



MATH 1060

LECTURE 2  
INVERSE FUNCTIONS & LOGARITHMS

# Outline

Summary of last lecture

## Inverse Functions

Domain, codomain, and range

One-to-one functions

Inverse functions

## Inverse trig functions

## Logarithms

Definition

Properties

The natural log

# Summary of last lecture

- ▶ Described coordinated courses, exams, homeworks, quizzes, and grading.

# Summary of last lecture

- ▶ Described coordinated courses, exams, homeworks, quizzes, and grading.
- ▶ Defined four common sets of numbers:  $\mathbb{N}$  (the natural numbers),  $\mathbb{Z}$  (the integers),  $\mathbb{Q}$  (the rational numbers), and  $\mathbb{R}$  (the real numbers).

# Summary of last lecture

- ▶ Described coordinated courses, exams, homeworks, quizzes, and grading.
- ▶ Defined four common sets of numbers:  $\mathbb{N}$  (the natural numbers),  $\mathbb{Z}$  (the integers),  $\mathbb{Q}$  (the rational numbers), and  $\mathbb{R}$  (the real numbers).
- ▶ Described exponential functions, working our way up from  $a^n$  when  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  through  $a^x$  when  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

# Summary of last lecture

- ▶ Described coordinated courses, exams, homeworks, quizzes, and grading.
- ▶ Defined four common sets of numbers:  $\mathbb{N}$  (the natural numbers),  $\mathbb{Z}$  (the integers),  $\mathbb{Q}$  (the rational numbers), and  $\mathbb{R}$  (the real numbers).
- ▶ Described exponential functions, working our way up from  $a^n$  when  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  through  $a^x$  when  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- ▶ Described the graphs of the functions  $a^x$  and  $a^{-x}$ , and noticed some commonalities in these graphs.

# Summary of last lecture

- ▶ Described coordinated courses, exams, homeworks, quizzes, and grading.
- ▶ Defined four common sets of numbers:  $\mathbb{N}$  (the natural numbers),  $\mathbb{Z}$  (the integers),  $\mathbb{Q}$  (the rational numbers), and  $\mathbb{R}$  (the real numbers).
- ▶ Described exponential functions, working our way up from  $a^n$  when  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  through  $a^x$  when  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- ▶ Described the graphs of the functions  $a^x$  and  $a^{-x}$ , and noticed some commonalities in these graphs.
- ▶ Defined the number  $e$  as the unique number so that the tangent line to the graph  $y = e^x$  at  $(0, 1)$  has slope 1.

## Summary of last lecture

- ▶ Described coordinated courses, exams, homeworks, quizzes, and grading.
- ▶ Defined four common sets of numbers:  $\mathbb{N}$  (the natural numbers),  $\mathbb{Z}$  (the integers),  $\mathbb{Q}$  (the rational numbers), and  $\mathbb{R}$  (the real numbers).
- ▶ Described exponential functions, working our way up from  $a^n$  when  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  through  $a^x$  when  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- ▶ Described the graphs of the functions  $a^x$  and  $a^{-x}$ , and noticed some commonalities in these graphs.
- ▶ Defined the number  $e$  as the unique number so that the tangent line to the graph  $y = e^x$  at  $(0, 1)$  has slope 1.
- ▶ **Homework Due Monday:** Read Ch. 1 of Stewart, do problems §1.5: 2, 4, 7, 15 and §1.6: 5 - 8, 29, 30.



# Domain and codomain

Recall that a *function* is a rule for associating a single output in a set  $C$  to each input in a set  $D$ . (This is the *vertical line test*.)

# Domain and codomain

Recall that a *function* is a rule for associating a single output in a set  $C$  to each input in a set  $D$ . (This is the *vertical line test*.)

The set  $D$  is called the *domain* of the function, and the set  $C$  is called the *codomain* of the function.

# Domain and codomain

Recall that a *function* is a rule for associating a single output in a set  $C$  to each input in a set  $D$ . (This is the *vertical line test*.)

The set  $D$  is called the *domain* of the function, and the set  $C$  is called the *codomain* of the function.

To denote that  $f$  is a function with domain  $D$  and codomain  $C$  we write  $f : D \rightarrow C$ .

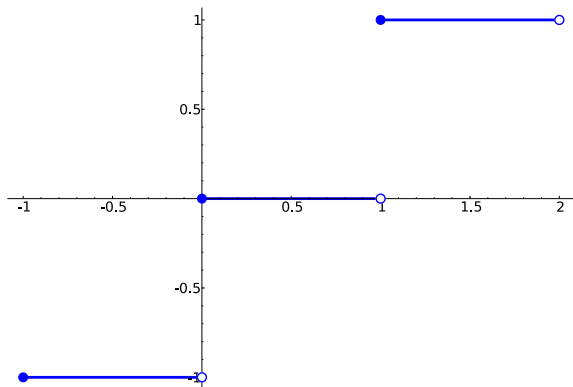
## Example

The *greatest integer function*, denoted  $\llbracket x \rrbracket$ , returns the larger integer less than or equal to  $x$ . For instance  $\llbracket 2.34 \rrbracket = 2$ , and  $\llbracket -3.78 \rrbracket = -4$ .

