

# Mathematical analysis 2 – Lecture notes

course by Wolfgang Ring

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March to July 2016

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This lecture took place on 1st of March 2016 with lecturer Wolfgang Ring.

Course organization:

- Tuesday, 1 hours 30 minutes, beginning at 8:15
- Thursday, 45 minutes, beginning at 8:15
- Friday, 1 hours 30 minutes, beginning at 8:15

Literature:

- Königsberger, Analysis 1

## 1 Exponential function (cont.)

Let  $(z_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a complex series with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} z_n = z$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (1 + \frac{z_n}{n})^n = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!}$ . For every complex number  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  this series converges on entire  $\mathbb{C}$ .

$$\exp(z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left(1 + \frac{z}{n}\right)^n = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k!}$$

$$\exp(z + w) = \exp(z) \cdot \exp(w)$$

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\exp(z) - 1}{z} = 1$$

$$\exp(1) = e \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$z = \frac{m}{n} \in \mathbb{Q} \wedge n \neq 0 \Rightarrow \exp\left(\frac{m}{n}\right) = e^{\frac{m}{n}}$$

So we also denote

$$\exp(z) = e^z \quad \text{for } z \in \mathbb{C}$$

It holds that

$$\exp(z) \neq 0 \quad \forall z \in \mathbb{C}$$

$\exp(x)$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$

$$e^x > 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(e^x)' = e^x$$

It follows immediately that the exponential function is strictly monotonically increasing in  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$(e^x)'' = (e^x)' = e^x > 0$$

It follows that the exponential function is convex. But as usual,

$$e^0 = 1$$

Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{e^x}{x^n} = \infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} e^x \cdot x^n = 0$$

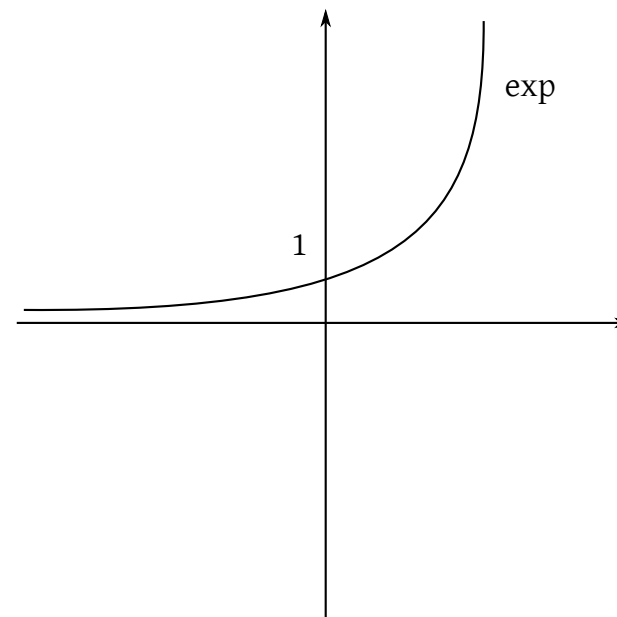


Figure 1: Graph of the exponential function

## 2 The natural logarithm

$$\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$$

is injective, because  $x_1 < x_2 \Rightarrow e^{x_1} < e^{x_2}$

**Lemma 1.**  $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$  is surjective.

*Proof.* We need to show that the equation  $e^x = y$  has some solution for every  $y > 0$ . We will use the Intermediate Value Theorem, we discussed in the previous course “Analysis 1”.

**Case 1** First of all, let  $y \in [1, \infty)$ . Then it holds that

$$e^0 = 1 \leq y \quad \text{and} \quad e^y = 1 + y + \underbrace{\frac{y^2}{2} + \frac{y^3}{3!} + \frac{y^4}{4!} + \dots}_{\geq 0}$$

$$\geq 1 + y > y$$

Therefore  $e^0 \leq y < e^y$ . Hence exp is continuous and the Intermediate Value Theorem applies:

$$\exists \xi \in [0, y] : \quad e^\xi = y$$

**Case 2** Let  $y \in (0, 1)$ . Then it holds that  $w = \frac{1}{y} > 1$ . The same as in Case 1 applies:

$$\exists \xi \in [0, w] : \quad e^\xi = w = \frac{1}{y}$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{-\xi} = \frac{1}{e^\xi} = y$$

So it holds that  $\exp : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow (0, \infty)$  is bijective.  $\square$

**Definition 1.** We call the inverse function *natural logarithm*<sup>1</sup>.

$$\exp^{-1} : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$\exp^{-1} = \ln(y) = \log(y)$$

Properties:

- It holds  $\forall x \in \mathbb{R} : \ln(e^x) = x$  and  $\forall y \in (0, \infty) : e^{\ln(y)} = y$ .
- $\ln : (0, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is strictly monotonically increasing

*Proof.* Let  $0 < y_1 < y_2$ . Assume  $\ln(y_1) \geq \ln(y_2) \xrightarrow{\text{monotonicity}} e^{\ln(y_1)} \geq e^{\ln(y_2)} \Rightarrow y_1 \geq y_2$ . Contradiction!  $\square$

<sup>1</sup>In non-German literature  $\ln(y)$  is almost exclusively written with the more general  $\log(y)$ .

## 2.1 Functional equations of logarithm

- For all  $x, y > 0$  it holds that

$$\ln(x \cdot y) = \ln(x) + \ln(y)$$

- Limes:

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} \frac{\ln(x)}{x - 1} = 1$$

*Proof.* •

$$x \cdot y = e^{\ln(x \cdot y)}$$

$$e^{\ln(x)} \cdot e^{\ln(y)} = e^{\ln(x) + \ln(y)}$$

Injectivity of exp:

$$\ln(x \cdot y) = \ln(x) + \ln(y)$$

- Let  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  with  $x_n > 0$  be an arbitrary sequence with  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = 0$ . Let  $w_n = 1 + x_n$ . Then it holds that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} w_n = 1$  and  $y_n = \ln(1 + x_n) = \ln(w_n)$ .

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n = \ln(1) = 0$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(w_n)}{w_n - 1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{y_n}{e^{y_n} - 1} = \frac{1}{1} = 1$$

where

$$e^0 = 1 \Rightarrow \ln(1) = 0$$

$\square$

**Theorem 1** (Logarithmic growth).  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}_+$  it holds that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{\sqrt[n]{x}} = 0$

*Proof.* Let  $x \in (0, \infty)$  with  $x = e^{n \cdot \xi}$ . That is,

$$\xi = \frac{\ln(x)}{n}$$

$$x \rightarrow \infty \Leftrightarrow \xi \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x)}{\sqrt[n]{x}} = \lim_{\xi \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n \cdot \xi}{\sqrt[n]{e^{n \cdot \xi}}} = \lim_{\xi \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n \cdot \xi}{e^\xi} = 0$$

because  $n \cdot \xi < \xi^2$  for  $\xi > n$  and  $\lim_{\xi \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\xi^2}{e^\xi} = 0$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 2.** The logarithm function is differentiable in  $(0, \infty)$  and it holds that  $(\ln(x))' = \frac{1}{x} \quad \forall x > 0$ .

