

## SECTION 7.1 AND 7.5: INVERSES AND THE INVERSE CIRCULAR FUNCTIONS

**RECALL:** Two functions  $f$  and  $g$  are called **inverses** if:

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

Procedurally, the function  $g$  'undoes' the function  $f$  and vice versa. In this case, we write  $g = f^{-1}$ . In symbols:

$$x \xrightarrow{\text{apply } f} f(x) \xrightarrow{\text{apply } f^{-1}} f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$$

Likewise,  $f = g^{-1} = (f^{-1})^{-1}$ :

$$x \xrightarrow{\text{apply } f^{-1}} f^{-1}(x) \xrightarrow{\text{apply } f} f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$$

If  $f^{-1}$  exists, we say the function  $f$  is **invertible**.

**INVERSE FUNCTION SUMMARY:** From College Algebra, we know if  $f$  is invertible:

- $f(a) = b \iff f^{-1}(b) = a$ .
- the point  $(a, b)$  is on the graph of  $y = f(x) \iff$  the point  $(b, a)$  is on the graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$ .
- the graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  can be obtained by reflecting the graph of  $y = f(x)$  across the line  $y = x$ .
- the domain of  $f$  is the range of  $f^{-1}$  and vice-versa

Not all functions are invertible! Take the classic example:  $f(x) = x^2$ . Why isn't  $f$  invertible? Suppose  $g$  is the inverse of  $f$ . Since  $f(-2) = (-2)^2 = 4$ , it must be that  $g(4) = -2$ . Likewise, since  $f(2) = (2)^2 = 4$ , we need to have  $g(4) = 2$ , as well. Since  $g$  is a **function**, we can't have  $g(4)$  be both  $-2$  **and**  $2$ , so  $f$  isn't invertible.<sup>1</sup>

In order for a function  $f$  to be invertible, we can't have different inputs go to the same output. Functions which do take different inputs to different outputs are called **one-to-one**. Said differently, for  $f$  to be a function, each input can go to only **one** output and for  $f$  to have an inverse, each output can come from only **one** input.

We summarize the conditions for invertibility below.

**CONDITIONS FOR INVERTIBILITY:** The following are equivalent for a function  $f$ :

- $f$  is invertible
- $f(x_1) = f(x_2) \iff x_1 = x_2$  (that is,  $f$  is **one-to-one**)
- the graph of  $y = f(x)$  intersects each Horizontal Line at most once.  
(that is, the graph of  $f$  **passes** the so-called **Horizontal Line Test**.)

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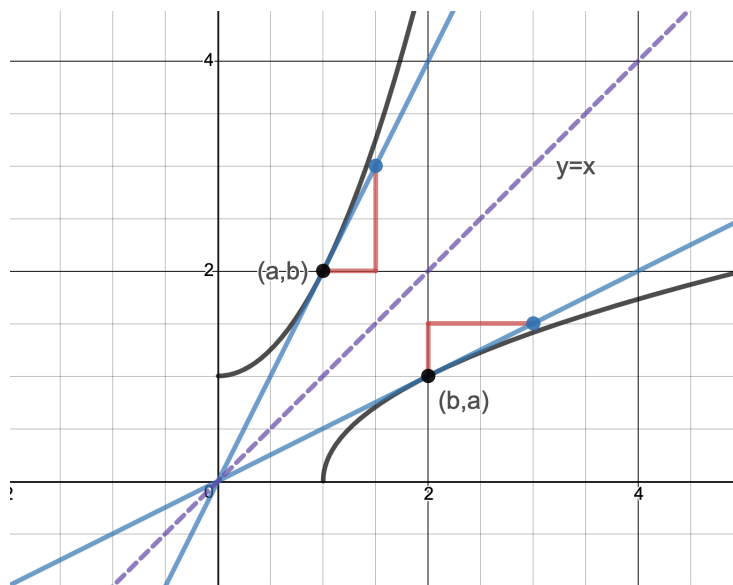
<sup>1</sup>Note that  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is only a **partial** inverse to  $f(x) = x^2$ . We know that  $f(g(x)) = f(\sqrt{x}) = (\sqrt{x})^2 = x$ . However,  $g(f(x)) = g(x^2) = \sqrt{x^2} = |x|$ . Since  $|x| = x$  only if  $x \geq 0$ ,  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is only an inverse to  $f(x) = x^2$  on the restricted domain  $x \geq 0$ .

