

# Review VI(Slides 333 - 365)

## Vector Space & Sequence of Functions

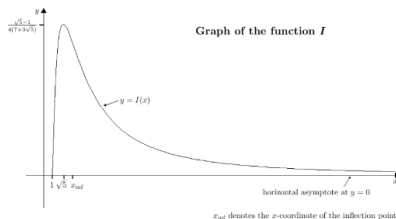
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# Curve sketching

- ▶ 99% possibility to appear in your midterm 2.
- ▶ Follow the guidelines provided by Horst. (The rubric will be generally the same as the guidelines.)<sup>2</sup>



Two advice:

1. Do not forget to mark the *asymptote line*.
2. Do not add any **redundant** marks.

# Vector Space

By introducing vector space, one can treat a specific group of functions which all have some shared properties to form such a set, then we can find out some convenient operation that will make us easier to deal with them.

We then make a specific definition to which **set** can be called a **Vector Space**.

# Vector Space

We have eight axioms of vector space  $V$  (in  $\mathbb{C}$  or  $\mathbb{R}$ )

$$+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$$

- i  $(u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$
- ii  $u + v = v + u$
- iii  $\exists e \in V$  such that  $v + e = e + v = v$
- iv  $\forall_{v \in V} \exists_{(-v) \in V}$  such that  $v + (-v) = (-v) + v = e$

$$\cdot : \mathbb{F} \times V \rightarrow V$$

- i  $1 \cdot u = u \cdot 1 = u$
- ii  $\lambda \cdot (u + v) = \lambda \cdot u + \lambda \cdot v$
- iii  $(\lambda + \mu) \cdot u = \lambda \cdot u + \mu \cdot u$
- iv  $(\lambda \mu) \cdot u = \lambda(\mu \cdot u)$

# Vector Space

## Common Misunderstanding

A real vector space is a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ; a complex vector space is a subset of  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

When we say a vector space is real, or complex, we just refer to the **scalar multiplication** – the scalar is real, or complex. We don't set extra limitation on the element of the vector space.

3. The set  $\mathbb{C}^n$  is a **real** vector space if we define addition as in (3.3.1) and scalar multiplication

$$\lambda z := (\lambda z_1, \dots, \lambda z_n), \quad \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, z \in \mathbb{C}^n.$$

# Subspace

Let  $(V, +, \cdot)$  be a real (complex) vector space and  $U \subset V$ . If  $u_1 + u_2 \in U$  for  $u_1, u_2 \in U$ , and  $\lambda u \in U$  for all  $u \in U$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ , then  $(U, +, \cdot)$  is a subspace of  $(V, +, \cdot)$ .

- This lemma actually states that, when the maps “+” and “.” makes sense in the subset  $U$ , then  $U$  will **inherit the eight axioms** of  $V$ .
- for a subspace, we don't need to check the 8 axioms as they are inherited from the original vector space. Only check the addition and product is closed is enough.

## Recap: Metric

The definition of metric is as follows.

- $\forall x, y \in M, \rho(x, y) \geq 0$  and  $\rho(x, y) = 0$  if and only if  $x = y$ .
- $\forall x, y \in M, \rho(x, y) = \rho(y, x)$ .
- $\forall x, y, z \in M, \rho(x, z) \leq \rho(x, y) + \rho(y, z)$

Since the metric measure the distance between two points(elements) in the set, now we want to directly measure the **length** of one single element.

We modified our length function as follows.

- Still positive, and equal to zero if and only if this **vector** is 0 ( $e$ ).
- **Triangle inequality** still holds(with some modification).
- The **symmetric** property makes no sense in this case, so...

## "Metric" in Vector Space

The **symmetric** property makes no sense in this case, so...

Replace it by another important property in vector space. As you might notice, we care about **scalar multiplication**, so the new property is

The length of  $\alpha u$ ?

Equal to  $\alpha$  times the length of  $u$ , where  $u$  is a vector and  $\alpha$  is a scalar.

Just as metric, we would like to give this function a name since it is so important, we will call it a **norm**. We then give the explicit definition of a norm.



