

**8.2.6 Dini's Theorem** Suppose that  $(f_n)$  is a monotone sequence of continuous functions on  $I := [a, b]$  that converges on  $I$  to a continuous function  $f$ . Then the convergence of the sequence is uniform.

**Proof.** We suppose that the sequence  $(f_n)$  is decreasing and let  $g_m := f_m - f$ . Then  $(g_m)$  is a decreasing sequence of continuous functions converging on  $I$  to the 0-function. We will show that the convergence is uniform on  $I$ .

Given  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $t \in I$ , there exists  $m_{\varepsilon, t} \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $0 \leq g_{m_{\varepsilon, t}}(t) < \varepsilon/2$ . Since  $g_{m_{\varepsilon, t}}$  is continuous at  $t$ , there exists  $\delta_\varepsilon(t) > 0$  such that  $0 \leq g_{m_{\varepsilon, t}}(x) < \varepsilon$  for all  $x \in I$  satisfying  $|x - t| \leq \delta_\varepsilon(t)$ . Thus,  $\delta_\varepsilon$  is a gauge on  $I$ , and if  $\dot{\mathcal{P}} = \{(I_i, t_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  is a  $\delta_\varepsilon$ -fine partition, we set  $M_\varepsilon := \max\{m_{\varepsilon, t_1}, \dots, m_{\varepsilon, t_n}\}$ . If  $m \geq M_\varepsilon$  and  $x \in I$ , then (by Lemma 5.5.3) there exists an index  $i$  with  $|x - t_i| \leq \delta_\varepsilon(t_i)$  and hence

$$0 \leq g_m(x) \leq g_{m_{\varepsilon, t_i}}(x) < \varepsilon.$$

Therefore, the sequence  $(g_m)$  converges uniformly to the 0-function.

Q.E.D.

**Proof.**

- As  $(f_n)$  is monotone so assume it to be decreasing
- As  $f_n$  converge to  $f$  on  $I$  so
- let  $g_m(t) := f_m(t) - f(t)$   $\forall t \in I \rightarrow$  then
- $(g_m(t))$  is a monotone decreasing sequence of continuous functions converging on  $I$  to  $g(t) = 0$ . Use
- $\Rightarrow$  By density of real numbers,
- $\exists \delta_\varepsilon > 0$  s.t.  $0 \leq g_{m_\varepsilon}(t) < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$
- As  $g_{m_\varepsilon}(t)$  is continuous at  $t$ , then
- $\exists \delta_\varepsilon > 0$  s.t.  $\forall x \in I$  satisfying
- $|x - t| \leq \delta_\varepsilon$ ,  $0 \leq g_{m_\varepsilon}(x) < \varepsilon$
- Define  $\tilde{\mathcal{P}} = \{(I_i, t_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  /  $|\tilde{\mathcal{P}}| = \delta_\varepsilon$
- set  $M_\varepsilon = \max\{m_{\varepsilon, t_1}, \dots, m_{\varepsilon, t_n}\}$
- If  $m > M_\varepsilon$  and  $x \in I$  then
- $\exists i \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $|x - t_i| \leq \delta_\varepsilon$
- $\Rightarrow 0 \leq g_m(x) \leq g_{m_\varepsilon}(x) < \varepsilon$
- Thus,  $(g_m)$  converge uniformly to  $g(x) = 0$

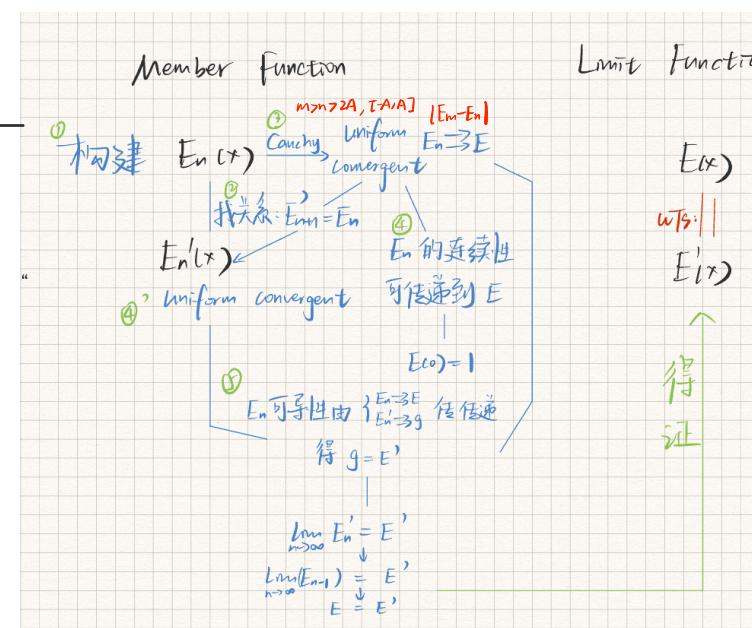
D.E.D.

## Section 8.3 The Exponential and Logarithmic Functions

E的存在性:

**8.3.1 Theorem** There exists a function  $E : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that:

- (i)  $E'(x) = E(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . 须可导性的传递  
 (ii)  $E(0) = 1$ . 须连续性的传递



**Proof.** We inductively define a sequence  $(E_n)$  of continuous functions as follows:

- (1)  $E_1(x) := 1 + x,$
- (2)  $E_{n+1}(x) := 1 + \int_0^x E_n(t) dt,$

for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Clearly  $E_1$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  and hence is integrable over any bounded interval. If  $E_n$  has been defined and is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then it is integrable over any bounded interval, so that  $E_{n+1}$  is well-defined by the above formula. Moreover, it follows from the Fundamental Theorem (Second Form) 7.3.5 that  $E_{n+1}$  is differentiable at any point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and that

- (3)  $E_{n+1}'(x) = E_n(x) \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}.$
- An Induction argument (which we leave to the reader) shows that

$$(4) \quad E_n(x) = 1 + \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!} \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}. \quad = \sum_{k=0}^n \frac{x^k}{k!} F_k$$

Let  $A > 0$  be given; then if  $|x| \leq A$  and  $m > n > 2A$ , we have

$$(5) \quad |E_m(x) - E_n(x)| = \left| \frac{x^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} + \cdots + \frac{x^m}{m!} \right| \leq \frac{A^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \left[ 1 + \frac{A}{n} + \cdots + \left( \frac{A}{n} \right)^{m-n-1} \right] < \frac{A^{n+1}}{(n+1)!} \cdot 2^2$$

Since  $\lim(A^n/n!) = 0$ , it follows that the sequence  $(E_n)$  converges uniformly on the interval  $[-A, A]$  where  $A > 0$  is arbitrary. In particular this means that  $(E_n(x))$  converges for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . We define  $E : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$E(x) := \lim E_n(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Since each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is contained inside some interval  $[-A, A]$ , it follows from Theorem 8.2.2 that  $E$  is continuous at  $x$ . Moreover, it is clear from (1) and (2) that  $E_n(0) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Therefore  $E(0) = 1$ , which proves (i).

