180 \sin a = 12$ and $62 \sin b = 12$, so

$$a = \sin^{-1}\frac{12}{180} \approx 0.067 \text{ radian} \approx 3.8°$$

$$b = \sin^{-1}\frac{12}{62} \approx 0.195 \text{ radian} \approx 11.2°$$

$$c = a + b \approx 15°.$$

■

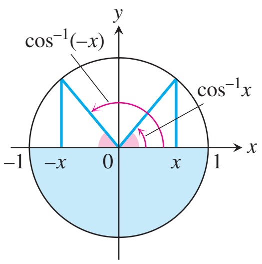


FIGURE 1.71 $\cos^{-1} x$ and $\cos^{-1}(-x)$ are supplementary angles (so their sum is π).

Identities Involving Arcsine and Arccosine

As we can see from Figure 1.71, the arccosine of x satisfies the identity

$$\cos^{-1} x + \cos^{-1}(-x) = \pi, \tag{3}$$

or

$$\cos^{-1}(-x) = \pi - \cos^{-1} x. \tag{4}$$

Also, we can see from the triangle in Figure 1.72 that for $x > 0$,

$$\sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x = \pi/2. \tag{5}$$

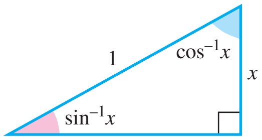


FIGURE 1.72 $\sin^{-1} x$ and $\cos^{-1} x$ are complementary angles (so their sum is $\pi/2$).

Equation (5) holds for the other values of x in $[-1, 1]$ as well, but we cannot conclude this from the triangle in Figure 1.72. It is, however, a consequence of Equations (2) and (4) (Exercise 74).

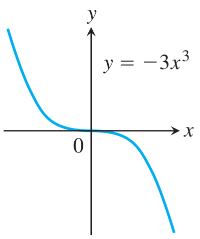
The arctangent, arccotangent, arcsecant, and arccosecant functions are defined in Section 3.9. There we develop additional properties of the inverse trigonometric functions in a calculus setting using the identities discussed here.

Exercises 1.6

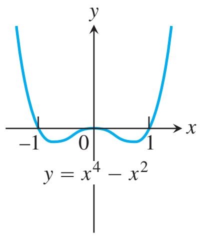
Identifying One-to-One Functions Graphically

Which of the functions graphed in Exercises 1–6 are one-to-one, and which are not?

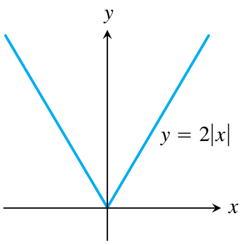
1.



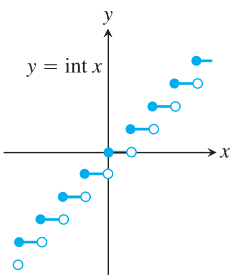
2.



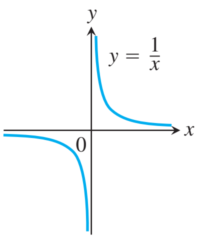
3.



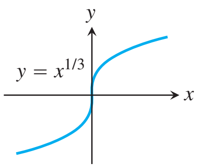
4.



5.



6.



In Exercises 7–10, determine from its graph if the function is one-to-one.

7. $f(x) = \begin{cases} 3 - x, & x < 0 \\ 3, & x \geq 0 \end{cases}$

8. $f(x) = \begin{cases} 2x + 6, & x \leq -3 \\ x + 4, & x > -3 \end{cases}$

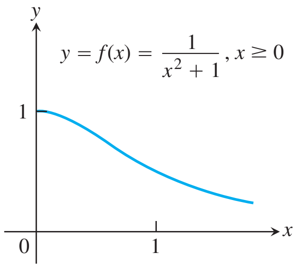
9. $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - \dfrac{x}{2}, & x \leq 0 \\ \dfrac{x}{x + 2}, & x > 0 \end{cases}$

10. $f(x) = \begin{cases} 2 - x^2, & x \leq 1 \\ x^2, & x > 1 \end{cases}$

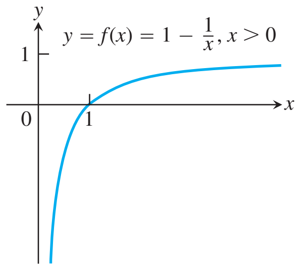
Graphing Inverse Functions

Each of Exercises 11–16 shows the graph of a function $y = f(x)$. Copy the graph and draw in the line $y = x$. Then use symmetry with respect to the line $y = x$ to add the graph of f^{-1} to your sketch. (It is not necessary to find a formula for f^{-1}.) Identify the domain and range of f^{-1}.

