#### UNSW MATHEMATICS SOCIETY



# (Higher) Several Variable Calculus Vector Calculus

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Vector Calculus

### Vector Fields I

#### Definition 1

A scalar field/function is a function that maps a point to a value. A vector field is a function that maps a point to a vector.

#### Example 1

$$f(x,y) = x^2 - y^2$$

**2** 
$$\mathbf{F}(x,y) = (2x - y, x + 2y)$$

**3** 
$$F(x, y, z) = (-x, -y, -z)$$

### Vector Fields II

#### Definition 2

The **del/nabla** operator is the vector  $\nabla = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}, ..., \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n}\right)$ . Obviously this depends on how many variables we incorporate, but typically we will be dealing with simply 3 dimensions.

#### Definition 3

The gradient vector field is defined as:

$$\nabla f(x_1, x_2, ..., x_n) = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} f, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} f, ..., \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} f\right)$$

### Vector Fields III

#### Definition 4

A **conservative vector field** is a vector field  $\mathbf{F}$  which can be expressed as the gradient of a scalar function. That is, there is a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$ . The corresponding function f is called the **potential** function.

#### Example 2

- **1**  $\mathbf{F}(x,y) = (y,x)$  with scalar function f(x,y) = xy + C.
- **9**  $\mathbf{F}(x,y) = (\cos(x),\sin(y))$  with scalar function  $f(x,y) = \sin(x) \cos(y) + C$ .

#### Test for "conservativeness"

A vector field is conservative if all mixed partials commute.

# Properties of Vector Fields I

Here, we let  $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  to be a continuous, differentiable function in the appropriate vector space.

#### Definition 5

The **divergence** of a vector field describes the rate of change of how much fluid flows out of the neighbourhood of a point. That is, does water have a tendency to flow in or out of the point. The operation is defined as:

$$\operatorname{\mathsf{div}} \mathbf{F} = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}$$

Here, n could take any value, and the definition will still make sense, but typically we shall only take the case n = 3.

# Properties of Vector Fields II

#### Definition 6

The **curl** represents the tendency of water to spin about the point in the neighbourhood of the point. It is computed according to the expression:

$$\operatorname{curl} {\textbf F} = \nabla \times {\textbf F}$$

#### Restrictions for curl

The curl operator is only defined in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  because it is fundamentally a cross product.

# Examples

#### Example Question 1

Consider the vector field defined by  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (x, y, z)$ . Evaluate the following:

# Parameterising curves

The following are typical parameterisation of the curves:

- $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$  corresponds to  $x = a\cos(t), y = b\sin(t), 0 \le t \le 2\pi$  in the anti-clockwise direction.
- 2  $\frac{x^2}{a^2} + \frac{y^2}{b^2} = 1$  corresponds to  $x = a\cos(t), y = -b\sin(t), 0 \le t \le 2\pi$  in the clockwise direction
- **3** A line segment from **x** to **y** has parameterisation  $(1-t)\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y}$
- y = f(x) corresponds to x = t, y = f(t)

# Path Integrals

#### Definition 6

A path integral is given by the formula:

$$\int_{C} f(x,y) ds = \int_{t=a}^{t=b} f(h(t),g(t)) ||\mathbf{r}'(t)|| dt$$

where the curve C has a parameteric vector equation  $\mathbf{r}(t)$ 

# Examples

### Example Question 2 [Q151 MATH2011]

- $\int_C (x+y+z)ds$  where C is the curve parameterised by  $(\cos t, \sin t, t), t \in [0, 2\pi]$
- ②  $\int_C e^{\sqrt{z}} ds$  where C is the curve parameterised by  $(1,2,t^2), t \in [0,1]$

# Surface Integrals

Surfaces are functions in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  that are dependent on 2 variables. Thus in order to parameterise surfaces, we need to use 2 variables and express the 3rd variable in terms of the other 2.

#### Definition 7

A **surface integral** is an integral which measures surface area. We denote such an integral by the formula

$$\iint_{S} f(x, y, z) ds$$

f(x, y, z) represents some kind of density function, and if this density is equal to 1 over the surface S, then we get the surface area.