**DERIVATIVES OF INVERSES:** Let  $f$  be an invertible, differentiable function. If  $f(a) = b$  and  $f'(a) \neq 0$ , then

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

In other words, the slope of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  at  $(b, a)$  is the reciprocal of the slope of  $y = f(x)$  at  $(a, b)$ .

The proof of this result can best be visualized using a graph as seen below. The key is that when passing from the graph of  $y = f(x)$  to the graph of  $y = f^{-1}(x)$ , the  $x$ - and  $y$ -coordinates of all the points switch.



**EXAMPLE 1:** Suppose  $f$  is invertible with  $f(2) = 5$  and  $f'(2) = -3$ .

1. Find  $(f^{-1})'(5)$ .

Using the formula for the derivatives of inverses we get:  $(f^{-1})'(5) = \frac{1}{f'(2)} = \frac{1}{-3} = -\frac{1}{3}$

2. Write the equation of the tangent line to  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  when  $x = 5$ .

We know the tangent line formula is:  $y = (f^{-1})'(5)(x - 5) + f^{-1}(5)$ .

We just determined that  $(f^{-1})'(5) = -\frac{1}{3}$ . Since  $f(2) = 5$ , we know  $f^{-1}(5) = 2$ .

Hence our tangent line is:  $y = -\frac{1}{3}(x - 5) + 2$  or, after simplifying,  $y = -\frac{1}{3}x + \frac{11}{3}$ .

**EXAMPLE 2: (VIDEO)** Suppose  $f$  is invertible with  $f(0) = 1$  and  $f'(0) = 2$ .

1. Find  $(f^{-1})'(1)$ .

$$\text{Ans: } (f^{-1})'(1) = \frac{1}{f'(0)} = \frac{1}{2}$$

2. Write the equation of the tangent line to  $y = f^{-1}(x)$  when  $x = 1$ .

$$\text{Ans: } y = \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{2}$$

If  $f$  is an invertible function and  $f(a) = b$  then  $a = f^{-1}(b)$ . Hence we may rewrite:

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

Hence, this gives us the following formula for the derivatives of inverse functions:

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

**EXAMPLE 3:** Recall  $f(x) = \sin(x)$  is one-to-one if we restrict the domain to  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq x \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ .

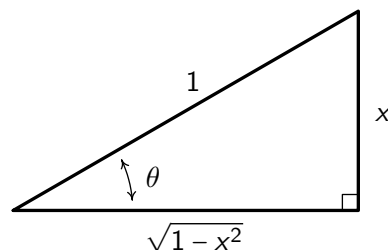
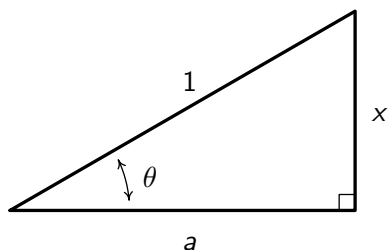
We denote the inverse in this case as  $f^{-1}(x) = \sin^{-1}(x)$  or  $f^{-1}(x) = \arcsin(x)$ .

We know for  $f(x) = \sin(x)$ ,  $f'(x) = \cos(x)$  so we can use the formula for the derivative of inverses to find:

$$D_x[\arcsin(x)] = \frac{1}{f'(\arcsin(x))} = \frac{1}{\cos(\arcsin(x))}$$

To simplify  $\cos(\arcsin(x))$  we let  $\theta = \arcsin(x)$ . Our problem then boils down to finding an expression for  $\cos(\theta)$  where  $\theta$  is an angle  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  with  $\sin(\theta) = x$ . One way to solve the problem is to use a right triangle diagram.

We imagine  $\theta$  as an acute angle and think of  $\sin(\theta) = x = \frac{x}{1} = \frac{\text{length of opposite side}}{\text{length of hypotenuse}}$ .



To find an expression for  $\cos(\theta)$ , we use the Pythagorean Theorem to find an expression for the adjacent side of the triangle. We have  $a^2 + x^2 = 1^2$  so  $a^2 = 1 - x^2$  or  $a = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ . Hence,

$$\cos(\arcsin(x)) = \cos(\theta) = \frac{\text{length of adjacent side}}{\text{length of hypotenuse}} = \frac{\sqrt{1-x^2}}{1} = \sqrt{1-x^2}$$

There is a bit more to do here, however, since not all angles  $\theta$  under consideration are acute. We leave those considerations to the reader. (Hint: if  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq 0$ , then consider a triangle above but in Quadrant IV ...)