On any interval  $[-A, A]$  we have the uniform convergence of the sequence  $(E_n)$ . In view of (3), we also have the uniform convergence of the sequence  $(E'_n)$  of derivatives. It therefore follows from Theorem 8.2.3 that the limit function  $E$  is differentiable on  $[-A, A]$  and that

$$E'(x) = \lim(E'_n(x)) = \lim(E_{n-1}(x)) = E(x)$$

for all  $x \in [-A, A]$ . Since  $A > 0$  is arbitrary, statement (ii) is established.

Q.E.D.

*Proof.* Define sequence of functions inductively:

$$E_1(x) = 1 + x \Rightarrow E_1'(x) = 1$$

$$E_2(x) = 1 + \int_0^x 1 + t dt = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 \Rightarrow E_2'(x) = E_1(x)$$

$$E_3(x) = 1 + \int_0^x 1 + t + \frac{1}{2}t^2 dt = 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{3}x^3 \Rightarrow E_3'(x) = E_2(x)$$

⋮

$$E_n(x) = 1 + \int_0^x E_{n-1}(t) dt \Rightarrow E_n'(x) = E_{n-1}(x)$$

As  $E_1$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  so it is integrable over any bounded area.

If  $E_n$  is defined and is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  then it is integrable over any bounded interval.

$$\Rightarrow E_{n+1} = 1 + \int_0^x E_n(t) dt \text{ exists on } \mathbb{R} \text{ (well-defined on } \mathbb{R})$$

By the FTC (Second form), on any  $[a, b]$ ,

we showed that  $E_n(x) \in R[a, b]$ , and  $E_n'(x)$

continuous on  $[a, b]$

Then  $E_n(x)$  is differentiable

and as  $E_n(x) = \int_0^x E_{n-1}(t) dt$

so  $E_n'(x) = E_{n-1}(x)$   $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

$$\text{Assume that } E_m(x) = \sum_{m=0}^n \frac{x^m}{m!}$$

$$\text{then when } n=1, E_1(x) = \frac{x^1}{0!} + \frac{x^1}{1!} = 1+x$$

$$\text{assume that when } n=k,$$

$$E_k(x) = \sum_{m=0}^k \frac{x^m}{m!} = \frac{x^0}{0!} + \frac{x^1}{1!} + \cdots + \frac{x^k}{k!}$$

$$\text{when } n=k+1,$$

$$E_{k+1} = 1 + \int_0^x E_k(t) dt = 1 + \sum_{m=0}^{k+1} \frac{x^m}{m!} dt$$

$$= 1 + x + \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \cdots + \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1} + \text{error}$$

$$= \sum_{m=0}^{k+1} \frac{x^m}{m!}$$

$$\text{Thus, } E_{k+1}(x) = \sum_{m=0}^{k+1} \frac{x^m}{m!} = 1 + \frac{x}{0!} + \frac{x^2}{1!} + \cdots + \frac{x^{k+1}}{k+1}, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$\forall A > 0, \forall x \in [-A, A], \forall m, n \in \mathbb{N}, m > n$ ,

$$|E_m(x) - E_n(x)| = \left| \frac{x^{m+1}}{(m+1)!} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| \\ \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^m \left| \frac{x^k}{k!} \right| \\ \leq \sum_{k=n+1}^m \left| \frac{A^k}{k!} \right| \\ = \frac{A^{m+1}}{(m+1)!} \left[ 1 + \frac{A}{m+1} + \cdots + \left( \frac{A}{m+1} \right)^{m-n} \right]$$

$$= \frac{A^{m+1}}{(m+1)!} \left[ 1 + \frac{A}{m+1} + \cdots + \left( \frac{A}{m+1} \right)^{m-n} \right]$$

$$m > n > A \leq \frac{A^{m+1}}{(m+1)!} \left[ 1 + \frac{A}{2A} + \cdots + \left( \frac{A}{2A} \right)^{m-n} \right] \\ \leq \frac{A^{m+1}}{(m+1)!} \cdot 2$$

$$\text{As } \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{A}{m+1} \right)^{m-n} = 0 \text{ so } \forall \epsilon > 0, |E_m(x) - E_n(x)| < \epsilon$$

when  $m > n > A$ , **By Cauchy**

$\Rightarrow (E_n(x))$  converges uniformly on  $[-A, A]$ )

Recall that  $A$  is arbitrary,

so  $(E_n(x))$  converges uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ , let  $E = \lim E_n(x)$

then  $E_n \rightarrow E \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

Recall that  $E_n$  continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

with  $E_n \rightarrow E$ , by 8.2.2 we get  $E$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$

so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} E(x) = E(0)$

As  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n(0) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} E_n(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E_n(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} E(x)$

and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [E_n(0)] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [1] = 1$

so  $E(0) = 1$  proved (ii)

As  $E'_n(x) = E_n(x)$  and  $E_n \rightarrow E$  on  $[-A, A]$

so  $(E'_n(x))$  is uniform convergent "极限互换性" 内方程套性质

By 8.2.3, the limit function  $E$  is differentiable on  $[-A, A]$  and that

$$E'(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [E'_n(x)] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [E_n(x)] = E(x) \quad \forall x \in [-A, A]$$

Thus,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, E'(x) = E(x)$ . (i) is proved.

Q.E.D.

that satisfies (i) and (ii)



**8.3.2 Corollary** *The function  $E$  has a derivative of every order and  $E^{(n)}(x) = E(x)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}, x \in \mathbb{R}$ .*



**Proof.** If  $n = 1$ , the statement is merely property (i). It follows for arbitrary  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  by induction. Q.E.D.

**8.3.3 Corollary** *If  $x > 0$ , then  $1 + x < E(x)$ .*

$$E_1 < E_n \leq E \Rightarrow E_1 < E$$

**Proof.** It is clear from (4) that if  $x > 0$ , then the sequence  $(E_n(x))$  is strictly increasing. Hence  $E_1(x) < E(x)$  for all  $x > 0$ . Q.E.D.