## Example

The *greatest integer function*, denoted  $\llbracket x \rrbracket$ , returns the larger integer less than or equal to  $x$ . For instance  $\llbracket 2.34 \rrbracket = 2$ , and  $\llbracket -3.78 \rrbracket = -4$ .

The domain of this function is  $\mathbb{R}$ , but because we can only ever hope to get integers out of the function, the codomain is  $\mathbb{Z}$ .



# Examples

Function	Domain	Codomain	Notation
$f(x) = \llbracket x \rrbracket$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{Z}$	$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$

# Examples

Function	Domain	Codomain	Notation
$f(x) = \llbracket x \rrbracket$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{Z}$	$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
$g(x) = x^2$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

# Examples

Function	Domain	Codomain	Notation
$f(x) = \llbracket x \rrbracket$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{Z}$	$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
$g(x) = x^2$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$h(x) = \sqrt{x}$	$[0, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$h : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$



# Examples

Function	Domain	Codomain	Notation
$f(x) = \llbracket x \rrbracket$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{Z}$	$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
$g(x) = x^2$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$h(x) = \sqrt{x}$	$[0, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$h : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+2}}$	$(-2, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$k : (-2, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

# Examples

Function	Domain	Codomain	Notation
$f(x) = \llbracket x \rrbracket$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{Z}$	$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
$g(x) = x^2$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$h(x) = \sqrt{x}$	$[0, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$h : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+2}}$	$(-2, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$k : (-2, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$\ell(z) = (z + 2)^{-1/2}$	$(-2, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\ell : (-2, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

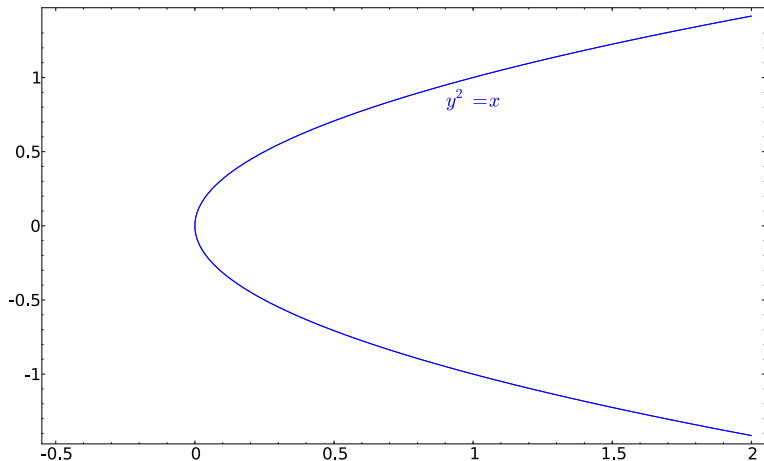
# Examples

Function	Domain	Codomain	Notation
$f(x) = \llbracket x \rrbracket$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{Z}$	$f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{Z}$
$g(x) = x^2$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\mathbb{R}$	$g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$h(x) = \sqrt{x}$	$[0, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$h : [0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$k(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x+2}}$	$(-2, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$k : (-2, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
$\ell(z) = (z + 2)^{-1/2}$	$(-2, \infty)$	$\mathbb{R}$	$\ell : (-2, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Notice that the function is defined for everything in the domain, but does not necessarily hit every value in the codomain. E.g.,  $g(x) = x^2$  is never negative;  $h(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is also never negative, by convention.

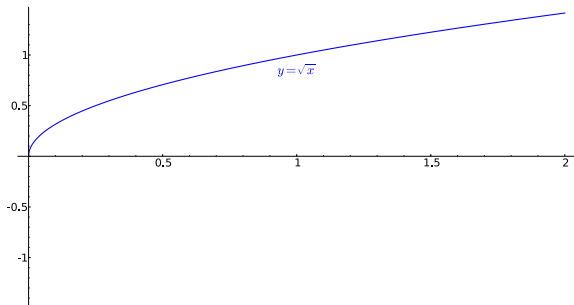
## A convention

The function  $h(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is always positive, but this is by convention. The square root of  $x$ ,  $\sqrt{x}$ , should be the number  $y$  such that  $y^2 = x$ . If  $x > 0$ , then there are always two  $y$  values satisfying  $y^2 = x$ . For example, if  $y^2 = 4$ , then  $y = \pm 2$ .



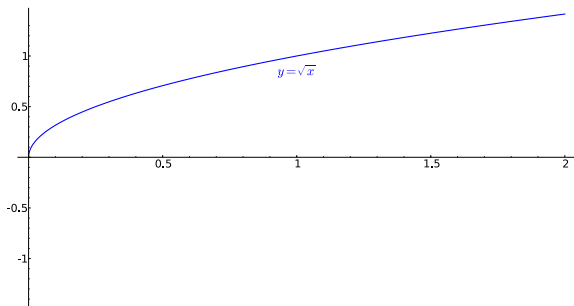
## A convention

Functions can only have one output value, though, so for  $\sqrt{x}$  to be a function, we *must* restrict ourselves to either the positive or negative square roots. By convention, the symbol  $\sqrt{x}$  will *always* mean the positive square root. If we want the negative root, we will explicitly write  $-\sqrt{x}$ .