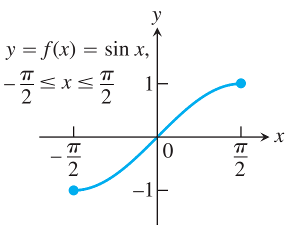
11.



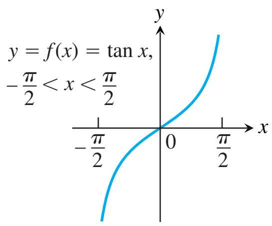
12.



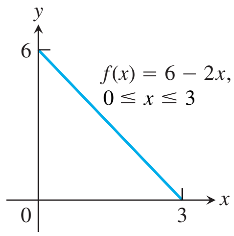
13.



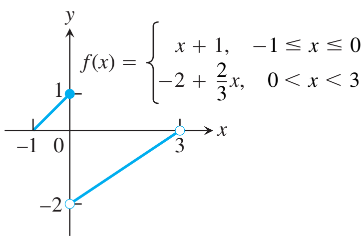
14.



15.



16.



17. a. Graph the function $f(x) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}, 0 \leq x \leq 1$. What symmetry does the graph have?

b. Show that f is its own inverse. (Remember that $\sqrt{x^2} = x$ if $x \geq 0$.)

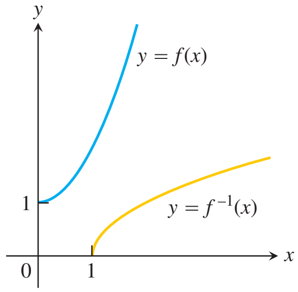
18. a. Graph the function $f(x) = 1/x$. What symmetry does the graph have?

b. Show that f is its own inverse.

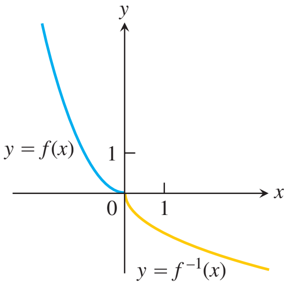
Formulas for Inverse Functions

Each of Exercises 19–24 gives a formula for a function $y = f(x)$ and shows the graphs of f and f^{-1}. Find a formula for f^{-1} in each case.

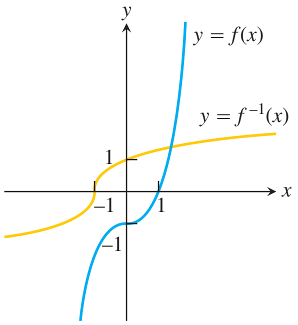
19. $f(x) = x^2 + 1, \quad x \geq 0$



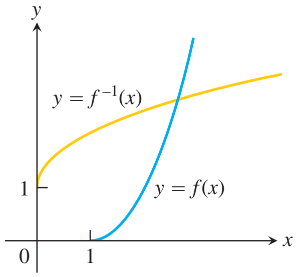
20. $f(x) = x^2, \quad x \leq 0$



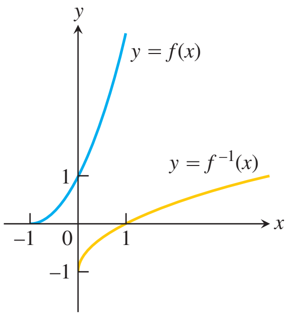
21. $f(x) = x^3 - 1$



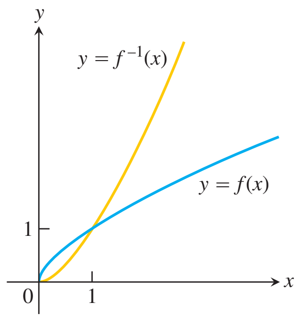
22. $f(x) = x^2 - 2x + 1, \quad x \geq 1$



23. $f(x) = (x + 1)^2, \quad x \geq -1$



24. $f(x) = x^{2/3}, \quad x \geq 0$



Each of Exercises 25–34 gives a formula for a function $y = f(x)$. In each case, find $f^{-1}(x)$ and identify the domain and range of f^{-1}. As a check, show that $f(f^{-1}(x)) = f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$.

25. $f(x) = x^5$

26. $f(x) = x^4, \quad x \geq 0$

27. $f(x) = x^3 + 1$

28. $f(x) = (1/2)x - 7/2$

29. $f(x) = 1/x^2, \quad x > 0$

30. $f(x) = 1/x^3, \quad x \neq 0$

31. $f(x) = \dfrac{x + 3}{x - 2}$

32. $f(x) = \dfrac{\sqrt{x}}{\sqrt{x} - 3}$

33. $f(x) = x^2 - 2x, \quad x \leq 1$

(*Hint:* Complete the square.)

34. $f(x) = (2x^3 + 1)^{1/5}$

Inverses of Lines

35. **a.** Find the inverse of the function $f(x) = mx$, where m is a constant different from zero.

b. What can you conclude about the inverse of a function $y = f(x)$ whose graph is a line through the origin with a nonzero slope m?

