18.100A: Complete Lecture Notes

Lecture 25:

Power Series and the Weierstrass Approximation Theorem

Last time, we asked three questions about interchanging limits:

Question 1. Hence, we ask three questions about interchanging limits:

- 1. If $f_n: S \to \mathbb{R}$, f_n continuous and $f_n \to f$ pointwise or uniform, then is f continuous?
- 2. If $f_n: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$, f_n differentiable, and $f_n \to f$ with $f'_n \to g$, then is f differentiable and does g = f'?
- 3. If $f_n : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$, with f_n and f continuous such that $f_n \to f$, then does

$$\int_{a}^{b} f_{n} = \int_{a}^{b} f^{*}$$

The answer to the above questions are all **no**, if the convergence is pointwise as seen by the following counterexamples:

- 1. Let $f_n(x) = x^n$ on [0,1] is continuous $\forall n$. As we noted earlier, $f_n(x) \to f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \in [0,1) \\ 1 & x = 1 \end{cases}$. Notice that f is not continuous.
- 2. Let $f_n(x) = \frac{x^{n+1}}{n+1}$ on [0,1]. Then, $f_n \to 0$ pointwise on [0,1]. However,

$$f'_n(x) \to g(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x \in [0,1) \\ 1 & x = 1 \end{cases}$$

Thus, $g(x) \neq (0)' = 0$ at x = 1.

3. Consider the functions

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} 4n^2x & x \in \left[0, \frac{1}{2n}\right] \\ 4n - 4n^2x & x \in \left[\frac{1}{2n}, \frac{1}{n}\right] \\ 0 & x \in \left[\frac{1}{n}, 1\right] \end{cases}$$

as described in the previous lecture. Then, $f_n(x) \to 0$ pointwise on [0,1] as we showed last time. However,

$$\int_{0}^{1} f_{n} = \frac{1}{2} (\text{base})(\text{height}) = \frac{1}{2n} \cdot 2n = 1 \neq 0 = \int_{0}^{1} 0$$

We now prove that the answer to the three questions above is **yes** if convergence is uniform.

Theorem 2

If $f_n: S \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous for all $n, f: S \to \mathbb{R}$, and $f_n \to f$ uniformly, then f is continuous.

Proof: Let $c \in S$ and let $\epsilon > 0$. Since $f_n \to f$ uniformly, $\exists M \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n \ge M, \forall y \in S$,

$$|f_n(y) - f(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}.$$

Since $f_M: S \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous, $\exists \delta_0 > 0$ such that $\forall |x - c| < \delta_0$,

$$|f_M(x) - f_M(c)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}$$

Choose $\delta = \delta_0$. If $|x - c| < \delta$, then

$$|f(x) - f(c)| \le |f(x) + f_M(x)| + |f_M(c) - f(c)| + |f_M(x) - f_M(c)| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon.$$

Theorem 3	
If $f_n: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous for all $n, f: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ and $f_n \to f$ uniformly, t	hen

$$\int_{a}^{b} f_{n} \to \int_{a}^{b} f.$$

Proof: Let $\epsilon > 0$. Since $f_n \to f$ uniform, $\exists M_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n \ge M_0, \forall x \in [a, b]$,

$$|f_n(x) - f(x)| < \frac{\epsilon}{b-a}.$$

Then, for all $n \ge M = M_0$, we have

$$\left| \int_{a}^{b} f_{n} - \int_{a}^{b} f \right| \leq \int_{a}^{b} |f_{n} - f| < \int_{a}^{b} \frac{\epsilon}{b - a} = \epsilon.$$

Remark 4. Notationally, this states that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_{a}^{b} f_{n} = \int_{a}^{b} \lim_{n \to \infty} f_{n} = \int_{a}^{b} f.$$

Theorem 5

If $f_n: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuously differentiable, $f: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}, g: [a,b] \to \mathbb{R}$, and

 $f_n \to f$ pointwise, $f'_n \to g$ uniformly,

then f is continuously differentiable and g = f'.

Proof: By the FTC, $\forall n \forall x \in [a, b]$,

$$f_n(x) - f_n(a) = \int_a^x f'_n.$$

Thus, by the previous two theorems,

$$f(x) - f(a) = \lim_{n \to \infty} (f_n(x) - f_n(a))$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} \int_a^x f'_n$$
$$= \int_a^x g.$$

Therefore, $f(x) = f(a) + \int_a^x g$. Thus, by the FTC, f is differentiable and $f' = (\int_a^x g)' = g$.

We now return back to our study of power series, answering some questions we asked at the beginning of Lecture 23.