## A convention

Functions can only have one output value, though, so for  $\sqrt{x}$  to be a function, we *must* restrict ourselves to either the positive or negative square roots. By convention, the symbol  $\sqrt{x}$  will *always* mean the positive square root. If we want the negative root, we will explicitly write  $-\sqrt{x}$ .



**Important Observation:**  $\sqrt{x^2} = |x|$ .

# The range of a function

The *codomain* of a function  $f(x)$  is the set of all possible outputs of the function.

# The range of a function

The *codomain* of a function  $f(x)$  is the set of all possible outputs of the function.

The *range* of a function  $f(x)$  is the set of all values in the codomain that are actually obtained. For example, the range of  $g(x) = \sqrt{x}$  is  $[0, \infty)$ : these are the only values will ever get out of  $\sqrt{x}$ .



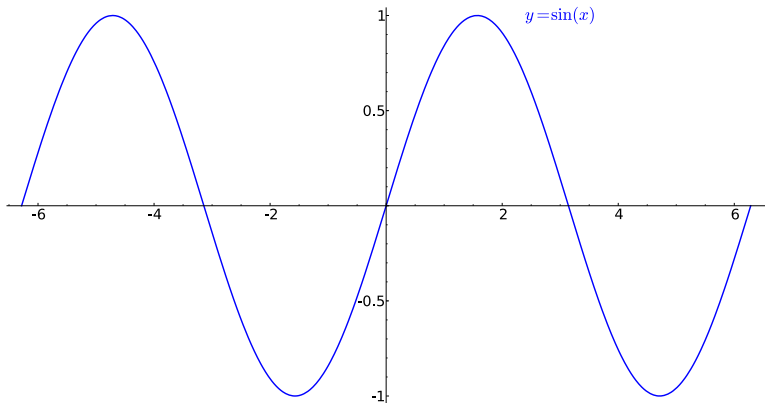
## The vertical line test

The graph of a function  $f(x)$  – i.e., the set of all  $(x, y)$ -pairs satisfying  $y = f(x)$  – always satisfies the vertical line test because exactly one output is associated with each input.

# The vertical line test

The graph of a function  $f(x)$  – i.e., the set of all  $(x, y)$ -pairs satisfying  $y = f(x)$  – always satisfies the vertical line test because exactly one output is associated with each input.

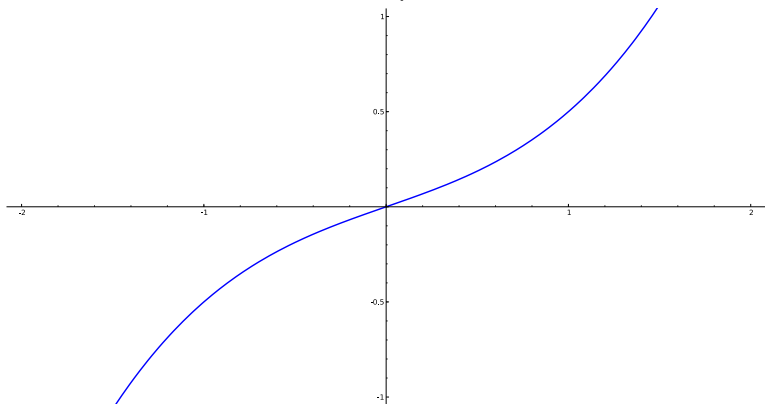
However, the same output could occur multiple times.



# One-to-one

In the event that every value in the range occurs for exactly one input value, we say the function is *one-to-one* (sometimes denoted *1-1*). The graphs of one-to-one functions pass both the *vertical* and *horizontal line test*.

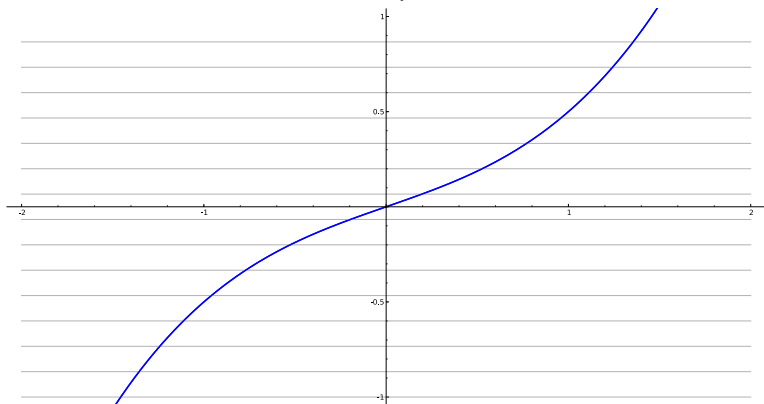
Example:



# One-to-one

In the event that every value in the range occurs for exactly one input value, we say the function is *one-to-one* (sometimes denoted *1-1*). The graphs of one-to-one functions pass both the *vertical* and *horizontal line test*.