# **Evaluating Surface Integrals I**

To evaluate surface integrals, we need to parameterise them in one of the following ways:

**1** 
$$\mathbf{s}(x,y) = (x,y,g(x,y))$$

**3** 
$$\mathbf{s}(u,v) = (x(u,v),y(u,v),z(u,v)).$$

In the first scenario, we express the surface as a function of the other 2 variables already existing in the expression [This is common in more elementary expressions for the surface].

In the second scenario, we construct 2 new variables to describe every component in the vector.

# **Evaluating Surface Integrals II**

In either case, we obtain the following definition:

#### **Theorem**

$$\iint_{S} f(x,y,z)ds = \iint_{S'} f(x(u,v),y(u,v),z(u,v)) ||\mathbf{s}_{u} \times \mathbf{s}_{v}|| du dv$$

To see how this is applied to the parameterisation  $\mathbf{s} = (x, y, g(x, y))$ .

$$\mathbf{s}_{x} \times \mathbf{s}_{y} = (1, 0, g_{x}) \times (0, 1, g_{y})$$

$$= \det \begin{bmatrix} \hat{i} & \hat{j} & \hat{k} \\ 1 & 0 & g_{x} \\ 0 & 1 & g_{y} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= -\hat{i}g_{x} - \hat{j}g_{y} + \hat{k}$$

# Surface Integrals Examples

### Example Question 3 [MATH2111 Q11]

Find a parametric representations for the parts of the plane 2x + 3y + z = 4:

- **1**  $1 \le x \le 2, 2 \le z \le 4$
- $0 \le x + y + z \le 7, 2 \le x y \le 4$
- $x \ge 0, x^2 + y^2 \le 4$

# Surface Integrals Examples

### Example Question 4 [MATH2111 Q12]

Let  $\Omega$  denote the conical region  $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \le z \le 2$ .

- Find a parametric representation  $\mathbf{x}(u, v)$  for the surface, the boundary of  $\Omega$ .
- 2 Use simple geometry to write down the outwards point unit normal vector at each point on S.
- **3** Verify that these vectors are parallel to the normal vectors obtained from the formula  $N(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial u} \times \frac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial v}$
- Find the surface area of the cone.

# Vector Integrals

Vector integrals involve the integration of vector fields across paths and surfaces. However, you can only ever integrate scalar functions. So the actual vector integrals are ever so slightly different in their formulas.

# Path integrals of vector fields

#### Path Integral of a vector field

Consider a vector field

 $\mathbf{F}(x,y,z) = P(x,y,z)\hat{i} + Q(x,y,z)\hat{j} + R(x,y,z)\hat{k}$ , and suppose a curve C has a parameterisation  $\mathbf{r}(t) = x(t)\hat{i} + y(t)\hat{j} + z(t)\hat{k}$ . Then we write:

$$\int_{C} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = \int_{t=a}^{t=b} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}(t)) \cdot \mathbf{r}'(t) dt = \int_{C} P dx + Q dy + R dz.$$

This quantity corresponds to the amount of <u>work</u> done by a vector field in moving a particle between 2 points.

In this case, orientation must be preserved, that is, path integrals of vector fields are dependent on what direction the path goes in. Typically, the anti-clockwise direction is the default direction, unless otherwise specified.

### Conservative Vector Fields

### Theorem 1 (Fundamental Theorem of Line Integrals)

Suppose that C is a differentiable curve given by  $\mathbf{r}(t)$ ,  $a \le t \le b$ , and  $\mathbf{F} = \nabla f$  [That is,  $\mathbf{F}$  is conservative]. Then the following holds:

$$\int_{C} \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r} = f(\mathbf{r}(b)) - f(\mathbf{r}(a))$$

### Corollaries

#### Corollaries

- **1**  $\int_C \nabla f \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is path independent
- ② If **F** is a continuous vector field on an open connected region D and if  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is path independent for any path in D, then **F** is conservative.
- ①  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  is path independent, if and only if  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0$  for every closed path C

# Examples of vector integrals along paths

### Example Question 5 [MATH2011 Q155, MATH2111 Q2]

Calculate  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$  for the vector field

 $\mathbf{F}(x,y,z) = (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)\hat{i} - z\hat{j} + (y+1)\hat{k}$  and the curve C from (0,0,-1) to (0,0,1) is

- 1 The straight line joining the 2 points
- ② An arc of the circle  $y^2 + z^2 = 1$  in the plane x = 0 oriented counterclockwise when viewed from the positive x-axis.

