

2022 Recall:

Defn: A sequence is a function whose domain is a natural number and the range a set of real numbers. i.e. A real sequence is a function

$$x_n : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

A sequence  $x_n : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is denoted by  $\{x_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  or  $\{x_n\}$  or  $(x_n)$  or  $(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$ , or  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots\}$ .

The terms  $x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots$  are called the first, second, third terms of the sequence.

Observe also that terms of the sequence are infinite. However the range may be finite.

Ex: The following are sequences

$$\{x_n\} = \{1/n\}, \{x_n\} = \{1 + 1/n\},$$

$$\{x_n\} = \{(-1)^n\} \text{ etc.}$$

Defn: A sequence  $x_n$  is said to be bounded above if there exist a positive real integer  $\alpha$   $\forall x_n \leq \alpha \forall n$ . Also,  $x_n$  is said to be bounded below if  $\exists$  a real number  $\beta$   $\forall x_n \geq \beta \forall n$ .

$x_n$  is said to be bounded above and below, if  $(x_n)$  is bounded above by  $\alpha$  and bounded below by  $\beta$ , then  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are called the upper and lower bounds of  $x_n$  respectively.

**Definition:** A sequence  $x_n$  is said to converge to a real number  $P$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0 \exists$  a positive integer  $m \ni |x_n - P| < \epsilon \forall n \geq m$ .

### POINT WISE CONVERGENCE

**Definition:** A sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence whose terms are real valued functions defined on some interval say  $I = (a, b)$ . Hence, for each  $p \in I$ ,  $\{f_n\}$  corresponds to  $f_1(p), f_2(p), f_3(p), \dots$

**Definition:** A sequence of function  $\{f_n\}$  is said to be pointwise convergent on  $[a, b]$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  and if for each  $x \in [a, b]$   $\exists$  a positive integer  $m = m(\epsilon, x) \ni |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon \forall n \geq m \dots \textcircled{1}$

The function  $f$  in  $\textcircled{1}$  is called the pointwise limit of  $f_n(x)$  from  $\textcircled{1}$ , we also write  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$  or

$$f_n(x) \longrightarrow f(x) \text{ or}$$

$$f_n(x) \longrightarrow f(x) \text{ or}$$

$$f_n(x) \longrightarrow f(x) \text{ as } n \longrightarrow \infty.$$

The notation  $m(\epsilon, x)$  means that pointwise convergence of  $(f_n)$  to the limit function depends on both  $\epsilon$  and:

**Definition:** A sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}$  is said to converge uniformly on  $[a, b]$  to a function  $f$  defined on  $[a, b]$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $\forall x \in [a, b] \exists$  a positive integer  $m(\epsilon)$  (depending on  $\epsilon$ )  $\ni \forall n \geq m(\epsilon) \forall x \in [a, b]$   
 $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq m(\epsilon) \quad \dots \textcircled{1}$

The function  $\textcircled{1}$  is called the uniform limit of  $f_n$ .

**Difference  $\Rightarrow$**  In a case of point-wise convergence for each  $\epsilon > 0$  and for each  $x \in [a, b] \exists$  positive integer  $m(\epsilon, x)$  depending on both  $\epsilon$  and  $x \ni$  equation  $\textcircled{1}$  holds i.e.  
 $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq m$ . Whereas for uniform convergence, for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , it is possible to find a positive integer  $m(\epsilon)$  dependent only on  $\epsilon$  which will suffice

if  $x \in [a, b]$ .

It follows that every uniform convergent is pointwise convergent. However, not pointwise convergent implies not uniform convergence. This also means that pointwise limit is the same as the uniform limit.

**Definition:** A sequence of functions  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$  is said to be convergent pointwise to a function  $f$  defined on  $[a, b]$  if its sequence of  $n$ th partial sum  $\{S_n\}$  converges pointwise to  $f$ .

$$|S_n - f| < \epsilon$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\left| \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x) - f \right| < \epsilon$$

Similarly, we define uniform convergence of series of functions.

10/1/2022

**Definition:** A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  of numbers is said to be Cauchy if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists \alpha \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $|x_n - x_m| < \epsilon$ , if  $m, n \geq \alpha$ .



# THEOREM: CAUCHY CONVERGENCE CRITERION

A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  is convergent iff it is a Cauchy sequence.

## CAUCHY CONVERGENCE CRITERION for SEQUENCE OF FUNCTIONS

THEOREM: A sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}$  is convergent uniformly on  $[a, b]$ , iff for any  $\epsilon > 0$  and for all  $x \in [a, b]$ , there exists a natural number  $\lambda(\epsilon)$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon, \quad \forall n, m \geq \lambda(\epsilon).$$

PROOF: Necessary  $\Rightarrow$  Suppose  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$  to the limit function  $f(x)$ .

This means for every  $\epsilon > 0$  and for all  $x \in [a, b]$ ,  $\exists$  a positive integers  $n_1(\epsilon), n_2(\epsilon)$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/2 \quad \forall n \geq n_1(\epsilon).$$

$$|f_m(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/2 \quad \forall m \geq n_2(\epsilon).$$

$$\text{Let } \lambda(\epsilon) = \max(n_1(\epsilon), n_2(\epsilon)).$$

Then for the given  $\epsilon > 0$  and for all  $x \in [a, b]$  we have

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| = |f_n(x) - f(x) + f(x) - f_m(x)|$$

$$\leq |f_n(x) - f(x)| + |f(x) - f_m(x)|$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq \lambda(\epsilon).$$

**Sufficiency**  $\Rightarrow$  Assume that (i) holds then by Cauchy convergence criterion,  $\{f_n\}$  converges to  $f$ , (say) pointwise. To see that the convergence is uniform, from (i) let  $n$  be fixed and  $m \rightarrow \infty$ . Then for no given  $\epsilon > 0$ , and for all  $x \in [a, b]$ , we have

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \epsilon \quad \forall n \geq N(\epsilon)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_n \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{\text{conv. uniformly}} f$$

□

**Example 1:** Test for uniform convergence of the seq.  $\{f_n\}$ , where  $f_n(x) = \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Solution.**

First, we show that the sequence converges pointwise. For this we see that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2} = 0 = f(x). \text{ That is, } f_n(x) \xrightarrow[n \rightarrow \infty]{} f(x) = 0 \text{ on } \mathbb{R}.$$

For uniform convergence,  $\forall \epsilon > 0$  we need for all  $x \in [a, b]$  we need to show  $\exists$  a true number  $N(\epsilon)$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon, \quad \forall n \geq N(\epsilon) \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

Consider the LHS of --- (i)

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = \left| \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2} - 0 \right| = \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2} < \frac{nx}{n^2x^2}$$

$< \epsilon$ , provided  $n > \frac{1}{\epsilon x} = n(\epsilon, x)$ .