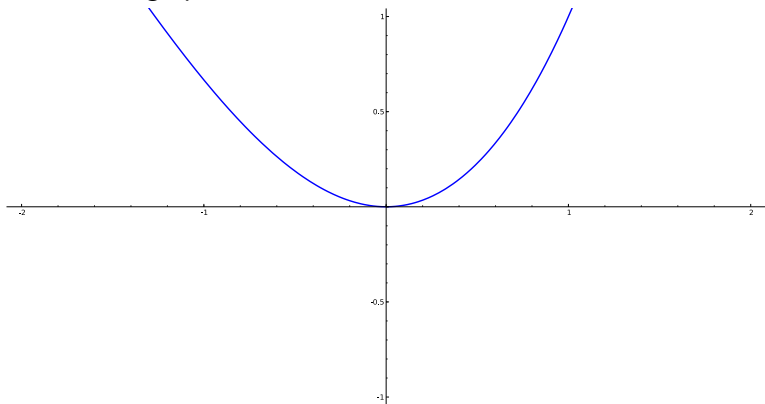
Example:



# One-to-one

In the event that every value in the range occurs for exactly one input value, we say the function is *one-to-one* (sometimes denoted *1-1*). The graphs of one-to-one functions pass both the *vertical* and *horizontal line test*.

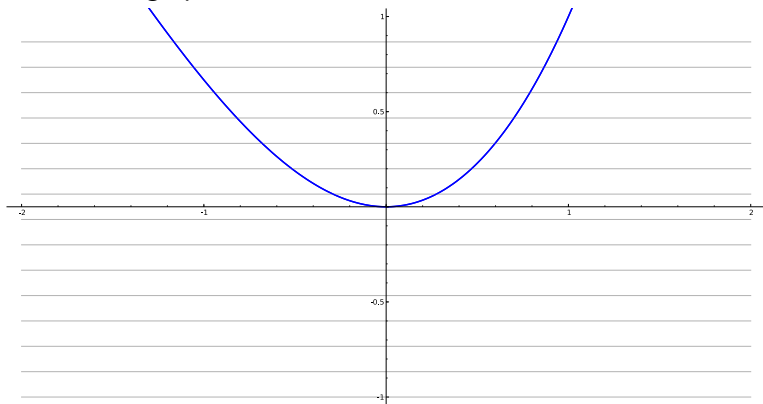
The graph of a function which is not one-to-one:



# One-to-one

In the event that every value in the range occurs for exactly one input value, we say the function is *one-to-one* (sometimes denoted *1-1*). The graphs of one-to-one functions pass both the *vertical* and *horizontal line test*.

The graph of a function which is not one-to-one:



# Inverse functions

One-to-one functions are special because they are *invertible*. That means, if  $y = f(x)$ , then we can find a function  $g$  that satisfies  $x = g(y)$ .

# Inverse functions

One-to-one functions are special because they are *invertible*. That means, if  $y = f(x)$ , then we can find a function  $g$  that satisfies  $x = g(y)$ . I.e., inverse functions “undo” one another.



# Inverse functions

One-to-one functions are special because they are *invertible*. That means, if  $y = f(x)$ , then we can find a function  $g$  that satisfies  $x = g(y)$ . I.e., inverse functions “undo” one another.

**Example:** If  $f(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$ , then  $g(x) = x^3$  is its inverse. E.g.,  $-3 = f(-27)$ , and  $-27 = g(-3)$ :  $f(g(-3)) = -3$  and  $g(f(-27)) = -27$ .

# Inverse functions

One-to-one functions are special because they are *invertible*. That means, if  $y = f(x)$ , then we can find a function  $g$  that satisfies  $x = g(y)$ . I.e., inverse functions “undo” one another.

**Example:** If  $f(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$ , then  $g(x) = x^3$  is its inverse. E.g.,  $-3 = f(-27)$ , and  $-27 = g(-3)$ :  $f(g(-3)) = -3$  and  $g(f(-27)) = -27$ .

**Example:** If  $f(x) = 3x + 2$ , then  $g(x) = \frac{x-2}{3}$  is its inverse. E.g.,  $8 = f(2)$ , and  $2 = g(8)$ :  $f(g(8)) = 8$  and  $g(f(2)) = 2$ .

# Inverse functions

If  $f : D \rightarrow C$  is a one-to-one function with range  $R$ , then its inverse is usually denoted  $f^{-1}$  and is a function from  $R$  back to  $D$ ,  $f^{-1} : R \rightarrow D$ .

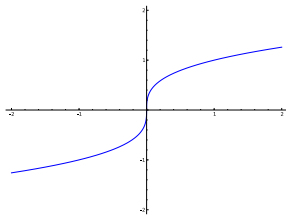
# Inverse functions

If  $f : D \rightarrow C$  is a one-to-one function with range  $R$ , then its inverse is usually denoted  $f^{-1}$  and is a function from  $R$  back to  $D$ ,  $f^{-1} : R \rightarrow D$ .

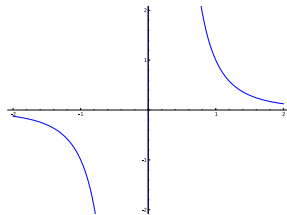
**Warning:**  $f^{-1}$  does not mean  $f$  raised to the  $-1$ ! It is just a notational convention that means “the inverse of  $f$ .” If you want to actually raise a function to  $-1$ , write it as  $(f(x))^{-1}$ .

$$f^{-1}(x) \neq (f(x))^{-1}$$

If  $f(x) = x^3$ , then  $f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$  while  $(f(x))^{-1} = x^{-3}$ .



$$f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt[3]{x}$$



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

# Inverse functions

The defining property of the inverse function  $f^{-1}$  is that it “undoes”  $f$ . More precisely,  $f^{-1}$  is the unique function satisfying the following two equations:

$$f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$$

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$$

# Inverse functions

The defining property of the inverse function  $f^{-1}$  is that it “undoes”  $f$ . More precisely,  $f^{-1}$  is the unique function satisfying the following two equations:

$$f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$$

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$$

Another way to say this is that if  $y = f(x)$ , then  $x = f^{-1}(y)$ . The inverse switches the roles of  $x$  and  $y$ .

