## Chapter 7

## Sequences and Series of Functions

## 7.1 Notes

• Soug will not test on differentiation/integration assuming that we know them already.

- **Pointwise convergent** (sequence  $(f_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  of functions): A sequence of functions  $f_n: E \to \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x\in E$ .
- Can we interchange "limit" in the above definition with continuity, convergence of series, integration, differentiation, etc.?
- Examples with negative answer:
  - 1. Interchanging limits: Let  $S_{mn} = \frac{m}{m+n}$ .  $S_{mn} \to 1$  as  $m \to \infty$ , and  $S_{mn} \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ .
  - 2.  $f_n(x) = x^2/(1+x)^n$ .  $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$ . If x = 0, then  $f_n(x) = 0$  for all n and f(x) = 0. If  $x \neq 0$ , we have

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{x^2}{(1+x^2)^n} = x^2 \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} X^n = \frac{x^2}{1-X} = \frac{x^2}{1-(1/(1+x^2))} = 1+x^2$$

- 3. Consider  $f_m(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} (\cos(m\pi x))^2 n$ .  $\lim_{m \to \infty} f_m(x)$  goes to 0 if  $x \notin \mathbb{Q}$  and goes to 1 if  $x \in \mathbb{Q}$ .  $f_m \to \chi_{\mathbb{Q}}$ , where  $\chi_{\mathbb{Q}}$  is the characteristic function of the rationals which is not Riemann integrable (partitions, upper and lower integrals, etc.).
- 4.  $f_n(x) = \sin nx/\sqrt{n} \to f(x) = 0$  for all x. However,  $f'_n(x) = \sqrt{n}\cos nx \to 0$
- 5. If  $0 \le x \le 1$ , define  $f_n(x) = n^2 x (1 x^2)^n$ . We know that  $f_n(0) = 0$ .  $\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in (0,1]$ . We can show that  $\int_0^1 x (1-x^2)^n dx = 1/(2n+2)$ . Thus,  $\int_0^1 f_n(x) dx = n^2/(2n+2)$ . Limit of the functions is zero, but their integrals diverge to infinity.
- Uniformly convergent (sequence  $(f_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  of functions on E): A sequence of functions  $f_n: E \to \mathbb{R}$  such that for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists N such that if  $n \geq N$ , then  $|f_n(x) f(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in E$ . Denoted by  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$ .
- Theorem:  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$  iff  $(f_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is uniformly Cauchy (i.e., for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists N such that if  $n, m \geq N$  then  $|f_n(x) f_m(x)| < \epsilon$  for all  $x \in E$ ).
  - Let  $M_n = \sup_{x \in E} |f_n(x) f(x)|$ . If  $f_n \to f$  pointwise, then  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$  if  $M_n \to 0$ .
- Theorem: If  $(f_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  and  $|f_n(x)| \leq M_n$ , then  $\sum f_n \rightrightarrows f$  if  $\sum M_n < \infty$ .
- Theorem: If E is a compact metric space,  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$  in E, x is a limit point of E, and  $\lim_{t\to x} f_n(t) = A_n$  exists, then  $(A_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}$  converges and  $\lim_{t\to x} f(t) = \lim_{n\to\infty} A_n$ .

- Corollary:  $\lim_{t\to x} \lim_{n\to\infty} f_n(t) = \lim_{n\to\infty} \lim_{t\to x} f_n(t)$ .
  - Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$  implies that there exists some N such that  $n, m \geq N$  implies  $|f_n(t) f_m(t)| < \epsilon$  for all  $t \in E$ .
  - x is a limit point of E and  $t \to x$  implies  $|A_n A_m| < \epsilon$ . Thus,  $(A_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is cauchy, so there exists A such that  $A_n \to A$ .
  - WTS:  $|f(t) A| \le |f(t) f_n(t)| + |f_n(t) A_n| + |A_n A|$ , so we WTS the three terms on the right are small.
  - There exists n such that  $|f(t) f_n(t)| < \epsilon/3$  for all t since  $f_n \Rightarrow f$  by hypothesis.
  - Since t is in a small neighborhood of x, there exists n such that  $|A_n A| < \epsilon/3$ .
  - We also have  $|f_n(t) A_n| < \epsilon/3$  by hypothesis.
  - This is a very important proof to understand, because proofs like this pop up often.
- Corollary:  $f_n$  continuous and  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$  implies f is continuous.
- $\bullet$  Theorem: Let K be compact. Assume
  - (a)  $(f_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subset C(K)=\{f:K\to\mathbb{R}\mid f \text{ continuous}\}.$
  - (b)  $f_n \to f$  pointwise in K and  $f \in C(K)$ .
  - (c)  $f_n(x) \ge f_{n+1}(x)$  for all  $x \in K$ .