Obviously, for  $x = 0 \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $n(\epsilon, 0) = \frac{1}{0} \rightarrow \infty$

This means that we cannot find an  $n(\epsilon)$  that depends only on  $\epsilon \Rightarrow @$  is valid.  
Hence, the sequence does not converge uniformly for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**NOTE**  $\Rightarrow$  Every uniform convergence implies pointwise convergence but not conversely. However, not pointwise convergence implies not uniform convergence.

2. Show that the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  where  $f_n(x) = \frac{1}{x+n}$  is uniformly convergent in the interval  $[0, b]$ ,  $b > 0$ .

Solution -

First, for pointwise limit,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{x+n} = 0 = f(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow f_n(x) \xrightarrow{\text{Pointwise}} f(x) = 0 \text{ on } [a, b]$$

For uniform convergence, given any  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $\forall x \in [a, b]$ , we need to find a number  $w(\epsilon) > 0$   $\rightarrow$

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon, \forall n \geq w(\epsilon) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

From the L.H.S. of (1)

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = \left| \frac{1}{x+n} - 0 \right| = \frac{1}{x+n} < \frac{1}{n} < \epsilon, \therefore$$

$$n > 1/\epsilon = m(\epsilon)$$

$\therefore f_n(x) \longrightarrow f(x) = 0$  uniformly as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  on  $[a, b]$ .

3. Show that the seq.  $\{f_n\}$  where  $f_n(x) = x^n$  is uniformly convergent on  $[0, c]$ ,  $c < 1$  and only pointwise on  $[0, 1]$ .

Solution.

For pointwise limit, we see that  $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \leq x < 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$

We see that  $f_n(x)$  converges pointwise to a discontinuous function  $f(x)$ .

for uniform continuity, we consider for  $0 < x \leq c < 1$ , we have

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| = |x^n - 0| = x^n < \epsilon$$

$$\text{if } \left(\frac{1}{x}\right)^n > 1/\epsilon$$

$$\text{if } n \log\left[\frac{1}{x}\right] > \log(1/\epsilon)$$

$$\text{if } n > \frac{\log(1/\epsilon)}{\log(1/x)}$$

Notice that the maximum value of  $\frac{\log(1/\epsilon)}{\log(1/x)}$  is  $\frac{\log(1/\epsilon)}{\log(1/c)} = \epsilon = m(\epsilon)$

$\Rightarrow$  for the given  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $\forall x \in (0, 1)$   
 $\exists m(\epsilon) \neq 1/\epsilon$  s.t.  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ ,  $\forall n \geq m(\epsilon)$



$$\frac{n(1-nx^2)}{(1+n^2x^2)^2} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{n(1-nx^2)}{(1+n^2x^2)^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow n(1-nx^2) = 0 \Rightarrow x = \frac{1}{n}$$

$$\therefore \text{Max } f_n(x) \Big|_{x=\frac{1}{n}} = \frac{n(1/2)}{1+n^2(1/2)^2} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} M_n &= \sup |f_n(x) - f(x)| \\ &= \sup_{x \in [a,b]} \left| \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2} - 0 \right| = \sup_{x \in [a,b]} \left| \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2} \right| \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \quad (n \rightarrow \infty) \\ &\quad \quad \quad (+\infty) \end{aligned}$$

Hence,  $\{f_n\}$  does not converge uniformly on any interval  $[a,b]$  containing zero.

2. Prove that the sequence  $\{f_n\}$ , where  $f_n(x) = \frac{x}{1+nx^2}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  converges uniformly on any closed interval  $D$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ .

Solution

The pointwise limit function  $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \frac{x}{1+\infty x^2} = 0$ .

It is easy to see that the function attains its maximum value  $\frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}}$  at  $x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ . Therefore,

$$M_n = \sup_{x \in D} |f_n(x) - f(x)| = \sup_{x \in D} \left| \frac{x}{1+nx^2} \right| = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{n}}$$

$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n = 0 \Rightarrow f_n(x) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} f(x)$  on  $D$  by  $M_n$ .

### EXERCISE.

1. Show that the following sequences are not family convergent on the indicated intervals.

i.  $\{f_n\}$  on  $[0, 1]$  ii.  $\{e^{-nx}\}$  on  $[0, k]$ ,  $k > 0$ .

2. Test the following sequence for uniform convergence.

i.  $\left\{ \frac{\sin(nx)}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 2\pi$  ii.  $\left\{ \frac{x}{n+x} \right\}$ ,  $0 \leq x < \infty$

iii.  $\left\{ \frac{k}{n+x} \right\}$ ,  $0 \leq x < \infty$  iv.  $\left\{ \frac{n^2 x}{1+n^3 x^2} \right\}$ ,  $0 \leq x < \infty$

### TESTS FOR UNIFORM CONVERGENCE OF SERIES OF FUNCTIONS

LEM: (Weierstrass M-test): A series of functions  $\sum f_n$  will converge uniformly on  $[a, b]$  if there exists a convergent series of +ve numbers  $\sum M_n$  if  $\forall x \in [a, b]$ ,

$$|f_n(x)| \leq M_n, \forall n.$$

pf: let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given. Since  $\sum M_n$  converges  $\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n = 0$ . Hence, for the given  $\epsilon > 0$  we can find a natural number  $N$  such that  $|M_{n+1} + M_{n+2} + \dots + M_{n+p}| < \epsilon, \forall n > N, p \geq 1$ .  $\therefore \dots \text{ (1)}$

Now, for the given  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $\forall x \in [a, b]$   
 $|f_{n+1}(x) + f_{n+2}(x) + \dots + f_{n+p}(x)| \leq$   
 $|f_{n+1}(x)| + |f_{n+2}(x)| + \dots + |f_{n+p}(x)| \leq$   
 $M_{n+1} + M_{n+2} + \dots + M_{n+p} < \epsilon, \forall n \geq \lambda(\epsilon)$   
 $\Rightarrow \sum f_n$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$ .