# Inverse functions

The defining property of the inverse function  $f^{-1}$  is that it “undoes”  $f$ . More precisely,  $f^{-1}$  is the unique function satisfying the following two equations:

$$f(f^{-1}(x)) = x$$

$$f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$$

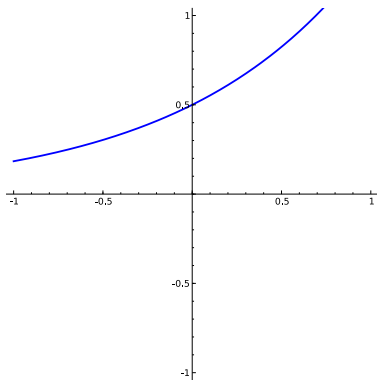
Another way to say this is that if  $y = f(x)$ , then  $x = f^{-1}(y)$ . The inverse switches the roles of  $x$  and  $y$ .

Notice that the domain of  $f$  is the range of  $f^{-1}$ , and the domain of  $f^{-1}$  is the range of  $f$ .



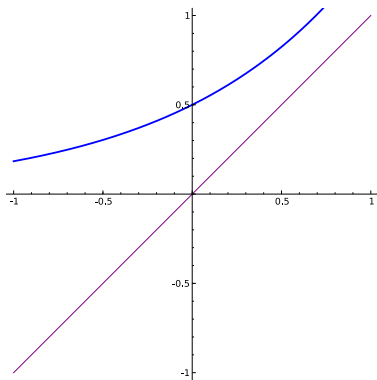
# Graphs of inverse functions

Since the inverse function switches the role of  $x$  and  $y$ , there is an easy graphical description of inverse functions: the graph of  $f^{-1}$  is the graph of  $f$  but reflected about the line  $y = x$ .



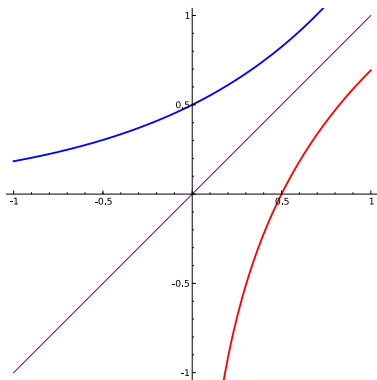
# Graphs of inverse functions

Since the inverse function switches the role of  $x$  and  $y$ , there is an easy graphical description of inverse functions: the graph of  $f^{-1}$  is the graph of  $f$  but reflected about the line  $y = x$ .



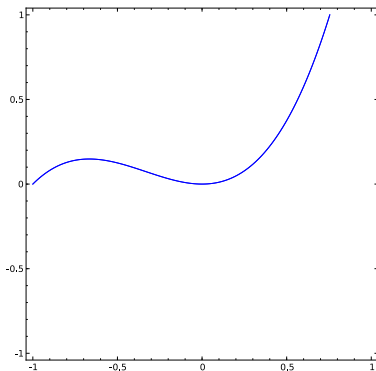
# Graphs of inverse functions

Since the inverse function switches the role of  $x$  and  $y$ , there is an easy graphical description of inverse functions: the graph of  $f^{-1}$  is the graph of  $f$  but reflected about the line  $y = x$ .



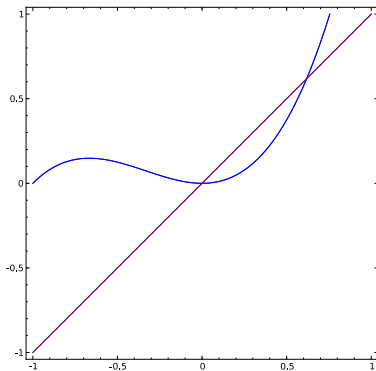
## Trying to invert a non-invertible function

Notice that if a function  $f$  is not one-to-one, then its graph reflected about  $y = x$  is not a function! This is another way of thinking about one-to-one and invertible functions: if a graph's reflection around  $y = x$  *does not* pass the vertical line test (i.e., isn't the graph of a function), then the originally function is not one-to-one and so not invertible.



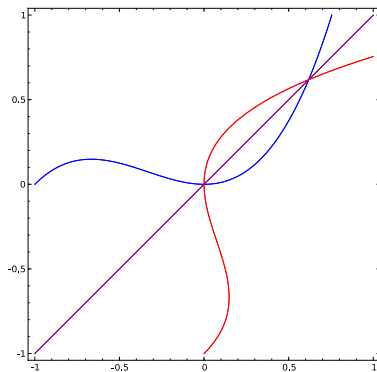
## Trying to invert a non-invertible function

Notice that if a function  $f$  is not one-to-one, then its graph reflected about  $y = x$  is not a function! This is another way of thinking about one-to-one functions: if a function's reflection around  $y = x$  is *not* a function (i.e., fails the vertical line test).