If **F** conservative?

# Surface Integrals of vector fields

In a rather obvious sense, we can generalise the path integral into a surface integral, and we can arrive at the following conclusion:

#### Definition

$$\iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S} = \iint_{S} \mathbf{F} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS = \iint_{A} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathbf{n} dA$$

where A is image projected by S onto the xy plane. This integral computes the amount of  $\underline{flux}$  through a vector field. That is, what is the strength of the vector field along the surface.

# Examples

#### Example Question 6 [MATH2111 Q16]

Evaluate  $\int_S \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$  where  $\mathbf{F} = \sinh(x)\hat{i} + \cosh(y)\hat{k}$  and S is given by  $z = x + y^2$  for  $0 \le y \le x, 0 \le x \le 1$ .

# Examples

### Example Question 7 [MATH2011 Q171 a)]

Evaluate  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS$  where  $\mathbf{F} = y\hat{\mathbf{i}} - x\hat{\mathbf{j}} + z\hat{\mathbf{k}}$  and  $z = 4 - x^2 - y^2, z \ge 0$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{n}}$  pointing upwards.

# Integral Theorems

There are 3 major integral theorems:

#### **Theorems**

- Green's Theorem
- ② Divergence Theorem
- Stokes' Theorem

### Green's Theorem

#### Green's Theorem

For a closed region D in  $\mathbb{R}^2$  we have the following equivalence:

$$\oint_{\partial D} P(x, y) dx + Q(x, y) dy = \iint_{D} \frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} dx dy$$

#### Conditions

The relevant conditions required for this theorem to hold:

- ① *D* is a closed, non-self intersecting region. [Note: If this is the case, split the region into 2, but this won't be covered]
- ② P, Q are  $C^1(D)$ , meaning they are differentiable functions on D.

# Examples

### Example Question 8 [MATH2011 Q161, MATH2111 Q28]

Evaluate  $\oint_C (x^2 - 2xy) dx + (x^2 + 3) dy$  around the boundary C taken anti-clockwise around the region contained by  $y^2 = 8x$  and x = 2 using Green's Theorem.

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### Example Question 9 [MATH2111 Q31]

Show that for any planar region  $\Omega$  that:

$$\operatorname{area}(\Omega) = rac{1}{2} \oint_{\partial \Omega} (x dy - y dx)$$

### Divergence Theorem

#### Divergence Theorem

For a  $C^1(R)$  vector field **F** on a closed and bounded solid V. Then the following holds:

$$\iiint_{V} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F} dV = \iint_{\partial V} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

# Examples for Divergence Theorem I

### Example Question 10 [MATH2111 Past Paper]

Let  $\mathbf{F}: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^3$  be a vector defined by  $\mathbf{F} = xy\hat{i} + z^3\hat{j} + y^2\hat{k}$  and W the box defined by  $[0,1] \times [0,2] \times [0,4]$  and the orientation defined outward. Use divergence theorem to evaluate:

$$\iint_{\partial W} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{S}$$

# Examples for Divergence Theorem II

### Example Question 11 [MATH2011 Q180]

Evaluate  $\iint_S \mathbf{F} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{n}} dS$  for  $\mathbf{F} = (x, -y, z^2 - 1)$  and S is the boundary surface of the solid  $\Omega$  bounded by the planes

$$z = 0, z = 1, x^2 + y^2 = 1$$

### Stokes' Theorem

#### Stokes' Theorem

Consider a closed and bounded surface S and a  $C^1(S)$  vector field  $\mathbf{F}$ . Then we have:

$$\iint_{S} \nabla \times \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \int_{\partial S} \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{r}$$

# Examples for Stokes' Theorem

### Example Question 12 [MATH2011 Q175]

Verify Stokes' Theorem for the vector field  $\mathbf{F}=(2x-y,-yx^2,-y^2z)$  and S is the top half-surface of the sphere  $x^2+y^2+z^2=1, z\geq 0$  and C is the bounding curve of S.

