

Recall that the function  $f(x) = a^x$ ,  $a > 0$ ,  $a \neq 1$  is called an exponential function.

Graph:

From the graphs we can see the most important facts about exponential functions.

Continuity:

Domain =                      Range =

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} a^x = \qquad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} a^x =$$

Using above facts, we can find limits involving  $a^x$ :

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 3} 5^{\frac{x^2 - 4x + 3}{x - 3}} =$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 4+} e^{\frac{2}{8 - 2x}} =$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3^x - 1}{3^{2x} + 5 \cdot 3^x - 3} =$

The number  $e$  can be defined in several ways, here are two:

1)  $e = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} (1 + x)^{\frac{1}{x}} \approx$

$x$	$(1 + x)^{\frac{1}{x}}$
0.1	
0.01	
0.001	
$10^{-4}$	
$10^{-5}$	
$10^{-6}$	

2) Let  $m_a$  = slope of tangent line to graph of  $y = a^x$  at  $x = 0$ . It can be numerically found that

$$m_2 < 1 \text{ and } m_3 > 1$$

Since  $m_a$  varies continuously with  $a$ , by the Intermediate Value Theorem there is a number  $a$  such that  $m_a = 1$ .

In this approach, we can define  $e$  as the number such that the graph of  $y = e^x$  has a tangent line at  $x = 0$  whose slope is 1.

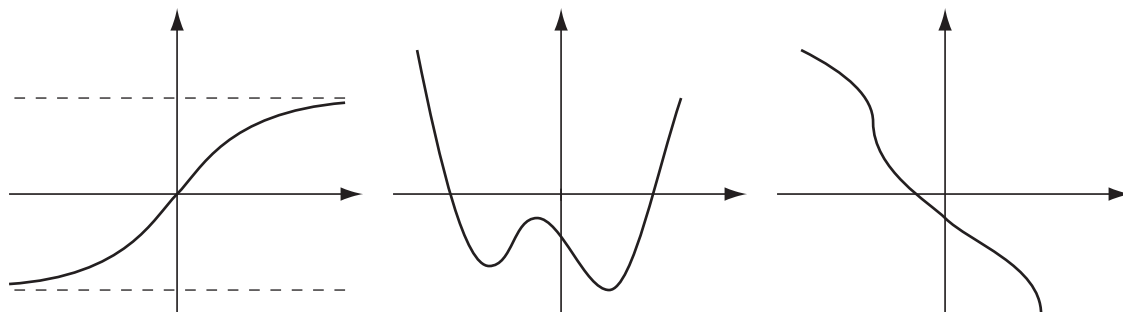
**Definition.** A function is *one-to-one* if it sends different  $x$ 's to different  $y$ 's, that is

$$\text{if } x_1 \neq x_2, \text{ then } f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$$

In other words, it never happens that  $x_1 \neq x_2$  and  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ . Thus, no two points on the graph with different  $x$ -coordinates have the same  $y$ -coordinate. This is the idea of the:

**Horizontal line test.** A function is one-to-one if and only if no horizontal line intersects it more than once.

**Example.** Are the following graphs of one-to-one functions?



One-to-one functions are important because they are the only functions that have inverses: For every  $y$  in the range of  $f$ , we can define:

$$f^{-1}(y) = \text{the } x \text{ such that } f(x) = y$$

**Example.** The function  $f(x) = x^2$  is not one-to-one, but we have learned that its inverse is  $\sqrt{x}$ . What gives?

In general, functions that are not one-to-one, like  $\sqrt{\phantom{x}}$ ,  $\sin$ ,  $\cos$ ,  $\tan$ ,... are turned into one-to-one functions in the same way, by *restricting the domain*.

Inverse functions satisfy:  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$        $f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$

The graph of  $f^{-1}$  is the reflection of the graph of  $f$  in the line  $y = x$ .

How to find the derivative of  $f^{-1}$ :

**Theorem.** If  $f$  is a one-to-one differentiable function then its inverse  $f^{-1}$  is differentiable, and

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

**Example.** Use the theorem to find the derivative of  $\sqrt[3]{x}$ .

**Example.** Let  $f(x) = 2x + \cos x$ . Use the theorem to find  $(f^{-1})'(1)$ .

**Definition.** The exponential function  $f(x) = a^x$  is one-to-one, so has an inverse called the *logarithmic function*:  $f^{-1}(x) = \log_a x$ .

**Note.** Think of  $\log_a x$  as the answer to the question  $a^? = x$ , in other words,

$$y = \log_a x \text{ is the same as saying } a^y = x$$

### Properties of logarithmic functions

$$\log_a a^x = x \qquad a^{\log_a x} = x$$

are just  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$  and  $f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$  for  $f(x) = a^x$  and  $f^{-1}(x) = \log_a x$ .