REMARK: The converse of the above theorem is not always true, i.e. non-convergence of  $\sum f_n$  does not imply non-uniform convergence of  $\sum f_n$ .

2. Series that satisfy Weierstrass M-test are sometimes called normally convergent series to emphasize the fact that such series are both uniformly and absolutely convergent.

Example: Test for uniform convergence, the series  
 i.  $\sum r^n \cos(n\theta)$ , ii.  $\sum r^n \sin(n\theta)$   
 iii.  $\sum r^n \sin(n\theta)$ ,  $0 < r < 1$ .

Solution:

i. Let  $\sum f_n = \sum r^n \cos(n\theta)$

Now,  $|f_n(x)| = |r^n \cos(n\theta)| \leq r^n = M_n$

i.e.  $\sum M_n = \sum r^n$

We see that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = 0$  [ $\because 0 < r < 1$ ]

$r \in (0, 1) \Rightarrow r = \frac{1}{k}, \Rightarrow r^n = \left(\frac{1}{k}\right)^n = \frac{1}{k^n}$

$\Rightarrow r^n = \frac{1}{k^n}$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r^n = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{kn} = \frac{1}{\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} kn} = \frac{1}{\infty} = 0.$$

It is easy to see that by Cauchy root test,  $\sum r^n$  is convergent. Hence,  $\sum r^n \cos(n\theta)$  converges uniformly by Weierstrass M-test for ii, iii. The whole idea is the same.

Example: Test for uniform convergence the series

i.  $\sum \frac{\sin(x^2 + n^2 x)}{n(n+1)}, x \in \mathbb{R}$

ii.  $\sum \frac{(n!)^p}{n^p}, p > 1$

iii.  $\sum \frac{(n!)^p x^{2n}}{n^p (1+x^{2n})}, p > 1$

Solution

i. Let  $\sum f_n(x) = \sum \frac{\sin(x^2 + n^2 x)}{n(n+1)}$

$$\text{Now, } |f_n(x)| = \left| \frac{\sin(x^2 + n^2 x)}{n(n+1)} \right| \leq \frac{1}{n(n+1)} < \frac{1}{n^2} = M_n$$

i.e.  $\sum M_n = \sum 1/n^2$

Clearly,  $M_n \rightarrow 0$  and  $\sum 1/n^2$  converges by ratio test. Therefore,  $\sum f_n$  converges uniformly for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .

For ii, iii, the whole idea is the same. Example: Show that the series  $\sum \frac{x^n}{n^p + x^{2n}}$  converges uniformly over any finite interval  $[a, b]$  if  $p > 1, x \geq 0$



Solution.

$$\text{Let } \sum f_n(x) = \sum \frac{x^n}{n^2 + x^2 n^2}$$

$$\text{Now, } |f_n(x)| = \left| \frac{x^n}{n^2 + x^2 n^2} \right| \leq \left| \frac{x^n}{n^2} \right| = \frac{|x|^n}{n^2} \leq \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Obviously,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^2} = 0$ ; and the series  $\sum \frac{1}{n^2}$  is convergent, being a p-series with  $p > 1$ . Therefore,  $\sum \frac{x^n}{n^2 + x^2 n^2}$  is uniformly convergent on  $[a, b]$  by Weierstrass M-test.

Def 1.2.2

Definition

A sequence  $\{x_n\}$  of numbers is said to be monotonic increasing if  $x_{n+1} \geq x_n, \forall n$ . And is said to be monotonic decreasing if  $x_{n+1} \leq x_n, \forall n$ .  $\{x_n\}$  is said to be monotonic if it is either monotonic increasing or decreasing.

Definition

A sequence  $\{f_n\}$  of functions is said to be uniformly bounded on  $[a, b]$  if  $\exists$  a number  $M \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $|f_n(x)| \leq M, \forall x \in [a, b]$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

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

Definition

A function  $f(x)$  is said to be positively bounded if  $f(x) \geq 0, \forall x$ .

Lemma

(ABEL'S LEMMA): If  $\{b_n\}$  is a positive monotone decreasing sequence and  $l, g$  denote respectively the least and the

at least values of the sums  $\sum_{r=m}^p U_r$ ,  
 where  $p = m, m+1, m+2, \dots, n$ , then  
 $b_{m-1} \leq \sum_{r=m}^p U_r \leq \sum_{r=m}^p U_r \leq L_m$ .

**THEOREM: [ABEL'S THEOREM]** : If  $b_n(x)$  is a positive monotone decreasing function of  $n$  and  $x \in [a, b]$ , and if  $b_n(x)$  is uniformly bounded on  $[a, b]$  and if the series  $\sum U_n(x)$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$ , then the series  $\sum b_n(x) U_n(x)$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$ .

**PROOF:** Since the function  $b_n(x)$  is bounded for all  $n$  and  $x \in [a, b]$ , this means there exist a number  $g > 0$  &

$$0 \leq b_n(x) \leq g, \quad \forall n \text{ and } \forall x \in [a, b]$$

Again, since  $\sum U_n(x)$  is uniformly convergent on  $[a, b]$ , then its  $n$ th partial sum  $\sum_{r=1}^n U_r(x)$  is convergent. This means give any  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a number  $\alpha$  &

$$\left| \sum_{r=n+1}^p U_r(x) \right| < \epsilon, \quad \forall n \geq \alpha, p \geq 1 \dots \textcircled{1}$$

Now, by Abel's Lemma,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{r=n+1}^p b_r(x) U_r(x) \right| &\leq b_{n+1}(x) g \rightarrow \left| \sum_{r=n+1}^p U_r(x) \right| \\ &= b_{n+1}(x) \sum_{r=n+1}^p U_r(x) \\ &\leq g \epsilon = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \sum b_n(x) U_n(x)$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$

Example: Determine whether the series  $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n} |x|^n$  is uniformly convergent on  $[-1, 1]$  by using Abel's theorem.

