

# Theorems in Mathematical Analysis

TRISCT

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## Part I

# Preliminaries

## 1 Lemmas

### 1.1 Techniques

**Abel's transformation** The sum  $\sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \beta_i$  can be written as

$$\sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \beta_i = \alpha_m B_m - \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} (\alpha_{i+1} - \alpha_i) B_i$$

where

$$B_i = \sum_{k=1}^i \beta_k$$

If the original summation does not start with  $i = 1$ , one can write

$$\sum_{i=n}^m a_i b_i = A_m b_m - A_{n-1} b_n + \sum_{i=n}^{m-1} A_i (b_i - b_{i+1})$$

### 1.2 Order Estimate

1. If  $p \neq 0$  is not a negative integer, then

$$\frac{p(p+1) \cdots (p+n-1)}{n!} = O^* \left( \frac{1}{n^{1-p}} \right) \quad (n \rightarrow \infty)$$

2. The binomial coefficient

$$\binom{m}{n} = O^* \left( \frac{1}{n^{m+1}} \right)$$

### 1.3 Lemmas With Names

**Abel's Lemma** If the finite sequence  $\{\alpha_i\}_{i=1}^m$  is nonincreasing or nondecreasing and  $B_i = \sum_{k=1}^i \beta_k$  is such that  $|B_i| \leq L$  for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m$ , then

$$\left| \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \beta_i \right| \leq L \cdot (|\alpha_1| + 2|\alpha_m|)$$

**Hadamard's Lemma** Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a function of class  $C^{(p)}(U; \mathbb{R})$ ,  $p \geq 1$ , defined in a convex neighborhood  $U$  of the point  $0 = (0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and such that  $f(0) = 0$ . Then there exist function  $g_i \in C^{(p-1)}(U; \mathbb{R})$ , ( $i = 1, \dots, m$ ) such that the equality

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_m) = \sum_{i=1}^m x_i g_i(x_1, \dots, x_m)$$

holds in  $U$ , and  $g_i(0) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(0)$ .

**Morse's Lemma** If  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function of class  $C^{(3)}(G; \mathbb{R})$  defined on an open set  $G \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $x_0 \in G$  is a nondegenerate critical point of that function, then there exists a diffeomorphism  $g : V \rightarrow U$  of some neighborhood of the origin 0 in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  onto a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x_0$  such that

$$(f \circ g)(y) = f(x_0) - [(y_1)^2 + \dots + (y_k)^2] + [(y_{k+1})^2 + \dots + (y_m)^2]$$

for all  $y \in V$ .

**Riemann-Lebesgue Lemma** Let  $f(x)$  be integrable and absolutely integrable on  $[a, b]^1$ . It holds that

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) \sin px dx = 0, \quad \lim_{p \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) \cos px dx = 0$$

**Generalized Riemann-Lebesgue Lemma** Let  $f \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ ,  $\varphi \in \mathcal{R}[0, T]$ ,  $\varphi(x+T) = x$ , then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f(x) \varphi(nx) dx = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \varphi(x) dx \int_a^b f(x) dx$$

---

<sup>1</sup> $a$  or  $b$  may be infinity

## 2 Equalities and Inequalities

### 2.1 Common Taylor Series

1.  $e^x = 1 + x + \frac{x^2}{2} + \cdots + \frac{x^n}{n!} + \cdots \quad (-\infty < x < +\infty)$
2.  $\sin x = x - \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} + \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{(2n-1)!} + \cdots \quad (-\infty < x < +\infty)$
3.  $\cos x = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{x^{2n}}{(2n)!} + \cdots \quad (-\infty < x < +\infty)$
4.  $(1+x)^\alpha = 1 + \alpha x + \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)}{2!} x^2 + \cdots + \frac{\alpha(\alpha-1)\cdots(\alpha-n+1)}{n!} x^n + \cdots \quad (-1 < x < 1)$
5.  $\ln(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^3}{3} + \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^n}{n} + \cdots \quad (-1 < x \leq x)$
6.  $\arctan x = x - \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{x^5}{5} + \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{x^{2n-1}}{2n-1} + \cdots \quad (-1 \leq x \leq 1)$
7.  $\arcsin x = x + \frac{x^3}{6} + \frac{3x^5}{40} + \cdots + \frac{(2n-1)!! x^{2n+1}}{(2n)!!(2n+1)} + \cdots \quad (-1 \leq x \leq 1)$
8.  $\frac{1}{1+x} = (1+x)^{-1} = 1 - x + x^2 - \cdots + (-1)^n x^n + \cdots \quad (-1 < x < 1)$
9.  $\frac{1}{(1+x)^2} = (1+x)^{-2} = 1 - 2x + 3x^2 - \cdots + (-1)^n (n+1)x^n + \cdots \quad (-1 < x < 1)$
10.  $\sqrt{1+x} = (1+x)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 1 + \frac{1}{2}x - \frac{1}{8}x^2 + \cdots + (-1)^{n-1} \frac{(2n-3)!!}{(2n)!!} x^n + \cdots \quad (-1 \leq x \leq 1)$
11.  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1+x}} = (1+x)^{-\frac{1}{2}} = 1 - \frac{1}{2}x + \frac{3}{8}x^2 - \cdots + (-1)^n \frac{(2n-1)!!}{(2n)!!} x^n + \cdots \quad (-1 < x \leq 1)$

### 2.2 Common Infinite Products

1.  $\sin x = x \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{n^2 \pi^2}\right) \quad (-\infty < x < +\infty)$
2.  $\cos x = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(1 - \frac{4x^2}{(2n-1)^2 \pi^2}\right) \quad (-\infty < x < +\infty)$
3.  $\frac{\sin x}{x} = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \cos \frac{x}{2^n} \quad (x \neq 0)$
4.  $\prod_{n=0}^{\infty} (1 + x^{2^n}) = \frac{1}{1-x} \quad (-1 < x < 1)$

## 2.3 Pythagoras's theorem

Let  $X$  be a real inner product space, the following are true.

1. If  $\{l_i\}$  is an orthogonal system, then

$$\left\| \sum_i l_i \right\|^2 = \sum_i \|l_i\|^2$$

2. If  $\{e_i\}$  is an orthonormal system, then

$$\left\| \sum_i x_i e_i \right\|^2 = \sum_i \|x_i e_i\|^2 = \sum_i |x_i|^2$$

## 2.4 Bernoulli's Inequality

**Bernoulli's Inequality** For  $x > -1$ ,  $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ ,

$$(1+x)^n \geq 1+nx$$

and

$$(1+x)^n = 1+nx \iff n=1 \text{ or } x=0$$

**Extensions of Bernoulli's Inequality**

$$x^\alpha - \alpha x + \alpha - 1 \leq 0 \quad \text{when } 0 < \alpha < 1$$

$$x^\alpha - \alpha x + \alpha - 1 \geq 0 \quad \text{when } \alpha < 0 \text{ or } 1 < \alpha$$

## 2.5 Hölder's Inequality

**Hölder's Inequality (for Sums)** Let  $x_i, y_i \geq 0$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ ,  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ . Then

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^p \right)^{1/p} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^q \right)^{1/q}, \quad p > 1$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \geq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^p \right)^{1/p} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^q \right)^{1/q}, \quad p < 1, p \neq 0$$

**Hölder's Inequality (for Integrals)** Let  $f, g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ ,  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ . Then

$$\left| \int_a^b (f \cdot g)(x) dx \right| \leq \left( \int_a^b |f|^p(x) dx \right)^{1/p} \cdot \left( \int_a^b |g|^q(x) dx \right)^{1/q}, \quad p > 1$$

## 2.6 Jensen's Inequality

**Jensen's Inequality** If  $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a convex function,  $x_1, \dots, x_n \in (a, b)$ , and  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  are positive numbers such that  $\alpha_1 + \dots + \alpha_n = 1$ , then

$$f(\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n) \leq \alpha_1 f(x_1) + \dots + \alpha_n f(x_n)$$

**Jensen's Inequality (for Integrals)** If  $f$  is a continuous convex function on  $\mathbb{R}$  and  $\varphi$  an arbitrary continuous function on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then

$$f\left(\frac{1}{c} \int_0^c \varphi(t) dt\right) \leq \frac{1}{c} \int_0^c f(\varphi(t)) dt$$

## 2.7 Minkowski's Inequality

**Minkowski's Inequality (for Sums)** Let  $x_i, y_i \geq 0$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + y_i)^p\right)^{1/p} &\leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^p\right)^{1/p} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^p\right)^{1/p}, \quad p > 1 \\ \left(\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i + y_i)^p\right)^{1/p} &\geq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^p\right)^{1/p} + \left(\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^p\right)^{1/p}, \quad p < 1, p \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