# E的唯一性:

**8.3.4 Theorem** The function  $E : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies (i) and (ii) of Theorem 8.3.1 is unique.

*Proof.* Assume there're two functions

$E_1(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $E_2(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfy (i) and (ii)

then Define  $F(x) := E_1(x) - E_2(x)$

$$\text{From (ii), } F(0) = E_1(0) - E_2(0) = 1 - 1 = 0$$

$$\text{From (i) } F'(x) = E'_1(x) - E'_2(x) = E_1 - E_2 = F$$

By 8.3.2,  $E_1^{(n)}$  and  $E_2^{(n)}$  are exist on  $\mathbb{R}$   
and  $E_1^{(n)} = E_1$ ,  $E_2^{(n)} = E_2$

$$\Rightarrow F^{(n)}(x) = F(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$\left[ \begin{array}{l} n \text{ 阶可导, 又欲证 } F^{(n)} = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \\ \text{联想 Taylor Theorem 重塑 } F(x) \end{array} \right]$

*Proof.* Let  $E_1$  and  $E_2$  be two functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that satisfy properties (i) and (ii) of Theorem 8.3.1 and let  $F := E_1 - E_2$ . Then

$$F'(x) = E'_1(x) - E'_2(x) = E_1(x) - E_2(x) = F(x)$$

for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and

$$F(0) = E_1(0) - E_2(0) = 1 - 1 = 0.$$

It is clear (by Induction) that  $F$  has derivatives of all orders and indeed that  $F^{(n)}(x) = F(x)$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  be arbitrary, and let  $I_x$  be the closed interval with endpoints 0,  $x$ . Since  $F$  is continuous on  $I_x$ , there exists  $K > 0$  such that  $|F(t)| \leq K$  for all  $t \in I_x$ . If we apply Taylor's Theorem 6.4.1 to  $F$  on the interval  $I_x$  and use the fact that  $F^{(k)}(0) = F(0) = 0$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , it follows that for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there is a point  $c_n \in I_x$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} F(x) &= F(0) + \frac{F'(0)}{1!}x + \cdots + \frac{F^{(n-1)}}{(n-1)!}x^{n-1} + \frac{F^{(n)}(c_n)}{n!}x^n \\ &= \frac{F(c_n)}{n!}x^n. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore we have

$$|F(x)| \leq \frac{K|x|^n}{n!} \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

But since  $\lim(|x|/n!) = 0$ , we conclude that  $F(x) = 0$ . Since  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is arbitrary, we infer that  $E_1(x) - E_2(x) = F(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Q.E.D.

# 用泰勒展开式先规定区间

$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ , let  $I_x$  be a closed interval ends

with 0 and  $x$ .

As  $F$  continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  so  $F$  continuous on  $I_x$

$\Rightarrow F$  is bounded on  $I_x$  ( $[0, x]$  or  $[x, 0]$ )

i.e.  $\exists k > 0$  s.t.  $|F(t)| \leq k \quad \forall t \in I_x$

On  $I_x$ :  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\exists c_n \in I_x$  s.t.

$$F(x) = F(0) + \frac{F'(0)}{1!}x + \cdots + \frac{F^{(n-1)}(0)}{(n-1)!}x^{n-1} + \frac{F^{(n)}(c_n)}{n!}x^n$$

$$= 0 + 0 + \cdots + 0 + \frac{F^{(n)}(c_n)}{n!}x^n$$

$$\Rightarrow |F(x)| = \left| \frac{F^{(n)}(c_n)}{n!}x^n \right| \leq k \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\text{As } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{x^n}{n!} \right| = 0$$

$$\text{so } 0 \leq |F(x)| \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow F(x) = 0$$

i.e.  $E_1(x) = E_2(x)$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Q.E.D.

**8.3.5 Definition** The unique function  $E : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that  $E'(x) = E(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $E(0) = 1$ , is called the **exponential function**. The number  $e := E(1)$  is called **Euler's number**. We will frequently write

$$\exp(x) := E(x) \quad \text{or} \quad e^x := E(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

□  $E(0) = 1$  的必要性:

When  $U(0)=0 \Rightarrow U'(x)=U(x)$

但  $U(0) \neq 1 \Rightarrow U'(x) \neq e^x$

### 8.3.6 Theorem The exponential function satisfies the following properties:

- (iii)  $E(x) \neq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- (iv)  $E(x+y) = E(x)E(y)$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ;
- (v)  $E(r) = e^r$  for all  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

(iii) Proof: Assume that  $\exists x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $E(x_0) = 0$

Let  $J_{x_0}$  be a closed interval with end points

0 and  $x_0$

then  $E(x)$  bounded on  $J_{x_0}$

i.e.,  $\exists k > 0$  s.t.  $\forall t \in J_{x_0}, |E(t)| \leq k$

As  $E^{(n)}(x) = E(x) \quad \forall x \in J_{x_0}$  so

by Taylor's Theorem,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \exists c_n \in J_{x_0}$  s.t.

$$E(0) = E(x_0) + \frac{E'(x_0)}{1!}(0-x_0) + \cdots + \frac{E^{(n)}(x_0)}{(n-1)!}(0-x_0)^{n-1} + \frac{E^{(n)}(c_n)}{n!}(0-x_0)^n$$

$$E(0) = 0 + \cdots + 0 + \frac{E^{(n)}(c_n)}{n!}(-x_0)^n$$

$$= 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = \left| \frac{E^{(n)}(c_n)}{n!} (-x_0)^n \right| \leq \left| \frac{(-x_0)^n}{n!} \right| k = \frac{k}{n!} |x_0|^n$$

$$\text{and } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{|x_0|^n}{n!} = 0$$

So  $0 < 1 \leq 0$ . Contradiction.

D.E.D.

**Proof.** (iii) Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  be such that  $E(\alpha) = 0$ , and let  $J_\alpha$  be the closed interval with endpoints 0,  $\alpha$ . Let  $K \geq |E(t)|$  for all  $t \in J_\alpha$ . Taylor's Theorem 6.4.1 implies that for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists a point  $c_n \in J_\alpha$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} 1 = E(0) &= E(\alpha) + \frac{E'(\alpha)}{1!}(-\alpha) + \cdots + \frac{E^{(n-1)}(\alpha)}{(n-1)!}(-\alpha)^{n-1} \\ &\quad + \frac{E^{(n)}(\alpha)}{n!}(-\alpha)^n = \frac{E(c_n)}{n!}(-\alpha)^n. \end{aligned}$$

Thus we have  $0 < 1 \leq (K/n!)|\alpha|^n$  for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . But since  $\lim(|\alpha|^n/n!) = 0$ , this is a contradiction.