Alternatively, we can use the identity:  $\cos^2(\theta) + \sin^2(\theta) = 1$  to get  $\cos(\theta) = \pm\sqrt{1 - \sin^2(\theta)} = \pm\sqrt{1 - x^2}$ .

Since  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$ ,  $\cos(\theta) \geq 0$  so we get  $\cos(\arcsin(x)) = \cos(\theta) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$  in this case as well.

Using the identity method, we can consider all angles  $\theta$  in the range  $-\frac{\pi}{2} \leq \theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2}$  without having special cases.

Hence, using either method,  $\cos(\arcsin(x)) = \sqrt{1 - x^2}$ , so  $D_x[\arcsin(x)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - x^2}}$ .

Alternatively, we can use implicit differentiation:  $y = \sin^{-1}(x)$  means  $\sin(y) = x$ .

Taking the derivative of both sides with respect to 'x' gives  $\cos(y) y' = 1$ . Hence,

$$y' = \frac{1}{\cos(y)} = \frac{1}{\cos(\arcsin(x))} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \checkmark$$

Using the above sort of arguments, we get:

### DERIVATIVES OF THE INVERSE CIRCULAR FUNCTIONS:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bullet D_x[\sin^{-1}(x)] &= D_x[\arcsin(x)] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} & \bullet D_x[\cos^{-1}(x)] &= D_x[\arccos(x)] = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \\
 \bullet D_x[\sec^{-1}(x)] &= D_x[\operatorname{arcsec}(x)] = \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}} & \bullet D_x[\csc^{-1}(x)] &= D_x[\operatorname{arccsc}(x)] = -\frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{x^2-1}} \\
 \bullet D_x[\tan^{-1}(x)] &= D_x[\arctan(x)] = \frac{1}{1+x^2} & \bullet D_x[\cot^{-1}(x)] &= D_x[\operatorname{arccot}(x)] = -\frac{1}{1+x^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

We combine these new formulas with our repertoire of other derivative formulas in the following examples.

**EXAMPLE 4:** Find the indicated derivatives.

1. For  $f(x) = \sin^{-1}(2x)$  find  $f'(x)$ .

Using the chain rule, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
 D_x[\sin^{-1}(2x)] &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(2x)^2}} \cdot D_x[2x] \\
 &= \frac{2}{\sqrt{1-4x^2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

2. If  $F(x) = \tan^{-1}(x^2)$ , find  $F''(x)$ .

Again, the chain rule gives:

$$\begin{aligned}
 F'(x) &= D_x[\tan^{-1}(x^2)] \\
 &= \frac{1}{1+(x^2)^2} \cdot D_x[x^2] \\
 &= \frac{2x}{1+x^4}
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, using the quotient rule, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
 F''(x) &= D_x\left[\frac{2x}{1+x^4}\right] \\
 &= \frac{(1+x^4)D_x[2x] - (2x)D_x[1+x^4]}{(1+x^4)^2} \\
 &= \frac{(1+x^4)(2) - (2x)(4x^3)}{(1+x^4)^2} \\
 &= \frac{2+2x^4-8x^4}{(1+x^4)^2} \\
 F''(x) &= \frac{2-6x^4}{(1+x^4)^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

**EXAMPLE 5:** Find the equation of the tangent line to  $y = \sec^{-1}(5x)$  at  $x = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{5}$ .