**Minkowski's Inequality (for Integrals)** Let  $f, g \in \mathcal{R}[a, b]$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\int_a^b |f + g|^p(x) dx\right)^{1/p} &\leq \left(\int_a^b |f|^p(x) dx\right)^{1/p} + \left(\int_a^b |g|^p(x) dx\right)^{1/p}, \quad p \geq 1 \\ \left(\int_a^b |f + g|^p(x) dx\right)^{1/p} &\geq \left(\int_a^b |f|^p(x) dx\right)^{1/p} + \left(\int_a^b |g|^p(x) dx\right)^{1/p}, \quad 0 < p < 1 \end{aligned}$$

## 2.8 Young's Inequality

**Young's Inequality** If  $a > 0$ ,  $b > 0$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} a^{1/p} b^{1/q} &\leq \frac{1}{p} a + \frac{1}{q} b, \quad p > 1 \\ a^{1/p} b^{1/q} &\geq \frac{1}{p} a + \frac{1}{q} b, \quad p < 1 \text{ and } p \neq 0 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$a^{1/p} b^{1/q} = \frac{1}{p} a + \frac{1}{q} b \iff a = b$$

Or it could be written as

$$xy \leq \frac{1}{p}x^p + \frac{1}{q}y^q$$

for  $x, y \geq 0$ ,  $p, q > 0$ ,  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$

## Part II

# Basic Theorems

## 3 Theorems in Analysis

### 3.1 Contraction Mapping Principle

**Picard-Banach Fixed-point Principle** A contraction mapping  $f : X \rightarrow X$  of a complete metric space  $(X, d)$  into itself has a unique fixed point  $a$ . Moreover, for any point  $x_0 \in X$  the recursively defined sequence  $x_0, x_1 = f(x_0), \dots, x_{n+1} = f(x_n), \dots$  converges to  $a$ . The rate of convergence is given by the estimate

$$d(a, x_n) \leq \frac{q^n}{1 - q} d(x_1, x_0)$$

**Stability of the Fixed Point** Let  $(X, d)$  be a complete metric space and  $(\Omega, \tau)$  a topological space that will play the role of a parameter space in what follows. Suppose to each value of the parameter  $t \in \Omega$  there corresponds a contraction mapping  $f_t : X \rightarrow X$  and that the following conditions hold.

- (a) The family  $\{f_t : t \in \Omega\}$  is uniformly contracting, that is, there exists  $q$ ,  $0 < q < 1$ , such that each mapping  $f_t$  is a  $q$ -contraction
- (b) For each  $x \in X$  the mapping  $f_t(x) : \Omega \rightarrow X$  is continuous as a function of  $t$  at some point  $t_0 \in \Omega$ , that is  $\lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} f_t(x) = f_{t_0}(x)$

Then the solution  $a(t) \in X$  of the equation  $x = f_t(x)$  depends continuously on  $t$  at  $t_0$ , that is,  $\lim_{t \rightarrow t_0} a(t) = a(t_0)$

### 3.2 Differential Calculus

**Mean-value Theorem** Let  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a real-valued function defined in a region  $G \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ , and let the closed line segment  $[x, x + h]$  be contained in  $G$ .



If the function  $f$  is continuous on  $[x, x+h]$  and differentiable on  $(x, x+h)$ , then there exists a point  $\xi \in (x, x+h)$  such that

$$f(x+h) - f(x) = f'(\xi)h$$

**Finite-increment Theorem** Let  $f : U \rightarrow Y$  be a continuous mapping of an open set  $U$  of a normed space  $X$  into a normed space  $Y$ . If the closed interval  $[x, x+h] = \{\xi \in X : \xi = x + \theta h, 0 \leq \theta \leq 1\}$  is contained in  $U$  and the mapping  $f$  is differentiable at all points of the open interval  $(x, x+h) = \{\xi \in X : \xi = x + \theta h, 0 < \theta < 1\}$ , then the following estimate holds:

$$\|f(x+h) - f(x)\| \leq \sup_{\xi \in (x, x+h)} \|f'(\xi)\| \cdot \|h\|$$

**Taylor's Formula** If  $f : U(x) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is defined and belongs to class  $C^{(n)}(U(x); \mathbb{R})$  in a neighborhood  $U(x) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  of  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , and the closed interval  $[x, x+h]$  is completely contained in  $U(x)$ , then the following equality holds

$$f(x+h) - f(x) = \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \frac{1}{k!} (h_1 \partial_1 + \cdots + h_m \partial_m)^k f(x) + r_{n-1}(x; h)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} r_{n-1}(x; h) &= \int_0^1 \frac{(1-t)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} (h_1 \partial_1 + \cdots + h_m \partial_m)^n f(x+th) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{n!} (h_1 \partial_1 + \cdots + h_m \partial_m)^n f(x + \theta h) \\ &= \frac{1}{n!} (h_1 \partial_1 + \cdots + h_m \partial_m)^n f(x) + o(\|h\|^n) \end{aligned}$$

**Taylor's Formula for Mappings** If a mapping  $f : U \rightarrow Y$  from a neighborhood  $U = U(x)$  of  $x$  in a normed space  $X$  into a normed space  $Y$  has derivatives up to order  $n-1$  inclusive in  $U$  and has an  $n$ -th order derivative  $f^{(n)}(x)$  at  $x$ , then

$$f(x+h) = f(x) + f'(x)h + \cdots + \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(x)h^n + o(\|h\|^n), \quad h \rightarrow 0$$

### 3.3 Implicit Function Theorem

**Implicit function theorem** If  $F : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  defined in a neighborhood  $U$  of  $(x_0, y_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{m+n}$  is such that

- $F \in C^{(p)}(U; \mathbb{R}^n)$
- $F(x_0, y_0) = 0$
- $F'_y(x_0, y_0)$  is an invertible matrix

then there exists an  $(m + n)$ -dimensional interval  $I = I_x^m \times I_y^n \subset U$ , where

$$I_x^m = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^m : |x - x_0| < \alpha\}, \quad I_y^n = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : |y - y_0| < \beta\}$$

and a mapping  $f \in C^{(p)}(I_x^m; I_y^n)$  such that

$$F(x, y) = 0 \iff y = f(x)$$

for any point  $(x, y) \in (I_x^m \times I_y^n)$  and

$$f'(x) = -[F'_y(x, f(x))]^{-1}[F'_x(x, f(x))]$$

**General Implicit Function Theorem** Let  $X, Y, Z$  be normed spaces,  $Y$  being a complete space. Let  $W = \{(x, y) \in X \times Y : |x - x_0| < \alpha, |y - y_0| < \beta\}$  be a neighborhood of  $(x_0, y_0)$ . Suppose that the mapping  $F : W \rightarrow Z$  satisfies the following conditions

- $F(x_0, y_0) = 0$
- $F(x, y)$  is continuous at  $(x_0, y_0)$
- $F'(x, y)$  is defined in  $W$  and continuous at  $(x_0, y_0)$
- $F'_y(x_0, y_0)$  is an invertible transformation

Then there exists a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x_0 \in X$ , a neighborhood  $V$  of  $y_0 \in Y$ , and a mapping  $f : U \rightarrow V$  such that

- $U \times V \subset W$
- If  $(x, y) \in U \times V$ , then  $F(x, y) = 0 \iff y = f(x)$
- $y_0 = f(x_0)$
- $f$  is continuous at  $x_0$

**Inverse Function Theorem** If  $f : G \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  of a domain  $G \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  is such that

- $f \in C^{(p)}(G; \mathbb{R}^m)$
- $y_0 = f(x_0)$
- $f'(x_0)$  is invertible

then there exists a neighborhood  $U(x_0) \subset G$  and a neighborhood  $V(y_0)$  such that  $f : U(x_0) \rightarrow V(y_0)$  is a  $C^{(p)}$ -diffeomorphism. Moreover, if  $x \in U(x_0)$ ,  $y = f(x)$ , then

$$(f^{-1})'(y) = (f'(x))^{-1}$$

**Rank Theorem** Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  be a mapping defined in a neighborhood  $U \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  of  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . If  $f \in C^{(p)}(U; \mathbb{R}^n)$  and  $f$  has the same rank  $k$  everywhere in  $U$ , then there exists neighborhoods  $O(x_0)$ ,  $O(y_0)$ ,  $y_0 = f(x_0)$  and  $C^{(p)}$ -diffeomorphisms  $u = \varphi(x)$ ,  $v = \psi(y)$  of  $O(x_0)$ ,  $O(y_0)$ , such that  $v = \psi \circ f \circ \varphi^{-1}(u)$  has the coordinate representation

$$\begin{aligned} v &= (v_1, \dots, v_n) \\ &= \psi \circ f \circ \varphi^{-1}(u) \\ &= \psi \circ f \circ \varphi^{-1}(u_1, \dots, u_k, \dots, u_m) \\ &= (u_1, \dots, u_k, 0, \dots, 0) \end{aligned}$$

in  $O(u_0) = \psi(O(y_0))$ ,  $u_0 = \varphi(x_0)$

## 4 Integral Calculus

### 4.1 Basic theorems

**First mean-value theorem**

**Second mean-value theorem** Let  $f$  be integrable on  $[a, b]$ . Then

1. If  $g$  is nonnegative and monotonically increasing on  $[a, b]$ , then there exists  $\xi \in [a, b]$ ,

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = g(b) \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

2. If  $g$  is nonnegative and monotonically decreasing on  $[a, b]$ , then there exists  $\xi \in [a, b]$ ,

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = g(a) \int_a^b f(x)dx$$

3. If  $g$  is monotonic  $[a, b]$ , then there exists  $\xi \in [a, b]$ ,

$$\int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx = g(a) \int_a^\xi f(x)dx + g(b) \int_\xi^b f(x)dx$$

## 4.2 Improper integrals

Comparison test (inequality)

Comparison test (limit form)

**Dirichlet's test (IBFZ)** Let  $f, g$  be such that

1.  $\int_a^A f(x)dx$  is bounded.
2.  $g$  monotonically tends to 0.