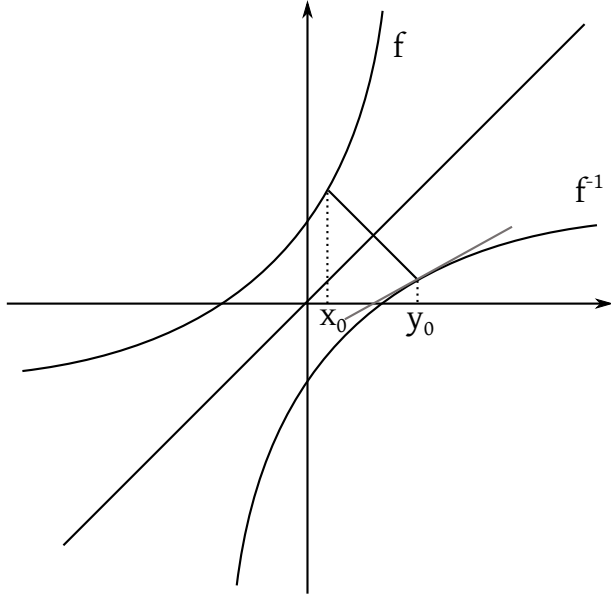


Figure 2: A geometric proof of differentiability

*Proof. First approach* Let  $x > 0$ ,  $x_n \rightarrow x$  with  $x_n \neq x$ ,  $x_n > 0$ . Let  $\xi_n = \ln(x_n)$  and  $\xi = \ln(x) \Rightarrow \xi_n \neq \xi$ .

$$e^{\xi_n} = x_n \quad e^{\xi} = x \quad \xi_n \rightarrow \xi$$

Then it holds that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\ln(x_n) - \ln(x)}{x_n - x} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\xi_n - \xi}{e^{\xi_n} - e^{\xi}}$$

$$= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\frac{e^{\xi_n} - e^{\xi}}{\xi_n - \xi}} = \frac{1}{\underbrace{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{e^{\xi_n} - e^{\xi}}{\xi_n - \xi}}_{(e^{\xi})' = e^{\xi}}} = \frac{1}{e^{\xi}} = \frac{1}{x}$$

**Second approach using chain rule** Compare with Figure 2.

$$(f^{-1})'(y_0) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(y_0))}$$

$$f(f^{-1}(y)) = y \Rightarrow f(f^{-1})f'(f^{-1}(y)) = y = f'(f^{-1}(y)) \cdot (f^{-1})'(y) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow (f^{-1})'(y) = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(y))} \text{ for } f(x) = \exp(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow (\ln)'(y) = \frac{1}{\exp(\ln(y))} = \frac{1}{y}$$

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

$$f'(f^{-1}(y)) \cdot (f^{-1})'$$

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

again for  $f(x) = \exp(x)$ .

**Third approach** Let  $x > 0$ .

$$0 = \ln(1) = \ln\left(x \cdot \frac{1}{x}\right) = \ln(x) + \ln\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \ln\left(\frac{1}{x}\right) = -\ln(x)$$

Let  $x, y > 0$ . Then it holds that

$$\ln \frac{x}{y} = \ln(x) - \ln(y)$$

because  $\ln \frac{x}{y} = \ln(x \cdot \frac{1}{y}) = \ln(x) - \ln(y)$ .

□

## 2.2 Extension of the functional equation of logarithm

## 2.3 A different proof for the derivative of logarithm

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} [\ln(x)]' &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(x+h) - \ln(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln\left(\frac{x+h}{x}\right)}{h} = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{h}{x}\right)}{x \cdot \frac{h}{x}} \\ &= \frac{1}{x} \cdot \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{h}{x}\right)}{\frac{h}{x}} \text{ where } \frac{h}{x} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

$1 + \frac{h}{x} = w$  then it holds that  $h \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow w \rightarrow 1$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{h}{x} &= w - 1 \\ \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln\left(1 + \frac{h}{x}\right)}{\frac{h}{x}} &= \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{\ln(w)}{w - 1} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

□

**Remark 1.** The exponential function can be defined from  $\mathbb{C}$  to  $\mathbb{C}$ .

$$\exp : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

It is not possible to define the logarithm *continuously* in entire  $\mathbb{C}$  (or  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$ ). We can only define a continuous inverse function of  $\exp$  in  $\mathbb{C} \setminus \{x \in \mathbb{R} : x \leq 0\}$

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This lecture took place on 3rd of March 2016 with lecturer Wolfgang Ring.

## 2.4 Further remarks on differential calculus

**Theorem 3.** Let  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be strictly monotonically increasing (or s. m. decreasing) where  $I$  is an interval. Then  $f^{-1} : f(I) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined and the inverse function.

Let  $f$  in  $x_0 \in I$  be differentiable and  $f'(x_0) \neq 0$ . Then  $f^{-1}$  is in  $y_0 = f(x_0)$  differentiable and it holds that

$$(f^{-1})'(y_0) = \frac{1}{f'(x_0)} = \frac{1}{f'(f^{-1}(y_0))}$$

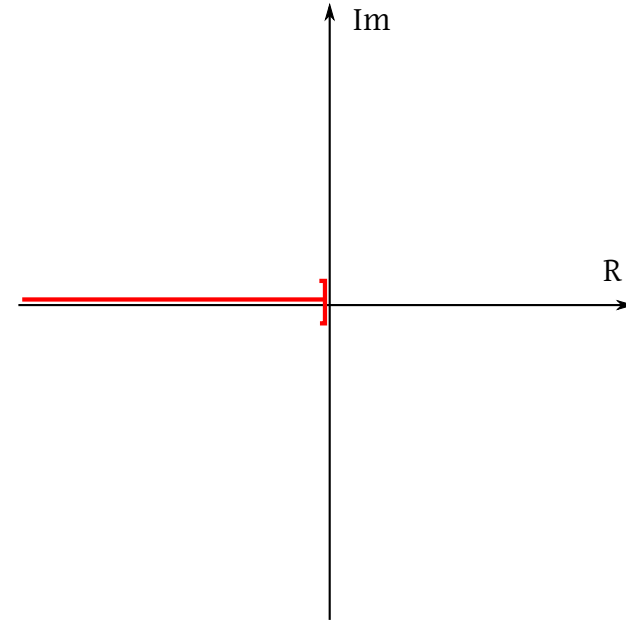


Figure 3: Continuous exponential function in  $\mathbb{C}$

*Proof.* Let  $y_n \rightarrow y_0$  and  $y_n \in f(I)$ ;  $y_0 = f(x_0)$ ;  $y_0 \in f(I)$ ;  $y_n = f(x_n)$ .  $y_n \neq y_0 \Rightarrow x_n \neq x_0$ .

$$\begin{aligned} &\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f^{-1}(y_n) - f^{-1}(y_0)}{y_n - y_0} \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x_n - x_0}{f(x_n) - f(x_0)} = \frac{1}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\frac{f(x_n) - f(x_0)}{x_n - x_0}}_{\text{ex} = f'(x_0)}} = \frac{1}{f'(x_0)} \end{aligned}$$

□

**Lemma 2.** Let  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $I$  is some interval. Then it holds that

$$f = \text{const} \Leftrightarrow f \text{ is differentiable in } I \text{ and } f'(x) = 0 \forall x \in I$$

*Proof.*  $\Rightarrow$  Immediate.