# Examples for Stokes' Theorem

### Example Question 13 [MATH2011 Q178]

Calculate  $\int_C \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$  where  $\mathbf{F} = (4z + x^2, -2x + 3y^5, 2x^2 + 5\sin(z))$  and C is the curve of intersection of the surfaces

$$x^2 + y^2 = 1, z = y + 1$$

# Orthogonal Curvilinear Co-ordinates

Orthogonal curvilinear co-ordinates are a form of substitution that enables conversion into a more "convenient" form for the co-ordinate system. In effect, it is a parameterisation.

#### Definition

We say that  $(\xi_1, \xi_2, \xi_3)$  are orthogonal co-ordinates if the following hold true:

$$\mathbf{b}_{\xi_i}\cdot\mathbf{b}_{\xi_j}=0$$

where 
$$\mathbf{b}_{\xi_i} = rac{d}{d\xi_i}\mathbf{x}$$

# **Example Question**

## Example Question 14 [MATH2111 Q10]

Toroidal coordiantes  $(w, \theta, \psi)$  are defined by  $x = (a + w \cos(\psi)) \cos(\theta), y = (a + w \cos(\psi)) \sin(\theta), z = w \sin(\psi),$  with a being a constant such that 0 < w < a.

- Verify that  $(w, \theta, \psi)$  is a right-handed, orthogonal coordinate system. Find the scale factors and orthonormal basis vectors.
- ② Describe the curve  $C_1$  where  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$ , w = b if b is a constant such that 0 < b < a.
- **3** Describe the curve  $C_2$  where  $\theta = \psi, w = b, 0 < b < a$  and b is a constant.
- Calculate the length of the curves  $C_1,\,C_2$  for  $a=1,\,b={1\over 2}$

Fourier Series

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Fourier Series

## Periodic Functions

Fourier Series deals with periodic functions, so we define a few terms.

#### Definition 1

A function  $f: D \to Y$  is **L-periodic** if, for all  $x \in D$ ,

$$f(x+L)=f(x).$$

Further, f has **frequency** or **period** L, and the smallest K such that f is K-periodic is called the **fundamental frequency** of f.

# Real Trigonometric Polynomials

To define Fourier series, we first define trigonometric polynomials.

#### Definition 2

A **real trigonometric polynomial** of degree n and period 2L is a function of the form

$$f(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \left( a_k \cos \frac{k\pi x}{L} + b_k \sin \frac{k\pi x}{L} \right),$$

where  $a_n \neq 0$  or  $b_n \neq 0$ , and each  $a_i, b_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Dividing  $a_0$  by 2 will simplify things later.

# Complex Trigonometric Polynomials (MATH2111)

Since  $e^{ik\pi x/L} = \cos\frac{k\pi x}{L} + i\sin\frac{k\pi x}{L}$ , we can extend real trigonometric polynomials as follows.

#### Definition 3

A **complex trigonometric polynomial** of degree n and period 2L is a function of the form

$$f(x) = \sum_{k=-n}^{n} c_k e^{ik\pi x/L} = c_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \left( c_k e^{ik\pi x/L} + c_{-k} e^{-ik\pi x/L} \right),$$

where  $c_n \neq 0$  or  $c_{-n} \neq 0$ , and each  $c_i \in \mathbb{C}$ .

If each  $c_i = \overline{c_{-i}}$ , then each term is real, and the function is a real trigonometric polynomial.

Now we define Fourier Series.

