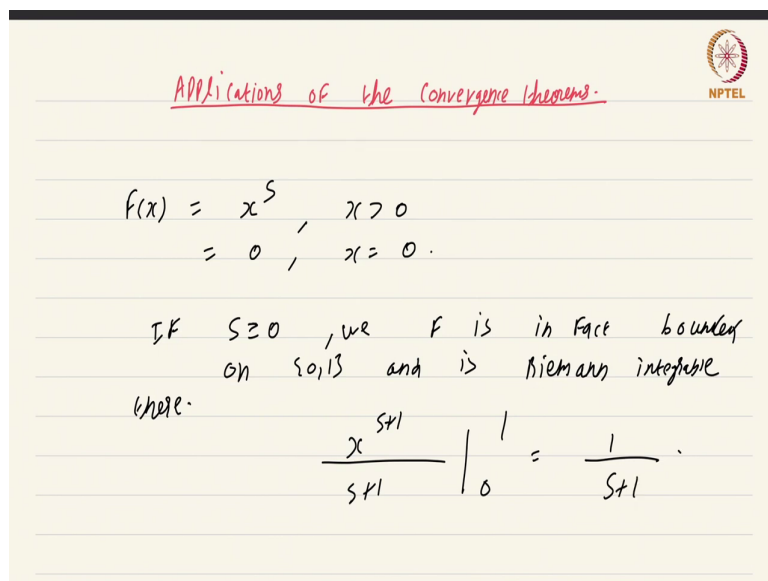



**Real Analysis II**  
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**Lecture - 29.2**  
**Applications of the Convergence Theorems**

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The slide contains handwritten notes in red ink. At the top right is the NPTEL logo. The title is 'Applications of the Convergence Theorems'. Below it, the function  $f(x) = x^S$  is defined for  $x > 0$  and  $f(x) = 0$  for  $x = 0$ . A note states that if  $S \geq 0$ , the function is bounded on  $[0, 1]$  and is Riemann integrable. The Riemann integral is then calculated as  $\int_0^1 x^{S+1} dx = \frac{1}{S+1}$ .



Applications of the Convergence Theorems.

$$f(x) = x^S, \quad x > 0$$
$$= 0, \quad x = 0.$$

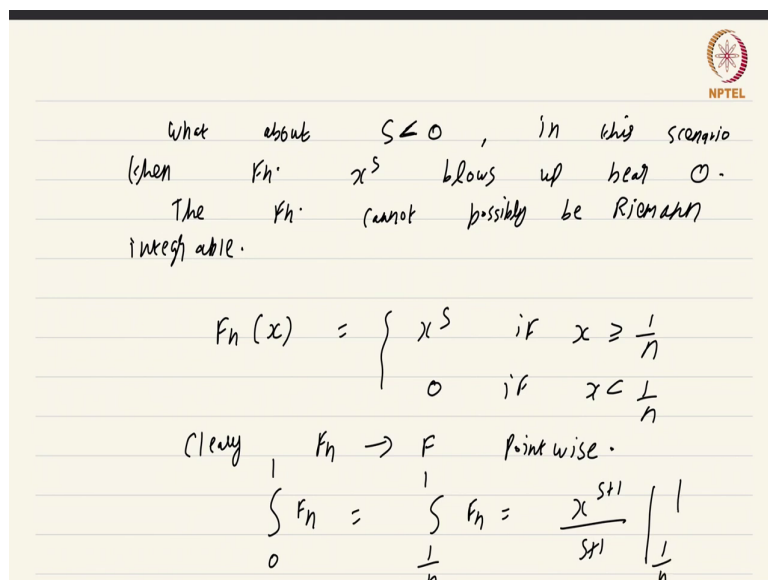
If  $S \geq 0$ , we  $f$  is in fact bounded on  $[0, 1]$  and is Riemann integrable there.

$$\int_0^1 x^{S+1} dx = \frac{1}{S+1}.$$

Let us see some Applications of the Convergence Theorems that we have studied. Let us begin with a simple application of the monotone convergence theorem. Consider the function  $F$  of  $x$  equal to  $x$  power  $S$ , where  $x$  is greater than 0 and 0 if  $x$  equal to 0. Look at this function. Now, if  $S$  is greater than or equal to 0, we know that  $F$  is in fact, bounded on close 0, 1 and is Riemann integrable there and it is Riemann integrable there.

And, what is the Riemann integral of this function going to be? Well it is just going to be  $x$  power  $S$  plus 1 by  $S$  plus 1 limits 0 to 1 which is just 1 by  $S$  plus 1, right.

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What about  $S < 0$ , in this scenario (then  $f_n$   $x^S$  blows up near 0. The  $f_n$  cannot possibly be Riemann integrable.

$$f_n(x) = \begin{cases} x^S & \text{if } x \geq \frac{1}{n} \\ 0 & \text{if } x < \frac{1}{n} \end{cases}$$

Clearly  $f_n \rightarrow f$  pointwise.