Then

$$\int_a^{+\infty} f(x)dx$$

converges.

**Abel's test (ICFB)** Let  $f, g$  be such that

1.  $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x)dx$  converges.
2.  $g$  is monotonic and bounded.

Then

$$\int_a^{+\infty} f(x)dx$$

converges.

**Absolute convergence implies convergence (unbounded domain)**

$$\int_a^{+\infty} |f(x)| dx \text{ converges} \implies \int_a^{+\infty} f(x)dx \text{ converges}$$

## 4.3 Improper Multiple Integral

**Absolutely convergence and convergence imply each other (unbounded domain)**

Let  $D \subset \mathbb{R}^2$  be unbounded, then

$$\iint_D f(x, y) dx dy \text{ converges} \iff \iint_D |f(x, y)| dx dy \text{ converges}$$

## 5 Integrabilities

**Bounded domain, bounded function** Integrable  $\implies$  absolutely integrable

**Bounded domain, unbounded function** Absolutely integrable  $\implies$  integrable

**Unbounded domain, bounded function** Absolutely integrable  $\implies$  integrable

**Bounded domain, bounded function** Integrable  $\implies$  square-integrable

**Bounded domain, unbounded function** Square-integrable  $\implies$  absolutely integrable  $\implies$  integrable

## Part III

# Family of Functions

## 6 Family of Functions Depending on a Parameter

### 6.1 Convergence of a Family of Functions Depending on a Parameter

**Cauchy Criterion for Uniform Convergence** Let  $\{f_t : t \in T\}$  be a family of functions depending on a parameter, and  $\mathcal{B}$  a base in  $T$ . A necessary and sufficient condition for  $\{f_t : t \in T\}$  to converge uniformly on  $E \subset X$  over  $\mathcal{B}$  is that for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $B \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $|f_{t_1}(x) - f_{t_2}(x)| < \varepsilon$  for every  $t_1, t_2 \in B$  and every  $x \in E$ . In formal language one can state it as follows:

$$\exists f, f_t \xrightarrow[\mathcal{B}]{} f \iff \forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists B \in \mathcal{B}, \forall t_1, t_2 \in B, \forall x \in E, |f_{t_1}(x) - f_{t_2}(x)| < \varepsilon$$

### 6.2 Functional Properties of a Limit Function

**A sufficient condition for two limiting passages to commute** Let  $\{F_t : t \in T\}$  be a family of functions  $F_t : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  depending on a parameter  $t \in T$ ; let  $\mathcal{B}_X$  be a base in  $X$  and  $\mathcal{B}_T$  a base in  $T$ . If the family converges uniformly on  $X$  over  $\mathcal{B}_T$  to a function  $F : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  and  $\lim_{\mathcal{B}_X} F_t(x) = A_t$  exists for each

$t \in T$ , then both repeated limits  $\lim_{\mathcal{B}_X} \left( \lim_{\mathcal{B}_T} F_t(x) \right)$  and  $\lim_{\mathcal{B}_T} \left( \lim_{\mathcal{B}_X} F_t(x) \right)$  exist and the equality

$$\lim_{\mathcal{B}_X} \left( \lim_{\mathcal{B}_T} F_t(x) \right) = \lim_{\mathcal{B}_T} \left( \lim_{\mathcal{B}_X} F_t(x) \right)$$

holds. The diagram for this theorem is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F_t(x) & \xRightarrow{\mathcal{B}_T} & F(x) \\ \downarrow \mathcal{B}_X & \swarrow \text{---} & \downarrow \exists \mathcal{B}_X \\ A_t & \xrightarrow{\exists \mathcal{B}_T} & A \end{array}$$

in which the hypotheses are written above the diagonal and the consequences below it.

**Continuity and passages to the limit** Let  $\{F_t : t \in T\}$  be a family of functions  $F_t : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  depending on a parameter  $t \in T$ ; let  $\mathcal{B}_T$  be a base in  $T$ . If  $f_t \Rightarrow f$  on  $X$  and the functions  $f_t$  are continuous at  $x_0 \in X$ , then the function  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is also continuous at that point.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} f_t(x) & \xRightarrow{\mathcal{B}_T} & f(x) \\ \downarrow x \rightarrow x_0 & \swarrow \text{---} & \downarrow x \rightarrow x_0 \\ f_t(x_0) & \xrightarrow{\mathcal{B}_T} & f(x_0) \end{array}$$

in which the hypotheses are written above the diagonal and the consequences below it.

**Corollary 1.** If a sequence of functions that are continuous on a set converges uniformly on that set, then the limit function is continuous on the set.

**Corollary 2.** If a series of functions that are continuous on a set converges uniformly on that set, then the sum of the series is continuous on the set.

**Dini's theorem** If a sequence of continuous functions on a compact set converges monotonically to a continuous function, then the convergence is uniform.

**Proof 6.1.** Extracting a finite covering should do the job.

**Corollary 3.** If the terms of the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(x)$  are nonnegative functions  $a_n : K \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  that are continuous on a compact set  $K$  and the series converges to a continuous function on  $K$ , then it converges uniformly on  $K$ .

**Integration and passage to limit** Let  $\{f_t : t \in T\}$  be a family of functions  $f_t : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  depending on the parameter  $t \in T$ , and let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a base in  $T$ . If the functions of the family are integrable on  $[a, b]$  and  $f_t \rightrightarrows f$  on  $[a, b]$  over  $\mathcal{B}$ , then the limit function  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is also integrable on  $[a, b]$  and

$$\int_a^b f(x)dx = \lim_{\mathcal{B}} \int_a^b f_t(x)dx$$

The diagram for this theorem is as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} F_t(p) & \xRightarrow{\quad} & F(p) \\ \lambda(P) \rightarrow 0 \downarrow & \swarrow \text{---} & \downarrow \exists \lambda(P) \rightarrow 0 \\ A_t & \xrightarrow{\quad} & A \end{array}$$

The notations are defined as:

$$\begin{aligned} p &= (P, \xi) \text{ is a partition with distinguished points.} \\ F_t(p) &= \sum_{i=1}^n f_t(\xi_i) \Delta x_i \\ F(p) &= \sum_{i=1}^n f(\xi_i) \Delta x_i \\ A_t &= \int_a^b f_t(x) dx \\ A &= \int_a^b f(x) dx \end{aligned}$$

**Proof 6.2.** We can use the fact that  $|f(x) - f_t(x)|$  can be arbitrarily small to estimate the difference between  $|F(p) - F_t(p)|$ . The latter can be considered a function defined on the topological space  $\mathcal{P} = \{(P, \xi)\}$  of all partitions, by applying the theorem for the commutativity of limiting passages we obtain the desired result.

**Corollary 4.** If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$  consisting of integrable functions on a closed interval  $[a, b] \subset \mathbb{R}$  converges uniformly on that closed interval, then its sum is also integrable on  $[a, b]$  and

$$\int_a^b \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x) \right) dx = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_a^b f_n(x) dx$$

**Differentiation and passage to the limit** Let  $\{f_t : t \in T\}$  be a family of functions  $f_t : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  defined on a convex bounded set  $X$  (in a normed space, **one-dimensional I think**) and depending on the parameter  $t \in T$ , and let  $\mathcal{B}$  be a base in  $T$ . If the functions of the family are differentiable on  $X$ , the family of derivatives  $\{f'_t : t \in T\}$  converges uniformly on  $X$  to a function  $\varphi : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , and the original family  $\{f_t : t \in T\}$  converges at even one point  $x_0 \in X$ , then it converges uniformly on the entire set  $X$  to a differentiable function  $f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ , and  $f' = \varphi$ .