$\Leftarrow$  Let  $f$  be differentiable and  $f' \equiv 0$ . Assume  $f$  is not constant. Then there exist  $x_1, x_2 \in I$ ,  $x_1 \neq x_2$  and  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ . Without loss of generality,  $x_1 < x_2$ . The Intermediate Value Theorem states that

$$\exists \xi \in (x_1, x_2) \subseteq I : f'(\xi) = \frac{f(x_2) - f(x_1)}{x_2 - x_1} \neq 0$$

This is a contradiction to the assumption that  $f' \equiv 0$ .

□

**Definition 2.** Let  $I$  be an interval,  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . A function  $F : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called *primitive* or *antiderivative* of  $f$  if  $F$  is differentiable and

$$\forall x \in I : F'(x) = f(x)$$

**Lemma 3.** Let  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  be two primitive functions of  $f$ . Then it holds that  $F_1 - F_2 = \text{const}$ .

*Proof.*  $F_1, F_2$  are differentiable.

$$(F_1 - F_2)'(x) = F_1'(x) - F_2'(x) = f(x) - f(x) = 0$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{Lemma 2}} F_1 - F_2 = \text{const}$$

□

**Theorem 4.** Let  $I$  be an interval. Let  $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence of differentiable functions in  $I$ .

$$f_n : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ differentiable}$$

Furthermore let  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . It holds that,

1.  $\forall x \in I$  let  $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x)$  ( $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise)
2. for every  $x \in I$  let  $(f'_n(x))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be convergent (hence  $\varphi(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f'_n(x)$  exists for every  $x$ )

3.  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$n \geq N \Rightarrow |(f_n - f)(u) - (f_n - f)(v)| \leq \varepsilon |u - v| \forall u, v \in I$$

Then  $f$  is differentiable in  $I$  and it holds that  $f'(x) = \varphi(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f'_n(x)$ .

$$f'(x) = \left[ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f \right]'(x)$$

*Proof.* Let  $x_0 \in I$  and  $x \in I$ . Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  arbitrary.

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \varphi(x_0) \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f'_N(x_0) \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f'_N(x_0) \right| + \left| f'_N(x_0) - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f'_n(x_0) \right| \forall N \in \mathbb{N} \\ &\leq \left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} \right| \\ &\quad + \left| \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} - f'_N(x_0) \right| + |f'_N(x_0) - \varphi(x_0)| \end{aligned}$$

**1st term**

$$\begin{aligned} & \left| \frac{(f(x) - f_N(x)) - (f(x_0) - f_N(x_0))}{x - x_0} \right| = \left| \frac{(f - f_N)(x) - (f - f_N)(x_0)}{x - x_0} \right| \\ & \leq \frac{\varepsilon |x - x_0|}{3 |x - x_0|} \stackrel{\text{condition 3}}{=} \frac{\varepsilon}{3} \end{aligned}$$

for sufficiently large  $N$ .

**3rd term**  $|f'_N(x_0) - \varphi(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}$  for sufficiently large  $N$ .

Now let  $N$  be fixed (with a value such that the first and third term is less than  $\frac{\varepsilon}{3}$ ).

**2nd term**

$$\left| \frac{f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)}{x - x_0} \right| - f'_N(x_0)$$

Differentiability of  $f_N$ : Therefore for  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ .

$$\left| \frac{f(x) - f(x_0)}{x - x_0} - \varphi(x_0) \right| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon$$

$f$  is differentiable in  $x_0$  and  $f'(x_0) = \varphi(x_0)$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 5.** Let  $f_n : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  ( $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ) and  $f_n$  is differentiable in  $I$ .

Assumption:

1.  $f_n \rightarrow f$  converges pointwise in  $I$  (like the first statement in the previous Theorem)
2. There exists  $g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f'_n \rightarrow g$  is continuous in  $I$

Then  $f$  is differentiable in  $I$  and it holds that

$$f'(x_0) = g(x_0) \quad \forall x_0 \in I$$

This lecture took place on 4th of March 2016 with lecturer Wolfgang Ring.

**Theorem 6** (Reminder of theorem). Let  $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence of functions in  $I$  and let  $f_n$  be differentiable  $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Furthermore,

- $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise
- $f'_n(x) \rightarrow \varphi(x)$  for every  $x$
- $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \forall u, v \in I \exists N : n \geq N \Rightarrow |(f_n - f)(u) - (f_n - f)(v)| < \varepsilon |u - v|$

Then it holds that  $f$  is differentiable and  $f'(x) = \varphi(x) \forall x \in I$ .

Conclusion:

**Theorem 7.** Let  $f_n$  and  $f$  be differentiable as in Theorem 6:  $f_n : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and it holds that

- $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise in  $I$  for  $n \rightarrow \infty$
- $\exists g : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f'_n \rightarrow g$  is *uniform* in  $I$ , hence  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} : n \geq N \wedge x \in I \Rightarrow |f'_n(x) - g(x)| < \varepsilon$

Then  $f$  is differentiable in  $I$  and  $f'(x) = g(x) \forall x \in I$ .

*Proof.* We check whether the two conditions lead to the conditions of Theorem 6.

We look at the conditions of Theorem 6:

2. Uniform convergences of  $f'_n \rightarrow g$  implies pointwise convergence

$$\forall x \in I : f'_n(x) \rightarrow g(x)$$

3. From uniform convergence of  $f'_n \rightarrow g$  it follows that Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be arbitrary and  $N$  is sufficiently large enough, such that  $\forall n \geq N$  and  $\forall x \in I$ :

$$|f'_n(x) - g(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2}$$

Choose  $n, m \geq N$  and  $x \in I$  arbitrary. Then it holds that

$$\begin{aligned} |f'_n(x) - f'_m(x)| &= |f'_n(x) - g(x) + g(x) - f'_m(x)| \\ &\leq |f'_n(x) - g(x)| + |g(x) - f'_m(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

So  $(f'_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a uniform Cauchy sequence.