# Norm

Let  $V$  be a real(complex) vector space. Then a map

$$\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is called a norm if for all  $u, v \in V$  and all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{F}$ , we have the following:

- $\|\cdot\| \geq 0$  for all  $v \in V$  and  $\|v\| = 0$  if and only if  $v = 0$
- $\|\lambda \cdot v\| = |\lambda| \cdot \|v\|$
- $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$

Comment. Obviously, any normed can be considered as a metric of that space. However, not all the distance function generating metrics can be considered as a norm. A counterexample is:  $\rho(x, y) = 0$  if  $x = y$  and  $\rho(x, y) = 1$  if  $x \neq y$ . The reason is when defining metric we don't assume the second property.

# Norm

## Examples

- $V = \mathbb{R}^n, \|(a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)\| = \sum_{k=1}^n |a_k|$
- $V = C[a, b], \|f\| = \max_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x)|$
- $f: U \rightarrow V, \|f\| = \sup_{x \in U \setminus \{0\}} \frac{\|f(x)\|_2}{\|x\|_1}$ , where  $\|\cdot\|_1$  is a norm defined on  $U$  and  $\|\cdot\|_2$  is a norm defined on  $V$ .
- $V = C[a, b], \|u\| = \sup\{|u(z)| \cdot p(z) : z \in [a, b]\}$ , where  $p$  is a real-valued function on  $[a, b]$  and  $0 < \alpha \leq p(z) \leq \beta$  for some  $\alpha, \beta > 0$ .

Comment. The third example is often called "operator norm"; while the last example is often called "weighted norm", a modification of which is useful in complex analysis.

## More Examples in the Slides

### 3.3.9. Examples.

1.  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\|x\|_2 = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2\right)^{1/2}$ ,
2.  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\|x\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p}$  for any  $p \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\}$ ,
3.  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\|x\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} |x_k|$ ,
4.  $\ell^\infty$  with  $\|(a_n)\|_\infty = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n|$ ,
5.  $c_0$  with  $\|(a_n)\|_\infty = \sup_{n \in \mathbb{N}} |a_n|$ ,
6.  $C([a, b])$ ,  $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$ , with  $\|f\|_\infty = \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |f(x)|$ .

# Exercise

1. Prove the (reverse) triangle inequality for a norm

$$\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

That is, to prove

$$| \|x\| - \|y\| | \leq \|x \pm y\|, \text{ where } x, y \in V$$

# Exercise

2\*. Prove that a weighted norm is a norm on  $C([a, b])$

## Exercise

3. Check whether the following sentences are true or false:

- Given a vector space  $V$ , and its two non-empty subspaces  $V_1, V_2$ , then  $V_1 \cup V_2$  is a subspace of  $V$ .
- Given a vector space  $V$ , and its two subspaces  $V_1, V_2$ , then  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is a subspace of  $V$ .
- The set of all linear maps on  $\mathbb{R}$  is a subspace of  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{R})$ .
- Given a vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , for any two distance norms  $\|\cdot\|_1, \|\cdot\|_2$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\|\cdot\| := \sqrt{\|\cdot\|_1 \cdot \|\cdot\|_2}$  is also a norm of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- Given a vector space  $V$ , given two norms  $\|\cdot\|_1 : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \|\cdot\|_2 : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then the  $\|\cdot\| := \|\cdot\|_2 \circ \|\cdot\|_1$  is a norm of  $V$ .

## Convergence in Vector Space

Now we have our length function in the vector space, namely a norm. Then we can talk about the convergence and continuity in vector space. We start with convergence.

Let  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed vector space. A sequence in  $V$  is a map  $(a_n) : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow V$ . We say that  $(a_n)$  converges to  $a \in V$  if

$$\forall \varepsilon > 0 \quad \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \quad \forall n > N \quad \|a_n - a\| < \varepsilon$$

## Continuity in Vector Space

Now let us introduce an interesting theorem.

Let  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$  be a normed vector space. The norm

$$\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is a continuous function on  $V$ .

*Proof.* By (reverse) triangle inequality,

$$| \|x\| - \|y\| | \leq \|x - y\|.$$

Fix arbitrary  $\varepsilon > 0$ , choose  $\delta = \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon$  and we are done.