#### Definition 4

Suppose  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is bounded, piecewise continuous, and 2L-periodic. Then the  $n^{\text{th}}$  real Fourier polynomial of f is

$$(S_n f)(x) = \frac{a_0[f]}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^n \left( a_k[f] \cos \frac{k\pi x}{L} + b_k[f] \sin \frac{k\pi x}{L} \right),$$

where

$$a_0[f] = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} f(x) \mathrm{d}x,$$

and for  $1 \le k \le n$ ,

$$a_k[f] = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} f(x) \cos \frac{k\pi x}{L} \mathrm{d}x, \quad b_k[f] = \frac{1}{L} \int_{-L}^{L} f(x) \sin \frac{k\pi x}{L} \mathrm{d}x.$$

# Fourier Series (MATH2111)

#### Definition 5

Suppose  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{C}$  is bounded, piecewise continuous, and 2L-periodic. Then the  $n^{\text{th}}$  complex Fourier polynomial of f is

$$(S_n f)(x) = \sum_{k=-n}^{n} c_k [f] e^{ik\pi x/L}$$
  
=  $c_0[f] + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \left( c_k [f] e^{ik\pi x/L} + c_{-k} [f] e^{-ik\pi x/L} \right),$ 

where

$$c_k[f] = \frac{1}{2L} \int_{-L}^{L} f(x) e^{-ik\pi x/L} dx$$

for -n < k < n.

A couple of results help us when dealing with even or odd functions.

#### Theorem 1

If f is an even function, then

$$a_0[f] = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) dx$$
,  $a_k[f] = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \cos \frac{k\pi x}{L} dx$ ,

and  $b_k[f] = 0$ .

If f is an odd function, then

$$b_k[f] = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L f(x) \sin \frac{k\pi x}{L} dx,$$

and  $a_0[f] = a_k[f] = 0$ .

A **Fourier series** is the limit of the sequence  $\{S_n f\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  denoted Sf.

### Example 1

Find the real Fourier series of f where f(x) = x for  $-1 < x \le 1$ , and requiring that f(x + 2) = f(x) for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

So f is 2-periodic, and odd. Thus  $a_0[f] = a_k[f] = 0$ . Then

$$b_k[f] = 2\int_0^1 x \sin k\pi x dx = 2\frac{\sin \pi k - \pi k \cos \pi k}{\pi^2 k^2}.$$

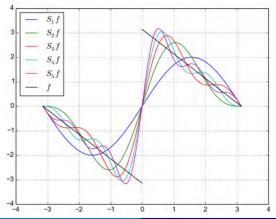
Now,  $\sin \pi k = 0$  and  $\cos \pi k = (-1)^k$  as k is an integer, so

$$(Sf)(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} \sin k\pi x.$$

## Gibbs Phenomenon

### Definition 6

The <u>Gibbs Phenomenon</u> describes the behaviour of periodic functions at jump discontinuities.



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At jump discontinuities, the Fourier series approaches the average of the function value either side of the discontinuity.

#### Theorem 2

Suppose f has a jump discontinuity at a. That is, the limits

$$f(a^{+}) = \lim_{x \to a^{+}} f(x), \quad f(a^{-}) = \lim_{x \to a^{-}} f(x)$$

both exist, but  $f(a^+) \neq f(a^-)$ . Then

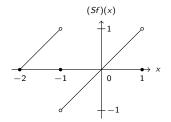
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} (S_n f)(a) = \frac{f(a^+) + f(a^-)}{2}.$$

For those in MATH2111, this is conditioned on the one-sided derivatives existing at *a*. For the functions you deal with, this will almost always be the case.

## Fourier Series

## Example 2

For the previous example, draw the graph of (Sf)(x) for  $-2 \le x \le 1$ 



Wherever the function is continuous, we can simply draw f. At each jump discontinuity, the Fourier series approaches the average of the function, in this case 0.

# Parseval's Identity

#### **Theorem**

Consider a 2L-periodic function f with it's corresponding Fourier coefficients. Then we have the following identity:

$$\frac{1}{L}\int_{-L}^{L}f(x)^{2}dx = \frac{a_{0}^{2}}{2} + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty}(a_{j}^{2} + b_{j}^{2})$$

# Example

## Example 3

Let f(x) = |x| for  $-1 \le x \le 1$  and extend for all real numbers by requiring that f(x+2) = f(x) for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

- Find Sf, the Fourier series of f.
- ② For which x does Sf(x) = f(x)?
- **3** By considering f(0), prove that:

$$1 + \frac{1}{3^2} + \frac{1}{5^2} + \dots = \frac{\pi^2}{8}.$$

Evaluate using Parseval's identity:

$$\sum_{k \text{ odd}}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^4}$$

# Function Convergence

We can say the Fourier series "converges" to the function, but to do so, we need to define what we mean by convergence.