Theorem 6

Let $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j (x-x_0)^j$ be a power series of radius of convergence $p \in (0,\infty]$. Then, $\forall r \in (0,p), \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j (x-x_0)^j$ converges uniformly on $[x_0 - r, x_0 + r]$.

Proof: Let $r \in [0, p)$. Then, $\forall j \in \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}, \forall x \in [x_0 - r, x_0 + r],$

$$|a_j(x-x_0)^j| \le |a_j|r^j =: M_j$$

Now,

$$\lim j \to \infty M_j^{1/j} = \lim_{j \to \infty} |a_j|^{1/j} r = \begin{cases} \frac{r}{p} & p < \infty \\ 0 & p = \infty \end{cases}$$

since $p^{-1} = \lim_{j \to \infty} |a_j|^{1/j}$. Since r < p, we have

$$\lim_{j \to \infty} M_j^{1/j} < 1 \implies \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} M_j \text{ converges.}$$

By the Weierstrass M-test, it follows that $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j (x-x_0)^j$ converges uniformly on $[x_0 - r, x_0 + r]$.

Theorem 7

Let $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j (x - x_0)^j$ be a power series with radius of convergence $p \in (0, \infty]$. Then,

1. $\forall c \in (x_0 - p, x_0 + p), \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_j (x - x_0)^j$ is differentiable at c and

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\sum_{j=0}^{\infty}a_j(x-x_0)^j = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty}ja_j(x-x_0)^{j-1}.$$

2. $\forall a, b \text{ such that } x_0 - p < a < b < x_0 + p,$

$$\int_{a}^{b} \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_{J} (x - x_{0})^{j} \, \mathrm{d}x = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} a_{j} \left(\frac{(b - x_{0})^{j+1}}{j+1} - \frac{(a - x_{0})^{j+1}}{j+1} \right)$$

Remark 8. Since

$$\lim_{j \to \infty} ((j+1)|a_{j+1}|)^{1/j} = \lim_{j \to \infty} \left(((j+1)|a_{j+1}|^{1/(j+1)})^{(j+1)/j} = \lim_{k \to \infty} |a_k|^{1/k} = p,$$

1. implies $\sum a_j(x-x_0)^j$ is infinitely differentiable and

$$k!a_k = \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}^k}{\mathrm{d}x^k}\sum a_j(x-x_0)^j\right)\Big|_{x=x_0}$$

Weierstrass Approximation Theorem

Remark 9. This theorem essentially states: "Every continuous function on [a, b] is almost a polynomial."

Theorem 10 (Weierstrass Approximation Theorem) If $f \in C([a,b])$, there exists a sequence of polynomials $\{P_n\}$ such that

 $P_n \to f$ uniformly on [a, b].

The idea of the proof is to choose a suitable sequence of polynomials $\{Q_n\}_n$ such that Q_n behaves like a 'Dirac delta function' as $nto\infty$. Then, the sequence of polynomials $P_n(x) = \int_0^1 Q_n(x-t)f(t) dt$ converges to f(x) as $n \to \infty$. We will prove this momentarily, but first we need to do the ground work.

Notice that we only need to consider a = 0 and b = 1, with f(0) = f(1) = 0. If we prove this case, then for a general $\tilde{f} \in C([0, 1])$, \exists a sequence of polynomials

$$P_n(x) \to \tilde{f}(x) - \tilde{f}(0) - x(\tilde{f}(1) - \tilde{f}(0))$$
 uniformly.

Hence,

 $\tilde{P}_n(x) = P_n(x) + \tilde{f}(0) + x(\tilde{f}(1) - \tilde{f}(0)) \rightarrow \tilde{f}(x)$ uniformly.

Theorem 11 Let $c_n := (\int_{-1}^1 (1 - x^2)^n \, dx)^{-1} > 0$, and let

$$Q_n(x) = c_n(1-x^2)^n.$$

Then,

1. $\forall n, \int_{-1}^{1} Q_n = 1.$ 2. $\forall n, Q_n(x) \ge 0 \text{ on } [-1, 1], \text{ and}$ 3. $\forall \delta \in (0, 1), Q_n \to 0 \text{ uniformly on } \delta \le |x| \le 1.$

Before we prove this, here is a picture of Q_n :



Proof:

- 2. Immediately clear.
- 1. $\int_{-1}^{1} Q_n = c_n \int_{-1}^{1} (1-x^2)^n dx = 1$ by definition of c_n .
- 3. We first estimate c_n . We have for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $\forall x \in [-1, 1]$,

$$(1 - x^2)^n \ge 1 - nx^2.$$

We proved this way earlier in the course by induction, but it also follows from the calculus we have proven as

$$g(x) = (1 - x^2)^n - (1 - nx^2)$$

satisfies g(0) = 0, and

$$g'(x) = n \cdot 2x(1 - (1 - x^2)^{n-1}) \ge 0$$

in [0,1]. Thus, $g(x) \ge 0$ by the MVT.

