

Gamma fn.:

Recall the notion of factorial: $n! = n(n-1)\dots 3 \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Q: What about $x!$ = ? ($x \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$) !!

The hint is (as we will also see soon):

$$\int_0^{\infty} x^n e^{-x} dx = n! \quad \forall n \geq 1$$

Also, a hw.



We need to generalize this concept!!

Def: $\Gamma(x) := \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt \quad \forall x > 0.$

Euler's gamma fn. on $(0, \infty)$.

Thm: $\Gamma(x)$ converges $\forall x > 0$.

Proof: $\Gamma(x) = \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$

for $x \in (0, \infty)$

Two issues: 0 & ∞ .

Type I \uparrow Type II \uparrow

$$= \underbrace{\int_0^1 t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt}_{:= \gamma_1(x)} + \underbrace{\int_1^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt}_{:= \gamma_2(x)}$$

For $\gamma_1(x) = \int_0^1 t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$, we observe: For any $x > 0$,

$$0 < t^{x-1} e^{-t} < t^{x-1} \quad \forall t \in (0, 1].$$

$$[\because x e^{-t} < 1]$$

$\therefore \int_0^1 t^{x-1} dt = \frac{1}{x}$, by Comparison test, it

follows that $\gamma_1(x)$ Converges.

For $\gamma_2(x) = \int_1^\infty t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$, $x > 0$,

We note $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (t^{x+1} e^{-t}) = 0$ HW. (use L'Hospital rule a couple of times)

$\left[\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{x^p}{e^x} = 0 \quad \forall p \in \mathbb{R} \right]$.

$\therefore \exists M > 1$ s.t. $t^{x+1} e^{-t} \leq 1 \quad \forall t \geq M$.

$\Rightarrow t^{x-1} e^{-t} \leq \frac{1}{t^2} \quad \forall t \geq M$.

But $\int_M^\infty \frac{1}{t^2} dt$ Converges ($p=2$ case).

\therefore By Comparison test: $\gamma_2(x) = \int_1^\infty t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt$ Converges $\forall x > 0$.

$\int_1^\infty = \int_1^M + \int_M^\infty$.

$\Rightarrow \Gamma(x)$ Converges $\forall x > 0$. \square

Thm: $\Gamma(x+1) = x \Gamma(x)$ $\forall x > 0$. Expected property.

Proof: $\forall a < b$, using by parts:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_a^b t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt &= \left. -t^{x-1} e^{-t} \right|_a^b + (x-1) \int_a^b t^{x-2} e^{-t} dt \\ &= \left(a^{x-1} e^{-a} - b^{x-1} e^{-b} \right) + (x-1) \int_a^b t^{x-2} e^{-t} dt. \end{aligned}$$

\downarrow
0 as $a \rightarrow 0$ & $b \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof: Note that $\Gamma(x+1) = \int_0^{\infty} t^x e^{-t} dt$.

Now $\forall r_1, r_2 > 0$, we have, by parts, that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{r_1}^{r_2} t^x e^{-t} dt &= -t^x e^{-t} \Big|_{t=r_1}^{r_2} + x \int_{r_1}^{r_2} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt \\ &= \left(\underbrace{r_1^x e^{-r_1}}_{\substack{\circ \\ \text{as } r_1 \rightarrow 0}} - r_2^x e^{-r_2} \right) + x \int_{r_1}^{r_2} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt \\ &\quad \downarrow \quad \quad \quad \downarrow \quad \quad \quad \downarrow \\ &\quad \quad \quad \circ \text{ as } r_2 \rightarrow \infty. \\ &\quad \quad \quad \circ \text{ as } \underline{r_1 \rightarrow 0} \text{ \& } \underline{r_2 \rightarrow \infty}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^{\infty} t^x e^{-t} dt = x \int_0^{\infty} t^{x-1} e^{-t} dt.$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma(x+1) = x \Gamma(x) \quad \forall x > 0. \quad \square$$

$\therefore \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\begin{aligned} \Gamma(n+1) &= n \Gamma(n) \\ &= n(n-1) \Gamma(n-1) \\ &= \dots = \\ &= n \cdot (n-1) \cdot \dots \cdot 2 \cdot 1 \cdot \Gamma(1). \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Now } \Gamma(1) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} dt = 1.$$

$$\Rightarrow \Gamma(n+1) = n! \quad \forall n \geq 1.$$

$\therefore \Gamma$ is a cont. analog of factorial $n!!$.