- (iv)  $E(x+y) = E(x)E(y)$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ;

*Proof.* Let  $y$  be fixed. by (iii),  $E(y) \neq 0$

then define  $G: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$G(x) := \frac{E(x+y)}{E(y)} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow G'(x) &= \frac{E'(x+y)}{E(y)} \quad [E(y) \text{ is a constant here}] \\ &= \frac{E(x+y)}{E(y)} \\ &= G(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Also, } G(0) = \frac{E(0+y)}{E(y)} = 1$$

So by the uniqueness of  $E(x)$ ,  $G(x) = E(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Thus,  $E(x+y) = E(x) \cdot E(y) \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Q.E.D.

(iv) Let  $y$  be fixed; by (iii) we have  $E(y) \neq 0$ . Let  $G: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by

$$G(x) := \frac{E(x+y)}{E(y)} \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Evidently we have  $G'(x) = E'(x+y)/E(y) = E(x+y)/E(y) = G(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , and  $G(0) = E(0+y)/E(y) = 1$ . It follows from the uniqueness of  $E$ , proved in Theorem 8.3.4, that  $G(x) = E(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence  $E(x+y) = E(x)E(y)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  is arbitrary, we obtain (iv).

(v)  $E(r) = e^r$  for all  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

*Proof.*  $\forall r \in \mathbb{Q}$ ,  $r = \frac{m}{n}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ .

$$e = E(1) = E(n \cdot \frac{1}{n}) = E(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}) = \left[ E(\frac{1}{n}) \right]^n$$

$$\Rightarrow E(\frac{1}{n}) = e^{\frac{1}{n}}$$

$$E(m) = E(m \cdot 1) = E(1 + 1 + \dots + 1) = \left[ E(1) \right]^m = e^m$$

$$\text{Thus, } E(\frac{m}{n}) = E(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{n} + \dots + \frac{1}{n}) = \left[ E(\frac{1}{n}) \right]^m = e^{\frac{m}{n}}$$

Q.E.D.

(v) It follows from (iv) and Induction that if  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$E(nx) = E(x)^n$$

If we let  $x = 1/n$ , this relation implies that

$$e = E(1) = E\left(n \cdot \frac{1}{n}\right) = \left(E\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right)^n$$

whence it follows that  $E(1/n) = e^{1/n}$ . Also we have  $E(-m) = 1/E(m) = 1/e^m = e^{-m}$  for  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Therefore, if  $m \in \mathbb{Z}$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$E(m/n) = (E(1/n))^m = (e^{1/n})^m = e^{m/n}$$

This establishes (v). Q.E.D.

Q.E.D.

**8.3.7 Theorem** *The exponential function  $E$  is strictly increasing on  $\mathbb{R}$  and has range equal to  $\{y \in \mathbb{R} : y > 0\}$ . Further, we have*

$$\text{(vi)} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} E(x) = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} E(x) = \infty.$$

Prof. As  $E(0)=1>0$  and  $E(x)>0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

As  $E$  is bounded,  $E$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$

By Bolzano's Intermediate Value Theorem,

$$E(x) > 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$\Rightarrow E'(x) = E(x) > 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$E(x)$  is monotone increasing on  $\mathbb{R}$

(vi) As  $E(x) > 1+x$ , so  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} E(x) > \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} (1+x) = \infty$

$$(vii) \quad \forall z > 0, \quad E(-z) = \frac{1}{E(z)}$$

$$\text{So} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} E(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{E(-x)} = 0$$

Thus, by Intermediate Value Theorem,

$$\forall y \in \mathbb{R} \text{ with } y > 0, \quad y \in \text{Range}(E)$$

R.E.D.

### The Logarithm Function

We have seen that the exponential function  $E$  is a strictly increasing differentiable function with domain  $\mathbb{R}$  and range  $\{y \in \mathbb{R} : y > 0\}$ . (See Figure 8.3.1.) It follows that  $\mathbb{R}$  has an inverse function.

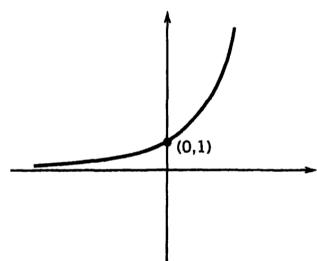


Figure 8.3.1 Graph of  $E$

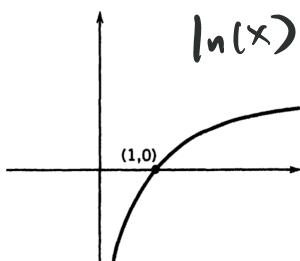


Figure 8.3.2 Graph of  $L$

**8.3.8 Definition** The function inverse to  $E : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called the **logarithm** (or the **natural logarithm**). (See Figure 8.3.2.) It will be denoted by  $L$ , or by  $\ln$ .

Since  $E$  and  $L$  are inverse functions, we have

$$(L \circ E)(x) = x \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}$$

and

$$(E \circ L)(y) = y \quad \text{for all } y \in \mathbb{R}, y > 0.$$

These formulas may also be written in the form

$$\ln e^x = x, \quad e^{\ln y} = y.$$

**8.3.9 Theorem** *The logarithm is a strictly increasing function  $L$  with domain  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 0\}$  and range  $\mathbb{R}$ . The derivative of  $L$  is given by*

(vii)  $L'(x) = 1/x$  for  $x > 0$ .

*The logarithm satisfies the functional equation*

(viii)  $L(xy) = L(x) + L(y)$  for  $x > 0, y > 0$ .

*Moreover, we have*

(ix)  $L(1) = 0$  and  $L(e) = 1$ ,

(x)  $L(x^r) = rL(x)$  for  $x > 0, r \in \mathbb{Q}$ .

(xi)  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} L(x) = -\infty$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} L(x) = \infty$ .

*Proof.* That  $L$  is strictly increasing with domain  $\{x \in \mathbb{R} : x > 0\}$  and range  $\mathbb{R}$  follows from the fact that  $E$  is strictly increasing with domain  $\mathbb{R}$  and range  $\{y \in \mathbb{R} : y > 0\}$ .