# Trying to invert a non-invertible function

Notice that if a function  $f$  is not one-to-one, then its graph reflected about  $y = x$  is not a function! This is another way of thinking about one-to-one functions: if a function's reflection around  $y = x$  is *not* a function (i.e., fails the vertical line test).



# Inverse functions

In most situations you can solve for the inverse function using the following procedure:

1. Write down the equation  $y = f(x)$
2. Solve for  $x$ , giving an equation  $x = [\text{some expression involving } y]$ .
3. Swap  $x$  and  $y$  to get an equation  $y = [\text{some expression involving } x]$ .
4. The expression on the right-hand side, involving  $x$ 's, is the inverse function.

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $f(x) = x^3 - 5$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5.$$



## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $f(x) = x^3 - 5$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $f(x) = x^3 - 5$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5$$

$$\implies y + 5 = x^3$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $f(x) = x^3 - 5$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5$$

$$\implies y + 5 = x^3$$

$$\implies \sqrt[3]{y + 5} = x$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $f(x) = x^3 - 5$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5$$

$$\implies y + 5 = x^3$$

$$\implies \sqrt[3]{y + 5} = x$$

$$\implies x = \sqrt[3]{y + 5}$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $f(x) = x^3 - 5$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5$$

$$\implies y + 5 = x^3$$

$$\implies \sqrt[3]{y + 5} = x$$

$$\implies x = \sqrt[3]{y + 5}$$

3. Swap  $x$  and  $y$ :

$$y = \sqrt[3]{x + 5}$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $f(x) = x^3 - 5$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = x^3 - 5$$

$$\implies y + 5 = x^3$$

$$\implies \sqrt[3]{y + 5} = x$$

$$\implies x = \sqrt[3]{y + 5}$$

3. Swap  $x$  and  $y$ :

$$y = \sqrt[3]{x + 5}$$

4. The inverse is

$$f^{-1}(x) = \sqrt[3]{x + 5}.$$

# Calculating inverses

Why does this procedure work?

# Calculating inverses

Why does this procedure work?

Keep in mind the defining property for an inverse function is  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ .



# Calculating inverses

Why does this procedure work?

Keep in mind the defining property for an inverse function is  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ .

If  $y = f(x)$ , we need  $f^{-1}(y) = x$ , which just means we have solved for  $x$ :

# Calculating inverses

Why does this procedure work?

Keep in mind the defining property for an inverse function is  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ .

If  $y = f(x)$ , we need  $f^{-1}(y) = x$ , which just means we have solved for  $x$ : we have  $x$  by itself on one side of the equation, and an expression involving  $y$ 's on the other side.

# Calculating inverses

Why does this procedure work?

Keep in mind the defining property for an inverse function is  $f^{-1}(f(x)) = x$ .

If  $y = f(x)$ , we need  $f^{-1}(y) = x$ , which just means we have solved for  $x$ : we have  $x$  by itself on one side of the equation, and an expression involving  $y$ 's on the other side.

The step where we swap  $x$  and  $y$  is simply putting the equation into the more familiar “ $y = \text{some function of } x$ ” notation.

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $g(x) = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = \frac{3x + 1}{x - 2}.$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $g(x) = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $g(x) = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$\begin{aligned} y &= \frac{3x+1}{x-2} \\ \implies y(x-2) &= 3x+1 \end{aligned}$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $g(x) = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$$

$$\implies y(x-2) = 3x+1$$

$$\implies xy - 2y = 3x+1$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $g(x) = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$$

$$\implies y(x-2) = 3x+1$$

$$\implies xy - 2y = 3x+1$$

$$\implies xy - 2y - 3x = 1$$



## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $g(x) = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$$

$$\implies y(x-2) = 3x+1$$

$$\implies xy - 2y = 3x+1$$

$$\implies xy - 2y - 3x = 1$$

$$\implies x(y-3) - 2y = 1$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $g(x) = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$$

$$\implies y(x-2) = 3x+1$$

$$\implies xy - 2y = 3x+1$$

$$\implies xy - 2y - 3x = 1$$

$$\implies x(y-3) - 2y = 1$$

$$\implies x(y-3) = 1+2y$$

## Example

**Example:** Calculate the inverse of  $g(x) = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$ .

**Solution:**

1. Write  $y = f(x)$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}.$$

2. Solve for  $x$ :

$$y = \frac{3x+1}{x-2}$$

$$\implies y(x-2) = 3x+1$$

$$\implies xy - 2y = 3x+1$$

$$\implies xy - 2y - 3x = 1$$

$$\implies x(y-3) - 2y = 1$$

$$\implies x(y-3) = 1+2y$$

$$\implies x = \frac{1+2y}{y-3}.$$

## Example (continued)

3. Swapping the  $x$ 's and  $y$ 's, we have that the inverse of

$$g(x) = \frac{3x + 1}{x - 2}$$

which is

$$g^{-1}(x) = \frac{1 + 2x}{x - 3}.$$

# Inverse trig functions

Notice that the six trig functions ( $\sin(x)$ ,  $\cos(x)$ ,  $\tan(x)$ ,  $\sec(x)$ ,  $\csc(x)$ , and  $\cot(x)$ ) are not one-to-one, and so are not invertible.