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Cauchy principle Value :

Recall: if $f: (-\infty, \infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ & if $\exists c \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t.

both I.I's $\int_{-\infty}^c f$ & $\int_c^{\infty} f$ exist, then

we say $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f$ converges & write

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = \int_{-\infty}^c f + \int_c^{\infty} f$$

In this case,
RHS is indep. of
the choice of c.

$\therefore \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f$ converges $\Leftrightarrow \lim_{R_1, R_2 \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R_1}^{R_2} f$ exists,

Moreover, in this case: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = \lim_{\substack{R_1 \rightarrow \infty \\ R_2 \rightarrow \infty}} \int_{-R_1}^{R_2} f$

[(*) Indeed: $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = \int_{-\infty}^c f + \int_c^{\infty} f$

$$= \lim_{R_1 \rightarrow -\infty} \int_{-R_1}^c f + \lim_{R_2 \rightarrow \infty} \int_c^{R_2} f$$

$$= \lim_{\substack{R_1 \rightarrow \infty \\ R_2 \rightarrow \infty}} \int_{-R_1}^{R_2} f$$

Therefore, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = \lim_{R_1, R_2 \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R_1}^{R_2} f$ exists & the

limit ~~converging~~ exists independently of how R_1 & R_2 approach ∞ .

\therefore limit of the fn. $\eta(R_1, R_2) = \int_{-R_1}^{R_2} f$ as $R_1, R_2 \rightarrow \infty$.

Clearly, a strong assumption.

& in many cases, this fails to exist.

Instead:

Def: The Cauchy principle value (CPV) of $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f$ is

defined by :

$$\text{CPV} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R f \quad (\text{if exists}).$$

Fact: If $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f$ exists, then $\text{CPV} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f$ exists &

$$\text{CPV} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f.$$

HW - Easy.

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The Converse is NOT true:

eg: CPV $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f$ exists but $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f$ does not Converge, where

$$f(x) = \frac{x}{1+x^2} \quad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Indeed,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-R}^R \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx &= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-R}^R \frac{2x}{1+x^2} dx \stackrel{1+x^2=t}{=} \int_{1+R^2}^{1+R^2} \frac{1}{t} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\log t \right]_{1+R^2}^{1+R^2} = 0. \quad \forall R > 0. \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^R \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx = 0.$$

i.e. CPV $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = 0.$

~~How~~ However, $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-R}^0 \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx + \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^R \frac{x}{1+x^2} dx.$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \int_{1+R^2}^1 \frac{1}{t} dt \quad \text{log } 1 = 0 \\ &= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \log(1+R^2) \right\} = -\infty. \end{aligned}$$

$$= \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \int_1^{1+R^2} \frac{1}{t} dt = \infty.$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f \text{ does not Converge.}$$





Sequence & Series of functions.

Recall: A seqn. $\{x_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$ is convergent if $\exists x \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t.
for $\varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} - \emptyset$.

$$|x_n - x| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq N.$$

— (x)



For $\varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} - \emptyset$.

$$|x_n - x_m| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n, m \geq N.$$

} Cauchy
Criterion.

Goal: Replace x_n by f_n ($: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$) &
talk about closeness, limit, etc.!!

Setting: 1) $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

2) $\mathcal{F}(S) = \{f: S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$

Even an algebra.
A vector space
over \mathbb{R} .

3) $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$ or simply $\{f_n\}$ will
refer a seqn. of f_n 's : $S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
i.e. $\{f_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{F}(S)$.

Goal (again) : To talk about

$$|f_n - f_m| < \varepsilon$$

$$\forall n, m \geq N$$

A Q:

How to do it?

(2)

2 - ways to do it !!

Simply Consider $\{f_n(x)\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$
 $\forall x \in S$. Then ~~int~~ bring back
 $|\cdot|$ in \mathbb{R} to the Convergency.

modulus.

pointwise

Think a little more:

Introduce a Suitable
 Concept of distance
 between 2 functions!!
 Like "modulus"
 of functions!!

uniform

def: Let $\{f_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{F}(S)$ & $f \in \mathcal{F}(S)$. We say that
 f_n converges to f pointwise (or $f_n \xrightarrow{p} f$) if
 $\forall x \in S$, $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$.