Let  $\varepsilon > 0$  be arbitrary and  $N$  such that  $n, m \geq N$  and  $x \in I$ :

$$|f'_n(x) - f'_m(x)| < \varepsilon$$

Consider the third condition of Theorem 6. Let  $u, v \in I$

$$|(f - f_n)(u) - (f - f_n)(v)| = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} |(f_m - f_n)(u) - (f_m - f_n)(v)|$$

where  $(f_m - f_n)$  and  $(f_m - f_n)$  is differentiable. Then according to the mean value theorem of differential calculus (dt. Mittelwertsatz der Differentialrechnung)

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} |(f_m - f_n)'(\xi_{m,n}) \cdot (u - v)| \\ &= \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} |f'_m(\xi_{m,n}) - f'_n(\xi_{m,n})| \cdot |u - v| \end{aligned}$$



For  $m \geq N$ :

$$\leq \varepsilon \cdot |u - v|$$

So the third condition of Theorem 6 is satisfied.

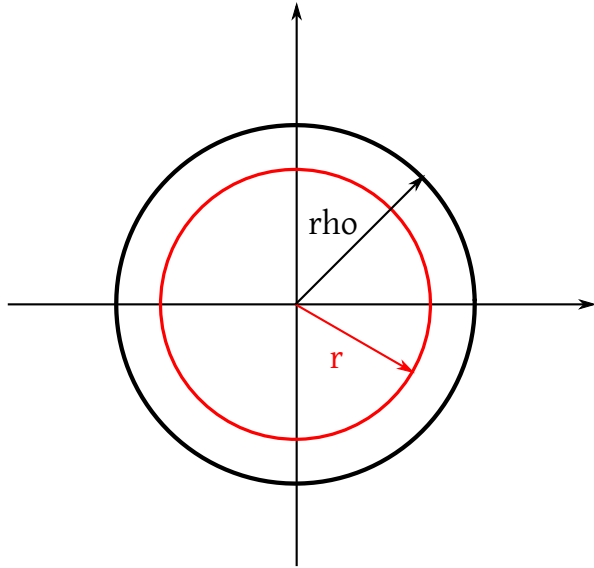


Figure 4: Convergence radius

**Remark 2** (An application of Theorem 7). Let  $P(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z^k$  be a power series with convergence radius  $\rho(P)$  with

$$\rho(P) = \frac{1}{L} \quad L = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$$

$$P_n(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k \quad \dots n\text{-th partial sum}$$

Let  $r < \rho(P)$ . Then it holds that  $P_n(z) \rightarrow P(z)$  uniform in  $\overline{B(0, r)}$ <sup>2</sup>.

$$P_n(x) \rightarrow P(x) \forall x \in [-r, r]$$

□ Compare with Figure 4.

$$P'_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k k \cdot x^{k-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} a_{j+1} (j+1) x^j$$

is the  $n - 1$ -th partial sum.

$$Q(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_{j+1} (j+1) z^j$$

Convergence radius of  $Q$ ?

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{L} &= \limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[j]{a_{j+1}} \cdot \sqrt[j]{j+1} = \limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} |a_{j+1}|^{\frac{j+1}{j}} \cdot (j+1)^{\frac{j+1}{j} \cdot \frac{1}{j+1}} \\ &= \limsup_{j \rightarrow \infty} \underbrace{\left( |a_{j+1}|^{\frac{j+1}{j}} \right)}_{L^1=L} \cdot \underbrace{\lim_{j \rightarrow \infty} \left[ (j+1)^{\frac{1}{j+1}} \right]^{\frac{j+1}{j}}}_{1^1} = L \end{aligned}$$

In conclusion we have  $\tilde{L} = L$  and  $\rho(Q) = \frac{1}{L} = \rho(P)$ . So  $P'_n(z) = \sum_{k=1}^n k \cdot a_k z^{k-1}$  uniformly convergent in  $\overline{B(0, r)}$  for  $r < \rho$  and therefore also uniformly convergent in  $[-r, r]$ .

From Theorem 6 (or 7?) it follows that  $P(x)$  is differentiable in  $[-r, r]$  and  $P'(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot a_k \cdot x^{k-1}$ .

Let  $|x| < \rho(P)$ . Let  $r = \frac{1}{2}(|x| + \rho(P))$ , then it holds that  $x \in [-r, r]$  and  $P$  is differentiable in point  $x$  with

$$P'(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot a_k \cdot x^{k-1}$$

<sup>2</sup>Where overline means “closed”

**Lemma 4.** Let  $P(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z^k$  be a power series with convergence radius  $\rho(P) > 0$ . Let  $x \in (-\rho(P), \rho(P))$ . Then  $P$  is differentiable in  $x$  and it holds that

$$P'(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot a_k \cdot x^{k-1}$$

Furthermore the power series  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \cdot a_k \cdot x^{k-1}$  is uniformly convergent in every interval  $[-r, r]$  with  $0 < r < \rho(P)$ .

## 2.5 About logarithm functions

We consider the power series

$$g(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^k}{k}$$

$$\rho(g) = \frac{1}{L} \text{ with } L = \limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[k]{\frac{1}{k}} = \frac{1}{\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[k]{k}} = 1$$

So it holds that  $\rho(g) = 1$ .

Apply the previous theorem, followingly  $g$  is differentiable in  $(-1, 1)$  and it holds that

$$g'(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{k}{k} x^{k-1} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} x^j = \frac{1}{1-x}$$

Remark:

$$\begin{aligned} [-\ln(1-x)]' &= -\frac{1}{1-x} \cdot (-1) = \frac{1}{1-x} \\ \Rightarrow \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k} + \ln(1-x) &= \text{constant} \end{aligned}$$

Let  $x = 0$  (we determine the constant for this  $x = 0$ ):

$$\begin{aligned} 0 + 0 &= 0 = \text{constant} \\ \Rightarrow \ln(1-x) &= -\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k} \quad \text{for } |x| < 1 \end{aligned}$$

Let  $x \in (-1, 1) \Rightarrow -x \in (-1, 1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \ln(1 - (-x)) &= \ln(1+x) = -\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-x)^k}{k} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k-1} \cdot x^k}{k} = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} - \frac{x^4}{4} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Therefore: We introduce *logarithmic series*:

$$\ln(1-x) = -\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k}$$

$$\ln(1+x) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k-1} x^k}{k}$$

$$\ln\left(\frac{1+x}{1-x}\right) = \ln(1+x) - \ln(1-x) = 2 \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2l-1}}{2l-1} \quad \text{for } x \in (-1, 1)$$

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

Compare with Figure 5.

$$f'(x) = \frac{1-(-1)}{(1-x)^2} = \frac{2}{(1-x)^2} > 0 \quad \text{in } (-1, 1)$$