**Corollary 5.** If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$  of functions  $f_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  that are differentiable on a bounded convex subset  $X \subset \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$  (or other normed space) converges at even one point  $x \in X$  and the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f'_n(x)$  converges uniformly on  $X$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x)$  also converges uniformly on  $X$ , its sum is differentiable on  $X$ , and

$$\left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f_n(x) \right)' (x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f'_n(x)$$

## 7 Integrals Depending on a Parameter

### 7.1 Proper Integrals

**Continuous dependence on the parameter** If  $f(x, u)$  is continuous on  $[a, b] \times [\alpha, \beta]$ , then the integral

$$\int_a^b f(x, u) dx$$

depends continuously on  $u$ .

**Smooth dependence on the parameter** If  $f(x, u)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x, u)$  are continuous on  $[a, b] \times [\alpha, \beta]$ , then the integral

$$\int_a^b f(x, u) dx$$



depends smoothly ( $C^1$ ) on  $u$ , and

$$\frac{d}{du} \int_a^b f(x, u) dx = \int_a^b \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x, u) dx$$

**Interchangeable double integral** If  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b] \times [\alpha, \beta]$ , then

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \int_a^b f(x, u) dx du = \int_a^b \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(x, u) du dx$$

**Continuous dependence on the domain and the parameter** If  $f(x, u)$  is continuous on  $[a, b] \times [\alpha, \beta]$ , and  $p(u), q(u)$  are continuous on  $[\alpha, \beta]$  and are bounded on  $[\alpha, \beta]$  such that  $a \leq p(u), q(u) \leq b$ , then

$$\psi(u) = \int_{p(u)}^{q(u)} f(x, u) dx$$

depends continuously on  $u$ .

**Smooth dependence on the domain and the parameter** If  $f(x, u)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x, u)$  are continuous on  $[a, b] \times [\alpha, \beta]$ , and  $p(u), q(u)$  are differentiable on  $[\alpha, \beta]$  and are bounded on  $[\alpha, \beta]$  such that  $a \leq p(u), q(u) \leq b$ , then

$$\psi(u) = \int_{p(u)}^{q(u)} f(x, u) dx$$

depends smoothly ( $C^1$ ) on  $u$ , and

$$\psi'(u) = \int_{p(u)}^{q(u)} \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x, u) dx + f(q(u), u)q'(u) - f(p(u), u)p'(u)$$

## 7.2 Improper Integrals

**Equivalent conditions for uniform convergence** The following are equivalent.

1.  $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u) dx$  converges uniformly.
2. The remainder  $\left| \int_A^{+\infty} f(x, u) dx \right|$  tends to 0 as  $A \rightarrow +\infty$ , irrespective of the choice of  $u$ .
3. The oscillation  $\left| \int_{A'}^{A''} f(x, u) dx \right|$  tends to 0 ( $A', A'' > A$ ) as  $A \rightarrow +\infty$ , irrespective of the choice of  $u$ .

4. For any monotonically increasing sequence  $\{A_n\} \rightarrow +\infty$  ( $A_1 = a$ ), the series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{A_n}^{A_{n+1}} f(x, u) dx$$

converges uniformly on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ .

**Weierstrass's test** Let  $f(x, u)$  be continuous on  $[a, +\infty)$ . If there exists a continuous function  $F(x)$  on  $[a, +\infty)$  such that

1.  $\int_a^{+\infty} F(x) dx$  converges.
2. For all sufficiently large  $x$  and every  $u$ ,  $|f(x, u)| \leq F(x)$ .

then  $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u) dx$  converges uniformly.

**Proof 7.1.** [Cauchy criterion](#).

**Dirichlet's test (IBFZ)** Let  $f(x, u), g(x, u)$  be such that

1.  $\int_a^A f(x, u) dx$  is uniformly bounded.
2.  $g(x, u)$  monotonically and uniformly tends to 0.

Then

$$\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u) g(x, u) dx$$

converges uniformly.

**Abel's test (ICFB)** Let  $f(x, u), g(x, u)$  be such that

1.  $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u) dx$  converges uniformly.
2.  $g(x, u)$  is monotonic and uniformly bounded.

Then

$$\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u) g(x, u) dx$$

converges uniformly.

**Note 7.1.** *IBFZ stands for “integral bounded, function tends to 0”. ICFB stands for “integral convergent, function bounded”. In both cases the function needs to be monotonic.*

**Dini's theorem** Let  $f(x, u)$  be continuous and nonnegative on  $[a, +\infty) \times [\alpha, \beta]$ .  
If  $\varphi(u) = \int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx$  is continuous on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ , then

$$\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx$$

converges uniformly on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ .

**Interchangeable limits** Let  $f(x, u)$  be such that

1.  $f(x, u) \xrightarrow[u \rightarrow u_0]{} g(x)$
2.  $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx$  converges uniformly.

Then

$$\lim_{u \rightarrow u_0} \int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx = \int_a^{+\infty} \lim_{u \rightarrow u_0} f(x, u)dx$$

**Continuous dependence on the parameter** Let  $f(x, u)$  be continuous on  $[a, +\infty) \times [\alpha, \beta]$  and let the integral  $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx$  be uniformly convergent on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ , then

$$\varphi(u) = \int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx$$

is continuous on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ .

**Smooth dependence on the parameter** Let  $f(x, u)$  and  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x, u)$  both be continuous on  $[a, +\infty) \times [\alpha, \beta]$  and let the integral  $\int_a^{+\infty} \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x, u)dx$  be uniformly convergent on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ , then

$$\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx$$

is differentiable on  $[\alpha, \beta]$  and

$$\frac{d}{du} \int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx = \int_a^{+\infty} \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}(x, u)dx$$

**Interchangeable integrals (finite  $\times$  infinite)** Let  $f(x, u)$  be continuous on  $[a, +\infty) \times [\alpha, \beta]$  and let the integral  $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx$  be uniformly convergent on  $[\alpha, \beta]$ , then  $\varphi(u) = \int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dx$  is integrable and

$$\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \varphi(u)du = \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u)dxdu = \int_a^{+\infty} \int_{\alpha}^{\beta} f(x, u)dudx$$

**Interchangeable integrals (infinite  $\times$  infinite)** Let  $f(x, u)$  be such that

1.  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, +\infty) \times [\alpha, +\infty)$ .
2.  $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u) dx$  converges uniformly with respect to  $u \in [\alpha, \beta]$  for all  $[\alpha, \beta] \subset [\alpha, +\infty)$ .
3.  $\int_\alpha^{+\infty} f(x, u) du$  converges uniformly with respect to  $x \in [a, b]$  for all  $[a, b] \subset [a, +\infty)$ .

Then the convergence of either of the integrals

$$\int_a^{+\infty} \int_\alpha^{+\infty} |f(x, u)| du dx \quad \text{and} \quad \int_\alpha^{+\infty} \int_a^{+\infty} |f(x, u)| dx du$$

implies the convergence of the other and the equality between them.

**Interchangeable integrals (infinite  $\times$  infinite, nonnegative)** Let  $f(x, u)$  be such that

1.  $f$  is continuous and nonnegative on  $[a, +\infty) \times [\alpha, +\infty)$ .
2.  $\int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u) dx$  is continuous on  $[\alpha, +\infty)$ .
3.  $\int_\alpha^{+\infty} f(x, u) du$  is continuous on  $[a, +\infty)$ .

Then the convergence of either of the integrals

$$\int_a^{+\infty} \int_\alpha^{+\infty} f(x, u) du dx \quad \text{and} \quad \int_\alpha^{+\infty} \int_a^{+\infty} f(x, u) dx du$$

implies the convergence of the other and the equality between them.

# Part IV

## Series

### 8 Numerical Series

#### 8.1 Convergence of Numerical Series with Nonnegative Terms

**Comparison theorem** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  be series with nonnegative terms. If there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_n \leq b_n$  for all  $n > N$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n < +\infty &\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < +\infty \\ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = +\infty &\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = +\infty \end{aligned}$$

**Comparison by inequalities** Please refer to the Cauchy-Hölder inequality. For examples, see Sect. E14.2-4, *Other Problems From Chang & Shi, Numerical Series*.

**Comparison by squeeze** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  are convergent and  $a_n \leq c_n \leq b_n$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$  converges.