# Inverse trig functions

Notice that the six trig functions ( $\sin(x)$ ,  $\cos(x)$ ,  $\tan(x)$ ,  $\sec(x)$ ,  $\csc(x)$ , and  $\cot(x)$ ) are not one-to-one, and so are not invertible.

These functions *do* become invertible if we restrict their domains so that the graphs pass the horizontal line test. This is easiest to explain by example...

Restricting the domain to make  $\sin(x)$  one-to-one

# Restricting the domain to make $\cos(x)$ one-to-one



# Domains and ranges of inverse trig functions

Function	Domain	Range
arcsin	$[-1, 1]$	$[-\pi/2, \pi/2]$
arccos	$[-1, 1]$	$[0, \pi]$
arctan	$\mathbb{R}$	$(-\pi/2, \pi/2)$
arcsec	$(-\infty, -1] \cup [1, \infty)$	$[0, \pi/2) \cup (\pi/2, \pi]$
arccsc	$[1, \infty)$	$(0, \pi/2]$
arccot	$(-\infty, \infty)$	$(0, \pi)$

# Logarithms

If  $a > 0$ , then the function  $f(x) = a^x$  is one-to-one, and so it must have an inverse. Like the trigonometric functions, this inverse does not have a nice, closed form.

# Logarithms

If  $a > 0$ , then the function  $f(x) = a^x$  is one-to-one, and so it must have an inverse. Like the trigonometric functions, this inverse does not have a nice, closed form.

The inverse of  $a^x$  is called the *logarithm with base  $a$*  and is denoted  $\log_a(x)$ .

# Logarithms

If  $a > 0$ , then the function  $f(x) = a^x$  is one-to-one, and so it must have an inverse. Like the trigonometric functions, this inverse does not have a nice, closed form.

The inverse of  $a^x$  is called the *logarithm with base  $a$*  and is denoted  $\log_a(x)$ .

Note this means the logarithm and exponential satisfy the following two equations:

$$\log_a(a^x) = x$$

$$a^{\log_a(x)} = x.$$

# Logarithms

If  $a > 0$ , then the function  $f(x) = a^x$  is one-to-one, and so it must have an inverse. Like the trigonometric functions, this inverse does not have a nice, closed form.

The inverse of  $a^x$  is called the *logarithm with base  $a$*  and is denoted  $\log_a(x)$ .

Note this means the logarithm and exponential satisfy the following two equations:

$$\log_a(a^x) = x$$

$$a^{\log_a(x)} = x.$$

Another way to say the same thing: if  $y = \log_a(x)$ , then  $a^y = x$ .

# Logarithms

If  $a > 0$ , then the function  $f(x) = a^x$  is one-to-one, and so it must have an inverse. Like the trigonometric functions, this inverse does not have a nice, closed form.

The inverse of  $a^x$  is called the *logarithm with base  $a$*  and is denoted  $\log_a(x)$ .

Note this means the logarithm and exponential satisfy the following two equations:

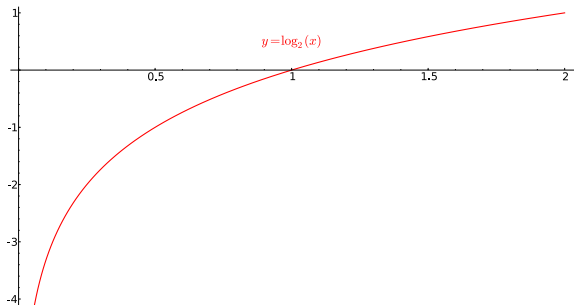
$$\log_a(a^x) = x$$

$$a^{\log_a(x)} = x.$$

Another way to say the same thing: if  $y = \log_a(x)$ , then  $a^y = x$ . For example,  $\log_2(32) = 5$  because  $2^5 = 32$ . Similarly,  $\log_7(49) = 2$  since  $7^2 = 49$ .

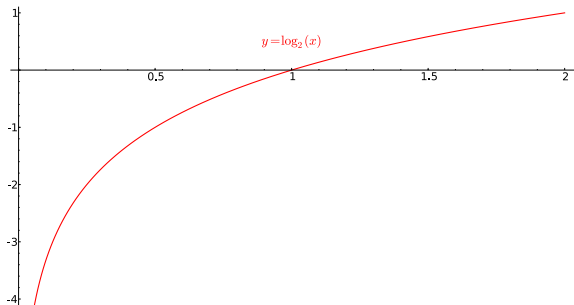
# Graphs of logarithms

The graph of a logarithmic function is easy to determine if you know what the corresponding exponential function looks like.



# Graphs of logarithms

The graph of a logarithmic function is easy to determine if you know what the corresponding exponential function looks like.



Notice that  $\log_a(x)$  is not defined if  $x \leq 0$ ! If you see  $\log_a(0)$  or  $\log_a(-3)$  in one of your answers, then you've made a mistake somewhere!



# Properties of exponentials

Recall that exponential functions satisfied five important properties:

(i)  $a^0 = 1$

(ii)  $a^x \cdot a^y = a^{x+y}$ .

(iii)  $\frac{a^x}{a^y} = a^{x-y}$

(iv)  $(a^x)^y = a^{xy}$

(v)  $(ab)^x = a^x \cdot b^x$ .