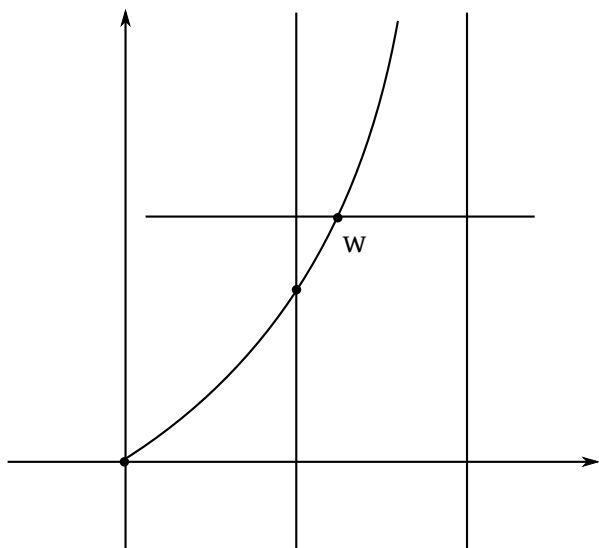
Solve  $\frac{1+x}{1-x} = w$  for  $x$ .

$$\Rightarrow 1+x = w - wx$$

$$x(1+w) = w-1$$

$$x = \frac{w-1}{w+1}$$

$$\ln(w) = 2 \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2l-1}}{2l-1}$$


 Figure 5: Plot of  $\frac{1+x}{1-x}$ 

### 3 Trigonometric functions

We define trigonometric functions using the exponential function in  $\mathbb{C}$ .

Let  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$e^{it} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(it)^k}{k!} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( \underbrace{1}_{\mathbb{R}} + \underbrace{\frac{it}{n}}_{i\mathbb{R}} \right)^n$$

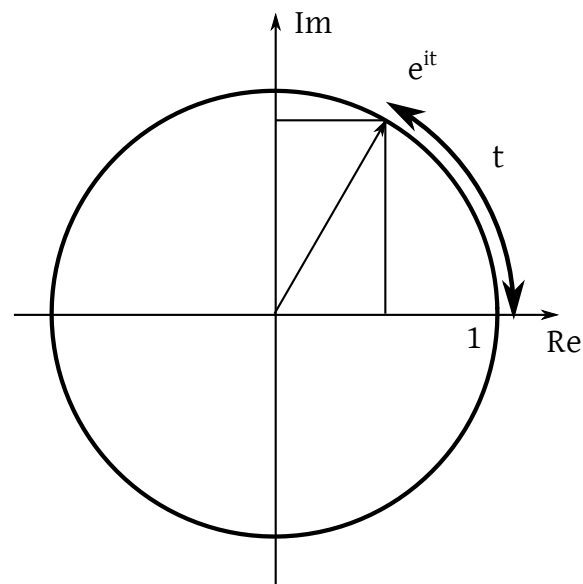
$$e^{-it} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 - \frac{it}{n} \right)^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ \overline{\left( 1 + \frac{it}{n} \right)} \right]^n$$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \overline{\left( 1 + \frac{it}{n} \right)^n} = \overline{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( 1 + \frac{it}{n} \right)^n} = \overline{e^{it}} \\ &|e^{it}|^2 = e^{it} \cdot \overline{e^{it}} = e^{it} \cdot e^{-it} \\ &e^{it-it} = e^0 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

So it holds that  $\forall t \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$|e^{it}| = 1$$

So  $e^{it}$  lies inside the complex unit circle. Compare with Figure 6.


 Figure 6: Unit circle in  $\mathbb{C}$  with  $t$ 

We define the cosine function  $\cos : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as

$$\cos(t) = \Re(e^{it})$$

and the sine function  $\sin : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as

$$\sin(t) = \Im(e^{it})$$

The following relations hold:

1.  $e^{it} = \cos(t) + i \cdot \sin(t)$  (Euler's identity)

2.  $|e^{it}|^2 = 1 = (\cos t)^2 + (\sin t)^2$

3.

$$\begin{aligned} \Re(z) &= \frac{1}{2}(z + \bar{z}) \\ \Rightarrow \cos(t) &= \Re(e^{it}) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{it} + e^{-it}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Im(z) &= \frac{1}{2i}[z - \bar{z}] \\ \sin(t) &= \Im(e^{it}) = \frac{1}{2i}[e^{it} - e^{-it}] \end{aligned}$$

4.

$$e^{-it} = \overline{e^{it}} = \cos t - i \cdot \sin t$$

We use property 3 to extend the domain of sine and cosine:

**Definition 3.** Let  $z \in \mathbb{C}$ . We define  $\sin : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $\cos : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  by

$$\cos(z) = \frac{1}{2}[e^{iz} + e^{-iz}]$$

$$\sin(z) = \frac{1}{2i}[e^{iz} - e^{-iz}]$$

---

This lecture took place on 8th of March 2016 with lecturer Wolfgang Ring.

Compare with Figure 7.

$$\begin{aligned} t \in \mathbb{R} : \cos t &= \Re(e^{it}) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{it} + e^{-it}) \\ \sin t &= \Im(e^{it}) = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{it} - e^{-it}) \end{aligned}$$

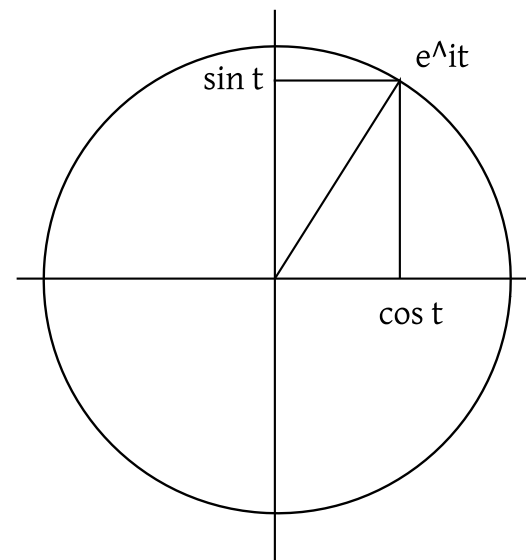


Figure 7: The trigonometric values  $\sin t$  and  $\cos t$  in the unit circle

$$z \in \mathbb{C} : \cos z = \frac{1}{2}(e^{iz} + e^{-iz})$$

$$\sin z = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{iz} - e^{-iz})$$

Properties:

$$\cos -z = \frac{1}{2}(e^{i(-z)} + e^{-i(-z)}) = \cos z$$

$\cos z$  is even

$$\sin -z = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{-iz} - e^{iz}) = -\sin z$$

$\sin z$  is odd

The cosine function in the complex space is even.