(vii) Since  $E'(x) = E(x) > 0$ , it follows from Theorem 6.1.9 that  $L$  is differentiable on  $(0, \infty)$  and that

$$L'(x) = \frac{1}{(E' \circ L)(x)} = \frac{1}{(E \circ L)(x)} = \frac{1}{x} \quad \text{for } x \in (0, \infty).$$

(viii) If  $x > 0, y > 0$ , let  $u := L(x)$  and  $v := L(y)$ . Then we have  $x = E(u)$  and  $y = E(v)$ . It follows from property (iv) of Theorem 8.3.6 that

$$xy = E(u)E(v) = E(u+v),$$

so that  $L(xy) = (L \circ E)(u+v) = u+v = L(x)+L(y)$ . This establishes (viii).

The properties in (ix) follow from the relations  $E(0) = 1$  and  $E(1) = e$ .

(x) This result follows from (viii) and Mathematical Induction for  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and is extended to  $r \in \mathbb{Q}$  by arguments similar to those in the proof of 8.3.6(v).

To establish property (xi), we first note that since  $2 < e$ , then  $\lim(e^n) = \infty$  and  $\lim(e^{-n}) = 0$ . Since  $L(e^n) = n$  and  $L(e^{-n}) = -n$  it follows from the fact that  $L$  is strictly increasing that

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} L(x) = \lim L(e^x) = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow 0^+} L(x) = \lim L(e^{-x}) = -\infty. \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

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

## Power Functions

*arbitrary real powers*

**8.3.10 Definition** If  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x > 0$ , the number  $x^\alpha$  is defined to be

$$x^\alpha := e^{\alpha \ln x} = E(\alpha L(x)).$$

The function  $x \mapsto x^\alpha$  for  $x > 0$  is called the **power function** with exponent  $\alpha$ .

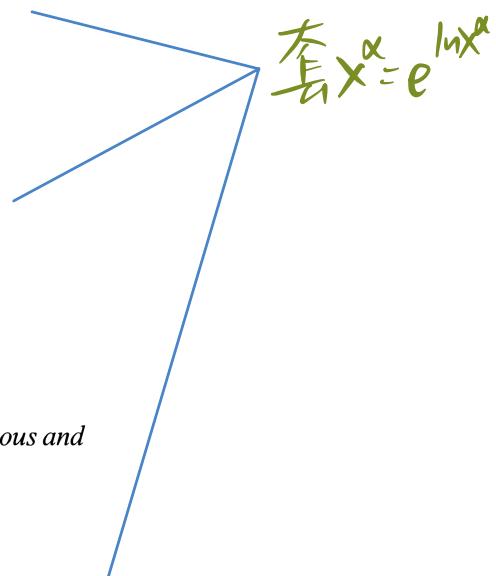
We now state some properties of the power functions. Their proofs are immediate consequences of the properties of the exponential and logarithm functions and will be left to the reader.

**8.3.11 Theorem** If  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x, y$  belong to  $(0, \infty)$ , then:

- (a)  $1^\alpha = 1$ ,
- (b)  $x^\alpha > 0$ ,
- (c)  $(xy)^\alpha = x^\alpha y^\alpha$ ,
- (d)  $(x/y)^\alpha = x^\alpha / y^\alpha$ .

**8.3.12 Theorem** If  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x \in (0, \infty)$ , then:

- (a)  $x^{\alpha+\beta} = x^\alpha x^\beta$
- (b)  $(x^\alpha)^\beta = x^{\alpha\beta} = (x^\beta)^\alpha$ ,
- (c)  $x^{-\alpha} = 1/x^\alpha$ ,
- (d) if  $\alpha < \beta$ , then  $x^\alpha < x^\beta$  for  $x > 1$ .



**8.3.13 Theorem** Let  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then the function  $x \mapsto x^\alpha$  on  $(0, \infty)$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  is continuous and differentiable, and

$$Dx^\alpha = \alpha x^{\alpha-1} \quad \text{for } x \in (0, \infty).$$

**Proof.** By the Chain Rule we have

$$\begin{aligned} Dx^\alpha &= D e^{\alpha \ln x} = e^{\alpha \ln x} \cdot D(\alpha \ln x) \\ &= x^\alpha \cdot \frac{\alpha}{x} = \alpha x^{\alpha-1} \quad \text{for } x \in (0, \infty). \end{aligned} \qquad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

### The Function $\log_a$

---

If  $a > 0$ ,  $a \neq 1$ , it is sometimes useful to define the function  $\log_a$ .

**8.3.14 Definition** Let  $a > 0$ ,  $a \neq 1$ . We define

$$\log_a(x) := \frac{\ln x}{\ln a} \quad \text{for } x \in (0, \infty).$$

For  $x \in (0, \infty)$ , the number  $\log_a(x)$  is called the **logarithm of  $x$  to the base  $a$** . The case  $a = e$  yields the logarithm (or natural logarithm) function of Definition 8.3.8. The case  $a = 10$  gives the base 10 logarithm (or common logarithm) function  $\log_{10}$  often used in computations. Properties of the functions  $\log_a$  will be given in the exercises.

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## Section 8.4 The Trigonometric Functions

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**8.4.1 Theorem** *There exist functions  $C : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $S : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that*

- (i)  $C''(x) = -C(x)$  and  $S''(x) = -S(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- (ii)  $C(0) = 1$ ,  $C'(0) = 0$ , and  $S(0) = 0$ ,  $S'(0) = 1$ .

*Proof:* Define  $C_n(x)$  and  $S_n(x)$  inductively:

$$(i) \Rightarrow C_1(x) = 1, \quad S_1(x) = x$$

As  $C_i$  and  $S_i$  are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  so they are integrable on bounded interval  $[0, x]$ ,  $\forall x > 0$ ,

$$(ii) \Rightarrow \begin{aligned} S_{n+1}(x) &= \int_0^x C_n(t) dt \\ C_{n+1}(x) &= 1 - \int_0^x S_n(t) dt \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, x \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

By Fundamental Theorem of Calculus,

$$1) \quad S_n, C_n \text{ are differentiable when } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$2) \quad S_n'(x) = C_n(x), \quad C_{n+1}'(x) = -S_n(x) \quad (1)$$

By induction:

$$C_{n+1}(x) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{4!}x^4 - \frac{1}{6!}x^6 + \dots + (-1)^{\frac{1}{(2n)!}} x^{2n}$$

$$S_{n+1}(x) = x - \frac{1}{3!}x^3 + \frac{1}{5!}x^5 - \frac{1}{7!}x^7 + \dots + (-1)^{\frac{1}{(2n+1)!}} x^{2n+1}$$

From 1),  $C_n'(x) = -S_{n-1}(x) \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{1\}$

so  $(C_n')$  uniformly converges on  $[-A, A]$

$\Rightarrow \lim(C_n')$  is differentiable on  $[-A, A]$

and  $C' = \lim(C_n')$

$$\Rightarrow C'(x) = \lim(C_n'(x)) = \lim(-S_{n-1}(x)) = -S(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow C'(x) = -S(x)$$