Property	Related exponential property	
$\log_a(xy) = \log_a x + \log_a y$	$a^{u+v} = a^u \cdot a^v$	Change of base formula: $\log_b x = \frac{\log_a x}{\log_a b}$
$\log_a \frac{x}{y} = \log_a x - \log_a y$	$a^{u-v} = \frac{a^u}{a^v}$	
$\log_a x^r = r \log_a x$	$(a^u)^v = a^{uv}$	

Special bases:  $a = e$ , we write  $\log_e x = \ln x$   
 $a = 10$ , we write  $\log_{10} x = \log x$

From the graph of  $a^x$ ,  $a > 1$ , we get the graph of  $\log_a x$  and can see all the important facts about it:

Domain =

Range =

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \log_a x =$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \log_a x =$$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0+} \log_2(\sin x) =$

Derivative of the exponential function  $f(x) = a^x$

**Theorem.**  $\frac{d}{dx} e^x = e^x$   $\frac{d}{dx} a^x = \ln a \cdot a^x$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} (\sqrt{x}e^x) =$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} e^{\cos x} =$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} (x^2 + 3x)2^{4x} =$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} \frac{x}{e^x} =$

### Derivative of the logarithmic function $\log_a x$

Set  $f(x) = a^x$ , so  $f^{-1}(x) = \log_a x$ .

**Theorem.**  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln x = \frac{1}{x}$   $\frac{d}{dx} \log_a x = \frac{1}{x \ln a}$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln \sqrt{x} =$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln \left( \frac{x+1}{x-1} \right) =$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} \ln(\cos x) =$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} (x^2 - 7x) \log_3 x =$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} \log_5(\tan x) =$

**Example.** Find the derivative of  $y = \frac{e^{3x}\sqrt{x^2+1}}{(x^3+17)^4}$ . This would be hard using the quotient rule (which would include a product rule for the derivative of the numerator), but we can simplify work using the trick of “logarithmic differentiation.”

**Example.** Use logarithmic differentiation to find the derivative of  $y = x^x$ . Same method can be used to find the derivative of any function of form  $f(x)^{g(x)}$ .



## 3.5 Inverse Trigonometric Functions

The functions  $\sin$ ,  $\cos$  and  $\tan$  are not one-to-one functions, so in order for them to have an inverse, we first make them one-to-one by restricting the domain. The functions  $\arcsin$ ,  $\arccos$  and  $\arctan$  are inverses of the functions  $\sin$ ,  $\cos$  and  $\tan$  restricted as follows.

	domain	range
$\sin x$		
$\arcsin x$		

	domain	range
$\cos x$		
$\arccos x$		

	domain	range
$\tan x$		
$\arctan x$		

We can say:  $\arcsin x$  is the angle  $\theta$  whose sine is  $x$  and falls in  $\left[-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right]$

$\arccos x$  is the angle  $\theta$  whose cosine is  $x$  and falls in  $[0, \pi]$

$\arctan x$  is the angle  $\theta$  whose tangent is  $x$  and falls in  $\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$

**Derivatives of inverse trigonometric functions.**

$$\frac{d}{dx} \arcsin x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \qquad \frac{d}{dx} \arccos x = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \qquad \frac{d}{dx} \arctan x = \frac{1}{1+x^2}$$

We justify the derivatives of inverse trigonometric functions.

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} \arctan(7x) =$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} (\arctan x)^2 =$

**Example.**  $\frac{d}{dx} (x \arcsin x + \sqrt{1-x^2}) =$

When computing limits, the difficult ones are always an indeterminate form:

$$\infty - \infty \qquad 0 \cdot \infty \qquad \frac{\infty}{\infty} \qquad \frac{0}{0}$$

The rule below helps us find some of them.

**Theorem (L'Hospital's Rule).** Suppose  $f$  and  $g$  are differentiable near  $a$  and  $g'(x) \neq 0$  near  $a$ . If  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = 0$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = 0$ , then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f'(x)}{g'(x)}, \text{ if the latter exists, or is } \pm \infty$$

The rule also holds when  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \pm \infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} g(x) = \pm \infty$ , or the limit is one-sided.

**Note.** The rule helps with forms  $\frac{0}{0}$  or  $\frac{\infty}{\infty}$ . Note that this is *not* the quotient rule for derivatives, it is a statement about limits that uses derivatives.

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{\cos^2 x}{\sin x - 1} =$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \frac{\tan x - x}{x^3} =$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x \ln x =$

Exponential indeterminate forms are:  $0^0$ ,  $\infty^0$ ,  $1^\infty$ .

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} x^{\sqrt{x}} =$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{x}{x+1} \right)^x =$

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^3}{e^x} =$

Similarly,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^c}{e^x} = 0$  for any  $c > 0$ , that is,  $e^x$  grows faster than any  $x^c$ ,  $c > 0$ , which is interesting for large positive numbers  $c$ .

**Example.**  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln x}{\sqrt{x}} =$

Similarly,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln x}{x^c} = 0$  for any  $c > 0$ , that is,  $\ln x$  grows slower than any  $x^c$ ,  $c > 0$ , which is interesting for small positive numbers  $c$ .