Then  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$ .

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- WLOG f = 0,  $g_n = f_n f \to 0$ ,  $g_n \ge g_{n+1} \ge 0$ .
- For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists N such that  $n \geq N$  and  $0 \leq g_n(x) \leq \epsilon$  for all  $x \in K$ .
- $-K_n = \{x \in K : g_n(x) \ge \epsilon\}.$
- $-g_n$  continuous implies  $K_n$  closed. This combined with K compact implies  $K_n$  is compact.
- $g_n$  decreasing implies  $K_n \supset K_{n+1}$ . Thus,  $K_n$  is a nested family of compact sets, so  $\bigcap K_n \neq \emptyset$ .
- This implies that each  $K_n$  is nonempty, contradicting the fact that each  $g_n \to 0$  for all x.
- Thus, there exists an N such that  $K_n$  is empty for all  $n \geq N$ . Thus  $g_n(x) \leq \epsilon$  for all  $x \in K$ ,  $n \geq N$ .
- Note that the compactness of K is important. If  $f:(0,1)\to\mathbb{R}$  is defined by f(x)=1/(nx+1), then  $f_n\to 0$ , but  $f_n\not\rightrightarrows f$ .
- Let  $C(X) = \{f : X \to \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ continuous, bounded}\}\$  for X a metric space.
- If we define  $||f|| = \sum_{x \in X} |f(x)|$ , for  $f, g \in C(X)$ , we may define d(f, g) = ||f g||. This definition satisfies the properties of a distance function, and  $||\cdot||$  is a norm.
  - Thus, C(X) is a complete metric space, a normed space, or, specifically, a **Banach space**.
- Theorem:  $(f_n)_{n\in\mathbb{N}}\subset C(X)$  such that  $||f_n-f_m||_{n,m\to\infty}\to 0$ . Then there exists  $f\in C(X)$  such that  $||f_n-f||_{n\to\infty}\to 0$ .
  - We get such a strong statement using properties of the image, not properties of the domain.
  - For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists N such that  $n, m \geq N$ .
  - $-|f_n(x) f_m(x)| \le ||f_n f_m|| < \epsilon \text{ for all } x.$
  - Then there exists f such that  $f_m(x) \to f(x)$ . It follows that  $|f_n(x) f_m(x)| < \epsilon$
- Uniform convergence and integration.
- Stieltjes integral.

- Define  $\alpha: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  nondecreasing.
- If we sum over the minimums/maximums of a partition times  $\alpha(x_{i+1}) \alpha(x_i)$  instead of  $x_{i+1} x_i$ , we obtain said integral as the upper/lower limits just like the Riemann integral.
- We write  $\int_a^b f(x) d\alpha(x)$  where  $d\alpha(x) = \alpha(x) dx$ .
- Theorem: If  $\alpha$  is nondecreasing on [a,b],  $f_n \in R(\alpha)$  such that  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$  on [a,b]
  - We have

$$\left| \int f_n(x) \, d\alpha(x) - \int f(x) \, d\alpha(x) \right| = \left| \int (f_n - f)(x) \, d\alpha(x) \right|$$

$$\leq \|f_n - f\|(\alpha(b) - \alpha(a))$$

$$\leq \int |f_n - f| \, d\alpha(x)$$

$$\leq \int \|f_n - f\| \, d\alpha(x) \qquad \leq \|f_n - f\| \int_a^b d\alpha(x) = \|f_n - f\|(\alpha(b) - \alpha(a))$$