# Properties of exponentials

Recall that exponential functions satisfied five important properties:

(i)  $a^0 = 1$

(ii)  $a^x \cdot a^y = a^{x+y}$ .

(iii)  $\frac{a^x}{a^y} = a^{x-y}$

(iv)  $(a^x)^y = a^{xy}$

(v)  $(ab)^x = a^x \cdot b^x$ .

Using these properties, we can show that  $\log_a(x)$  must satisfy five similar properties. We will prove the first two in class, and leave the other three as an exercise.

# Properties of logarithms

## Theorem

*For all positive real numbers  $a > 0$  and  $b > 0$ , and for every pair of real numbers  $x$  and  $y$ , the following five properties hold:*

- (i)  $\log_a(1) = 0$
- (ii)  $\log_a(xy) = \log_a(x) + \log_a(y)$
- (iii)  $\log_a\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_a(x) - \log_a(y)$
- (iv)  $\log_a(x^y) = y \cdot \log_a(x)$
- (v)  $\log_b(x) = \frac{\log_a(x)}{\log_a(b)}$ .

# Properties of logarithms

## Theorem

*For all positive real numbers  $a > 0$  and  $b > 0$ , and for every pair of real numbers  $x$  and  $y$ , the following five properties hold:*

- (i)  $\log_a(1) = 0$
- (ii)  $\log_a(xy) = \log_a(x) + \log_a(y)$
- (iii)  $\log_a\left(\frac{x}{y}\right) = \log_a(x) - \log_a(y)$
- (iv)  $\log_a(x^y) = y \cdot \log_a(x)$
- (v)  $\log_b(x) = \frac{\log_a(x)}{\log_a(b)}$ .

We'll show properties (i), (ii) and (v), and leave the others as exercises.

# Properties of logarithms

**Property (i):**  $\log_a(1) = 0$ .

# Properties of logarithms

**Property (i):**  $\log_a(1) = 0$ .

Recall that  $\log_a(x)$  is the inverse of  $a^x$ . Thus  $a^{\log_a(x)} = x$ . So,  $a^{\log_a(1)} = 1$ , and  $\log_a(1)$  must be the power we can raise  $a$  to to get 1. There is only possibility:  $a^0 = 1$ , and so  $\log_a(1) = 0$ .

# Properties of logarithms

**Property (ii)**  $\log_a(xy) = \log_a(x) + \log_a(y)$ .

# Properties of logarithms

**Property (ii)**  $\log_a(xy) = \log_a(x) + \log_a(y)$ .

Using properties of exponents, we know

$$\begin{aligned} a^{\log_a(x) + \log_a(y)} &= a^{\log_a(x)} \cdot a^{\log_a(y)} \\ &= xy. \end{aligned}$$

Taking  $\log_a$  of both sides of the equation gives the result:

$$\begin{aligned} a^{\log_a(x) + \log_a(y)} &= xy \\ \implies \log_a \left( a^{\log_a(x) + \log_a(y)} \right) &= \log_a(xy) \\ \implies \log_a(x) + \log_a(y) &= \log_a(xy). \end{aligned}$$



# Properties of logarithms

**Property (v)**  $\log_b(x) = \frac{\log_a(x)}{\log_a(b)}.$

# Properties of logarithms

**Property (v)**  $\log_b(x) = \frac{\log_a(x)}{\log_a(b)}.$

We know  $b^{\log_b(x)} = x$ . Taking  $\log_a$  of both sides of the equation tells us  $\log_a(b^{\log_b(x)}) = \log_a(x)$ . By property (iv) (which we have not shown; try to prove it on your own), we have

$$\log_b(x) \cdot \log_a(b) = \log_a(x).$$

Solving for  $\log_b(x)$  gives the result.

# Properties of logarithms

**Property (v)**  $\log_b(x) = \frac{\log_a(x)}{\log_a(b)}.$

We know  $b^{\log_b(x)} = x$ . Taking  $\log_a$  of both sides of the equation tells us  $\log_a(b^{\log_b(x)}) = \log_a(x)$ . By property (iv) (which we have not shown; try to prove it on your own), we have

$$\log_b(x) \cdot \log_a(b) = \log_a(x).$$

Solving for  $\log_b(x)$  gives the result.

**Example:**

$$\begin{aligned}\log_3(243) &= \frac{\log_{10}(243)}{\log_{10}(3)} \\ &= 5\end{aligned}$$

# The natural log

As the function  $e^x$  comes up all the time in calculus, its inverse,  $\log_e(x)$  comes up all the time as well. For this reason we give  $\log_e(x)$  a special name and some special notation:

# The natural log

As the function  $e^x$  comes up all the time in calculus, its inverse,  $\log_e(x)$  comes up all the time as well. For this reason we give  $\log_e(x)$  a special name and some special notation:  $\log_e(x)$  is called the *natural logarithm* and is denoted  $\ln(x)$ .

So,  $\ln(x)$  and  $e^x$  satisfy the following two equations:

$$\ln(e^x) = x$$

$$e^{\ln(x)} = x.$$

# Homework

## 1. Due Monday, 8/25:

- ▶ Read Ch. 1 of Stewart
- ▶ Stewart §1.5: 2, 4, 7, 15
- ▶ Stewart §1.6: 5 - 8, 29, 30