

# ANALYSIS 3

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# Sequence of Functions

## SECTION 1

### Pointwise convergence

This is a very natural way of proving convergence since all you have to do is fix  $f_n$  to a point  $x$  then the sequence just becomes an ordinary sequence of numbers, and if they all converge to a number we can define a limit function  $f$  and say that they converge to  $f$  pointwisely.

**Definition 1** We say that a sequence of functions  $f_n$  where  $f_n : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, I \subset \mathbb{R}$ , converges pointwise to function  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  on the interval  $I$  if:

$$\forall x \in I \forall \epsilon > 0 \exists n \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \geq N : |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon.$$

You either prove convergence using the definition or by doing:

1. Let  $x = 0$  then find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(0) = \text{some } f(x)$
2. Then let  $x \neq 0$  and again find  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f_n(x) = f(x)$
3. If neither of the results are unbounded  $\pm\infty$  then we say  $f_n(x)$  is convergent to some  $f(x)$

*Remark* if the result of step 1 is  $g(x)$  and step 2 results in  $h(x)$  where  $g(x) \neq h(x)$  then we define the limit function:

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} g(x) & x = 0 \\ h(x) & x \in ]0, 1] \end{cases}.$$

## SECTION 2

### Uniform convergence

The idea of uniform convergence is that the sequence always approaches it's limit function as the value of  $n$  increases.

**Definition 2** We say that a sequence of functions  $f_n$  where  $f_n : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, I \subset \mathbb{R}$ , converges uniformly to function  $f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  on the interval  $I$  if:

$$\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \forall n \geq N \forall x \in I : \sup_{x \in I} |f_n(x) - f(x)| < \epsilon.$$

*Remark* We can also prove uniform convergence by proving

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{x \in I} |f_n(x) - f(x)| = 0.$$

There is also an easy way to prove uniform convergence of a function by

1. Prove that the sequence of functions  $f_n(x)$  is pointwise convergent to a function  $f(x)$ <sup>1</sup>
2. Define a function  $g(x) = |f_n(x) - f(x)|$  and find the maxima of that function at a point  $x_0$  (usually by doing  $dg/dx = 0$ )
3. If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} g(x_0) = 0$  then the sequence converges uniformly to  $f(x)$

<sup>1</sup>if the function  $f(x)$  is continuous at a point piecewise then the sequence doesn't uniformly converge

# Series of Functions

**Definition 3** Let  $f_n(x)$  be sequence of functions defined on  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$ , we define the series  $S(x)$  to be

$$S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n(x).$$

## SECTION 3

### Convergence of a Numerical Series

In order to prove a series of functions converge we have to prove that it converges for all fixed  $x$ .

**Theorem 1** Suppose there exists a sequence  $a_n$  such that  $\forall x, n \ |f_n| \leq a_n$ . The Weierstrass test states that if  $\sum a_n$  converges then  $\sum f_n(x)$  converges uniformly and absolutely

**Theorem 2** Let  $a_n$  be a sequence of numbers, if  $\left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right| = l$  then the sequence is a geometric Series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \begin{cases} \text{converges} & \text{if } |l| < 1 \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } |l| \geq 1 \end{cases}.$$

**Theorem 3** A harmonic series is defined to be  $a_n = \frac{1}{n^p}$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n^p} \begin{cases} \text{converges} & \text{if } p > 1 \\ \text{diverges} & \text{if } p \leq 1 \end{cases}.$$

**Theorem 4** Let  $a_n$  be a sequence of numbers. The 2 series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  and  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} 2^n a_n$  are simultaneously convergent/divergent.

**Theorem 5** The sequence  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n a_n$  is convergent if  $a_n$  is decreasing and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n = 0$ .

**Theorem 6**

Consider the series  $S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|} = l \quad \text{such that} \quad \begin{cases} l < 1 & \text{if } S \text{ converges} \\ l > 1 & \text{if } S \text{ diverges} \\ l = 1 & \text{this test cannot help us} \end{cases}.$$

## SECTION 4

## Finite Expansion

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The general formula for the finite expansion (Taylor-young formula) is

$$f(x) = f(x-a) + \frac{x}{1!} f'(x-a) + \frac{x^2}{2!} f''(x-a) + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!} f^{(n)}(x-a) + x^n o(1) \quad x \rightarrow a.$$

Some important expansions to keep in mind are

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a)  $e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$

b)  $\sin(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$

c)  $\cos(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$

d)  $\frac{1}{1-x} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n$

e)  $\sinh(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n+1}}{(2n+1)!}$

f)  $\cosh(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!}$

g)  $\ln(1+x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n}$

h)  $\ln(1-x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} -\frac{x^n}{n}$

i)  $(1+x)^\alpha = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\prod_{k=0}^{n-1} (\alpha - k)}{n!} x^n$

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# Power Series

A power series is just a series in the following formula

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n \\ &= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} U_n. \end{aligned}$$