First we find the derivative,  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ . Using the chain rule, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dy}{dx} &= D_x[\sec^{-1}(5x)] \\ &= \frac{1}{|5x|\sqrt{(5x)^2 - 1}} \cdot D_x[5x] \\ &= \frac{5}{|5x|\sqrt{25x^2 - 1}} \\ &= \frac{5}{|5||x|\sqrt{25x^2 - 1}} \\ &= \frac{\cancel{5}}{\cancel{5}|x|\sqrt{25x^2 - 1}} \\ \frac{dy}{dx} &= \frac{1}{|x|\sqrt{25x^2 - 1}}\end{aligned}$$

Hence, the **slope** of the tangent line at  $x = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{5}$  is

$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x=\frac{\sqrt{2}}{5}} = \frac{1}{\left| \frac{\sqrt{2}}{5} \right| \sqrt{25 \left( \frac{\sqrt{2}}{5} \right)^2 - 1}} = \frac{5}{\sqrt{2}\sqrt{2-1}} = \frac{5}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Since  $\sec^{-1}\left(5\frac{\sqrt{2}}{5}\right) = \sec^{-1}(\sqrt{2}) = \frac{\pi}{4}$ , we get our tangent line at  $x = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{5}$  to be:

$$y = \frac{5}{\sqrt{2}} \left( x - \frac{\sqrt{2}}{5} \right) + \frac{\pi}{4} \quad \text{or} \quad y = \frac{5}{\sqrt{2}}x - 1 + \frac{\pi}{4}$$

We invite the reader to check this using a graphing utility.

**EXAMPLE 6: (VIDEO)** Find the indicated derivative.

1. For  $f(x) = x \arcsin(x) + \sqrt{1-x^2}$  find  $f'(x)$ .

Ans:  $f'(x) = \arcsin(x)$ .

2. Find  $D_x[\tan^{-1}(\sqrt{x})]$

$$\text{Ans: } D_x[\tan^{-1}(\sqrt{x})] = \frac{1}{2x^{3/2} + 2x^{1/2}}$$

3. Find  $\frac{d}{dx}[\sec^{-1}(x^3)]$

$$\text{Ans: } \frac{d}{dx}[\sec^{-1}(x^3)] = \frac{3}{|x|\sqrt{x^6 - 1}}$$

## INTEGRATION FORMULAS INVOLVING INVERSE CIRCULAR FUNCTIONS:

- $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{a^2 - x^2}} dx = \arcsin\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$
- $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + a^2} dx = \frac{1}{a} \arctan\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C = \frac{1}{a} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) + C$
- $\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - a^2}} dx = \frac{1}{a} \operatorname{arcsec}\left(\frac{|x|}{a}\right) + C = \frac{1}{a} \sec^{-1}\left(\frac{|x|}{a}\right) + C$

**EXAMPLE 7:** Find the following antiderivatives. Check your answer by taking the derivative.

1.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 25} dx$

$$\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 25} dx = \int \frac{1}{x^2 + (5)^2} dx = \frac{1}{5} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{5}\right) + C$$

We find after the chain rule and some algebra that  $D_x \left[ \frac{1}{5} \tan^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{5}\right) + C \right] = \dots = \frac{1}{x^2 + 25} \checkmark$ .

2.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{3 - x^2}} dx$

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{3 - x^2}} dx = \int \frac{1}{\sqrt{(\sqrt{3})^2 - x^2}} dx = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + C$$

We find after the chain rule and some algebra that  $D_x \left[ \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{x}{\sqrt{3}}\right) + C \right] = \dots = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3 - x^2}} \checkmark$ .

3.  $\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{4x^2 - 36}} dx$

$$\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{4x^2 - 36}} dx = \int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{4(x^2 - 9)}} dx = \int \frac{1}{2x\sqrt{x^2 - 9}} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{x^2 - 9}} dx = \frac{1}{6} \sec^{-1}\left(\frac{|x|}{3}\right) + C$$

Once again, after the chain rule and some algebra, we find that  $D_x \left[ \frac{1}{6} \sec^{-1}\left(\frac{|x|}{3}\right) + C \right] = \dots = \frac{1}{x\sqrt{4x^2 - 36}} \checkmark$ .

**EXAMPLE 8: (VIDEO)** Find the following integrals. Check your answer using differentiation.

1.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 16} dx$

Ans:  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 16} dx = \frac{1}{4} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{4} \right) + C$

2.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{5 - x^2}} dx$

Ans:  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{5 - x^2}} dx = \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{x}{\sqrt{5}} \right) + C$

3.  $\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{9x^2 - 36}} dx$

Ans:  $\int \frac{1}{x\sqrt{9x^2 - 36}} dx = \frac{1}{6} \sec^{-1} \left( \frac{|x|}{2} \right) + C$