### 3.1 Series representation of trigonometric functions

**Lemma 5** (Addition of series of absolute convergence). Let  $(a_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ ,  $(b_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be complex sequences and the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n$  are absolute convergent with series value  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = a$  and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n = s'$ .

Then  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (a_n + b_n)$  is absolute convergent with sum  $s + s'$ .

*series sum.* Absolute convergence. Show that  $\sum_{k=0}^n |a_k + b_k| = t_n$  and  $(t_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is bounded.

Follows immediately, because

$$\sum_{k=0}^n |a_k + b_k| \leq \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^n |a_k|}_{\text{bounded}} + \underbrace{\sum_{k=0}^n |b_k|}_{\text{bounded}}$$

□

**Example 1** (Application). Let  $P(z) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z^k$  and  $Q(z) := \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} b_k z^k$  be power series. Both are convergent in  $B(0, \delta)$ . Then also  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (a_k + b_k) z^k$  is convergent in  $B(0, \delta)$  and it holds that  $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (a_k + b_k) z^k = P(z) + Q(z)$ .

### 3.2 Application to trigonometric functions

$$e^{iz} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(iz)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} i^k \cdot \frac{z^k}{k!}$$

$$i^0 = 1 \quad i^1 = i \quad i^2 = -1 \quad i^3 = -i \quad i^4 = 1 = i^0 \quad i^5 = i \quad \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + i \frac{z}{1!} - \frac{z^2}{2!} - i \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} + i \frac{z^5}{5!} - \frac{z^6}{6!}$$

$$e^{-iz} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-iz)^k}{k!} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (-i)^k \frac{z^k}{k!}$$

$$(-i)^0 = 1 \quad (-i)^1 = -i \quad (-i)^2 = -1 \quad (-i)^3 = i \quad (-i)^4 = 1 \quad \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 - i \frac{z}{1!} - \frac{z^2}{2!} + i \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} - i \frac{z^5}{5!} - \frac{z^6}{6!} + \dots$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(e^{iz} + e^{-iz}) = 1 - \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} - \frac{z^6}{6!} + \frac{z^8}{8!} - \frac{z^{10}}{10!} + \dots$$

Followingly,

$$\cos z = 1 - \frac{z^2}{2!} + \frac{z^4}{4!} - \frac{z^6}{6!} + \frac{z^8}{8!} - \dots$$

$$= \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (-1)^l \frac{z^{2l}}{(2l)!} \text{ convergent in } \mathbb{C}$$

$$\sin z = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{iz} - e^{-iz}) = z - \frac{z^3}{3!} + \frac{z^5}{5!} - \frac{z^7}{7!} + \frac{z^9}{9!} + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (-1)^l \frac{z^{2l+1}}{(2l+1)!}$$

### 3.3 Functional equations of trigonometric functions

**Theorem 8** (Addition and subtraction theorems). We derive them directly:

Let  $z, w \in \mathbb{C}$ .

$$e^{z+w} = e^z \cdot e^w = (\cos z + i \cdot \sin z)(\cos w + i \cdot \sin w)$$

but also

$$\begin{aligned} &= (\cos(z+w) + i \sin(z+w)) \\ \Rightarrow &= (\cos z \cdot \cos w - \sin z \cdot \sin w) + i(\cos z \cdot \sin w + \sin z \cos w) \end{aligned}$$

Analogously,

$$\begin{aligned} e^{-(z+w)} &= e^{-z} \cdot e^{-w} = (\cos(-z) + i \cdot \sin(-z))(\cos(-w) + i \cdot \sin(-w)) \\ &= \cos z \cdot \cos w - \sin z \sin w + i(-\cos z \sin w - \cos w \sin z) \end{aligned}$$

but also

$$\begin{aligned} &= (-\cos(z+w) + i \sin(-(z+w))) \\ \Rightarrow &= \cos(z+w) - i \sin(z+w) \end{aligned}$$

Addition:

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \cos(z+w) &= 2(\cos z \cdot \cos w - \sin z \sin w) \\ \Rightarrow \cos(z+w) &= \cos z \cos w - \sin z \sin w \end{aligned}$$

Subtraction:

$$\Rightarrow \sin(z+w) = \cos z \sin w + \sin z \cos w \forall z, w \in \mathbb{C}$$

Variations:  $w \leftrightarrow -w$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(z-w) &= \cos z \cdot \underbrace{\cos w}_{=\cos(-w)} + \sin z \cdot \underbrace{\sin w}_{=-\sin(-w)} \\ \sin(z-w) &= -\cos z \cdot \sin(w) + \sin(z) \cos(w) \end{aligned}$$

**Corollary 1.**

$$\begin{aligned} z &= \frac{1}{2}(z+w) + \frac{1}{2}(z-w) \\ \Rightarrow \cos z &= \cos \frac{z+w}{2} \cos \frac{z-w}{2} - \sin \frac{z+w}{2} \sin \frac{z-w}{2} \\ w &= \frac{1}{2}(w+z) + \frac{1}{2}(w-z) = \frac{1}{2}(z+w) - \frac{1}{2}(z-w) \\ \cos w &= \cos \frac{z+w}{2} \cdot \cos \frac{z-w}{2} + \sin \frac{z+w}{2} \cdot \sin \frac{z-w}{2} \\ \cos z - \cos w &= -2 \sin \frac{z+w}{2} \sin \frac{z-w}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Analogously,

$$\sin z - \sin w = 2 \cos \frac{z+w}{2} \cdot \cos \frac{z-w}{2}$$

We consider

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\substack{z \rightarrow 0 \\ z \neq 0}} \frac{\sin z}{z} &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{2i} \left( \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{z} \right) \\ &= \lim_{z \rightarrow 0} e^{-iz} \left( \frac{e^{2iz} - 1}{2iz} \right) \\ &= \underbrace{\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} e^{-iz}}_{=e^0=1} \cdot \underbrace{\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^{2iz} - 1}{2iz}}_{\substack{e=2iz; z \rightarrow 0 \Leftrightarrow w=0 \\ \lim_{w \rightarrow 0} \frac{e^w - 1}{w} = 1}} \end{aligned}$$

So it holds that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin z}{z} = 1$$

### 3.4 Trigonometric functions for real arguments

Subtitled “definition of  $\pi$ ” and “periodicity”.

Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\cos x = \underbrace{1}_{=c_0} - \underbrace{\frac{x^2}{2}}_{=c_1} + \underbrace{\frac{x^4}{24}}_{=c_2} - \underbrace{\frac{x^6}{720}}_{=c_3} + \underbrace{\frac{x^8}{40320}}_{=c_4} - \dots$$

$$\sin x = \underbrace{x}_{=s_0} - \underbrace{\frac{x^3}{6}}_{=s_1} + \underbrace{\frac{x^5}{120}}_{=s_2} - \underbrace{\frac{x^7}{5040}}_{=s_3} + \dots$$

$$c_n = \frac{x^{2k}}{(2k)!} \quad s_k = \frac{x^{2k+1}}{(2k+1)!}$$

For  $x \in [0, 2]$  and  $k \geq 1$  it holds that

$$\left| \frac{c_{k+1}}{c_k} \right| = \left| \frac{x^2}{(2k+2)(2k+1)} \right| \leq \frac{4}{3 \cdot 4} = \frac{1}{3}$$

so  $(c_k)_{k \geq 1}$  is strictly monotonically decreasing.