## SECTION 5

### Radius of Convergence

For some values of  $x$  a power series can either diverge or converge, to determine the interval of convergence we employ the ratio test

**Theorem 7** Let  $r$  be the radius of convergence and  $I$  be the domain of convergence. If we compute the limit

$$\Gamma = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{U_{n+1}}{U_n} \right|.$$

The ratio test states that

$$\begin{cases} \text{if } \Gamma = 0 & \text{then } r = \infty \text{ and } I = \mathbb{R} \\ \text{if } \Gamma = \infty & \text{then } r = 0 \text{ and } I = \{0\} \end{cases}.$$

In the case that  $\Gamma$  isn't 0 or  $\infty$  we set  $\Gamma < 1$  and then we find  $|x| < R$ , finally we can say that  $r = R$  and  $I = ]-R, R[$ . A special case need to be done for the points  $-R$  and  $R$  to determine if they belong in  $I$ .

*Remark* The power series  $f(x)$  is continuous and will always uniformly converge in the interval of convergence  $I$

**Theorem 8** If  $\sum a_n x^n$  and  $\sum b_n x^n$  be 2 power series with radii  $R_1$  and  $R_2$ . For the power series  $\sum (a_n + b_n) x^n$  the radius of convergence  $R$

$$R = \min\{R_1, R_2\}.$$

**Theorem 9** If  $S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n$  is a power series with radius  $R$  then  $S'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n a_n(x - x_0)^{n-1}$  as well as  $\int_{x_0}^x S(t) dt$  both a radius of  $R$



The general term  $a_k$  of a power series  $S(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n(x - x_0)^n$  is equal to

$$a_k = \frac{S^{(k)}(x_0)}{k!}.$$

$$y = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \cdots + a_nx^n$$

$$y' = a_1 + 2a_2x + 3a_3x^2 + \cdots + na_nx^{n-1}$$

$$y'' = 2a_2 + 6a_3x + \cdots + n(n-1)a_nx^{n-2} + n(n+1)a_{n+1}x^{n-1}$$

# Integrals Depending on a Parameter

We define an integratable function

$$\begin{aligned} f : I \times U &\longrightarrow \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \\ t, x &\longmapsto f(t, x). \end{aligned}$$

where  $t$  is a parameter.

Let

$$F(x) = \int_a^b f(t, x) dt.$$

**Theorem 10** If  $f$  is of class  $C^p$  then  $F$  is also of class  $C^n$  and

$$\frac{\partial^p F}{\partial x^p} = \int_a^b \frac{\partial^p f}{\partial x^p} dt.$$

*Remark*  $F$  is differentiable if  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$  is convergent.

## SECTION 6

### Improper Integral

**Theorem 11** If  $\int_a^b |f(t)| dt$  is convergent then  $\int_a^b f(t) dt$  is also convergent and

$$\left| \int_a^b f(t) dt \right| \leq \int_a^b |f(t)| dt$$

**Theorem 12** The Weierstrass test states that  $\int_a^b f(t, x) dt$  is convergent if there exists a function  $g(t)$  such that  $|f(t, x)| \leq g(t)$  and  $\int_a^b g(t) dt$

# Fourier Series

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**Definition 4** A Fourier series is a series of functions of general term

$$u_n(x) = a_0 + a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx).$$

SECTION 7

## Trigonometric Coefficients

The Fourier coefficients of a function defined on an interval  $F \subset \mathbb{R}$  of period  $T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega} \implies \omega = \frac{2\pi}{T}$  are

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= \frac{1}{T} \int_F f(x) \, dx \\ a_n &= \frac{2}{T} \int_F f(x) \cos \omega n x \, dx \\ b_n &= \frac{2}{T} \int_F f(x) \sin \omega n x \, dx \end{aligned}$$

1.  $\sin n \pi = 0$
2.  $\sin n \pi/2 = (-1)^n$
3.  $\cos n \pi = (-1)^n$
4.  $\cos n \pi/2 = 0$

SUBSECTION 7.1

### Even Functions

If a function has a domain  $F = [-\ell; \ell]$  and  $f(x) = f(-x) \, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  the Fourier coefficients ( $T = |F|$ ) become

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= \frac{1}{\ell} \int_0^\ell f(x) \, dx \\ a_n &= \frac{2}{\ell} \int_0^\ell f(x) \cos nx \, dx \\ b_n &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

SUBSECTION 7.2

### Odd Functions

If a function has a domain  $F = [-\ell; \ell]$  and  $-f(x) = f(-x) \, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}$  the Fourier coefficients ( $T = |F|$ ) become

$$\begin{aligned} a_0 &= 0 \\ a_n &= 0 \\ b_n &= \frac{2}{\ell} \int_0^\ell f(x) \sin nx \, dx \end{aligned}$$

# Laplace Transforms

The Laplace transform of a function is defined as

$$F(p) = \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-pt} f(t) dt.$$

It only exists if the integral above converges.