**EXAMPLE 9: (VIDEO)** Find the area under the curve  $y = \frac{1}{x^2 + 4}$  from  $x = 0$  to  $x = 2$ .

Ans: Area =  $\int_0^2 \frac{1}{x^2 + 4} dx = \dots = \frac{\pi}{8} \text{ units}^2$

**EXAMPLE 10: (VIDEO)** Find the following integrals. Check your answer using differentiation.

1.  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{9 - 25x^2}} dx$

Ans:  $\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{9 - 25x^2}} dx = \frac{1}{5} \sin^{-1} \left( \frac{5x}{3} \right) + C$

2.  $\int \frac{x}{x^4 + 1} dx$

**HINT:**  $x^4 + 1 = (x^2)^2 + 1 \dots$

Ans:  $\int \frac{x}{x^4 + 1} dx = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} (x^2) + C$

3.  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 2x + 5} dx$

**HINT:** Complete the Square:  $x^2 + 2x + 5 = (x^2 + 2x + 1) + 4 = (x + 1)^2 + 4 \dots$

Ans:  $\int \frac{1}{x^2 + 2x + 5} dx = \frac{1}{2} \tan^{-1} \left( \frac{x + 1}{2} \right) + C$

## HOMEWORK:

Section 7.1: Algebra Review: 5, 23 - 37 odd. Calculus problems: 39 - 55 odd, 61 - 67 odd.

Section 7.5: Trigonometry Review: 17 - 47 odd, 93, 95, 107, 109.

Calculus problems: 49, 51, 55 - 63 odd, 71, 73, 77 - 83 odd, 101-102\*, 103\*

## APPENDIX: THE POWER RULE FOR RATIONAL EXPONENTS

When we introduced the power rule,  $D_x [x^k] = k x^{k-1}$ , we noted that the formula works for all real numbers  $k$ . At the time, we only had the tools to verify the power rule for integers (that is  $k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$ ).

With the arrival of the derivative formula for inverse functions:

$$D_x[f^{-1}(x)] = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(x))},$$

we can justify the power rule for root functions.

Recall that  $g(x) = \sqrt[n]{x}$  can be defined as the inverse for  $f(x) = x^n$  with the caveat that if  $n$  is even, the domain of  $f$  is restricted to  $x \geq 0$ . Using the derivative formula for inverses, we get

$$\begin{aligned} D_x[\sqrt[n]{x}] &= D_x \left[ x^{\frac{1}{n}} \right] = \frac{1}{f' \left( x^{\frac{1}{n}} \right)} \\ &= \frac{1}{n \left( x^{\frac{1}{n}} \right)^{n-1}} && f(x) = x^n \text{ so } f'(x) = n x^{n-1} \\ &= \frac{1}{n x^{\frac{1}{n}(n-1)}} && \text{Law of Exponents: } (a^p)^q = a^{pq} \\ &= \frac{1}{n x^{1-\frac{1}{n}}} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} x^{-(1-\frac{1}{n})} && \text{Properties of Exponents: } \frac{1}{a^p} = a^{-p} \\ &= \frac{1}{n} x^{-1+\frac{1}{n}} \end{aligned}$$

$$D_x[\sqrt[n]{x}] = D_x \left[ x^{\frac{1}{n}} \right] = \frac{1}{n} x^{\frac{1}{n}-1} \checkmark$$

With the power rule for root functions established, we can extend the power rule to rational number exponents by noting that:  $f(x) = x^{\frac{p}{q}} = (x^p)^{\frac{1}{q}}$  and using the chain rule:

$$D_x \left[ x^{\frac{p}{q}} \right] = D_x \left[ (x^p)^{\frac{1}{q}} \right] = \frac{1}{q} (x^p)^{\frac{1}{q}-1} D_x [x^p] = \frac{1}{q} x^{p \left( \frac{1}{q}-1 \right)} p x^{p-1} = \frac{p}{q} x^{\frac{p}{q}-p} x^{p-1} = \frac{p}{q} x^{\frac{p}{q}-p+p-1} = \frac{p}{q} x^{\frac{p}{q}-1} \checkmark$$