### Solution

Since  $b_n(x) = |x|^n$  is positive monotonic and decreasing and uniformly bounded on  $[-1, 1]$  and the series  $\sum U_n = \sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n}$  converges uniformly on  $[-1, 1]$ , it follows from Abel's theorem that  $\sum \frac{(-1)^n}{n} |x|^n$  converges uniformly on  $[-1, 1]$ .

Example: Show that  $\sum \frac{b_n}{n^x}$  converges uniformly on  $[0, 1]$  if  $\sum b_n$  is convergent.

### Solution

Since  $b_n(x) = \frac{1}{n^x}$  is positive monotonic decreasing and uniformly bounded for  $n$  and  $x \in [0, 1]$  and since  $\sum b_n$  converges it is uniformly convergent. It follows therefore from Abel's theorem that  $\sum \frac{b_n}{n^x}$  converges on  $[0, 1]$ .

### EXERCISE

If  $\sum b_n$  is convergent, then use Abel's

theorem to show that each of the following series is uniformly convergent on  $[0,1]$

- i.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^n$     ii.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1+x^n}{1+x^{2n}}$     iii.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln x^n}{1+x^{2n}}$   
 iv.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} nx^n (1-x)^n$     v.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2n \ln x^n (1-x)}{1+x^{2n}}$

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THEOREM: (DIRICHLET'S TEST): If  $b_n(x)$  is a monotone function and tends uniformly to zero on  $[a,b]$  and if  $\exists$  a number  $K > 0$  independent of  $n$  and  $x$  such that

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n U_k(x) \right| \leq K, \forall n,$$

then the series  $\sum b_n(x) U_n(x)$  converges uniformly on  $[a,b]$ .

PROOF: (The whole idea can be followed from Abel's theorem).

Example: Prove that the series  $\sum b_n(x) U_n(x)$  converges uniformly on every bounded interval but does not converge absolutely, using Dirichlet's test.

Solution

Let  $U_n = (-1)^n$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Clearly,  $\exists K=1 \exists$

$$\left| \sum_{k=1}^n U_k(x) \right| = 1$$

Taking  $b_n(x) = \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2}$  and let  $D$  be bounded



interval. This implies that  $\exists K > 0$  such that  $b_k \leq K, \forall x \in D$ . Then, we can see that  $b_n(x) = \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} < \frac{K^2 + n}{n^2}$  is a monotonic decreasing

function and tends uniformly to 0. Hence by Dirichlet's test, the series  $\sum b_n(x) U_n(x)$  converges uniformly on  $D$ .

for absolute convergence, we see that

$$\left| \sum (-1)^n \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} \right| = \sum \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2} \sim \sum \frac{1}{n}$$

which diverges. Hence the series

$\sum (-1)^n \frac{x^2 + n}{n^2}$  does not converge absolutely on any bounded interval.

### Some Properties of Uniformly convergent series and functions

We shall learn that the sufficient condition for a limit function or series to enjoy all the fundamental properties of a sequence of functions or series is that the convergence is uniform.

**THEOREM.** If a sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$  and  $x_0$  is a point in  $[a, b]$  such that

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = y_n, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then

i.  $\{y_n\}$  converges

ii.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n$

PROOF: i. let  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$ . This means  $\{f_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence. Hence, given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find a natural number  $N(\epsilon)$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \quad \forall n, m \geq N(\epsilon) \dots$$

Since  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_n(x) = y_n, \forall n$ , then letting  $x \rightarrow x_0$  in (1), we get

$$|y_n - y_m| < \epsilon/2 < \epsilon, \quad \forall n, m \geq N(\epsilon)$$

$\Rightarrow \{y_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence, and hence converges.

ii. Assume that  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$ . This means for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find an integer  $\beta(\epsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3, \quad \forall n \geq \beta(\epsilon) \dots (2)$$

Since  $\{y_n\}$  converges to  $P$ , then for a given  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists$  a number  $\beta_2(\epsilon) > 0$  such that

$$|y_n - P| < \epsilon/3, \quad \forall n \geq \beta_2(\epsilon) \dots (3)$$

Let  $\alpha = \max(\beta(\epsilon), \beta_2(\epsilon))$

By hypo hypothesis,  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_n(x) = y_n, \forall n$ .  
Therefore,

$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_n(x) = y_n$ . Hence, for any  $\epsilon > 0, \exists \delta > 0$

$$|x - x_0| < \delta \Rightarrow |f_n(x) - y_n| < \epsilon/3 \quad \dots \textcircled{2}$$

Therefore, for the given  $\epsilon > 0$ , and  $|x - x_0| < \delta$   
we see that  $|f(x) - P| = |f(x) - f_n(x) + f_n(x) - y_n + y_n - P|$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq |f(x) - f_n(x)| + |f_n(x) - y_n| + |y_n - P| \\ &\leq \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

1/21/2022

**THEOREM:** If a series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$  converges uniformly to a sum function  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  and  $x_0$  is a point in  $[a, b]$  &  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = y_n, n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then

i.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} y_n$  converges

ii.  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} y_n$

**PROOF:** (Same idea with previous result)

**REMARK:** The consequence of the above theorem is that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_n$ .

## UNIFORM CONVERGENCE AND CONTINUITY

**Recall,** A function  $f$  is said to be continuous at  $x_0 \in D(f)$  if given any  $\epsilon > 0, \exists \delta_\epsilon > 0$

$$|x_1 - x_0| < \delta$$

$$\Rightarrow |f(x_1) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon; \quad \forall x \in D(f)$$

**THEOREM:** If  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of continuous functions on an interval  $[a, b]$  and if  $f_n \rightarrow f$  uniformly on  $[a, b]$ , then the sum function  $f$  is also continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

**PROOF:** EXERCISE

**THEOREM:** If a series  $\sum f_n$  converges uniformly to a sum function  $f$  on an interval  $[a, b]$  and if  $f_n$  is continuous at  $x_0 \in [a, b]$  for each  $n$ , then the sum function  $f$  is also continuous at  $x_0$ .

