

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 $f(x)$ ¹
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 $f(x)$

¹if 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

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

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

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 Γ isn't 0 or ∞ 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

SUBSECTION 8.1

Unit step function

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

SECTION 9

Properties of the Transform

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

In the time domain:

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

In the p -domain:

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