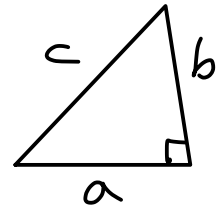


Digression - Pythagorean triple  $\leftarrow$   $(a, b, c)$  positive integers  
with  $a^2 + b^2 = c^2$



eg  $(3, 4, 5)$   $(5, 12, 13)$

How to find them all?

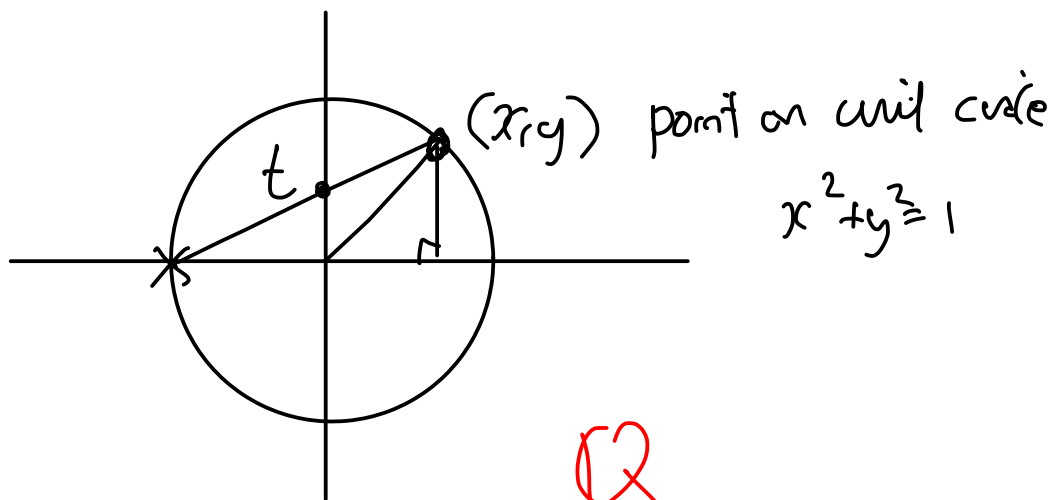
Divide by  $c^2$  ...  $\left. \begin{aligned} \left(\frac{a}{c}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{b}{c}\right)^2 &= 1 \\ x^2 + y^2 &= 1 \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} x = \frac{a}{c} &\in \mathbb{Q} \\ y = \frac{b}{c} &\in \mathbb{Q} \end{aligned}$

Equivalent problem is to find rational points  $(x, y) \in \mathbb{Q}^2$  on unit circle.

eg  $\left(\frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}\right)$   $\left(\frac{5}{13}, \frac{12}{13}\right)$

We know how to do this using the trick we saw last time

came from substitution  $t = \tan \frac{\theta}{2}$ ,



$$x = \frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}, \quad y = \frac{2t}{1+t^2}$$

$$\Updownarrow$$

$$t = \frac{y}{1+x}$$

We have functions  $\mathbb{R} \xleftrightarrow{\quad} \{ (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid x^2 + y^2 = 1, x \neq -1 \}$

$$t \mapsto \left( \frac{1-t^2}{1+t^2}, \frac{2t}{1+t^2} \right)$$

$$\frac{y}{1+x} \longleftarrow (x, y)$$

These are mutual inverses ... so they are bijective.

Thus,  $\mathbb{Q}$  parametrizes rational points on unit circle, hence, Pythagorean triple.

(eg)  $t = \frac{1}{2} \rightsquigarrow \left( \frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5} \right)$        $t = \frac{2}{3} \rightsquigarrow \left( \frac{5}{13}, \frac{12}{13} \right)$        $t = \frac{3}{4} \rightsquigarrow \left( \frac{7}{25}, \frac{24}{25} \right)$

Main topic this week How to define classical functions properly.

ln, exp

trig

hyperbolic function

→ We've talked about these before.

- $y = \ln x \iff x = e^y$  inverse function
- laws of logs / exponents
- $\underline{a^x} = (e^{\ln a})^x = e^{x \ln a}$   
( $a > 0, x \in \mathbb{R}$ ) (definition!)

First approach Start with  $\ln x \dots$

$\ln x := \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} \cdot dt$  — makes sense as  $\frac{1}{t}$  is continuous } FTC  
definition! —  $\frac{d}{dx} (\ln x) = \frac{1}{x}$  }

As  $\frac{1}{x} > 0$  for  $x > 0$ ,  $\ln x$  is increasing, hence,  $(-)$ , so invertible. Then you define  $e^x$  to be the inverse function.