**PROOF:** Since  $\sum f_n$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ , then given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can produce an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $\forall x \in [a, b]$  produce an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $|\sum_{n=1}^N f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3 \quad \forall n \geq N$  . . . (1)

In particular, for  $x = x_0$  and  $n = N$ , we get  $|\sum_{n=1}^N f_n(x_0) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon/3$  . . . (2)

Again, since  $\sum f_n$  is continuous at  $x_0$ , the sum function  $\sum_{n=1}^N f_n$  is continuous at  $x_0$  because finite sum of continuous functions

is always continuous. Therefore, given any  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a  $\delta_0 > 0$  s.t.  $|x - x_0| < \delta_0$  gives



$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) - \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x_0) \right| < \epsilon/3 \dots \textcircled{3}$$

Now for the given  $\epsilon > 0$ , with  $\delta > 0$ , we see that  $|x - x_0| < \delta$  yields

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x) - f(x_0)| &= \left| f(x) - \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) + \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) - \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x_0) - f(x_0) \right| \\ &\leq \left| f(x) - \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) \right| + \left| \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) - \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x_0) \right| + \left| \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x_0) - f(x_0) \right| \\ &< \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 + \epsilon/3 = \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

i.e.  $|x - x_0| < \delta$

$\Rightarrow |f(x) - f(x_0)| < \epsilon \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$ .

This proves that  $f$  is continuous at  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ .

**REMARK:** The converse of the above theorem is not always true, i.e.  $\exists$  series or sequence of continuous term which have a continuous sum or limit but which are not uniformly continuous.

However, if the sum or limit function is not continuous, then convergence cannot be uniform on the given interval.

**Example:** Show that the ff. do not converge uniformly on the indicated interval (converge uniformly on the indicated interval).

$$1. \left\{ \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2} \right\} \text{ on } [0, 1]$$

ii.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (1-x)x^n$  on  $[0,1]$

Solution .

i. clearly,  $f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2} = 0$   
 Now,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| = \left| \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2} - 0 \right| = \frac{nx}{1+n^2x^2} \leq \frac{1}{n}$   
 $= \frac{1}{n} < \epsilon$ , provided  $n > \frac{1}{\epsilon}$

Hence, we conclude that the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  does not converge uniformly on  $[0,1]$ .

ii. Obviously,  $f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \neq 1 \\ 0, & \text{if } x = 1 \end{cases}$

We see that  $f(x)$  is not continuous at  $x=1$ . Hence the series cannot converge uniformly on  $[0,1]$ .

NOTE. There is a special class of sequence of functions for which uniform convergence is equivalent to the continuity of the limit or sum function. In this connection, we have a theorem due to an Italian mathematician called Dini.

**THEOREM [DINI'S THEOREM ON UNIFORM CONVERGENCE]**

If a sequence of continuous functions  $\{f_n\}$  defined on  $[a,b]$  is monotonic increasing and converges pointwise to a continuous function  $f$  on  $[a,b]$ , then the convergence is uniform.

function  $f$ , then the convergence is uniform.

**THEOREM [DINI'S THEOREM ON UNIFORM CONVERGENCE OF A SERIES OF FUNCTIONS]**

If the sum function  $f$  of a series  $\sum f_n$  with non-negative continuous terms defined on an interval  $[a, b]$  is continuous, then the series is uniformly convergent.

**REMARK:** If the pointwise limit or sum function is not continuous then the convergence cannot be uniform.

**Example:** Show that the series  $x^4 + \frac{x^4}{1+x^4} + \frac{x^4}{(1+x^4)^2} + \dots$

$$\sum f_n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^4}{(1+x^4)^n}$$

$$a = x^4, \quad r = \frac{1}{1+x^4} < 1 \quad \text{for } x \neq 0$$

$$f(x) = S_{\infty} = \frac{a}{1-r} = \frac{x^4}{1 - \frac{1}{1+x^4}} = \frac{x^4}{\frac{x^4}{1+x^4}} = 1+x^4$$

$$\text{for } x=0, \sum f_n = 0 = f(x)$$

$$\therefore f(x) = \begin{cases} 1+x^4 & \text{for } x \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text{for } x=0 \end{cases}$$

We see that the sum function is not continuous on  $[0, 1]$ . Hence, the series cannot converge uniformly on  $[0, 1]$ .

Example. Show that  $\sum \frac{x}{(nx+1)((n-1)x+1)}$  is uniformly convergent on any interval  $[a, b]$   $0 < a < b$  but only pointwise on  $[0, b]$ .

Solution.

$$\text{Let } f_n(x) = \frac{x}{(nx+1)((n-1)x+1)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(n-1)x+1} - \frac{1}{nx+1} \quad (\text{He said for fraction})$$

The  $n$ th partial sum of  $\sum f_n$  is given

$$S_n(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n f_k(x) = \sum_{k=1}^n \left[ \frac{1}{(k-1)x+1} - \frac{1}{kx+1} \right]$$

$$= \cancel{\frac{1}{1x+1}} + \cancel{\frac{1}{2x+1}} + \dots + \cancel{\frac{1}{(n-1)x+1}} - \frac{1}{nx+1}$$

$$= \left( 1 - \frac{1}{x+1} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{x+1} - \frac{1}{2x+1} \right) + \left( \frac{1}{2x+1} - \frac{1}{3x+1} \right) + \dots + \left( \frac{1}{(k-1)x+1} - \frac{1}{kx+1} \right)$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{kx+1}$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} S_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{kx+1} \right] = 1 = f(x)$$

if  $x \neq 0$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \neq 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x = 0 \end{cases}$$

$\therefore$  The sum function is discontinuous on  $[0, b]$  and therefore, convergence can not



be uniform on  $[a, b]$ . ~~but~~  $f_n \geq f_0$  is only pointwise on  $[a, b]$ . Now for  $x \neq 0$  let  $x \in [a, b]$  with  $0 < a < b$ , let  $|S_n(x) - f(x)| = \left| \left(1 - \frac{1}{n+1}\right) - 1 \right| = \frac{1}{n+1} < \frac{1}{nx} < \epsilon$  provided  $n > 1/\epsilon x$ .