Similarly, From  $S_{n+1} = C_n(x)$ ,  $(S_n')$  is uniformly convergent, then  $S$  is differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$

and  $S' = \lim(S_n') = \lim(C_n) = C$

$$\Rightarrow S'(x) = C(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Thus,  $S'(0) = C(0) = 1, \quad C(0) = -S(0) = 0$

and  $S''(x) = C'(x) = -S(x)$

$$C'''(x) = S'(x) = C(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$\theta \in \mathbb{D}$ ,

$\forall x \in [-A, A], \forall A > 0$ , let  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $m > n \geq A$

$$\begin{aligned} |C_m(x) - C_n(x)| &= |x_{m+1} + \dots + x_m| \\ &= \left| (-1)^{\frac{1}{(2m)!}} x^{2m} + \dots + (-1)^{\frac{1}{(2n)!}} x^{2n} \right| \\ &\leq \left| \frac{1}{(2m)!} X^{2m} \right| + \dots + \left| \frac{1}{(2n)!} X^{2n} \right| \\ &= \frac{|X|^{2m}}{(2m)!} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{2m+1} X + \frac{1}{(2m+2)(2m+1)} X^2 + \dots + \frac{(2m)!}{(2m+2)!} X^{2m+2} \right] \\ &\Rightarrow 4A < 2n \\ &\leq \frac{A^{2m}}{(2m)!} \left[ 1 + \frac{A}{2m+1} + \frac{A^2}{(2m+2)(2m+1)} + \dots + \frac{(2m)!}{(2m+2)!} A^{2m+2} \right] \\ &< \frac{A^{2m}}{(2m)!} \left[ 1 + \frac{A}{2m} + \frac{A^2}{(2m)^2} + \dots + \frac{A^{2m+2}}{(2m)^{2m+2}} \right] \\ &\leq \frac{A^{2m}}{(2m)!} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{4} + \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 + \dots + \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{2m+2} \right] \\ &< \frac{A^{2m}}{(2m)!} \times \cancel{2} \quad \textcircled{2} \quad \frac{16}{15} \end{aligned}$$

As  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{A^{2m}}{(2m)!} = 0$  so by Cauchy Criterion,

$(C_n(x))$  is a uniform convergent Series, on  $[-A, A]$

$\Rightarrow (C_n(x))$  uniformly converges on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Define function  $C: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$C(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n(x), \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

then  $C_n \rightharpoonup C$

As  $C_n(x)$  continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$   $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$

So  $C(x)$  continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$

$$\Rightarrow C(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} C(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} C_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} C_n(0) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow C(0) = 1$$

$\forall x \in [-A, A], \forall A > 0$ ,  $m, n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $m > n \geq A$

$$|S_m(x) - S_n(x)| = \left| \int_0^x C_n(t) dt - \int_0^x C_m(t) dt \right|$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{不回} \\ &\text{再来一} \\ &\text{遍} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \left| \int_0^x C_m(t) - C_n(t) dt \right| \\ &\leq \int_0^x |C_m(t) - C_n(t)| dt \\ &< \int_0^x \frac{A^{2m}}{(2m)!} dt \\ &\leq \frac{A^{2m}}{(2m)!} \cdot \frac{3}{2} |x| \\ &\leq \frac{A^{2m}}{(2m)!} \cdot A \end{aligned}$$

As  $\lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{A^{2m}}{(2m)!} = 0$  so  $(S_n(x))$  is uniformly convergent, on  $\mathbb{R}$  by  $\forall A > 0$

Define  $S(x)$  on  $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ :

$$S(x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(x)$$

As  $S_n(x)$  continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$  so  $S(x)$  continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$

$$\Rightarrow S(0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} S(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} S_n(x) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow S(0) = 0$$

**Proof.** We define the sequences  $(C_n)$  and  $(S_n)$  of continuous functions inductively as follows:

$$(1) \quad C_1(x) := 1, \quad S_1(x) := x,$$

$$(2) \quad S_n(x) := \int_0^x C_n(t) dt,$$

$$(3) \quad C_{n+1}(x) := 1 - \int_0^x S_n(t) dt,$$

for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}, x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

One sees by Induction that the functions  $C_n$  and  $S_n$  are continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  and hence they are integrable over any bounded interval; thus these functions are well-defined by the above formulas. Moreover, it follows from the Fundamental Theorem 7.3.5 that  $S_n$  and  $C_{n+1}$  are differentiable at every point and that

$$(4) \quad S'_n(x) = C_n(x) \quad \text{and} \quad C'_{n+1}(x) = -S_n(x) \quad \text{for } n \in \mathbb{N}, x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Induction arguments (which we leave to the reader) show that

$$C_{n+1}(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} - \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!},$$

$$S_{n+1}(x) = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} - \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}.$$

Let  $A > 0$  be given. Then if  $|x| \leq A$  and  $m > n > 2A$ , we have that (since  $A/2n < 1/4$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} (5) \quad |C_m(x) - C_n(x)| &= \left| \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} - \frac{x^{2n+2}}{(2n+2)!} + \cdots \pm \frac{x^{2m-2}}{(2m-2)!} \right| \\ &\leq \frac{A^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{A}{2n} \right)^2 + \cdots + \left( \frac{A}{2n} \right)^{2m-2n-2} \right] \\ &< \frac{A^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left( \frac{16}{15} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\lim(A^{2n}/(2n)!) = 0$ , the sequence  $(C_n)$  converges uniformly on the interval  $[-A, A]$ , where  $A > 0$  is arbitrary. In particular, this means that  $(C_n(x))$  converges for each  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . We define  $C : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$C(x) := \lim C_n(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

It follows from Theorem 8.2.2 that  $C$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  and, since  $C_n(0) = 1$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , that  $C(0) = 1$ .

If  $|x| \leq A$  and  $m \geq n > 2A$ , it follows from (2) that

$$S_m(x) - S_n(x) = \int_0^x \{C_m(t) - C_n(t)\} dt.$$

If we use (5) and Corollary 7.3.15, we conclude that

$$|S_m(x) - S_n(x)| \leq \frac{A^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left( \frac{16}{15} A \right),$$

whence the sequence  $(S_n)$  converges uniformly on  $[-A, A]$ . We define  $S : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$S(x) := \lim S_n(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

It follows from Theorem 8.2.2 that  $S$  is continuous on  $\mathbb{R}$  and, since  $S_n(0) = 0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , that  $S(0) = 0$ .