Prove some properties of  $\ln x / e^x$  from these definitions.

$$\frac{d}{dx} (\ln x) = \frac{1}{x} \quad , \quad \frac{d}{dx} (e^x) = e^x$$

Let  $y = e^x$ , so  $\ln y = x$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dx} (\ln y) = 1$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{y} \cdot \frac{dy}{dx} =$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{dx} = y = e^x$$

Laws of log

- $\ln(ab) = \ln a + \ln b$  ✓
- $\ln(a^b) = b \ln a$  ✓

Proof • By the definition, we need to show

$$\int_1^{ab} \frac{1}{t} dt = \int_1^a \frac{1}{t} dt + \int_1^b \frac{1}{t} dt$$

Take RHS ...  $\int_1^a \frac{1}{t} dt + \int_1^b \frac{1}{t} dt = \int_1^a \frac{1}{t} dt + \int_a^{ab} \frac{1}{u} du$

•  $\ln(a^b) = \ln(e^{b \ln a}) = b \ln a$  //

*Let  $u = at$*

$$= \int_1^a \frac{1}{t} dt + \int_a^{ab} \frac{1}{t} dt = \int_1^{ab} \frac{1}{t} dt = \text{LHS} //$$

## Laws of exponents

$$\bullet e^{a+b} = e^a e^b$$

$$\bullet (e^a)^b = e^{ab}$$

Proof • RHS =  $e^a e^b = e^{\ln(e^a e^b)} = e^{\ln(e^a) + \ln(e^b)} = e^{a+b} = \text{LHS} \checkmark$

• LHS =  $(e^a)^b = e^{b \ln(e^a)} = e^{ab} = \text{RHS} \checkmark \checkmark$

All good! ...  $\ln x = \int_1^x \frac{1}{t} dt$  very clean and tidy

$e^x$  inverse function a bit indirect.

←  $e^x$  is easier than  $\ln x$

How can we define  $e^x$  more directly?

## Second approach

Could try to define  $e^x$  to be the unique solution to the differential equation

$$f'(x) = f(x) \quad \text{with } f(0) = 1$$

This is good ... prove properties like  $e^{x+y} = e^x e^y$  quite easily.

Indeed, let  $f(x) = \frac{e^{x+y}}{e^y}$  (y constant)

$$f'(x) = \frac{e^{x+y}}{e^y} = f(x), \quad f(0) = \frac{e^y}{e^y} = 1$$

Think about  
this as a  
recursive recipe  
for computing a  
power series

$$\therefore f(x) = e^x$$

$$\therefore \frac{e^{x+y}}{e^y} = e^x$$

$$\therefore e^{x+y} = e^x e^y \quad \checkmark$$

Why does any solution  
to this diff. eq. exist ???  
!EXISTENCE!

Third approach Use power series.

This is a major theory which needs to be developed carefully at this point.

(e.g) Geometric series  $1 + x + x^2 + x^3 + \dots = \frac{1}{1-x}$  providing  $|x| < 1$ .

In general, a power series is

$$f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \quad \text{for sequence } a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots \text{ of real no.s}$$

means:

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{n=0}^N a_n x^n$$

may not converge.

The  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  for which it does converge give the domain of the function  $f(x)$  defined by the power series. *absolutely*

Theorem Given a power series  $f(x)$  as above, there's  $R \in \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0} \cup \{\infty\}$

called the radius of convergence of  $f(x)$  so that  $f(x)$  converges for all  $x$  with  $|x| < R$  and doesn't converge for any  $x$  with  $|x| > R$ . On  $(-R, R)$ ,  $f(x)$  is differentiable with  $f'(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1}$ , with series also converging on  $(-R, R)$ .

Note if  $f(x) = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots$  has  $R > 0$   
then  $a_0 = f(0)$ ,  $a_1 = f'(0)$ ,  $a_2 = \frac{f''(0)}{2!}$ , ...,  $a_n = \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}$ , ...

for example,  $f(x) = e^x$  ... if we could define it by a power series,

this would show all  $a_n = \frac{1}{n!}$

$$e = 1 + 1 + \frac{1}{2!} + \frac{1}{3!} + \dots$$
$$\int_1^e \frac{1}{t} \cdot dt = 1$$

Definition

$$e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$$

Note this power series has  $R = \infty$  (it converges  $\forall x$  ... ratio test)

hence it gives an  $\infty$ -differentiable function with domain  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$\frac{d}{dx} (e^x) = e^x, \quad e^0 = a_0 = 1 \quad \dots \text{ gives a function}$$

solving the diff. eq. from approach two.