36. Show that the graph of the inverse of $f(x) = mx + b$, where m and b are constants and $m \neq 0$, is a line with slope $1/m$ and y-intercept $-b/m$.

37. **a.** Find the inverse of $f(x) = x + 1$. Graph f and its inverse together. Add the line $y = x$ to your sketch, drawing it with dashes or dots for contrast.

b. Find the inverse of $f(x) = x + b$ (b constant). How is the graph of f^{-1} related to the graph of f?

c. What can you conclude about the inverses of functions whose graphs are lines parallel to the line $y = x$?

38. **a.** Find the inverse of $f(x) = -x + 1$. Graph the line $y = -x + 1$ together with the line $y = x$. At what angle do the lines intersect?

b. Find the inverse of $f(x) = -x + b$ (b constant). What angle does the line $y = -x + b$ make with the line $y = x$?

c. What can you conclude about the inverses of functions whose graphs are lines perpendicular to the line $y = x$?

Logarithms and Exponentials

39. Express the following logarithms in terms of ln 2 and ln 3.

a. $\ln 0.75$ **b.** $\ln (4/9)$

c. $\ln (1/2)$ **d.** $\ln \sqrt[3]{9}$

e. $\ln 3\sqrt{2}$ **f.** $\ln \sqrt{13.5}$

40. Express the following logarithms in terms of ln 5 and ln 7.

a. $\ln (1/125)$ **b.** $\ln 9.8$

c. $\ln 7\sqrt{7}$ **d.** $\ln 1225$

e. $\ln 0.056$ **f.** $(\ln 35 + \ln (1/7))/(\ln 25)$

Use the properties of logarithms to simplify the expressions in Exercises 41 and 42.

41. **a.** $\ln \sin \theta - \ln \left(\dfrac{\sin \theta}{5}\right)$ **b.** $\ln (3x^2 - 9x) + \ln \left(\dfrac{1}{3x}\right)$

c. $\dfrac{1}{2} \ln (4t^4) - \ln 2$

42. **a.** $\ln \sec \theta + \ln \cos \theta$ **b.** $\ln (8x + 4) - 2 \ln 2$

c. $3 \ln \sqrt[3]{t^2 - 1} - \ln (t + 1)$

Find simpler expressions for the quantities in Exercises 43–46.

43. **a.** $e^{\ln 7.2}$ **b.** $e^{-\ln x^2}$ **c.** $e^{\ln x - \ln y}$

44. **a.** $e^{\ln (x^2 + y^2)}$ **b.** $e^{-\ln 0.3}$ **c.** $e^{\ln \pi x - \ln 2}$

45. **a.** $2 \ln \sqrt{e}$ **b.** $\ln (\ln e^e)$ **c.** $\ln (e^{-x^2 - y^2})$

46. **a.** $\ln (e^{\sec \theta})$ **b.** $\ln (e^{(e^x)})$ **c.** $\ln (e^{2 \ln x})$

In Exercises 47–52, solve for y in terms of t or x, as appropriate.

47. $\ln y = 2t + 4$

48. $\ln y = -t + 5$

49. $\ln (y - 40) = 5t$

50. $\ln (1 - 2y) = t$

51. $\ln (y - 1) - \ln 2 = x + \ln x$

52. $\ln (y^2 - 1) - \ln (y + 1) = \ln (\sin x)$

In Exercises 53 and 54, solve for k.

53. **a.** $e^{2k} = 4$ **b.** $100e^{10k} = 200$ **c.** $e^{k/1000} = a$

54. **a.** $e^{5k} = \frac{1}{4}$ **b.** $80e^{k} = 1$ **c.** $e^{(\ln 0.8)k} = 0.8$

In Exercises 55–58, solve for t.

55. **a.** $e^{-0.3t} = 27$ **b.** $e^{kt} = \frac{1}{2}$ **c.** $e^{(\ln 0.2)t} = 0.4$

56. **a.** $e^{-0.01t} = 1000$ **b.** $e^{kt} = \frac{1}{10}$ **c.** $e^{(\ln 2)t} = \frac{1}{2}$

57. $e^{\sqrt{t}} = x^2$ **58.** $e^{(x^2)}e^{(2x+1)} = e^t$

Simplify the expressions in Exercises 59–62.