**Comparison theorem in limit form** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  be series with nonnegative terms and

$$l = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_n}{b_n}$$

(a) If  $l < +\infty$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n < +\infty \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < +\infty$

(b) If  $l > 0$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < +\infty \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n < +\infty$

**Note 8.1.** *This may fail if the series contain negative terms. See counterexamples.*

**Comparison theorem in quotient form** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  be series with non-negative terms. If there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $n > N$

$$\frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \leq \frac{b_{n+1}}{b_n}$$

$$\text{then } \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n < +\infty \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < +\infty$$

**Cauchy's test** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series and

$$\alpha = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{a_n}$$

Then the following are true:

- (a) if  $\alpha < 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges;
- (b) if  $\alpha > 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges;
- (c) there exist both convergent and divergent series for which  $\alpha = 1$ .

**Cauchy's proposition** If  $\{a_n\}$  is a decreasing sequence with nonnegative terms, that is,  $a_1 \geq a_2 \geq \dots \geq 0$ , then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges if and only if

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^k a_{2^k} = a_1 + 2a_2 + 4a_4 + 8a_8 + \dots$$

converges.

**Kummer's test** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series with positive terms and  $\{c_n\}$  be any sequence of positive numbers. Suppose the following limit exists.

$$\alpha = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( c_n \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} - c_{n+1} \right)$$

Then

- (a) if  $\alpha > 0$ , the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges;
- (b) if  $\alpha < 0$ , and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{c_n}$  diverges, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges;

(c) there exist both convergent and divergent series for which  $\alpha = 1$ .

**d'Alembert's test** Suppose the following limit exists for  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$

$$\alpha = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n}$$

Then

(a) if  $\alpha < 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges;

(b) if  $\alpha > 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges;

(c) there exist both convergent and divergent series for which  $\alpha = 1$ .

**Note 8.2.** *This is obtained by setting  $c_n = 1$  in Kummer's test.*

**Raabe's test** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series with positive terms and

$$\alpha = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \left( \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} - 1 \right)$$

or equivalently

$$\frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} = 1 + \frac{\alpha}{n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \quad (n \rightarrow \infty)$$

Then

(a) if  $\alpha > 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges;

(b) if  $\alpha < 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges;

(c) there exist both convergent and divergent series for which  $\alpha = 1$ .

**Note 8.3.** *This is obtained by setting  $c_n = n$  in Kummer's test.*

**Bertrand's test** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series with positive terms and suppose the following limit exists.

$$\alpha = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \ln n \left[ n \left( \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} - 1 \right) - 1 \right]$$

Then

- (a) if  $\alpha > 1$ , the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges;
- (b) if  $\alpha < 1$ , the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges;
- (c) there exist both convergent and divergent series for which  $\alpha = 1$ .

**Note 8.4.** *This is obtained by setting  $c_n = n \ln n$  in Kummer's test.*

**Gauss's test** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series with positive terms and

$$\frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} = 1 + \frac{1}{n} + \frac{\alpha}{n \ln n} + o\left(\frac{1}{n \ln n}\right) \quad (n \rightarrow \infty)$$

Then

- (a) if  $\alpha > 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges;
- (b) if  $\alpha < 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges;
- (c) there exist both convergent and divergent series for which  $\alpha = 1$ .

**Unknown name's test** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series with positive terms. If for all  $n > n_0$ ,

$$(1 - \sqrt[n]{a_n}) \frac{n}{\ln n} \geq p > 1$$

then it converges. If for all  $n > n_0$ ,

$$(1 - \sqrt[n]{a_n}) \frac{n}{\ln n} \leq 1$$

then it diverges.

**Lobachevsky's test** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series with positive terms. If  $\{a_n\}$  tends to 0 monotonically, then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ converges} \iff \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_m \cdot 2^{-m} \text{ converges}$$

where  $p_m$  is the maximum number that satisfies

$$a_n \geq 2^{-m}$$



**Logarithm test** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series with positive terms. If for all  $n > n_0$

$$\frac{\ln(1/a_n)}{\ln n} \geq p > 1$$

then it converges. If for all  $n > n_0$

$$\frac{\ln(1/a_n)}{\ln n} \leq 1$$

then it diverges.

**Maclaurin-Cauchy integral test** Suppose  $f : [1, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a decreasing function assuming only nonnegative values. If the sequence  $\{a_n\}$  is such that

$$a_n = f(n)$$

then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges if and only if  $\int_1^{+\infty} f(x)dx$  converges.

**Ermakov's test** Suppose  $f : [1, +\infty) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a positive and decreasing function. If there exists  $x_0 \geq 1$ , such that for all  $x \geq x_0$

(a)  $\frac{f(e^x) \cdot e^x}{f(x)} \leq q < 1$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n)$  converges;

(b)  $\frac{f(e^x) \cdot e^x}{f(x)} \geq 1$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n)$  diverges.

**Abel-Dini theorem** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} d_n$  be a series with positive terms and  $D_n$  the partial sum of it. If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} d_n$  diverges, then so does  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{d_n}{D_n}$ . However,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{d_n}{D_n^{1+\sigma}}$  converges for all  $\sigma > 0$ .

**Proof 8.1.** Use the Cauchy criterion for the divergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} d_n$  and the finite increment theorem on  $\int \frac{dx}{x^{1+\sigma}} = -\frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{1}{x^\sigma}$  for the convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{d_n}{D_n^{1+\sigma}}$

**Dini's theorem** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$  be a series with positive terms and  $\gamma_n$  the  $n$ th remainder of it. If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$  is convergent, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{\gamma_{n-1}}$  diverges. However,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{\gamma_{n-1}^{1-\sigma}}$  converges for  $0 < \sigma < 1$ .

**Existence of a slower convergent series** For every convergent series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n$ , there exists a slower convergent series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\sqrt{\gamma_{n-1}} - \sqrt{\gamma_n})$$

where  $\gamma_n$  is the remainder.

**Existence of a slower divergent series** For every divergent series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} d_n$ , there exists a slower divergent series

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\sqrt{D_n} - \sqrt{D_{n-1}})$$

where  $D_n$  is the partial sum and  $D_0 = 0$ .

## 8.2 Convergence of Numerical Series with Arbitrary Terms

**The Cauchy criterion** The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$  converges if and only if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ , such that for all  $m \geq n > N$ ,

$$|a_n + \cdots + a_m| < \varepsilon$$

**Comparison theorem (for nonnegative series)** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  be series with nonnegative terms. If there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $a_n \leq b_n$  for all  $n > N$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n < +\infty &\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n < +\infty \\ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = +\infty &\implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n = +\infty \end{aligned}$$

**Cauchy's test** Let  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  be a series and

$$\alpha = \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|a_n|}$$

Then the following are true:

- (a) if  $\alpha < 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges absolutely;
- (b) if  $\alpha > 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges;
- (c) there exist both absolutely convergent and divergent series for which  $\alpha = 1$ .

**d'Alembert's test** Suppose the following limit exists for  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$

$$\alpha = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \right|$$

Then

- (a) if  $\alpha < 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges absolutely;
- (b) if  $\alpha > 1$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  diverges;
- (c) there exist both absolutely convergent and divergent series for which  $\alpha = 1$ .

**Alternating series test (1): Leibniz series** If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n$  is such that for some  $N \in \mathbb{N}$ ,

$$0 \leq a_{n+1} < a_n, \quad \forall n > N$$

and

$$a_n \rightarrow 0 \quad (n \rightarrow \infty)$$

then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n+1} a_n$  converges.

**Alternating series test (2)** Let  $a_n > 0$ . If

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n \left( \frac{a_n}{a_{n+1}} - 1 \right) = \lambda > 0$$

then the alternating series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} a_n$  converges.

**Property of Leibniz series** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} a_n$  is a Leibniz series, then

$$\left| \sum_{n=N}^{N+p} (-1)^{n-1} a_n \right| \leq a_N$$

**Abel's test** Let  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  be two sequences of real numbers. If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  is convergent and  $\{|a_n|\}$  is monotonic and bounded, then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n b_n$$

converges.

**Dirichlet's test** Let  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  be two sequences of real numbers. If  $\sum_{n=1}^m b_n$  is bounded and  $\{a_n\}$  monotonically tends to 0, then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n b_n$$

converges.

### 8.3 Operations on Numerical Series

**Absolute convergence** Absolute convergence implies convergence.

**Equivalent condition for absolute convergence**

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |a_n| < +\infty \iff \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^+, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^- < +\infty$$

**Sufficient condition for absolute convergence** If for all sequences  $\{x_n\}$  that tends to 0, the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x_n$  converges, then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges absolutely. The condition “tends to” cannot be weakened to “monotonically tends to”, for example,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} x_n$ .

**Change of order in absolutely convergent series** Any change of order of the terms in an absolutely convergent series does not affect its convergence and the value it converges to.

**Necessary condition for conditional convergence**

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \text{ converges conditionally} \implies \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^+ \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^- = +\infty$$

The converse is not true, for example,  $a_n = (-1)^{n-1}$ .