- 11/19: Suppose  $f_n \to f$  and  $f'_n \to g$ . When does f' = g?
  - Theorem: If  $f_n:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  is differentiable,  $f_n(x_0)$  converges for some  $x_0\in[a,b]$ , and  $f'_n$  converges uniformly on [a,b], then there exists f differentiable on [a,b] such that  $f_n\rightrightarrows f$  and  $f'_n\rightrightarrows f'$ .
    - Assume the  $f'_n$  are continuous. Then  $f_n(x) f_n(x_0) = \int_{x_0}^x f'_n(y) \, dy$ .
    - Since  $f'_n \rightrightarrows g$ ,  $\int_{x_0}^x f'_n(y) dy \to \int_{x_0}^x g(y) dy$ .
    - It follows since  $f_n(x_0) \to f(x_0)$  that  $f_n \rightrightarrows f$ .
    - By the previous theorem, if

$$f'_n(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f_n(x+h) - f_n(x)}{h}$$

then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} f_n'(x) = \lim_{h \to 0} \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{f_n(x+h) - f_n(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

- Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then there exists N such that  $n, m \geq N$  such that  $|f_n(x_0) f_m(x_0)| < \epsilon/2$  and  $|f'_n(t) f'_m(t)| < \epsilon/2$  for all  $t \in [a, b]$ .
- We know that  $f_n(t) f_n(x_0) = \int_{x_0}^t f'_n(y) \, dy$  and  $f_m(t) f_m(x_0) = \int_{x_0}^t f'_m(y) \, dy$ .
- Thus,

$$|f_n(t) - f_n(x_0)| \le |f_n(t) - f_n(x_0)| + |f_m(t) - f_m(x_0)| - |f_m(t) - f_m(x_0)|$$

- Let  $f_n(t) f_n(x_0) = c_n(t x_0)$  and  $f_m(t) f_m(x_0) = c_m(t x_0)$ .
- **–** ..
- Let  $f:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}$  be continuous. What conditions on f imply that f' exists?
- Suppose f is Lipschitz continuous (equivalent to saying there exists L > 0 such that  $|f(x) f(y)| \le L|x y|$ ); then f' exists almost everywhere.
  - If f differentiable, this is equivalent to saying f bounded.
- Almost everywhere: Something happens almost everywhere if the set of places where it doesn't happen has measure zero.
- Suppose f is **Hölder continuous**, then f' does not exist?
- Hölder continuous (function f): There exists L > 0 such that  $|f(y) f(x)| < L|x y|^{\alpha}$  where  $\alpha \in (0,1)$

- Suppose f exists such that f is Hölder continuous in a neighborhood of every point in the domain. This function is not anywhere differentiable. Such a function does indeed exist (and it's Brownian motion). The construction of such a function is the essence of Stochastic analysis.
  - Probabilistically: Has mean zero, distributed as a normal function like the Gaussian, and the increments are independent of each other.
  - Analytically: It's a function that is Hölder continuous at half plus  $\epsilon$  for every  $\epsilon$  and it is nowhere differentiable.
- Theorem: There exists  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  continuous but nowhere differentiable.
  - This theorem is due to Weierstrass and as such, such functions are typically called Weierstrass functions.
- A general class of functions that are nowhere differentiable (not in Rudin (1976); we don't have to prove this).
  - Example 1:

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a^n \cos(b^n \pi x)$$

where 0 < a < 1, b positive odd integer greater than 1, and  $ab > 1 + \frac{3}{2}\pi$ .

- This function at every point oscillates more and more and more.
- Rudin (1976)'s simple example.
  - $-\phi:[-1,1]\to\mathbb{R}$  defined by  $\phi(x)=|x|$  is not differentiable at zero.
  - Takes  $\phi$  extends it periodically with period 2, creating a sawtooth function.
  - Repeat the behavior so that the nondifferentiability becomes more and more frequent to get

$$f(x) = \sum_{1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{3}{4}\right)^{n} \phi(4^{n}x)$$

- This is continuous.
- Fix any  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $\delta_m = \pm \frac{1}{2} \cdot 4^{-m}$ .
- Then consider  $4^m x$ ,  $4^m (x + \delta_m)$ .
- Rudin asserts

$$\left| \frac{f(x + \delta_m) - f(x)}{\delta_m} \right| \to \infty$$

as  $m \to \infty$  for all x.