59. **a.** $5^{\log_5 7}$ **b.** $8^{\log_8 \sqrt{2}}$ **c.** $1.3^{\log_{1.3} 75}$

d. $\log_4 16$ **e.** $\log_3 \sqrt{3}$ **f.** $\log_4 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)$

60. **a.** $2^{\log_2 3}$ **b.** $10^{\log_{10} (1/2)}$ **c.** $\pi^{\log_\pi 7}$

d. $\log_{11} 121$ **e.** $\log_{121} 11$ **f.** $\log_3 \left(\frac{1}{9}\right)$

61. **a.** $2^{\log_4 x}$ **b.** $9^{\log_3 x}$ **c.** $\log_2 \left(e^{(\ln 2)(\sin x)}\right)$

62. **a.** $25^{\log_5 (3x^2)}$ **b.** $\log_e (e^x)$ **c.** $\log_4 \left(2^{e^x \sin x}\right)$

Express the ratios in Exercises 63 and 64 as ratios of natural logarithms and simplify.

63. **a.** $\dfrac{\log_2 x}{\log_3 x}$ **b.** $\dfrac{\log_2 x}{\log_8 x}$ **c.** $\dfrac{\log_x a}{\log_{x^2} a}$

64. **a.** $\dfrac{\log_9 x}{\log_3 x}$ **b.** $\dfrac{\log_{\sqrt{10}} x}{\log_{\sqrt{2}} x}$ **c.** $\dfrac{\log_a b}{\log_b a}$

Arcsine and Arccosine

In Exercises 65–68, find the exact value of each expression.

65. **a.** $\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{-1}{2}\right)$ **b.** $\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$ **c.** $\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{-\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$

66. **a.** $\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$ **b.** $\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{-1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$ **c.** $\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)$

67. **a.** $\arccos(-1)$ **b.** $\arccos(0)$

68. **a.** $\arcsin(-1)$ **b.** $\arcsin\left(-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$

Theory and Examples

69. If $f(x)$ is one-to-one, can anything be said about $g(x) = -f(x)$? Is it also one-to-one? Give reasons for your answer.

70. If $f(x)$ is one-to-one and $f(x)$ is never zero, can anything be said about $h(x) = 1/f(x)$? Is it also one-to-one? Give reasons for your answer.

71. Suppose that the range of g lies in the domain of f so that the composite $f \circ g$ is defined. If f and g are one-to-one, can anything be said about $f \circ g$? Give reasons for your answer.

72. If a composite $f \circ g$ is one-to-one, must g be one-to-one? Give reasons for your answer.

73. Find a formula for the inverse function f^{-1} and verify that $(f \circ f^{-1})(x) = (f^{-1} \circ f)(x) = x$.

a. $f(x) = \dfrac{100}{1 + 2^{-x}}$ **b.** $f(x) = \dfrac{50}{1 + 1.1^{-x}}$

74. **The identity $\sin^{-1} x + \cos^{-1} x = \pi/2$** Figure 1.72 establishes the identity for $0 < x < 1$. To establish it for the rest of $[-1, 1]$, verify by direct calculation that it holds for $x = 1$, 0, and -1. Then, for values of x in $(-1, 0)$, let $x = -a$, $a > 0$, and apply Eqs. (3) and (5) to the sum $\sin^{-1}(-a) + \cos^{-1}(-a)$.

75. Start with the graph of $y = \ln x$. Find an equation of the graph that results from

a. shifting down 3 units.

b. shifting right 1 unit.

c. shifting left 1, up 3 units.

d. shifting down 4, right 2 units.

e. reflecting about the y-axis.

f. reflecting about the line $y = x$.

76. Start with the graph of $y = \ln x$. Find an equation of the graph that results from

a. vertical stretching by a factor of 2.

b. horizontal stretching by a factor of 3.

c. vertical compression by a factor of 4.

d. horizontal compression by a factor of 2.

T **77.** The equation $x^2 = 2^x$ has three solutions: $x = 2$, $x = 4$, and one other. Estimate the third solution as accurately as you can by graphing.

T **78.** Could $x^{\ln 2}$ possibly be the same as $2^{\ln x}$ for $x > 0$? Graph the two functions and explain what you see.

79. **Radioactive decay** The half-life of a certain radioactive substance is 12 hours. There are 8 grams present initially.

a. Express the amount of substance remaining as a function of time t.

b. When will there be 1 gram remaining?

80. **Doubling your money** Determine how much time is required for a \$500 investment to double in value if interest is earned at the rate of 4.75% compounded annually.

81. **Population growth** The population of Glenbrook is 375,000 and is increasing at the rate of 2.25% per year. Predict when the population will be 1 million.

82. **Radon-222** The decay equation for radon-222 gas is known to be $y = y_0 e^{-0.18t}$, with t in days. About how long will it take the radon in a sealed sample of air to fall to 90% of its original value?

Chapter 1 Questions to Guide Your Review

1. What is a function? What is its domain? Its range? What is an arrow diagram for a function? Give examples.
2. What is the graph of a real-valued function of a real variable? What is the vertical line test?
3. What is a piecewise-defined function? Give examples.
4. What are the important types of functions frequently encountered in calculus? Give an example of each type.