

## 4.1 Uniform Convergence and $C^0([a,b])$

Now we shift our perspective. Where before we were concerned with points and sequences of points in  $\mathbb{R}$ , now we will begin to ask about functions and sequences of functions.

Specifically, suppose we have, for each  $n$ , some  $f_n: [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

What would it mean to say  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f$ ?

Def. If  $\forall x \in [a,b]$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$ , then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f$ , or  $f_n \rightarrow f$ .

We say  $(f_n)$  converges pointwise to  $f$ .

Ex: Let  $f_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} e^x$ . Then  $\lim f_n = 0$  on  $[0,1]$ .

Q: What about  $e^{-nx}$ ? [it converges to zero on any subset of  $\mathbb{R}_{>0}$ ]

Q: What about  $f_n = x^n$  on  $[0,1]$ ? What is  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x^n$ ?  
What about on  $(0,1)$ ?

So if  $x^n \rightarrow 0$  on  $(0,1)$ , [and it does], it kind of does so "slowly". Which is to say, no matter how big  $n$  gets, we can find an  $x \in (0,1)$  so that  $x^n > \frac{1}{2}$  (e.g.).

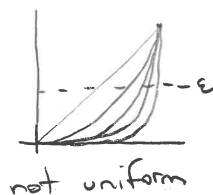
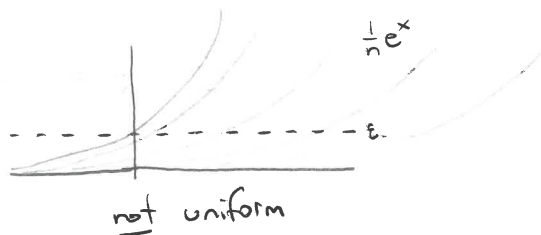
We might even say the convergence is not "uniform".

Def: The sequence  $(f_n)$  converges to  $f$  uniformly on  $[a,b]$  if  
for all  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.  $\forall x \in [a,b]$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon \quad \forall n \geq N$ .

Q: How is this different from pointwise convergence? How would we write pointwise convergence in "math"?

If  $(f_n)$  converges uniformly to  $f$ , we write  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$  or  $\text{unif} \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n = f$ .

Intuitively: the entire graph of  $f_n$  is eventually trapped inside a "tube" or "sausage" around  $f$ , for arbitrarily small tubes.



Q: Why do we need uniform convergence to be defined?

A:  $f_n(x) = x^n$  is continuous for all  $n$ .

But  $\lim f_n = \begin{cases} 0, & x \in [0, 1) \\ 1, & x = 1 \end{cases}$  is not continuous.

pointwise limits of functions can change "type".

uniform limits cannot.

Thm: Suppose for each  $n$  that  $f_n: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous at  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ .

If  $f_n \Rightarrow f$ , then  $f$  is also continuous at  $x_0$ .

Proof: Let  $\varepsilon > 0$ . By uniform convergence, there is some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t.

whenever  $n \geq N$ , for any  $x$ ,  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon/3$ .

Since  $f_N$  is continuous at  $x_0$ , there is some  $\delta > 0$  s.t.

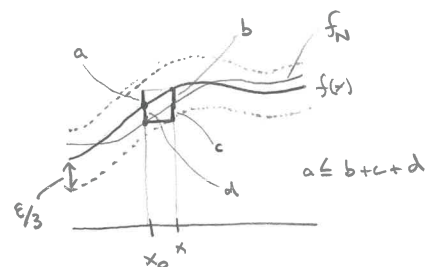
whenever  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ ,  $|f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)| < \varepsilon/3$ .

Then whenever  $|x - x_0| < \delta$ , we have:

$$|f(x) - f(x_0)| \leq |f(x) - f_N(x)| + |f_N(x) - f_N(x_0)| + |f_N(x_0) - f(x_0)|$$

$$< \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 + \varepsilon/3 = \varepsilon.$$

$\therefore f$  is continuous at  $x_0$ .  $\square$

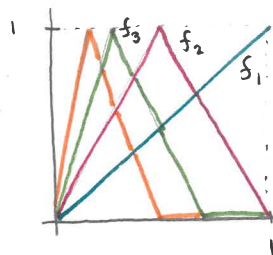


We have: the uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous.

Q: If  $f_n \rightarrow f$  (pointwise), all  $f_n$  and  $f$  are continuous, must the convergence be uniform?

A: No.

Ex: Let  $f_n(x) = \begin{cases} nx, & 0 \leq x \leq \frac{1}{n} \\ 2-nx, & \frac{1}{n} \leq x \leq \frac{2}{n} \\ 0, & \frac{2}{n} \leq x \leq 1 \end{cases}$



Prop:  $f_n \rightarrow 0$  but  $f_n \not\Rightarrow 0$ , even though all functions are uniformly continuous.

So, back to the question that opened this section: how should we think about functions and sequences of functions? The answer is: "uniformly."

Def:  $C_b([a,b]) = \{f: [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is bounded}\}.$

$C([a,b]) = \{f: [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ is continuous}\}.$

We're going to think of these sets as metric spaces, so we can use all the machinery we've already developed. But we'll define them first as normed spaces.