Since  $C'_n(x) = -S_{n-1}(x)$  for  $n > 1$ , it follows from the above that the sequence  $(C'_n)$  converges uniformly on  $[-A, A]$ . Hence by Theorem 8.2.3, the limit function  $C$  is differentiable on  $[-A, A]$  and

$$C'(x) = \lim C'_n(x) = \lim(-S_{n-1}(x)) = -S(x) \quad \text{for } x \in [-A, A].$$

Since  $A > 0$  is arbitrary, we have

$$(6) \quad C'(x) = -S(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

A similar argument, based on the fact that  $S'_n(x) = C_n(x)$ , shows that  $S$  is differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$  and that

$$(7) \quad S'(x) = C(x) \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

It follows from (6) and (7) that

$$C''(x) = -(S(x))' = -C(x) \quad \text{and} \quad S''(x) = (C(x))' = -S(x)$$

for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Moreover, we have

$$C'(0) = -S(0) = 0, \quad S'(0) = C(0) = 1.$$

Thus statements (i) and (ii) are proved. Q.E.D.

### 8.4.2 Corollary If $C, S$ are the functions in Theorem 8.4.1, then

(iii)  $C'(x) = -S(x)$  and  $S'(x) = C(x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Moreover, these functions have derivatives of all orders.

**Proof.** The formulas (iii) were established in (6) and (7). The existence of the higher order derivatives follows by Induction. Q.E.D.

### 8.4.3 Corollary The functions $C$ and $S$ satisfy the Pythagorean Identity:

(iv)  $(C(x))^2 + (S(x))^2 = 1$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $f(x) := (C(x))^2 + (S(x))^2$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , so that

$$f'(x) = 2C(x)(-S(x)) + 2S(x)(C(x)) = 0 \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Thus it follows that  $f(x)$  is a constant for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . But since  $f(0) = 1 + 0 = 1$ , we conclude that  $f(x) = 1$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Q.E.D.

We next establish the uniqueness of the functions  $C$  and  $S$ .

### 8.4.4 Theorem The functions $C$ and $S$ satisfying properties (i) and (ii) of Theorem 8.4.1 are unique.

Proof. Assume that there're  $C$  and  $\tilde{C}$ ,  $S$  and  $\tilde{S}$  that satisfy (i) and (ii)  
then define  $F_1(x) = C - \tilde{C}$ ,  $F_2(x) = S - \tilde{S}$   
then  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are differentiable on  $\mathbb{R}$

$$\begin{aligned} F_1(0) &= C(0) - \tilde{C}(0) = 1 - 1 = 0 \\ F_2(0) &= S(0) - \tilde{S}(0) = 0 - 0 = 0 \\ F_1'(x) &= C'(x) - \tilde{C}'(x) = -S(x) + \tilde{S}(x) = -F_2 \\ F_2'(x) &= S'(x) - \tilde{S}'(x) = C(x) - \tilde{C}(x) = F_1 \\ \Rightarrow \begin{cases} F_1' = -F_2 \\ F_2' = F_1 \end{cases} &\stackrel{(1)}{\Rightarrow} \begin{cases} F_1^{(n)}(0) = \pm F_2 \\ F_2^{(n)}(0) = \mp F_1 \end{cases}, \forall n \geq 2 \\ F_1^{(n)}(0) = (-F_2)^{(n)} &= -F_1, \quad F_2^{(n)}(0) = F_1^{(n)} = 0 \\ \Rightarrow \begin{cases} F_1^{(n)} = -F_2 \\ F_2^{(n)} = -F_1 \end{cases} &\stackrel{(2)}{\Rightarrow} \begin{cases} F_1^{(n)}(0) = 0 \\ F_2^{(n)}(0) = 0 \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

By Induction,  $F_2^{(n)}(x)$  exists on  $\mathbb{R}$   $\forall n \geq 1, 2$ .

By Induction,  $F_2^{(n)}(x)$  exists on  $\mathbb{R}$   $\forall n \geq 1, 2$ . closed

Thus,  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}$ , define interval  $I_x$  with endpoints  $0, x$ .

As  $F_1, F_2$  continuous on  $I_x$  then  $\exists M > 0$  s.t.

$$|F_1(x)| \leq M, |F_2(x)| \leq M \quad \forall x \in I_x$$

By Taylor's Theorem: When,  $\exists c \in I_x$  s.t.

$$\begin{aligned} F_1(x) &= F_1(0) + \frac{F_1'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{F_1''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{F_1^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n + \frac{F_1^{(n+1)}(c)}{n+1!}x^{n+1} \\ &= \frac{F_1^{(n)}(c)}{n!}x^n \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{\pm F_1(c)}{n!}x^n$$

$$\leq \frac{M}{n!}|x|^n$$

$$\text{As } \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \frac{M}{n!} \right) = 0 \quad \text{so } F_1(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in I_x$$

As  $x$  is arbitrary, so  $F_1(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\Rightarrow C(x) = \tilde{C}(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

Similarly,

$$\begin{aligned} F_2(x) &= F_2(0) + \frac{F_2'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{F_2''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \dots + \frac{F_2^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n + \frac{F_2^{(n+1)}(c)}{n+1!}x^{n+1} \\ &= \frac{F_2^{(n)}(c)}{n!}x^n \\ &= \frac{\pm F_2(c)}{n!}x^n \\ &\leq M \cdot \frac{|x|^n}{n!} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus, } F_2 = 0 \Rightarrow S(x) = \tilde{S}(x), \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}. \quad \text{Q.E.D.}$$

Proof. Let  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  be two functions on  $\mathbb{R}$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that satisfy  $C_j'(x) = -C_j(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $C_j(0) = 1, C_j'(0) = 0$  for  $j = 1, 2$ . If we let  $D := C_1 - C_2$ , then  $D'(x) = -D(x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $D(0) = 0$  and  $D^{(k)}(0) = 0$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Now let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  be arbitrary, and let  $I_x$  be the interval with endpoints  $0, x$ . Since  $D = C_1 - C_2$  and  $T := S_1 - S_2 = C_2 - C_1$  are continuous on  $I_x$ , there exists  $K > 0$  such that  $|D(t)| \leq K$  and  $|T(t)| \leq K$  for all  $t \in I_x$ . If we apply Taylor's Theorem 6.4.1 to  $D$  on  $I_x$  and use the fact that  $D(0) = 0, D^{(k)}(0) = 0$  for  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ , it follows that for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there is a point  $c_n \in I_x$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} D(x) &= D(0) + \frac{D'(0)}{1!}x + \dots + \frac{D^{(n-1)}(0)}{(n-1)!}x^{n-1} + \frac{D^{(n)}(c_n)}{n!}x^n \\ &= \frac{D^{(n)}(c_n)}{n!}x^n. \end{aligned}$$