We also write: $f_n \rightarrow f$ pointwise.

$f_n \xrightarrow{p} f \iff$ For $x \in S$ & $\varepsilon > 0$ $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.
 $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq N$

DANGER !!

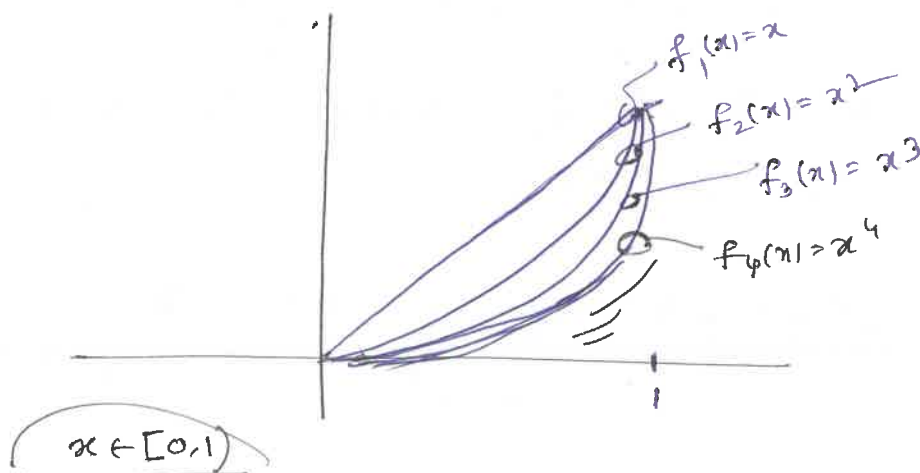
$N \equiv N(x, \varepsilon)$.

N depends on ε is acceptable (like $x_n \rightarrow x$ case),
 but the dependence on x is slightly "less desirable"!!

Will be fixed in the
"uniform" part.

eg:

1) $S = [0, 1]$. $f_n(x) = x^n \quad \forall x \in [0, 1], n \in \mathbb{N}$.



For each $x \in [0, 1]$, we know that $x^n \rightarrow 0$.

For $x=1$, $x^n \rightarrow 1$.

\therefore If we define $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \in [0, 1) \\ 1 & x = 1 \end{cases},$$

then $f_n \xrightarrow{p} f$.

[Remark: $\forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, $f_n \in C[0, 1]$, or even $f_n \in \mathcal{D}[0, 1]$. However, the limit (pointwise) $f_n \notin C[0, 1] !!$

↑
Strange, but reality. We need to fix or identify the trouble!!

(2) $f_n(x) = \frac{1}{x+n} \quad \forall n \geq 1, x \in [0, \infty).$

$\therefore \forall x \in [0, \infty), f_n(x) \rightarrow 0. \quad [\because \frac{1}{x+n} \leq \frac{1}{n} \rightarrow 0]$

$\Rightarrow f_n \xrightarrow{p} f \quad \text{where } f(x) = 0 \quad \forall x \in [0, \infty).$

i.e. $f_n \xrightarrow{p} 0.$

[But something more: For $\varepsilon > 0$, we have:

$$|f_n(x) - 0| = \frac{1}{x+n} \leq \frac{1}{n},$$

$$\therefore |f_n(x) - 0| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n > \frac{1}{\varepsilon}.$$

n does not depend on x !!

Def: Let $\{f_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{F}(S)$ & $f \in \mathcal{F}(S)$. We say that f_n converges to f uniformly (or write $f_n \xrightarrow{u} f$, or $f_n \rightarrow f$ unif.) if $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ s.t.

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq N \text{ & } x \in S.$$

————— (*)

eg: $f_n \xrightarrow{u} 0$, where $f_n(x) = \frac{1}{x+n} \quad \forall x \in [0, \infty) \text{ & } n \in \mathbb{N}.$

Remark:

$$(*) \iff f(x) - \varepsilon < f_n(x) < f(x) + \varepsilon$$