**Note 8.5.** *Conditional convergence also implies that*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{S_n^+}{S_n^-} = 1$$

**Riemann's theorem for conditionally convergent series** If a series is conditionally convergent, then by reordering the terms one can obtain a new series converging to any preassigned number, including  $\pm\infty$ .

**Cauchy's theorem for the product of series** If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converge absolutely to  $A, B$  respectively, then the sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_i b_j$$

where the summation can happen in any order of the terms, converges absolutely to  $AB$ .

**Mertens' theorem for Cauchy product** If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converge to  $A, B$  respectively, and at least one of them converges absolutely, then the Cauchy product of the two series converges to  $AB$ .

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=1}^n a_k b_{n+1-k} \right) = AB$$

**Abel's theorem for Cauchy product** If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n, \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n$  converge to  $A, B$  respectively, and the Cauchy product of them converges, it converges to  $AB$ .

**Pringsheim's theorem for Cauchy product** Let  $\{a_n\}$  and  $\{b_n\}$  be sequences that tends to 0 monotonically and denote the Cauchy product of the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} a_n = A$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} b_n = B$  by  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} c_n$ , where  $c_n = \sum_{k=1}^n (-1)^{n-1} a_k b_{n+1-k}$ . The following conditions are equivalent:

1.  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (-1)^{n-1} c_n$  is convergent.
2.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} c_n = 0$
3.  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n (b_1 + \cdots + b_n) = 0$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n (a_1 + \cdots + a_n) = 0$ .

## 9 Infinite Products

### 9.1 Convergence of Infinite products

**A sufficient condition for convergence** A sufficient condition for the convergence of  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 + a_n)$  is that  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln(1 + a_n)$  converges.

**Theorem** If  $a_n > 0$  (resp.  $a_n < 0$ ) for every sufficiently large  $n$ , then  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 + a_n)$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges and diverges simultaneously.

**Theorem** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^2$  converges, then  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 + a_n)$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges and diverges simultaneously.

**Theorem** If  $-1 < a_n < 0$ , then the divergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  implies the divergence of  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} (1 + a_n)$  to 0.

**Theorem** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges but  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n^2$  diverges, then  $\prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln(1 + a_n)$  diverges to 0.

### 9.2 Operations on Infinite Products

**Absolute convergence** Absolute convergence implies convergence.

**Change of order in absolutely convergent series** Any change of order of the terms in an absolutely convergent infinite product does not affect its convergence and the value it converges to.

**Riemann's theorem for conditionally convergent infinite products** If an infinite product is conditionally convergent, then by reordering the terms one can obtain a new infinite product converging to any preassigned positive number, or diverging to  $+\infty$  or 0.

## 10 Series of Functions

### 10.1 Convergence of Series of Functions

**Cauchy Criterion for Uniform Convergence** The series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(x)$  converges uniformly on  $E$  if and only if for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$|a_n(x) + \cdots + a_m(x)| < \varepsilon$$

for all natural numbers  $m, n$  satisfying  $m \geq n > N$  and every  $x \in E$ .

**Comparison theorem** If the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(x)$  and  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n(x)$  are such that  $|a_n(x)| \leq b_n(x)$  for every  $x \in E$  and for all sufficiently large indices  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then the uniform convergence of the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n(x)$  on  $E$  implies the absolute and uniform convergence of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(x)$  on  $E$ .

**Weierstrass  $M$ -test for uniform convergence** If for  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(x)$  one can exhibit a convergent numerical series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M_n$  such that  $\sup_{x \in E} |a_n(x)| \leq M_n$  for all sufficiently large  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , then  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(x)$  converges absolutely and uniformly on  $E$ .

**The Abel-Dirichlet test for uniform convergence** A sufficient condition for uniform convergence on  $E$  of  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(x)b_n(x)$  where  $a_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  are complex-valued functions and  $b_n : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  are real-valued functions is that either pair of the following be satisfied:

1. (Dirichlet)

( $\alpha_1$ ) the partial sums  $s_k(x) = \sum_{n=1}^k a_n(x)$  are uniformly bounded on  $E$ ;

( $\beta_1$ )  $b_n(x)$  tends monotonically and uniformly to 0 on  $E$ ;

2. (Abel)

( $\alpha_1$ )  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n(x)$  converges uniformly on  $E$ ;

( $\beta_1$ )  $b_n(x)$  is monotonic and uniformly bounded on  $E$ .

## 10.2 Convergence of Power Series

**Uniqueness of power series** If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n$  in a neighborhood of  $x = 0$ , then  $a_n = b_n$ .

**Proposition 1.** If a power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z - z_0)^n$  converges at a point  $\zeta \neq z_0$ , then it converges absolutely and uniformly in any disk  $K_q = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - z_0| < q|\zeta - z_0|\}$ , where  $0 < q < 1$ .

**Nature of convergence of a power series (Cauchy-Hadamard)** A power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z - z_0)^n$  converges in the disk  $K = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : |z - z_0| < R\}$  whose radius of convergence is determined by the Cauchy-Hadamard formula  $R = \left( \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt[n]{|c_n|} \right)^{-1}$ . Outside the disk the series diverges. On any closed disk contained in the interior of the disk  $K$  of convergence of the series, a power series converges absolutely and uniformly.

**Proof 10.1.** Use Weierstrass  $M$ -test.

**Convergence at the endpoint (1)** If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  diverges at the endpoint  $x = R$  of its disk of convergence, then the series does not converge uniformly on  $[0, R]$ .

**Convergence at the endpoint (2)** If  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges at the endpoint  $x = R$  of its disk of convergence, then the series converges uniformly on  $[0, R]$ .

**So-called second Abel theorem on power series** If a power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z - z_0)^n$  converges at  $\zeta \in \mathbb{C}$ , then it converges uniformly on the closed interval with endpoints  $[z_0, \zeta]$ .

**Proposition 2.** If a power series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n (z - z_0)^n$  converges at  $\zeta$ , it converges uniformly on the closed interval  $[z_0, \zeta]$  from  $z_0$  to  $\zeta$ , and the sum of the series is continuous on that interval.

**Abel summation** Abel's method of summing  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n$  is to define the sum as

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n = \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n$$



If the left-hand side exists, then it is consistent with the conventional case; if not, it may happen that the right-hand side exists while the left-hand side does not, and thus assign to the divergent series a new meaning.

**Proposition 3.** Let  $K \subset \mathbb{C}$  be the convergence disk for  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n(z - z_0)^n$ . If  $K$  contains more than just the point  $z_0$ , then the sum of the series  $f(z)$  is differentiable inside  $K$  and

$$f'(z) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n c_n (z - z_0)^{n-1}$$

Moreover, the function  $f(z) : K \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  can be integrated over any path  $\gamma : [0, 1] \rightarrow K$ , and if  $[0, 1] \ni t \xrightarrow{\gamma} z(t) \in K$ ,  $z(0) = z_0$ , and  $z(1) = z$ , then

$$\int_{\gamma} f(z) dz = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{c_n}{n+1} (z - z_0)^{n+1}$$

**Tauber's theorem (1)** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n = A(c, 1)$  and  $a_n = o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$ , then the series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n$  converges in the ordinary sense to the same sum.

**Tauber's theorem (1')** If the radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  is  $R = 1$  and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n = A, \text{ then}$$

$$a_n = o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right) \implies \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = A$$

**Tauber's theorem (2)** If the radius of convergence of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  is  $R = 1$  and

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n = A, \text{ then}$$

$$a_n \geq 0 \ (\forall n \in \mathbb{N}) \implies \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n = A$$

**Tauber's theorem (3)** Suppose  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  converges for  $|x| < 1$  and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n =$

$A$ . If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{a_1 + 2a_2 + \dots + na_n}{n} = 0$ , then the series  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n$  converges to  $A$  in the ordinary sense.

**Expansion into Taylor series** A sufficient condition for a  $C^\infty(x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$  function  $f$  to be Taylor expandable at  $x_0$  is that its derivative of every order is uniformly bounded on  $(x_0 - R, x_0 + R)$ .

### 10.3 Operations on Power Series

**Integral of a power series** A power series  $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  can be integrated over the interval from 0 to  $x$ , where  $0 < |x| < R$ , and the integral is

$$\int_0^x f(x) dx = a_0 x + \frac{a_1}{2} x^2 + \frac{a_2}{3} x^3 + \cdots + \frac{a_{n-1}}{n} x^n + \cdots$$

**Derivative of a power series** A power series  $f(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  is differentiable inside its convergence disk, and the derivative is

$$f'(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n a_n x^{n-1}$$

**Product of power series** If  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n$ ,  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_n x^n$  both have convergence radius  $R$ , then for all  $x \in (-R, R)$ ,

$$\left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n \right) \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} b_n x^n \right) = \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n x^n \right)$$

where  $c_n = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k b_{n-k}$ .