Observe that  $\frac{1}{\epsilon x}$  decreases with  $x$ . Let its minimum be  $1/\alpha\epsilon = \alpha$  in  $[a, b]$ . Therefore, for all  $x \in [a, b]$   $\exists$  an  $\alpha \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $|S_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon$ , if  $n > \alpha$ .

Hence, the series converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$ ,  $0 < a < b$ .

Definition

Let  $[a, b]$  be a given closed interval. A partition of  $[a, b]$  is a finite set  $P$  of numbers  $x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ , where  $a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq x_2 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b$ .

The intervals  $[x_0, x_1], [x_1, x_2], \dots, [x_{n-1}, x_n]$  are the subintervals of  $[a, b]$ . Note that the length of the interval  $[a, b]$  is given by  $L([a, b]) = b - a$ .

We denote the lengths of the subintervals of  $[a, b]$  by  $\Delta x_i$  ( $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ ). That is,

$$\Delta x_i = x_i - x_{i-1} \quad (i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, n)$$

Let  $f$  be a bounded function on  $[a, b]$  and  $M_i, m_i$  denote respectively the <sup>sup</sup> and <sup>inf</sup>imum of  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ . Then consider the sums

$$U(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n M_i \Delta x_i \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$L(P, f) = \sum_{i=1}^n m_i \Delta x_i \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

The sums in (1) and (2) are respectively called the upper and the lower Darboux sums of  $f$  with respect to the partition  $P$  on  $[a, b]$ .

Definition: For any partition  $P$  of  $[a, b]$ , the length of the maximum sub-interval is called the norm or the norm of the partition  $P$  and is denoted by  $\|P\|$ .

That is,

$$\|P\| = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \Delta x_i$$

$$= \max \{x_i - x_{i-1} \mid 1 \leq i \leq n\}$$

$$\text{e.g. } \max \{1, 3, 8, 10, 0, 12\} = 12$$

Theorem (Necessary and sufficient conditions for integrability).

A bounded function  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  iff  $\forall \epsilon > 0, \exists$  a partition  $P$

$[a, b] \ni$

$$U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \epsilon \dots \textcircled{1}$$

By  $\textcircled{2}$ ,  $\lim (U(P, f) - L(P, f)) = 0$

Theorem: If a sequence  $\{f_n\}$  of functions converge uniformly on  $[a, b]$  to a limit function  $f$  and each  $f_n$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$  then the limit function is integrable on  $[a, b]$  and the sequence  $\left\{ \int_a^x f_n(t) dt \right\}$  converges uniformly to  $\left\{ \int_a^x f(t) dt \right\}$ .

That is,

$$\int_a^x f dt = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^x f_n dt, \forall x \in [a, b]$$

Proof: Suppose that  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ . Then, by definition, for every  $\epsilon > 0$  and for all  $x \in [a, b]$ , we can find a positive integer  $2 \ni$

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3(b-a), \forall n \geq 2 \dots \textcircled{1}$$

In particular, for  $n = 2$ , we get

$$|f_2(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3(b-a) \dots \textcircled{2}$$

For this fixed  $2$ , and since  $f_2$  is integrable we can choose a partition  $P$  of  $[a, b] \ni$

$$U(P, f_2) - L(P, f_2) < \epsilon/3 \dots \textcircled{3}$$

from (2) we can write

$$-\frac{\epsilon}{3(b-a)} < f_2(x) - f(x) < \frac{\epsilon}{3(b-a)} \quad \dots (4)$$

Now, from LHS of (4), we have

$$-\frac{\epsilon}{3(b-a)} < f_2(x) - f(x) \Rightarrow f(x) - \frac{\epsilon}{3(b-a)} < f_2(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) < f_2(x) + \frac{\epsilon}{3(b-a)} \quad \dots (5)$$

$$\Rightarrow U(P, f) < U(P, f_2) + \epsilon/3 \quad \dots (6)$$

Again, from RHS of (4), we get

$$f_2(x) - f(x) < \frac{\epsilon}{3(b-a)}$$

$$\Rightarrow f_2(x) - \frac{\epsilon}{3(b-a)} < f(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x) > f_2(x) - \frac{\epsilon}{3(b-a)}$$

$$\Rightarrow L(P, f) > L(P, f_2) - \epsilon/3 \quad \dots (7)$$

from (6) and (7), we have

$$U(P, f) - L(P, f) < U(P, f_2) - L(P, f_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow U(P, f) - L(P, f) < \epsilon/3 + 2\epsilon/3 = \epsilon$$

$\therefore f$  is integrable on  $[a, b]$ .

$$\text{Now, to show that } \int_a^b f dt = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n dt$$



Let  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $[a, b]$   
 $\Rightarrow$  for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find a positive integer  $2 \geq \forall x \in [a, b]$ ,  
 $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon/3(b-a)$ ,  $\forall n \geq 2$ .  $\dots$  (1)

Then, for all  $x \in [a, b]$  and for  $n \geq 2$  we get

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int_a^x f dt - \int_a^x f_n dt \right| &= \left| \int_a^x (f dt - f_n dt) \right| \\ &\leq \int_a^x |f - f_n| dt \\ &\leq |f - f_n| (x-a) \\ &\leq |f - f_n| \sup_{x \in [a, b]} (x-a) \\ &\leq |f - f_n| (b-a) \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{3(b-a)} (b-a) = \frac{\epsilon}{3} \end{aligned}$$

That is,  $\left| \int_a^x f dt - \int_a^x f_n dt \right| < \epsilon, \forall x \in [a, b]$   
 $\Rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^x f_n dt = \int_a^x f dt$ .  $\square$

REMARK: The converse of the above theorem need not be true.