#### Definition 7

A sequence of functions  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  converges pointwise to f on an interval I if, for every  $x \in I$ , we have

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x).$$

#### **Definition 8**

A sequence of functions  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  converges uniformly to f on an interval I if, for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists an N > 0 such that

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$$

for all n > N and  $x \in I$ .

# Function Convergence

Uniform convergence implies pointwise convergence, however the converse is not true.

#### Example 4

Prove that  $f_n(x) = x^n$  converges pointwise to f(x) = 0 on [0,1), but not uniformly.

If  $x \in [0,1)$ , then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} x^n = 0$ , so  $f_n$  converges pointwise. Now take  $\epsilon = \frac{1}{2}$ . Then if the sequence converges uniformly we have

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = |x^n| = x^n < \frac{1}{2}$$

for sufficiently large n, say  $n \ge N > 0$ , and all  $x \in [0,1)$ . So,

$$x<\frac{1}{\sqrt[N]{2}}<1.$$

Take  $x \in (1/\sqrt[N]{2}, 1)$  to derive a contradiction.

# Function Convergence

#### Theorem 3

If a sequence of continuous functions  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  converges uniformly to f on an interval I, then f is continuous on I.

This means we can disprove uniform convergence by showing that the sequence converges pointwise to a discontinuous limit.

# Series Convergence

Just as with sequences, we can define convergence for series of functions similarly.

#### Definition 9

Let  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of functions. The infinite series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k(x)$$

**converges pointwise** to S on an interval I if the partial sums converge pointwise to S on I. That is, for every  $x \in I$ ,

$$S(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \sum_{k=1}^{n} f_k(x).$$

# Series Convergence

#### Definition 10

Let  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  be a sequence of functions. The infinite series

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} f_k(x)$$

**converges uniformly** to S on an interval I if the partial sums converge uniformly to S on I. That is, for every  $\epsilon>0$ , there exists an N>0 such that

$$|S_n(x) - S(x)| < \epsilon$$

for all  $n \ge N$  and  $x \in I$ , and where  $S_n$  is the  $n^{\text{th}}$  partial sum.

# Series Convergence

## Theorem 4 (Weierstrass M-test)

If the sequence of functions  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$  satisfies

$$|f_n(x)| \leq M_n$$

for all  $x \in I$  and n > 1, and if

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n$$

converges, then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$$

converges uniformly on 1.

# Series Convergence

## Example 5 (Question 10 from MATH2111 2018)

Prove that

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\cos nx}{n^2 + x^2}$$

converges uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

$$\left|\frac{\cos nx}{n^2+x^2}\right| \le n^{-2}.$$

So, since

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^{-2} = \frac{\pi^2}{6},$$

by Weierstrass M-test, the series converges uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

## Convergence of Fourier Series

With these definitions, we can say the following.

#### Theorem 5

Suppose  $c_k$  are the complex, and  $a_k, b_k$  the real Fourier coefficients of f. Then if

$$\sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} |c_k|, \text{ or } \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left(|a_k| + |b_k|\right)$$

converge, then the corresponding Fourier series converges uniformly to f. Further, f is continuous.

So, if the function we are trying to represent as a Fourier series is discontinuous, then the series does not converge uniformly.

# Convergence of Fourier Series

### Example 6

Let f be defined such that f(x) = x for  $0 \le x \le 1$ , f is even, and f(x+2) = f(x) for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . You are given that

$$(Sf)(x) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{4}{\pi^2} \sum_{k \text{ odd}} \frac{\cos k\pi x}{k^2}.$$

Does Sf converge uniformly on  $\mathbb{R}$ ? What does this say about f?

So

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \left( \left| \frac{-4}{k^2 \pi^2} \right| + |0| \right) = \frac{4}{\pi^2} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^2}$$

converges by p-test. Thus, Sf converges uniformly to f. Since the partial sums are continuous, uniform convergence implies that f is continuous.