**Substituting a power series into another one** If  $\varphi(y)$  can be expanded into the power series on  $(-\rho, \rho)$

$$\varphi(y) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} h_n y^n$$

while  $y = f(x)$  can be expanded on  $(-R, R)$  as follows

$$y = f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n x^n$$

in such a way that  $|a_0| = |f(0)| < \rho$ , then for sufficiently small  $x$ ,  $|f(x)| < \rho$ , therefore the composite  $\varphi(f(x))$  exists and can be expanded into a power series.

**Proof 10.2.** See [Fichtenholz, pp.408, term 446].

**Inverse of a power series** If  $f(x)$  can be expanded into a power series  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n x^n$  in a neighborhood of  $x = 0$  and  $a_0 \neq 0$ , then  $\frac{1}{f(x)}$  can also be expanded into a power series near  $x = 0$ .

## 10.4 Taylor/Maclaurin Series

**Sufficient condition for a function to be Taylor expandable** If all derivatives of  $f$  are uniformly bounded on  $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ , that is,

$$\exists M \in \mathbb{R}, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}, \forall x \in (x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta), |f^{(n)}(x)| \leq M$$

then  $f$  can be expanded into its Taylor series on  $(x_0 - \delta, x_0 + \delta)$ .

## 11 Sum of Divergent Series

### 11.1 Abel

## 12 Fourier Series

### 12.1 Fourier Series in General

**Orthogonal complement** Let  $\{l_k\}$  be a finite or countable orthogonal system in  $X$ , and suppose the Fourier series  $x_l$  of  $x$  converges to  $x_l \in X$ . Then  $h = x - x_l$  is orthogonal to  $x_l$ , to the entire space generated by  $\{l_k\}$ , and to the closure of that.

**Length of orthogonal complement** Since  $x = h + x_l$  is a decomposition into orthogonal vectors, their lengths satisfy:

$$\begin{aligned} \|x\|^2 &= \|h\|^2 + \|x_l\|^2 \\ &= \|h\|^2 + \sum_k \frac{|\langle x, l_k \rangle|^2}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle} \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \|x - x_l\|^2 &= \|x\|^2 - \|x_l\|^2 \\ &= \|x\|^2 - \sum_k \frac{|\langle x, l_k \rangle|^2}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle} \\ &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

**Bessel's inequality**  $\|x\|^2 \geq \|x_l\|^2$  is the *Bessel's equality*. It can be written in terms of the Fourier coefficients.

$$\begin{aligned}\|x\|^2 &\geq \sum_k \frac{|\langle x, l_k \rangle|^2}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle} \quad (\text{Orthogonal system}) \\ \|x\|^2 &\geq \sum_k |\langle x, e_k \rangle|^2 \quad (\text{Orthonormal system})\end{aligned}$$

**Extremal property** The Fourier series  $x_l$  (if convergent) of a vector  $x$  in an orthonormal system  $\{e_k\}$  give the best approximation in  $L = \langle\langle \{e_k\} \rangle\rangle$ .

$$\forall y \in L, \|x - x_l\| \leq \|x - y\|$$

and

$$\|x - x_l\| = \|x - y\| \iff y = x_l$$

**Parseval's equality** For  $x \in X$  and an orthogonal system  $\{l_k\}$  in  $X$ , the equality

$$\|x\|^2 = \sum_k \frac{|\langle x, l_k \rangle|^2}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle}$$

is called **Parseval's equality**. It holds if the Fourier expansion of  $x$  equals itself.

**Convergence conditions** In a complete normed vector space  $X$ , given an orthogonal system  $\{l_k\}$ , the following are equivalent:

1.  $x$  can be approximated with arbitrary accuracy by vectors in  $\{l_k\}$ .
2. Fourier expansion holds for  $x$  with respect to  $\{l_k\}$ .
3. Parseval's equality holds for  $x$  and  $\{l_k\}$ .

**Note 12.1.** *In other words, the approximating sequence converges to its Fourier expansion.*

**Convergence in a complete space** The Fourier series of any vector is convergent if the space is complete.

**Completeness conditions** Let there be an inner product space  $X$  and  $\{l_k\}$  a finite or countable orthogonal system in  $X$ . The following are equivalent.

1.  $\{l_k\}$  is complete with respect to  $E \subset X$ .

2. Every  $x \in E \subset X$  can be approximated with arbitrary accuracy by finite linear combinations of  $\{l_k\}$ .
3. Fourier expansion holds for all  $x \in E \subset X$ .

$$x = \sum_k \frac{\langle x, l_k \rangle}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle} l_k$$

4. Parseval's equality holds for all  $x \in E \subset X$ .

$$\|x\|^2 = \sum_k \frac{|\langle x, l_k \rangle|^2}{\langle l_k, l_k \rangle}$$

**Properties of a complete system** The following are true.

1. A vector that is orthogonal to a complete system has norm 0.
2. Expansion into a complete system is unique, that is, if  $x, y$  has the same Fourier series with respect to a complete system, then  $\|x - y\| = 0$ .

**Trigonometric system is complete** The trigonometric system

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \frac{\cos x}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \frac{\sin x}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \dots, \frac{\cos kx}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \frac{\sin kx}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \dots \right\}$$

is complete in the space of all ISI<sup>2</sup> functions on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ . That is, every ISI function on  $[-\pi, \pi]$  can be approximated with arbitrary accuracy in the sense of the norm

$$\|f\| = \sqrt{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^2(x) dx}$$

Moreover, by the extremal property of the Fourier coefficients, the approximating sequence can be chosen exactly as the partial sums of its Fourier series.

## 12.2 Trigonometric Series

In this part of the subsection,  $f$  is assumed to be IAI<sup>3</sup> on  $[-\pi, \pi]$  and has period  $2\pi$  unless otherwise specified, and  $T(f)$  denotes the trigonometric series of  $f$  (the partial sum is denoted  $T_n(f)$ ).

**Properties of coefficients** The following are true.

---

<sup>2</sup>Integrable and square-integrable, which will be denoted by  $\mathcal{R}_2$

<sup>3</sup>Integrable and absolutely integrable

$$1. \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n(f) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} b_n(f) = 0$$

2. If  $f'$  is IAI on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ ,  $f(-\pi) = f(\pi)$ , then

$$a_n = o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right), b_n = o\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

3. If  $f$  is monotonic on  $(-\pi, \pi)$ , then

$$a_n = O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right), b_n = O\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)$$

$$4. \begin{aligned} f(x + \pi) = f(x) &\implies a_{2n-1} = b_{2n-1} = 0 \\ f(x + \pi) = -f(x) &\implies a_{2n} = b_{2n} = 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$5. f \text{ is monotonically increasing on } (0, 2\pi) \implies b_n \geq 0$$

$$6. f \text{ is monotonically decreasing on } (0, 2\pi) \implies b_n \leq 0$$

7.  $f$  is bounded, has period  $2\pi$ , and satisfies the Lipschitz condition of order  $\alpha$ , that is,

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L |x - y|^\alpha$$

then

$$a_n = O\left(\frac{1}{n^\alpha}\right), \quad b_n = O\left(\frac{1}{n^\alpha}\right)$$

**Localization** The convergence of the Fourier series of  $f$  at  $x$  is only determined by the behavior of  $f$  near  $x$ .

**Dini's test**

$$\exists s \in \mathbb{R}, \exists \delta > 0, \frac{f(x+t) + f(x-t) - 2s}{t} \text{ is IAI on } [0, \delta] \implies T(f)(x) = s$$

**Test of convergence by Lipschitz**

$$\exists \alpha \in (0, 1], f \in \text{Lip}^\alpha(x) \implies T(f)(x) = \frac{f(x^+) + f(x^-)}{2}$$

**Note 12.2.**  $f \in \text{Lip}^\alpha(x)$  means  $f$  satisfies the Lipschitz condition of order  $\alpha$  near  $x$ .

**Test of convergence by derivative**

$$\begin{aligned} \exists \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(x+t) - f(x^+)}{t}, \exists \lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(x-t) - f(x^-)}{-t} \\ \implies T(f)(x) = \frac{f(x^+) + f(x^-)}{2} \end{aligned}$$

### Test of convergence by piecewise differentiability

$$f \text{ is piecewise differentiable on } [-\pi, \pi] \implies T(f)(x) = \frac{f(x^+) + f(x^-)}{2}$$

### Fejér's theorem

$$\exists f(x^-), \exists f(x^+) \implies T(f)(x) \stackrel{\text{Cesàro}}{=} \frac{f(x^+) + f(x^-)}{2}$$

### Corollary

$$\exists f(x^-), \exists f(x^+), \exists T(f)(x) \implies T(f)(x) = \frac{f(x^+) + f(x^-)}{2}$$

### Fejér's theorem

$$f \in C(\mathbb{R}), f \text{ has period } 2\pi \implies \forall x \in \mathbb{R}, T_n(f)(x) \stackrel{\text{Cesàro}}{\rightrightarrows} f(x)$$

**Weierstrass's theorem**  $f \in C[-\pi, \pi], f(-\pi, \pi) \implies f$  can be uniformly approximated by trigonometric polynomials.