Leibniz criterion:

$$1 - \frac{x^2}{2} < \cos x < 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24}$$

for  $x \in (0, 2]$ .

Similarly for  $x \in (0, 2]$ :

$$\left| \frac{s_{k+1}}{s_k} \right| = \left| \frac{x^2}{(2k+2)(2k+3)} \right| \leq \frac{4}{4 \cdot 5} = \frac{1}{5} < 1$$

So the Leibniz criterion tells us that

$$x - \frac{x^3}{6} < \sin x < x \quad \text{in } [0, 2]$$

So it holds that

$$\cos(0) = 1$$

$$\cos(2) < 1 - 2 + \frac{16}{24} = -1 + \frac{2}{3} = -\frac{1}{3}$$

Intermediate value theorem (power series is continuous):

$$\exists \xi \in (0, 2) \text{ with } \cos(\xi) = 0$$

Let  $0 \leq w < z \leq 2$ ,

$$0 < \frac{z-w}{2} \leq \frac{z+w}{2} < \frac{z+z}{2} \leq 2$$

Let  $x \in (0, 2]$ , then it holds that

$$\sin(x) > x - \frac{x^3}{6} = \underbrace{x}_{>0} \underbrace{\left(1 - \frac{x^2}{6}\right)}_{>1 - \frac{4}{6} = \frac{1}{3} > 0} > 0$$

So it holds that  $\sin(x) > 0$  in  $(0, 2]$ .

Functional equation for  $\cos z - \cos w$ .

$$\cos z - \cos w = -2 \cdot \underbrace{\sin \frac{z+w}{2}}_{\in (0,2]} \cdot \underbrace{\sin \frac{z-w}{2}}_{\in (0,2]} = \underbrace{\phantom{-2 \cdot \sin \frac{z+w}{2} \cdot \sin \frac{z-w}{2}}}_{<0} > 0$$

$\cos z < \cos w$  for  $0 \leq w < z \leq 2$ .

So it holds that  $\cos$  is a strictly monotonically decreasing function in  $[0, 2]$ . Hence  $\cos$  has only one root because it is continuous in  $(0, 2]$ .

**Definition 4.** The number  $\pi \in \mathbb{R}$  is defined as  $\pi = 2\xi$ , where  $\xi$  is the uniquely defined root of the cosine in  $(0, 2]$ .

Some further important function values:

$$0 < \frac{\pi}{2} < 2 \text{ and } \cos \frac{\pi}{2} = 0$$

because  $\cos^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) + \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 1$ .

$$\Rightarrow \left| \sin \frac{\pi}{2} \right| = 1$$

We know that  $\sin x > 0$  for  $x \in (0, 2]$ .

$$\Rightarrow \sin \frac{\pi}{2} = 1$$

$$e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} = \cos \frac{\pi}{2} + i \sin \frac{\pi}{2} = i$$

$$e^{i\pi} = e^{i\frac{\pi}{2} + i\frac{\pi}{2}} = \left(e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}\right)^2 = i^2 = -1$$

$$e^{i\frac{3}{2}\pi} = e^{i\pi + i\frac{1}{2}\pi} = e^{i\pi} \cdot e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}} = -1 \cdot i = -i$$

Furthermore,

$$e^{z+i\pi} = e^z \cdot \underbrace{e^{i\pi}}_{=-1} = -e^z$$

$$e^{z+2i\pi} = e^z \cdot (e^{i\pi})^2 = e^z$$

So the exponential function is periodic in  $\mathbb{C}$  with period  $2i\pi$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(z + 2\pi) &= \frac{1}{2} (e^{iz+2\pi i} + e^{-iz-2\pi i}) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( e^{iz} + e^{-iz} \cdot \underbrace{\frac{1}{e^{2\pi i}}}_{=1} \right) = \cos z \end{aligned}$$

Therefore the cosine is periodic in  $\mathbb{C}$  with period  $2\pi$ . Analogously, sine is periodic in  $\mathbb{C}$  with period  $2\pi$ .

This lecture took place on 10th of March 2016 with lecturer Wolfgang Ring.

### 3.5 Periodicity and roots of trigonometric functions

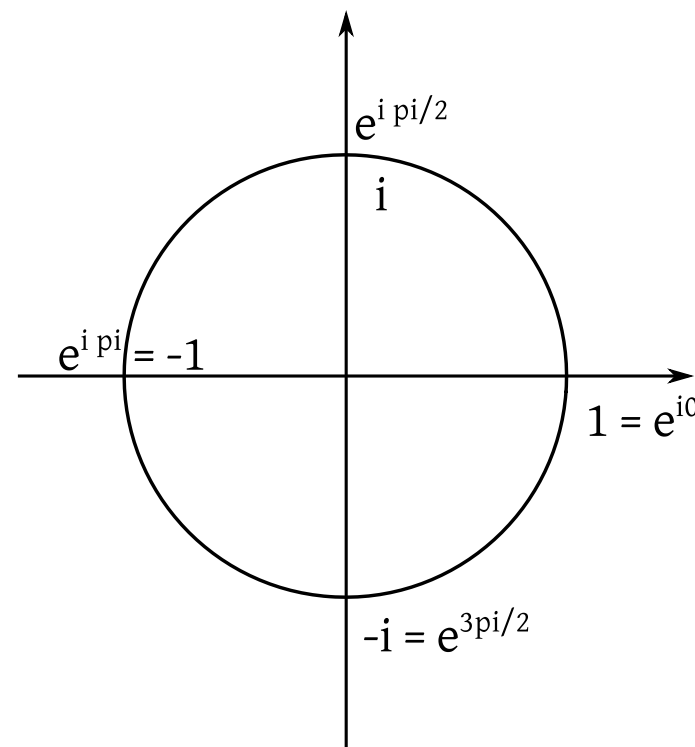
TODO: equations missing

$$\cos(z + 2\pi) = \cos(z)$$

$$\sin(z + 2\pi) = \sin(z)$$

TODO: table missing

**Remark 3.** We will show:  $\forall c \in (0, 2\pi)$ ,  $\cos$  and  $\sin$  are non-periodic with period  $c$ , hence  $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\cos(x) \neq \cos(x + c)$ .