That is, if the limit function  $f$  is integrable

the sequence of functions  $\{f_n(x)\}$  is not necessarily uniformly convergent.

Note, however that if the limit function  $f$  is not integrable then the convergence of  $\{f_n\}$  cannot be uniform.

2/19/2022

**THEOREM:** If a series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n$  converges uniformly to a limit function  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  and each  $f_n$  is integrable, then  $f$  is also integrable on  $[a, b]$ , and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \int_a^b f_n dx \right)$  converges uniformly to  $\int_a^b f dx$ . That is,

$$\int_a^b f dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \int_a^b f_n dx \right)$$
$$= \int_a^b f_1 dx + \int_a^b f_2 dx + \int_a^b f_3 dx + \dots$$

In this case, we say that the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n dx$  is term-by-term integrable.

**PROOF:** (The whole idea is the same when the series is replaced with  $\{f_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ .)

**REMARK:** The converse of the above theorem is not always true. That is,  $\sum f_n$  may converge to an integrable limit  $f$ , but the convergence of  $\sum f_n$  may not be uniform. But, if the pointwise limit  $f$  is not integrable or integrable the integral is not equal to the sum of the series, then term-by-term integral is not possible and hence the converse is false.

gence is not uniform.

Example: Show that for the series  $1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + x^4 - \dots$   
 $= \frac{1}{1+x}$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ , ... (1)

term-by-term integration is possible but does not converge uniformly.

Now, integrating the R.H.S of (1) over  $[0, 1]$  to have

$$\int_0^1 \frac{1}{1+x} dx = \ln(1+x) \Big|_{x=0}^1 = \ln 2$$

Again, integrate the L.H.S of (1) over  $[0, 1]$   
 $\int_0^1 [1 - x + x^2 - x^3 + \dots] dx = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$

We know that  $\ln 2 = 1 - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3} - \frac{1}{4} + \dots$

$\therefore$  L.H.S = R.H.S  $\Rightarrow$  term-by-term integration is possible. However, it is clear that the series does not converge uniformly on  $[0, 1]$ .

Example: Show that the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  where  
 $f_n(x) = nx e^{-nx}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  cannot converge uniformly on  $[0, 1]$

Solution: It is enough to show that

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx \neq \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) dx$$

$$\text{Now, } f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} nx e^{-nx} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{nx}{e^{nx}} = 0$$

i.e.  $f(x) = 0$ . We see that

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \int_0^1 0 dx = 0$$

$$\int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = \int_0^1 nx e^{-nx} dx = \frac{1}{n} (1 - e^{-n})$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} (1 - e^{-n}) = 0$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} (1 - e^{-n}) = 1/2.$$

$$\therefore \int_0^1 f(x) dx = 0 \neq 1/2 = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) dx.$$

Hence, the sequence does not converge uniformly.

16/04/2018

## UNIFORM CONVERGENCE AND DIFFERENTIATION

Recall (Lagrange's mean value theorem) first mean value theorem.

If a function  $f$  defined on  $[a, b]$  is:

(i) continuous on  $[a, b]$

(ii) differentiable on  $(a, b)$ ,

then  $\exists$  a real number  $c \in (a, b) \rightarrow$

$$f'(c) = \frac{f(b) - f(a)}{b - a}$$

Recall: A function  $f$  is said to be differentiable at  $c$  if  $f'(c) = \lim_{x \rightarrow c} \frac{f(x) - f(c)}{x - c}$ .

**THEOREM:** Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of differentiable functions on  $[a, b]$  & it converges at least at one point  $x_0$  in  $[a, b]$ . If the sequence of differentiable  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to a limit function  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ , then the given sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to a function  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  and  $f'(x) = f'(x)$ ,  $\forall x \in [a, b]$ .



Proof: Let  $\epsilon > 0$  be given, by the convergence of  $\{f_n(x)\}$  and  $\{f'_n(x)\}$ , then for a given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we can find a natural number  $N$  s.t.  $\forall x \in [a, b]$ , we have

$$|f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0)| < \epsilon/2, \quad \forall n, m \geq N \quad \dots (1)$$

$$\text{and } |f'_n(x) - f'_m(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)}, \quad \forall n, m \geq N \quad \dots (2)$$

Since  $(f_n - f_m)$  is differentiable and hence continuous on  $[a, b]$ , then by the Lagrange's mvt, for any two points  $x, t \in [a, b]$ ,  $\exists$  a real number  $c \in (x, t)$  s.t.

$$\frac{|(f_n(x) - f_m(x)) - (f_n(t) - f_m(t))|}{|x - t|} = |f'_n(c) - f'_m(c)|$$

$$\Rightarrow |f_n(x) - f_m(x) - f_n(t) + f_m(t)| = |x - t| |f'_n(c) - f'_m(c)|$$

$$\leq \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |x - t| |f'_n(c) - f'_m(c)|$$

$$= |b - a| |f'_n(c) - f'_m(c)|$$

Hence, using (1) and (2), we get,  $< |b - a| \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)}$   
 $\epsilon/2 \quad \dots (3)$

$$|f_n(x) - f_m(x)| = |f_n(x) - f_m(x) - f_n(x_0) + f_m(x_0) + f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0)|$$

$$\leq |f_n(x) - f_m(x) - f_n(x_0) + f_m(x_0)| + |f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0)|$$

$$< \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 = \epsilon$$

$\Rightarrow$  The sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$  to a function  $f''$  (say).