Now either  $D^{(n)}(c_n) = \pm D(c_n)$  or  $D^{(n)}(c_n) = \pm T(c_n)$ . In either case we have

$$|D(x)| \leq \frac{K|x|^n}{n!}.$$

But since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (|x|^n/n!) = 0$ , we conclude that  $D(x) = 0$ . Since  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  is arbitrary, we infer that  $C_1(x) - C_2(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

A similar argument shows that if  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  are two functions on  $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $S'_j(x) = -S_j(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $S_j(0) = 0, S'_j(0) = 1$  for  $j = 1, 2$ , then we have  $S_1(x) = S_2(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Q.E.D.

#### 8.4.6 Theorem If $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is such that

$$f''(x) = -f(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R},$$

then there exist real numbers  $\alpha, \beta$  such that

存在性证明

$$f(x) = \alpha C(x) + \beta S(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

*Proof.* Let  $g(x) := f(0)C(x) + f'(0)S(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow g''(x) &= (f(0)C'(x) + f'(0)S'(x))' \\ &= f(0)C''(x) + f'(0)S''(x) \\ &= f(0)(-C(x)) + f'(0)(-S(x)) \\ &= -g(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{and } g(0) = f(0), \quad g'(0) = f'(0)$$

Therefore let  $h := f - g$  — then

$$\begin{aligned} h''(x) &= f''(x) - g''(x) = -f + g = g - f = -h \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, \\ \text{and } h(0) &= 0, \quad h'(0) = 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,  $h(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) = g(x). \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$\alpha := f(0) \quad \beta := f'(0).$$

Q.E.D.

*Proof.* Let  $g(x) := f(0)C(x) + f'(0)S(x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . It is readily seen that  $g''(x) = -g(x)$  and that  $g(0) = f(0)$ , and since

$$g'(x) = -f(0)S(x) + f'(0)C(x),$$

that  $g'(0) = f'(0)$ . Therefore the function  $h := f - g$  is such that  $h''(x) = -h(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $h(0) = 0$ ,  $h'(0) = 0$ . Thus it follows from the proof of the preceding theorem that  $h(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Therefore  $f(x) = g(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Q.E.D.

#### 8.4.7 Theorem The function $C$ is even and $S$ is odd in the sense that

(v)  $C(-x) = C(x)$  and  $S(-x) = -S(x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

If  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ , then we have the “addition formulas”

(vi)  $C(x+y) = C(x)C(y) - S(x)S(y)$ ,  $S(x+y) = S(x)C(y) + C(x)S(y)$ .

(v) Proof. Let  $\varphi(x) := C(-x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  then

$$\varphi''(x) = -C(-x) = -\varphi(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$\text{Moreover, } \varphi(0) = 1, \quad \varphi'(0) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \varphi(x) = C(x) = \cos(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow C(-x) = C(x).$$

Let  $\delta(x) := S(-x)$  then  $\delta'(x) = -S(-x) = -\delta(x)$

$$\Rightarrow \delta(0) = S(0) = 0, \quad \delta'(0) = C(0) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta(x) = S(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow S(-x) = S(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Q.E.D.

(vi). As  $C''(x) = -C(x)$ ,  $S''(x) = -S(x)$

so  $\exists \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  st.

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= C(x+y) = \alpha C(x) + \beta S(x) \\ \text{and } f'(x) &= -S(x+y) = -\alpha S(x) + \beta C(x) \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

Let  $x=0$ ,

$$\text{then } \alpha y = \alpha, \quad -\beta y = \beta \Rightarrow \alpha y = -\beta$$

now (i) becomes  $C(x+y) = (\alpha y)C(x) - \beta y S(x)$

$$\text{let } g(x) := S(x+y) = \alpha' S(x) + \beta' C(x)$$

$$\text{then } g'(x) = C(x+y) = \alpha' C(x) - \beta' S(x)$$

Let  $x=0$  then

$$S(y) = \beta', \quad C(y) = \alpha'$$

$$\Rightarrow S(x+y) = \alpha y S(x) + \beta y C(x)$$

Q.E.D.

**Proof.** (v) If  $\varphi(x) := C(-x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , then a calculation shows that  $\varphi''(x) = -\varphi(x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Moreover,  $\varphi(0) = 1$  and  $\varphi'(0) = 0$  so that  $\varphi = C$ . Hence,  $C(-x) = C(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . In a similar way one shows that  $S(-x) = -S(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

(vi) Let  $y \in \mathbb{R}$  be given and let  $f(x) := C(x+y)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . A calculation shows that  $f''(x) = -f(x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Hence, by Theorem 8.4.6, there exists real numbers  $\alpha, \beta$  such that

$$f(x) = C(x+y) = \alpha C(x) + \beta S(x) \quad \text{and}$$

$$f'(x) = -S(x+y) = -\alpha S(x) + \beta C(x)$$

for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . If we let  $x = 0$ , we obtain  $C(y) = \alpha$  and  $-S(y) = \beta$ , whence the first formula in (vi) follows. The second formula is proved similarly.

Q.E.D.

**8.4.8 Theorem** *If  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $x \geq 0$ , then we have*

(vii)  $-x \leq S(x) \leq x;$

(viii)  $1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \leq C(x) \leq 1;$

(ix)  $x - \frac{1}{6}x^3 \leq S(x) \leq x;$

(x)  $1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \leq C(x) \leq 1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 + \frac{1}{24}x^4.$

*Proof.* Corollary 8.4.3 implies that  $-1 \leq C(t) \leq 1$  for  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ , so that if  $x \geq 0$ , then

$$-x \leq \int_0^x C(t)dt \leq x,$$

whence we have (vii). If we integrate (vii), we obtain

$$-\frac{1}{2}x^2 \leq \int_0^x S(t)dt \leq \frac{1}{2}x^2,$$

whence we have

$$-\frac{1}{2}x^2 \leq -C(x) + 1 \leq \frac{1}{2}x^2.$$

Thus we have  $1 - \frac{1}{2}x^2 \leq C(x)$ , which implies (viii).

Inequality (ix) follows by integrating (viii), and (x) follows by integrating (ix). Q.E.D.