Then,

$$\frac{1}{c_n} = \int_{-1}^{1} (1 - x^2)^n \, \mathrm{d}x$$
$$= 2 \int_{0}^{1} (1 - x^2)^n \, \mathrm{d}x$$
$$> 2 \int_{0}^{1/\sqrt{n}} (1 - x^2)^n \, \mathrm{d}x$$
$$\ge 2 \int_{0}^{1/\sqrt{n}} (1 - nx^2) \, \mathrm{d}x$$
$$= 2 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} - \frac{n}{3} \cdot n^{-3/2}\right)$$
$$= \frac{4}{3}\sqrt{n} > \sqrt{n}.$$

Therefore, $c_n < \sqrt{n}$.

Let $\delta > 0$. We note $\lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt{n}(1 - \delta^2)^n = 0$. Then,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} (\sqrt{n}(1-\delta^2)^n)^{1/n} = \lim_{n \to \infty} (n^{1/n})^{1/2}(1-\delta^2)$$
$$= 1 - \delta^2 < 1.$$

Therefore,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sqrt{n} (1 - \delta^2)^n = 0.$$

Let $\epsilon > 0$, and choose $M \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $n \ge M$,

$$\sqrt{n}(1-\delta^2)^n < \epsilon$$

Then, $\forall n \geq M$ and $\forall \delta \leq |x| \leq 1$,

$$|c_n(1-x^2)^n| < \sqrt{n}(1-x^2)^n \le \sqrt{n}(1-\delta^2)^n < \epsilon.$$

We now prove the Weierstrass Approximation Theorem.

Proof: Suppose $f \in C([0,1])$, f(0) = f(1) = 0. We extend f to an element of $C(\mathbb{R})$ by setting f(x) = 0 for all $x \notin [0,1]$. We furthermore define

$$P_n(x) = \int_0^1 f(t)Q_n(t-x) dt$$

= $\int_0^1 f(t)c_n(1-(t-x)^2)^n dt.$

Note that $P_n(x)$ is in fact a polynomial.

Furthermore, observe that for $x \in [0, 1]$,

$$P_n(x) = \int_0^1 f(t)Q_n(t-x) dt$$

= $\int_{-x}^{1-x} f(x+t)Q_n(t) dt$
= $\int_{-1}^1 f(x+t)Q_n(t) dt.$

The second equality is true by a change of variable, and the last equality is true as f(x+t) = 0 for $t \notin [-x, 1-x]$.

We now prove $P_n \to f$ uniformly on [0,1]. Let $\epsilon > 0$. Since f is uniformly continuous on [0,1], $\exists \delta > 0$ such that $\forall |x-y| \leq \delta$, $|f(x) - f(y)| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$. Let $C = \sup\{f(x) \mid x \in [0,1]\}$, which exists by the Min/Max theorem i.e. the EVT. Choose $M \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\forall n \geq M$,

$$\sqrt{n}(1-\delta^2)^n < \frac{\epsilon}{8C}.$$

Thus, $\forall n \geq M, \forall x \in [0, 1]$, by the previous theorem,

$$\begin{split} |P_n(x) - f(x)| &= \left| \int_{-1}^1 (f(x-t) - f(t))Q_n(t) \, \mathrm{d}t \right| \\ &\leq \int_{-1}^1 |f(x-t) - f(x)|Q_n(t) \, \mathrm{d}t \\ &\leq \int_{|t| \le \delta} |f(x-t) - f(x)|Q_n(t) \, \mathrm{d}t + \int_{\delta \le |t| \le 1} |f(x-t) - f(x)|Q_n(t) \, \mathrm{d}t \\ &\leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} \int_{|t| \le \delta} Q_n(t) \, \mathrm{d}t + \sqrt{n}(1-\delta^2)^n \int_{||\delta| \le |t| \le 1} 2C \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + 4C\sqrt{n}(1-\delta^2)^n \\ &< \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon. \end{split}$$

In the last minute of the course, Casey Rodriguez stated: "This was quite an experience; teaching to an empty room. I hope you did get something out of this class. Unfortunately I wasn't able to meet a lot of you, and that's one of the best parts of teaching...."

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