**Definition 5.**

$$f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \quad (f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R})$$

is called *periodic* with period  $c \in \mathbb{C}$  ( $c \in \mathbb{R}$ ) if  $\forall z \in \mathbb{C}$  it holds that

$$f(z + c) = f(z)$$

$$(\forall x \in \mathbb{R} : f(x + c) = f(x))$$



$c$  is called *period of  $f$* .

**Remark 4.** If  $f$  is periodic with period  $c \in \mathbb{C}$ , then  $f$  is also periodic with period  $k \cdot c$  for every  $k \in \mathbb{Z} \setminus \{0\}$ .

**Remark 5.**

$$\begin{aligned} z &= u + iv \\ \Re(i \cdot z) &= \Re(iu - v) = -v = -\Im(z) \\ \Im(i \cdot z) &= \Im(iu - v) = u = \Re(z) \end{aligned}$$

**Remark 6.** Let  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \cos\left(x + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= \Re(e^{i(x+\frac{\pi}{2})}) \\ &= \Re(e^{ix} \cdot e^{i\frac{\pi}{2}}) \\ &= \Re(ie^{ix}) \\ &= -\Im(e^{ix}) \\ &= -\sin(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sin\left(x + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= \Im(e^{i(x+\frac{\pi}{2})}) \\ &= \Im(ie^{ix}) \\ &= \Re(e^{ix}) \\ &= \cos(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= \sin\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ &= \sin(x) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \sin\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= -\cos\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2} + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) \\ &= -\cos(x) \end{aligned}$$

Summary:

$$\begin{aligned} \cos\left(x + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= -\sin(x) \\ \sin\left(x + \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= \cos(x) \\ \cos\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= \sin(x) \\ \sin\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) &= -\cos(x) \end{aligned}$$

**Remark 7** (A remark on the name “cosine”).

$$\sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2} - x\right) = -\sin\left(x - \frac{\pi}{2}\right) = \cos(x)$$

The sine of the complementary angle is the co-sine of  $x$  (Compare with Figure 8).

**Remark 8.**

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(x + \pi) &= \Re(e^{i(x+\pi)}) \\ &= \Re(-e^{ix}) \\ &= -\cos(x) \\ \sin(x + \pi) &= -\sin(x) \end{aligned}$$

**Remark 9.** Let  $0 < c < 2\pi$ . Assume  $\cos$  is periodic with period  $c$ . We know that  $\cos$  has exactly one root in  $[0, 2]$ ,

$$\cos(x) = \cos(-x)$$

$\cos$  has exactly two roots in  $[-2, 2]$ , namely  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $-\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

1. Consider  $c \in (0, \pi)$ . Then  $\cos\left(-\frac{\pi}{2} + c\right) = \cos\left(-\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0$ .

$$-\frac{\pi}{2} + c < -\frac{\pi}{2} + \pi = \frac{\pi}{2} < 2$$

$$-\frac{\pi}{2} + c \geq -\frac{\pi}{2} > -2$$

Therefore  $\cos$  would have another root in  $[-2, 2]$ , namely  $-\frac{\pi}{2} + c$ . This is a contradiction.

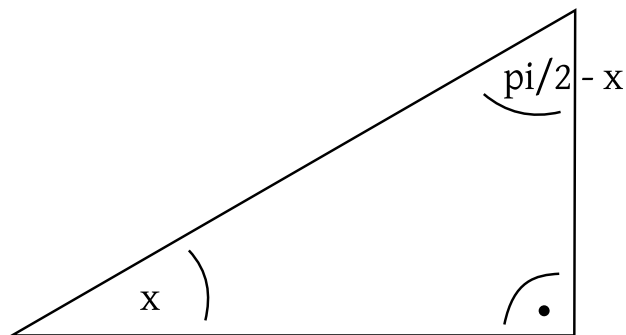


Figure 8: Complementary angle: co-sinus

2. Consider  $c \in [\pi, 2\pi)$ .  $c = \pi$  is not a period because  $\cos(0) = 1$  and  $\cos(0 + \pi) = -1$ . Let  $\pi < c < 2\pi$ . Then  $\frac{3}{2}\pi - c < \frac{3}{2}\pi - \pi = \frac{\pi}{2}$  and  $\frac{3}{2}\pi - c > \frac{3}{2}\pi - 2\pi = -\frac{\pi}{2}$ . Hence,

$$\frac{3}{2}\pi - c \in \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

$$\cos\left(\frac{3}{2}\pi - c\right) = \cos\left(\frac{3}{2}\pi - c + c\right) = \cos\left(\frac{3}{2}\pi\right) = 0$$

$c$  would be the period.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{3}{2}\pi - c \text{ is a root of } \cos \text{ in } \left(-\frac{\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2}\right)$$

This is a contradiction.

Therefore it holds that

$$\forall c \in (0, 2\pi) : \exists x \in \mathbb{R} : \cos(x + c) \neq \cos(x)$$

Therefore  $\cos$  is not periodic with period  $c$ . Hence  $2\pi$  is indeed the smallest period of  $\cos$ .

Analogously it holds for  $\sin$ .

**Remark 10** (Roots of  $\cos$ ).

$$\cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi\right) = \cos\left(\frac{\pi}{2}\right) = 0 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\cos\left(\frac{3}{2}\pi + 2k\pi\right) = \cos\left(\frac{3}{2}\pi\right) = 0 \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$x_k = \frac{\pi}{2} + 2k\pi = \frac{\pi}{2}(1 + 4k)$$

$$y_k = \frac{3}{2}\pi + 2k\pi = \frac{\pi}{2}(3 + 4k)$$

Hence for  $z_l = \frac{\pi}{2}(2l + 1)$  with  $l \in \mathbb{Z}$  it holds that  $\cos(z_l) = 0$ . These are the odd multiples of  $\frac{\pi}{2}$ .

$$\sin(0 + 2k\pi) = \sin(0) = 0$$

$$\sin(\pi + 2k\pi) = \sin((2k + 1)\pi) = \sin(\pi) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (l\pi) = 0 \quad \forall l \in \mathbb{Z}$$

### 3.6 Derivatives of trigonometric functions

It holds that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin z}{z} = 1$$

Furthermore it holds that

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \cos z}{z} = 0$$

*Proof.*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1 - \cos z}{z} &= \frac{1}{z} \left( 1 - 1 + \frac{z^2}{2} - \frac{z^4}{4!} + \frac{z^6}{6!} - \frac{z^8}{8!} + \dots \right) \\ &= \frac{z}{2!} - \frac{z^3}{4!} + \frac{z^5}{6!} - \frac{z^7}{8!} + \dots \end{aligned}$$

is convergent in  $\mathbb{C}$  and (especially) continuous in 0

$$\lim_{z \rightarrow 0} \left( \frac{z}{2!} - \frac{z^3}{4!} + \frac{z^5}{6!} - \dots \right) = 0$$

□

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