In the following part of this subsection  $f$  is assumed to be ISI on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

**Trigonometric system is complete** The trigonometric system

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \frac{\cos x}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \frac{\sin x}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \dots, \frac{\cos kx}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \frac{\sin kx}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \dots \right\}$$

is complete in the space of all ISI functions on  $[-\pi, \pi]$ . That is, every ISI function on  $[-\pi, \pi]$  can be approximated with arbitrary accuracy in the sense of the norm

$$\|f\| = \sqrt{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^2(x) dx}$$

Moreover, by the extremal property of the Fourier coefficients, the approximating sequence can be chosen exactly as the partial sums of its Fourier series.

**Coefficients** If  $f$  has the Fourier series

$$T(f)(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx)$$

then the Fourier coefficients with respect to the system

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \frac{\cos x}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \frac{\sin x}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \dots, \frac{\cos kx}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \frac{\sin kx}{\sqrt{\pi}}, \dots \right\}$$

is

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 &= \frac{\sqrt{\pi}a_0}{\sqrt{2}} \\ c_{2k-1} &= \sqrt{\pi}a_k \\ c_{2k} &= \sqrt{\pi}b_k \end{aligned}$$

**Convergence of Fourier series** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}_2[-\pi, \pi]$ , then the Fourier series of  $f$  converges to  $f$  in the sense of the norm  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (\cdot, \cdot) dx$ .

**Bessel's inequality** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}_2[-\pi, \pi]$  has the Fourier series  $T(f)(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx)$ , then Bessel's inequality gives

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^2(x) dx \geq \sum_{k=0}^{2n} c_k^2 = \pi \left( \frac{a_0^2}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^n (a_k^2 + b_k^2) \right)$$

**Parseval's equality** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}_2[-\pi, \pi]$  has the Fourier series  $T(f)(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx)$ , then Parseval's equality gives

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f^2(x) dx = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} c_k^2 = \pi \left( \frac{a_0^2}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k^2 + b_k^2) \right)$$

**Parseval's equality of an inner product** If  $f, g \in \mathcal{R}_2[-\pi, \pi]$  have the Fourier series  $T(f)(x) = \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx)$ ,  $T(g)(x) = \frac{\alpha_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (\alpha_k \cos kx + \beta_k \sin kx)$  respectively, then the Parseval's equality for their inner product is:

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)g(x) dx = \pi \left( \frac{a_0\alpha_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} ((a_k + \alpha_k)^2 + (b_k + \beta_k)^2) \right)$$



**Termwise integration** If  $f \in \mathcal{R}_2[-\pi, \pi]$  has the Fourier series

$$f(x) \sim \frac{a_0}{2} + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx)$$

then the integral of  $f$  over  $[a, b] \subset [-\pi, \pi]$  is

$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = \int_a^b \frac{a_0}{2} dx + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \int_a^b (a_k \cos kx + b_k \sin kx) dx$$

## 12.3 The Fourier Transform

In this subsection,  $f$  is assumed to be IAI on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Coefficients** If  $f$  is IAI on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then the coefficients

$$a(u) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) \cos ut dt, \quad b(u) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) \sin ut dt$$

that appear in the Fourier integral are uniformly continuous on  $(-\infty, +\infty)$ .

**The partial Fourier integral (1)** The partial Fourier integral of  $f$  is

$$\begin{aligned} S(\lambda, x) &= \int_0^\lambda (a(u) \cos ux + b(u) \sin ux) du \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\lambda du \left( \cos ux \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) \cos ut dt + \sin ux \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) \sin ut dt \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\lambda du \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) (\cos ux \cos ut + \sin ux \sin ut) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\lambda du \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) \cos(u(x-t)) dt \end{aligned}$$

**The partial Fourier integral (2)** Let  $f$  be IAI on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then the partial Fourier integral above may be integrated in a different order, which then gives:

$$\begin{aligned} S(\lambda, x) &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\lambda du \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) \cos(u(x-t)) dt \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t) dt \int_0^\lambda \cos(u(x-t)) du \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{+\infty} (f(x+t) + f(x-t)) \frac{\sin \lambda t}{t} dt \end{aligned}$$

**Localization theorem** The convergence of the Fourier integral  $S(+\infty, x)$  of  $f$  is determined only by the local behavior of  $f$  near  $x$ .

**Dini's theorem** Let  $f$  be IAI over  $\mathbb{R}$ . If there exists  $s$  for a fixed  $x$ , such that  $\frac{f(x+t)+f(x-t)-2s}{t}$  is IAI on some interval  $[0, \delta]$ , then the Fourier integral of  $f$  converges to  $s$  at  $x$ .

**Sufficient condition for convergence** Let  $f$  be IAI on  $\mathbb{R}$  and have generalized left and right derivatives at  $x$ . Then the Fourier integral of  $f$  at  $x$  converges to  $\frac{f(x^+)+f(x^-)}{2}$ .

**Fourier cosine integral** Suppose the Fourier integral of  $f$  converges to  $f$  and let  $f$  be even. Then the Fourier integral gives:

$$f(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{+\infty} \cos ux \, du \int_0^{+\infty} f(t) \cos ut \, dt$$

**Fourier cosine transform** If we write the formula above as

$$f(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} \cos ux \, du \left( \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} f(t) \cos ut \, dt \right)$$

then by setting  $g(u) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} f(t) \cos ut \, dt$  it is obtained that

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} g(u) \cos ux \, du \\ g(u) &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} f(t) \cos ut \, dt \end{aligned}$$

We say  $f, g$  are the **Fourier cosine transforms** of each other.

**Fourier sine integral**

$$f(x) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^{+\infty} \sin ux \, du \int_0^{+\infty} f(t) \sin ut \, dt$$

**Fourier sine transform**

$$f(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} \sin ux \, du \left( \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} f(t) \sin ut \, dt \right)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x) &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} g(u) \sin ux du \\
g(u) &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} f(t) \sin ut dt
\end{aligned}$$

We say  $f, g$  are the **Fourier sine transforms** of each other.

## Part V

# Spaces

### 13 Continuous Multilinear Transformations $\mathcal{L}$

Throughout this section,  $X_1, \dots, X_n, Y$  will be normed vector spaces and  $\mathcal{L}(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y)$  will denote the space of all *continuous multilinear transformations* from  $X_1 \times \dots \times X_n$  to  $Y$ .

#### 13.1 Multilinear Transformations

**Continuity** The following are equivalent for a multilinear mapping  $A : X_1 \times \dots \times X_n \rightarrow Y$ .

1.  $A \in \mathcal{L}(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y)$
2.  $\|A\| < +\infty$
3.  $A$  is bounded.
4.  $A$  is continuous at  $(0, \dots, 0) \in X_1 \times \dots \times X_n$ .

**$\mathcal{L}$  as a normed space** The space  $\mathcal{L}(X_1, \dots, X_n; Y)$  is a normed vector space.

**Norm of a composite** Let  $X, Y, Z$  be normed spaces and  $A \in \mathcal{L}(X; Y)$ ,  $B \in \mathcal{L}(Y; Z)$ , then

$$\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|B\|$$

**Completeness**  $Y$  is complete  $\implies \mathcal{L}(X; Y)$  is complete.

#### 13.2 Linear Transformations on $\mathbb{R}^n$

In this subsection let  $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}(\mathbb{R}^n; \mathbb{R}^n)$ .

**Continuity** The following are true for a linear transformation  $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ .

1.  $A \in \mathcal{L}$
2.  $\|A\| < +\infty$
3.  $A$  is bounded.

**Dimension**  $\dim \mathcal{L} = n^2$

**Completeness** The space  $\mathcal{L}$  is a complete normed vector space.

**Properties of the norm** The following are true for  $A, B \in \mathcal{L}$ .

1.  $\|\lambda A\| = |\lambda| \|A\|$
2.  $\|A + B\| \leq \|A\| + \|B\|$
3.  $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\|$
4.  $\max_{1 \leq j \leq n} \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij}^2 \leq \|A\|^2 \leq \sum_{1 \leq i, j \leq n} a_{ij}^2$

**Norm of a composite** Let  $X, Y, Z$  be normed spaces and  $A \in \mathcal{L}(X; Y), B \in \mathcal{L}(Y; Z)$ , then

$$\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \cdot \|B\|$$