## SECTION 8

### Transforms of some functions

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#### SUBSECTION 8.1

#### Unit step function

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Also known as Heaviside's unit step function, it is defined as

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } t \geq 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } t < 0 \end{cases}.$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{u(t)\} = \frac{1}{p} \quad \text{for } \operatorname{Re}(p) > 0.$$

#### SUBSECTION 8.2

#### Dirac Delta Function

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The Dirac Delta function

$$\delta(t) = \begin{cases} \infty & \text{if } t = 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } t \neq 0 \end{cases}.$$

$$\mathcal{L}\{\delta(t)\} = 1.$$

#### SUBSECTION 8.3

#### Usual Elementary functions

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$$\text{a) } \mathcal{L}\{1\} = \frac{1}{p}$$

$$\text{b) } \mathcal{L}\{t\} = \frac{1}{p^2}$$

$$\text{c) } \mathcal{L}\{t^n\} = \frac{n!}{p^{n+1}}$$

$$\text{d) } \mathcal{L}\{\sin \omega t\} = \frac{\omega}{p^2 + \omega^2}$$

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{e) } \mathcal{L}\{\cos \omega t\} = \frac{p}{p^2 + \omega^2} & \text{f) } \mathcal{L}\{\sinh \omega t\} = \frac{\omega}{p^2 - \omega^2} \\ \text{g) } \mathcal{L}\{\cosh \omega t\} = \frac{p}{p^2 - \omega^2} & \text{h) } \mathcal{L}\{e^{at}\} = \frac{1}{p - a} \end{array}$$

## SECTION 9

# Properties of the Transform

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1. Linearity:

$$\mathcal{L}\{\lambda f + \mu g\} = \lambda \mathcal{L}\{f\} + \mu \mathcal{L}\{g\}.$$

2. Homothety:

$$\mathcal{L}\{f(kt)\} = \frac{1}{k} F\left(\frac{p}{k}\right).$$

3. Derivation:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}\{f'(t)\} &= p \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} - f(0^+) \\ \mathcal{L}\{f''(t)\} &= p^2 \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} - pf(0^+) - f'(0^+) \\ \mathcal{L}\{f^{(n)}(t)\} &= p^n \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\} - \sum_{k=1}^n p^{n-k} f^{(k-1)}(0^+) \end{aligned}$$

4. Integration:

$$\mathcal{L}\left\{\int_0^t f(u) \, du\right\} = \frac{F(p)}{p}.$$

5. Initial value theorem:

$$f(0^+) = \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} p \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\}.$$

6. Final value theorem:

$$f(\infty) = \lim_{p \rightarrow 0} p \mathcal{L}\{f(t)\}.$$

*Remark*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}\{tf(t)\} &= -\frac{d}{dp} F(p) \\ \mathcal{L}\{t^2 f(t)\} &= \frac{d^2}{dp^2} F(p) \\ \mathcal{L}\{t^n f(t)\} &= (-1)^n \frac{d^n}{dp^n} F(p) \end{aligned}$$

*Remark* Convolution over a domain  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  is defined as

$$f(t) * g(t) = \int_I f(\tau) g(t - \tau) \, d\tau = \int_I f(t - \tau) g(\tau) \, d\tau.$$

and it's transform is

$$\mathcal{L}\{f(t) * g(t)\} = F(p) \cdot G(p).$$

SECTION 10

## Translation

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In the time domain:

$$\mathcal{L}\{f(t - a)\} = e^{-ap}F(p).$$

In the  $p$ -domain:

$$\mathcal{L}\{e^{at}f(t)\} = F(p + a).$$

# Definition of a system of DEs

Suppose we have a vector of functions  $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1(t) \\ x_2(t) \\ \vdots \\ x_n(t) \end{pmatrix}$  we say that  $\vec{x}$  verifies

a DE of order  $n$  if

$$\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{f}(\vec{x}, t).$$

ie

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dx_1}{dt} = f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, t) \\ \frac{dx_2}{dt} = f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, t) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{dx_n}{dt} = f_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, t) \end{cases}.$$

Suppose that  $\vec{x}$  verifies the equation

$$\frac{d^n x}{dt^n} = f\left(x, \frac{dx}{dt}, \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2}, \dots, \frac{d^n x}{dt^n}, t\right).$$

We can transform the above equation to a vector system by taking

$$\begin{aligned} x &= x_1 \\ \frac{dx}{dt} &= x_2 \\ \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} &= x_3 \\ &\vdots \\ \frac{d^{n-1} x}{dt^{n-1}} &= x_n \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 13** A mapping  $\mathbf{g}$  satisfies the Lipschitz condition if

$$\exists k > 0 / \forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in D \quad \|\mathbf{g}(\vec{u}) - \mathbf{g}(\vec{v})\| \leq k \|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|.$$

**Theorem 14** A mapping  $\mathbf{f}$  of the system

$$\frac{d\vec{x}}{dt} = \mathbf{f}(\vec{x}, t).$$

admits a unique solution given an initial condition if *it satisfies the*  
*Lip****shit***<sub>*z*</sub> *condition*.