Now, for  $x \in [a, b]$ , consider the auxiliary functions defined as follows:

$$\phi_n(t) = \frac{f_n(t) - f_n(x)}{t - x}, \quad x \neq t \quad \dots \textcircled{4}$$

$$\phi(t) = \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}, \quad x \neq t \quad \dots \textcircled{5}$$

Since  $f_n$  is differentiable for each  $n$ , then from  $\textcircled{4}$ , we see that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow x} \phi_n(t) = \lim_{t \rightarrow x} \frac{f_n(t) - f_n(x)}{t - x} = f'_n(x) \dots$$

$$\therefore |\phi_n(t) - \phi_n(x)| = \frac{|f_n(t) - f_n(x) - f'_n(x)(t - x)|}{|t - x|}$$

$$< \frac{\epsilon}{2(b-a)} < \epsilon/2 < \epsilon, \quad \forall n, m$$

$\Rightarrow \{\phi_n(t)\}$  converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$ .

Since  $\{f_n\}$  also converges uniformly on  $[a, b]$  to  $f$ , it follows from  $\textcircled{4}$  that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi_n(t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f_n(t) - f_n(x)}{t - x} = \frac{f(t) - f(x)}{t - x}$$

$$= \phi(t).$$

Therefore,  $\{\phi_n(t)\}$  converges to  $\phi(t)$ .

Now, recall that if a sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  and  $x_0 \in [a, b]$  then

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow x_0} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} y_n.$$

Applying this result to the uniformly convergent

sequence  $\{f_n(x)\}$  and using (6), we get  
 $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n'(x) = P(x) \dots (7)$   
 $\Rightarrow \lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x)$  exists.

Hence, from (6), we obtain  
 $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = \lim_{x \rightarrow a} \frac{f(x) - f(a)}{x - a} = f'(a) \dots (8)$

That is,  $f$  is differentiable.

Thus, by uniqueness of limit, it follows from (7) and (8) that  $f'(a) = P(a)$ .  $\square$

**THEOREM:** If a series  $\sum f_n$  of differentiable functions converges pointwise to  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  and each  $f_n'$  is continuous and the series  $\sum f_n'$  converges uniformly to  $P$  on  $[a, b]$ , then the given series converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $[a, b]$ . Therefore, the sum function  $f$  is also continuous on  $[a, b]$ . Consequently,

$\int_a^x P(t) dt$  is differentiable and  
 $\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x P(t) dt = P(x) \quad \forall x \in [a, b] \dots (9)$

For every  $x \in [a, b]$ , let  $f_n(x) = \sum_{k=0}^n f_k(x)$ .  
 Since each function  $f_n'$ , being continuous is integrable on  $[a, b]$ , then by fundamental theorem of calculus,

$\int_a^x f_n'(t) dt = f_n(x) - f_n(a), \quad \forall x \in [a, b]$

$$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f'_n(x) dx = f(b) - f(a), \quad \forall x \in [a, b] \quad \dots (3)$$

Again, since the series  $\sum f'_n$  of integrable functions converges uniformly to  $P$  on  $[a, b]$ , therefore, term by term integration is valid.

$$\text{i.e. } \int_a^x P(t) dt = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_a^x f'_n(t) dt, \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

$$= f(x) - f(a) \quad \dots (4)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x P(t) dt = \frac{d}{dx} [f(x) - f(a)]$$

$$\Rightarrow P(x) = f'(x) - 0 = f'(x), \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

$$\text{or equivalently } \frac{d}{dx} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{d}{dx} f_n(x)$$

i.e. term-by-term differentiation is valid.  $\square$

Example: Show that the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  where

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} n^2 x & 0 \leq x \leq 1/n \\ -n^2 x + 2n & 1/n \leq x \leq 2/n \\ 0 & 2/n \leq x \leq 1 \end{cases}$$

is not uniformly convergent on  $[0, 1]$ .

Solution.

For all  $x \in [0, 1]$ , we have

$$f(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = 0.$$

Observe that each function  $f_n$  and  $f$  are continuous on  $[0, 1]$ . Also,

$$\int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = \int_0^{1/n} n^2 x dx + \int_{1/n}^{2/n} (-n^2 x + 2n) dx + \int_{2/n}^1 0 dx = 1/n$$

$$\text{But, } \int_0^1 f(x) dx = \int_0^1 0 dx = 0.$$

$$\therefore \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 f_n(x) dx \neq \int_0^1 f(x) dx.$$

Hence, the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  cannot converge uniformly.



$$\therefore \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f'_n(x) dx = f(b) - f(a), \quad \forall x \in [a, b] \quad \dots (3)$$

Again, since the series  $\sum f'_n$  of integrable functions converges uniformly to  $P$  on  $[a, b]$ , therefore, term by term integration is valid.

$$\text{i.e. } \int_a^x P(t) dt = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_a^x f'_n(t) dt, \quad \forall x \in [a, b].$$

$$= f(x) - f(a) \quad \dots (4)$$

$$\frac{d}{dx} \int_a^x P(t) dt = \frac{d}{dx} [f(x) - f(a)]$$

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on  $[a, b]$  if its total variation on  $[a, b]$  is finite.  
That is,  $V(f, a, b) < \infty$ .

Recall, a function  $f$  on  $[a, b]$  is called monotone if it is either increasing or decreasing. That is,  $f$  is monotonic increasing on  $[a, b]$  if  $f(a) \leq f(b)$  whenever  $a \leq b$ . On the flip side,  $f$  is monotonic decreasing if  $a \leq b$  implies  $f(a) \geq f(b)$ .

Prop 1: A bounded monotonic function is of bounded variation.

Proof: Let  $f$  be a monotonic increasing function on  $[a, b]$  and  $P = \{a = x_0 \leq x_1 \leq \dots \leq x_n = b\}$  be a partition of  $[a, b]$ .

Note that  $f$  being monotonic increasing on  $[a, b]$  implies that  $f(a) \leq f(b)$ . Now,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})| = f(b) - f(a)$$

$$\text{ie } \sup_P \sum_{i=1}^n |f(x_i) - f(x_{i-1})| = \sum_{i=1}^n [f(b) - f(a)] \\ = f(b) - f(a) < \infty$$

ie The total variation w.r.t  $f$ ,

$V(f, a, b) < \infty$ . Hence,  $f$  is of bounded variation on  $[a, b]$ .

2. If the derivative  $f'$  of  $f$  exists and is bounded on  $[a, b]$ , then the function  $f$  is of bounded variation on  $[a, b]$ .