Def: For  $f \in C_b([a,b])$  or  $C([a,b])$ , let  $\|f\|_\infty = \sup_{[a,b]} f(x).$

$\|\cdot\|_\infty$  is the sup norm or the infinity norm, meaning:

- $\|f\|_\infty \geq 0 \quad \forall f$  and  $\|f\|_\infty = 0$  iff  $f = 0$ . [f is the zero function]
- $\|cf\|_\infty = |c| \|f\|_\infty$
- $\|f+g\|_\infty \leq \|f\|_\infty + \|g\|_\infty.$

Aside: The reason for the  $\infty$  is: there are lots of choices that Rugh ignores.

$$\|f\|_2 = \left( \int_a^b (f(x))^2 dx \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\|f\|_p = \left( \int_a^b (f(x))^p dx \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

$$\|f\|_1 = \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

And the sup norm is basically  $\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \|f\|_p.$

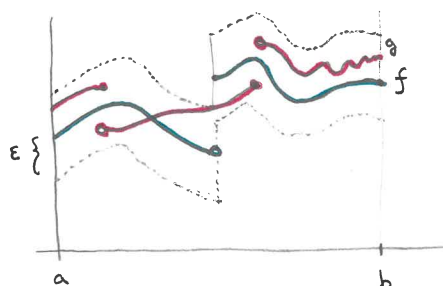
Def: For  $f, g \in C([a, b])$  or  $C_b([a, b])$ , define  $d(f, g) = \|f - g\|_\infty$ .

Prop:  $d$  is a metric.

Proof: LTS.  $\square$

Q: What do open balls look like in these metric spaces?

$g \in B(f, \epsilon)$  and vice-versa.



Thm: If  $(f_n) \subseteq C([a, b])$  or  $C_b([a, b])$ , and  $(f_n)$  converges to  $f \in C([a, b])$ , (i.e., with respect to  $d$ ), then  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$ .

Proof: LTS.  $\square$

Thm:  $C_b([a, b])$  and  $C([a, b])$  are complete.

Proof: First,  $C_b$ . Let  $(f_n) \subseteq C_b([0, 1])$  be Cauchy.

For any  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ ,  $|f_n(x_0) - f_m(x_0)| \leq \|f_n - f_m\|_\infty = d(f_n, f_m)$ .

Thus  $(f_n(x_0))$  is a Cauchy sequence of real numbers.

Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is complete,  $\lim f_n(x_0)$  exists for each  $x_0 \in [a, b]$ .

Define  $f(x) = \lim f_n(x)$  for each  $x$ .

We will show that  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$ . Let  $\epsilon > 0$ .

There is some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  s.t. whenever  $m, n \geq N$ ,  $\|f_n - f_m\|_\infty = d(f_n, f_m) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ .

But also, for each  $x$  there is an  $m_x \geq N$  s.t.  $|f_{m_x}(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$ .

So for any  $x$ , and for any  $n \geq N$ ,

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| \leq |f_n(x) - f_{m_x}(x)| + |f_{m_x}(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\varepsilon}{2} + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon.$$

$\therefore f_n \rightarrow f$ . Now we must show  $f \in C_b([a, b])$ .

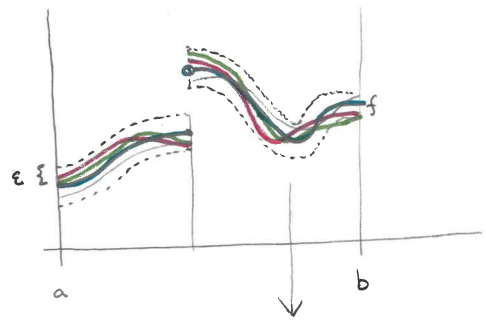
But  $f_N$  is bounded, and  $\|f_N - f\| < \varepsilon$ ,

i.e.  $|f_N(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon \forall x$ , so

$f$  is bounded.

$\therefore (f_n)$  converges in  $C_b([a, b])$ ,

so the space is complete.  $\square$



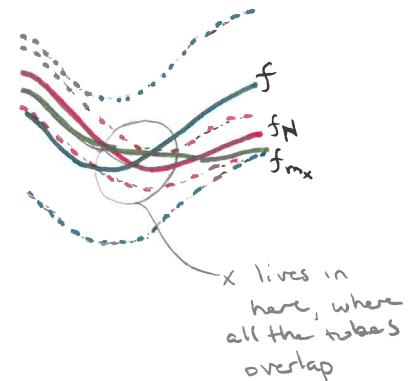
Next, note that  $C([a, b]) \subseteq C_b([a, b])$ .

For a sequence  $(f_n) \subseteq C([a, b])$  that converges in  $C_b([a, b])$ , say to  $f$ , we know that convergence must be uniform.

We have shown that the uniform limit of continuous functions is continuous.

$\therefore f \in C([a, b])$ , which means  $C([a, b])$  is closed.

It is a closed subset of a complete metric space, so it is complete.  $\square$



Now let's take a bit of a rapid-fire tour of some consequences of uniform convergence.

Thm: If  $f_n$  is Riemann Integrable for each  $n$ , and  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$ ,  
then  $f$  is Riemann Integrable and  $\int_a^b f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx$ .

Cor:  $\mathcal{R}_b$  is a closed subspace of  $C_b([a, b])$ .

Thm: If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n$  converges uniformly [i.e., its partial sums do], then:  
$$\int_a^b \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x) dx = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx.$$

Thm: If  $f_n$  is differentiable for each  $n$ ,  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$ , and  $f'_n \rightrightarrows g$ ,  
Then  $f$  is differentiable and  $f' = g$ .

Cor:  $\left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x) \right)' = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f'_n(x)$  when the RHS converges uniformly.

Q: Why do we require the uniform convergence of  $f'$ ?

A: Let  $f_n(x) = \sqrt{x^2 + \frac{1}{n}}$ . Then  $f_n \rightrightarrows |x|$ .