## Exercise

5. Given a vector space  $(V, \|\cdot\|)$ .

Let  $a \in V$  be fixed; let  $\lambda \neq 0 \in \mathbb{F}(\mathbb{C} \text{ or } \mathbb{R})$  be fixed. Prove the following. The scalar multiplication function  $g: V \rightarrow V, g(x) = \lambda x$  is a continuous function and has a continuous inverse function.

# Inner Product

Let  $\mathbb{F}$  denote  $\mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ . An inner product in a real or complex vector space  $V$  is a map  $(x, y) : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{F}$ , such that the following holds:

- The inner product is linear in the first variable, i.e., for all  $x, y, z \in V$  and all  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $(\alpha x + \beta y, z) = \alpha(x, z) + \beta(y, z)$
- For all  $x, y \in V$ ,  $(x, y) = \overline{(y, x)}$  if  $V$  is complex, and  $(x, y) = (y, x)$  if  $V$  is real.
- The inner product is positive definite, i.e.,  $(x, x) \geq 0$  for all  $x$  and  $(x, x) = 0$  if and only if  $x = 0$

If a vector space  $V$  is endowed with an inner product, we call it real (or complex) inner product space. If  $V$  is a real inner product space, then  $(x, \alpha y + \beta z) = (\alpha y + \beta z, x) = \alpha(y, x) + \beta(z, x) = \alpha(x, y) + \beta(x, z)$

# Examples

- $\mathbb{R}^n$  forms a real vector space with the inner product

$$(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, (x, y) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

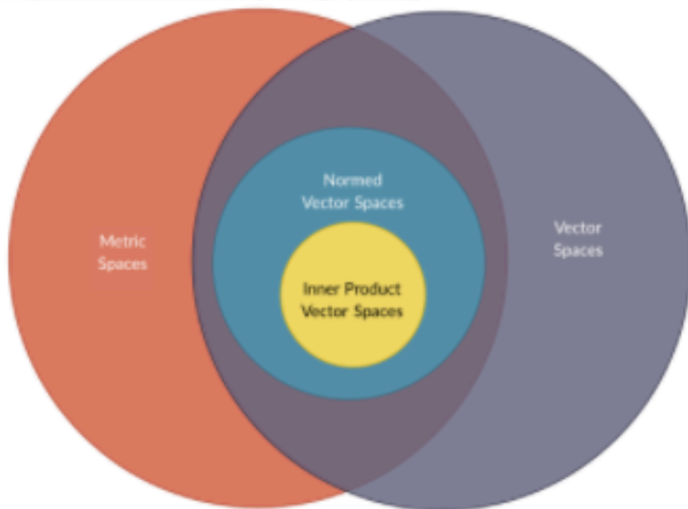
- $\mathbb{R}^2$  forms a real vector space with the inner product

$$(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, (x, y) = 2x_1 y_1 + x_1 y_2 + x_2 y_1 + 2x_2 y_2$$

- $\mathbb{C}$  forms a complex vector space with the inner product

$$(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathbb{C} \times \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}, (x, y) = x\bar{y}$$

# Diagram



# Convergence of Function Sequences

Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of real functions on  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$ , then

1. Pointwise convergence. For every  $x \in \Omega$ ,

$$f_n(x) \xrightarrow{(n \rightarrow \infty)} f(x) \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad |f_n(x) - f(x)| \rightarrow 0$$

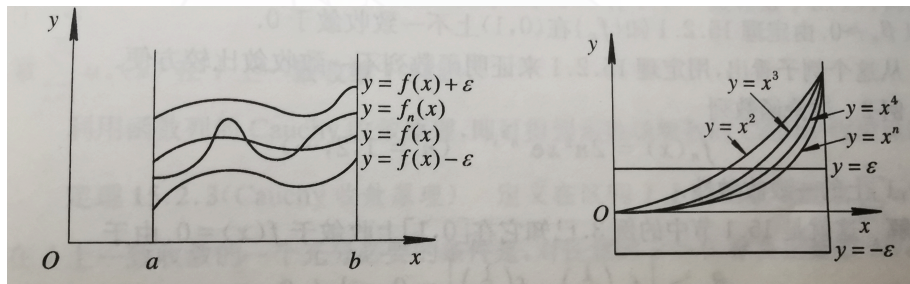
2. Uniform convergence.

$$f_n \xrightarrow{(n \rightarrow \infty)} f \quad :\Leftrightarrow \quad \sup_{x \in \Omega} |f_n(x) - f(x)| \rightarrow 0$$

Comment. For uniform convergence, we deal with the functions  $f_n$  as a whole, instead of each  $f_n(x)$ ; for pointwise convergence, we deal with function values. Uniform convergence automatically implies pointwise convergence

# An example to illustrate Uniform Convergence & Pointwise Convergence

whether the  $N(\epsilon)$  is related to  $x$  ? Or only related to  $\epsilon$  ?