## MATH 2500: INVERSE CIRCULAR FUNCTIONS REVIEW

- $\sin^{-1}(x) = \arcsin(x)$  is an angle between  $-\pi/2$  and  $\pi/2$  (Quadrant I or -IV) whose sine is  $x$ .
- $\csc^{-1}(x) = \operatorname{arccsc}(x)$  is an angle between  $-\pi/2$  and  $\pi/2$  (Quadrant I or -IV) whose cosecant is  $x$ .
- $\tan^{-1}(x) = \arctan(x)$  is an angle between  $-\pi/2$  and  $\pi/2$  (Quadrant I or -IV) whose tangent is  $x$ .
- $\cos^{-1}(x) = \arccos(x)$  is an angle between  $0$  and  $\pi$  (Quadrant I or II) whose cosine is  $x$ .
- $\sec^{-1}(x) = \operatorname{arcsec}(x)$  is an angle between  $0$  and  $\pi$  (Quadrant I or II) whose secant is  $x$ .
- $\cot^{-1}(x) = \operatorname{arccot}(x)$  is an angle between  $0$  and  $\pi$  (Quadrant I or II) whose cotangent is  $x$ .

1. **'Walking':** Find the **exact** values of the expressions below without using a calculator.

- (a)  $\sin^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$
- (b)  $\cot^{-1}(-1)$
- (c)  $\arccos(0)$
- (d)  $\tan^{-1}(\sqrt{3})$
- (e)  $\sec^{-1}(-2)$
- (f)  $\operatorname{arccsc}\left(-\frac{2\sqrt{3}}{3}\right)$
- (g)  $\sin(\arcsin(-1))$
- (h)  $\cos(\cos^{-1}(.2))$
- (i)  $\arctan(\tan(5\pi/4))$
- (j)  $\csc^{-1}(\csc(\frac{\pi}{3}))$
- (k) (TRICK!)  $\operatorname{arcsec}(\sec(\pi/2))$  Explain why this is a trick question.

2. **'Jogging':** Find the **exact** values of the expressions below without using a calculator.

- (a)  $\sec(\arctan(-1))$
- (b)  $\tan(\arccos(-1/2))$
- (c)  $\cos(\cot^{-1}(-3/4))$
- (d)  $\csc(\arcsin(.3))$
- (e)  $\cot(\sec^{-1}(-3))$
- (f) Find an algebraic expression for  $\tan(\arcsin(2x))$ .

3. **'Running':**

- (a) Explain why  $\csc^{-1}(x) = \sin^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$  and  $\sec^{-1}(x) = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$
- (b) Find a way to graph  $y = \csc^{-1}(x)$  and  $y = \sec^{-1}(x)$  on your calculator. (HINT: Use the result from the previous problem!)
- (c) Find  $\cot^{-1}(-5)$  to four decimal places.

4. **Tournament of Champions!**

- (a) Find an algebraic expression for  $\tan(\operatorname{arcsec}(x))$ .
- (b) Come up with a way to use your calculator to graph  $y = \cot^{-1}(x)$ .

### Answers.

1.
  - (a)  $\pi/6$
  - (b)  $3\pi/4$
  - (c)  $\pi/2$
  - (d)  $\pi/3$
  - (e)  $2\pi/3$
  - (f)  $-\pi/3$
  - (g)  $-1$
  - (h)  $.2$
  - (i)  $\pi/4$
  - (j)  $\pi/3$
  - (k)  $\sec(\pi/2)$  is undefined!
2.
  - (a)  $\sqrt{2}$
  - (b)  $-\sqrt{3}$
  - (c)  $-3/5$
  - (d)  $10/3$
  - (e)  $-\sqrt{2}/4$
  - (f)  $\frac{2x}{\sqrt{1-4x^2}}$
3.
  - (a) Draw a picture or use the definition of the functions in the appropriate quadrants.
  - (b) Graph  $y = \sin^{-1}(1/x)$  instead of  $y = \csc^{-1}(x)$  and graph  $y = \cos^{-1}(1/x)$  instead of  $y = \sec^{-1}(x)$ .
  - (c)  $\cot^{-1}(-5) = \pi - \tan^{-1}(1/5) \approx 2.9442$ . (Can you see why using the Unit Circle?)
4.
  - (a)  $\tan(\operatorname{arcsec}(x)) = \sqrt{x^2 - 1}$ , if  $x > 0$  and  $\tan(\operatorname{arcsec}(x)) = -\sqrt{x^2 - 1}$  if  $x < 0$ .
  - (b) You may want to break it up into pieces...