# Example

3.4.2. Example. The sequence  $(f_n)$ ,

$$f_n: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - nx, & 0 \leq x \leq 1/n, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

converges to

$$f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & x = 0, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

pointwise, but not uniformly, as we now show.

## How to find the limit

Since function vector space is abstract, we can use pointwise convergence to help us find the limit of a function sequence:

1. Calculate the pointwise limit  $f$  of a given function sequence  $(f_n)$ .
2. Find a formula or estimate of  $\|f_n - f\|$  for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
3. If  $\|f_n - f\| \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , then  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to  $f$ . Otherwise the convergence is not uniform.



## Exercise

7. Calculate the limit of  $(f_n)$ , sketch their graph, and determine whether the convergence is uniform or not.

- $f_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f_n(x) = \frac{(|x|^n)}{(1+|x|^n)}, n \in \mathbb{N}$
- $f_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f_n(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + \frac{1}{n^2}}, n \in \mathbb{N}$
- $f_n : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f_n(x) = \frac{x^2+nx}{n}, n \in \mathbb{N}^*$

# Exercises

8. Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of functions in  $C([a, b])$ , and  $(f_n)$  converges to some function  $f$  uniformly. Prove that if  $f \neq 0$  on  $[a, b]$ , then  $(\frac{1}{f_n})$  converges to  $\frac{1}{f}$  uniformly.

## Important Theorem & Learn The Proof

### Sequences of Functions

In the previous example, the sequence of continuous functions  $f_n$  converged to the discontinuous function pointwise, but not uniformly. This no accident. In fact, a uniformly convergent sequence of continuous functions will always converge to a continuous function:

**3.4.3. Theorem.** Let  $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$  be a closed interval. Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of continuous functions defined on  $[a, b]$  such that  $f_n(x)$  converges to some  $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  for every  $x \in [a, b]$ . If the sequence  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to the thereby defined function  $f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then  $f$  is continuous.

## Sequences of Functions

Proof.

We need to show that  $f$  is continuous for all  $x \in [a, b]$ . We will here deal only with  $x \in (a, b)$ ; the cases  $x = a$  and  $x = b$  are left to you.

Let  $x \in (a, b)$ . We will show that for any  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|h| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x+h) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$  (for  $h$  so small that  $x+h \in (a, b)$ ). Fix  $\varepsilon > 0$ . Then there exists some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\|f_n - f\|_\infty = \sup_{x \in [a, b]} |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}.$$

for all  $n > N$ . Choose some such  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since each  $f_n$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ , there exists some  $\delta > 0$  such that  $|h| < \delta$  implies

$$|f_n(x) - f_n(x+h)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{3}.$$

## Sequences of Functions

Proof (continued).

Then for  $|h| < \delta$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} |f(x+h) - f(x)| &\leq |f(x+h) - f_n(x+h)| + |f_n(x+h) - f_n(x)| \\ &\quad + |f_n(x) - f(x)| \\ &< \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} + \frac{\varepsilon}{3} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

□

# Challenging

9\*.  $(f_n)$  is a sequence of increasing functions,  $f_n: [0,1] \rightarrow [0,1]$  is pointwise convergent. Suppose  $f$  is continuous, show uniform convergence.

## Exercises

10\*. Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of functions such that for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f_n \in C([a, b])$ ,  $\forall x \in [a, b]$ ,  $(f_n(x))$  is a bounded monotonic sequence.

- Please show that  $(f_n)$  converges point-wisely to some function  $f$
- Suppose  $f \in C([a, b])$ , prove that  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to  $f$

# Reference

- Many Contents from 2021-Vv186TA Niyinchen

# End



Thanks!