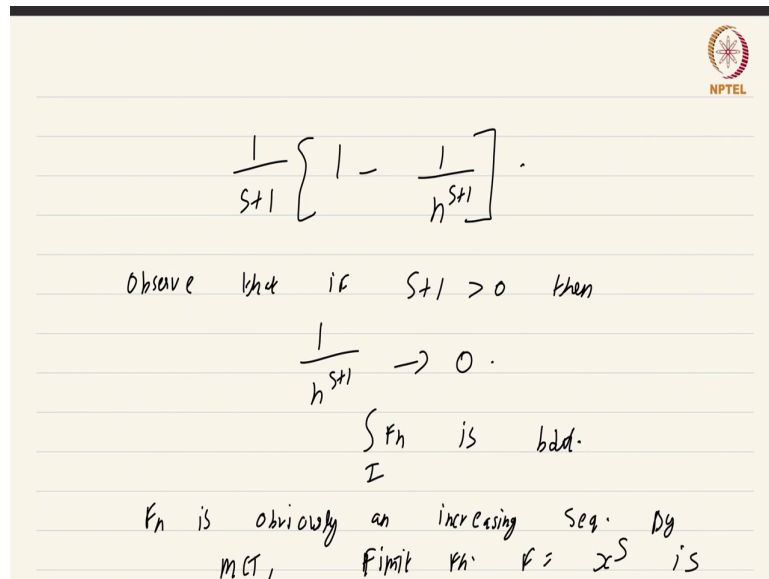
$$\int_0^1 f_n = \int_{\frac{1}{n}}^1 f_n = \frac{x^{S+1}}{S+1} \Big|_{\frac{1}{n}}^1$$

Now, what about  $S$  less than 0, ok? Well, then in this scenario in this scenario the function  $x$  power  $S$  blows up near 0. So, the function is cannot possibly be Riemann integrable cannot possibly be Riemann integrable, but is it Lebesgue integrable at least well we can see that.

How do we see that? Define the sequence of functions  $F_n$  of  $x$  by  $x$  power  $S$  if  $x$  is greater than or equal to  $1/n$  and 0 if  $x$  is less than  $1/n$ . What we are essentially doing is since the function blows up near 0; we are truncating the function at the point  $1/n$  and setting it to be 0 when it is closer when  $x$  is closer to 0 than  $1/n$ , ok. So, essentially what we have done is we have sort of cut the function of before it blows up. Clearly  $F_n$  converges to  $F$  point wise, right.

Furthermore, what is integral of  $F_n$  from 0 to 1? Well, it is just integral from 1 by  $n$  to 1 of  $F_n$  which is just going to be give which it is going to give us  $x$  power  $S$  plus 1 by  $S$  plus 1 with the limits 1 by  $n$  to 1.

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Handwritten mathematical derivation on a slide with an NPTEL logo in the top right corner.

$$\frac{1}{S+1} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{n^{S+1}} \right].$$

Observe that if  $S+1 > 0$  then

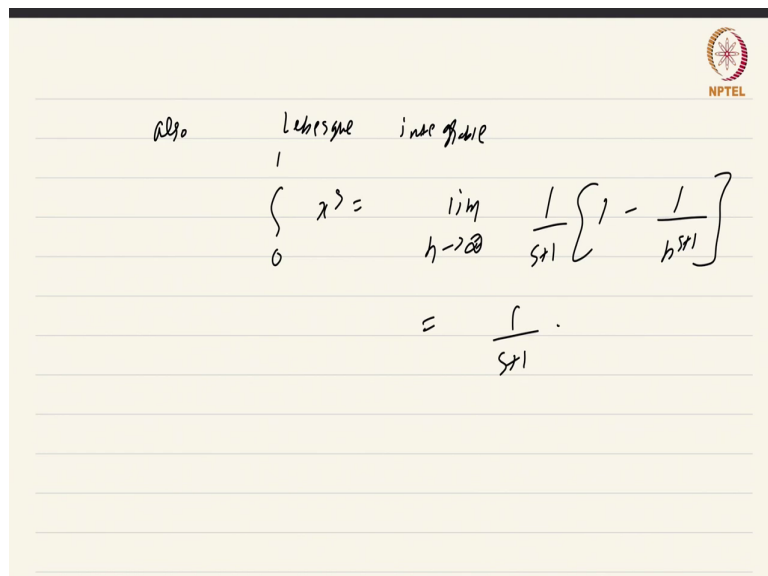
$$\frac{1}{n^{S+1}} \rightarrow 0.$$

$\int_I F_n$  is bdd.

$F_n$  is obviously an increasing seq. By MCT, limit  $F_n$  is  $x^S$  is

If you substitute this you will get 1 by  $S$  plus 1 into 1 minus 1 by  $n$  power  $S$  plus 1, ok. Now, observe that if  $S$  plus 1 is greater than 0, then 1 by  $n$  power  $S$  plus 1 converges to 0 ok which means that the sequence of integrals  $F_n$  is bounded. Furthermore,  $F_n$  is obviously an increasing sequence. obviously an increasing sequence.

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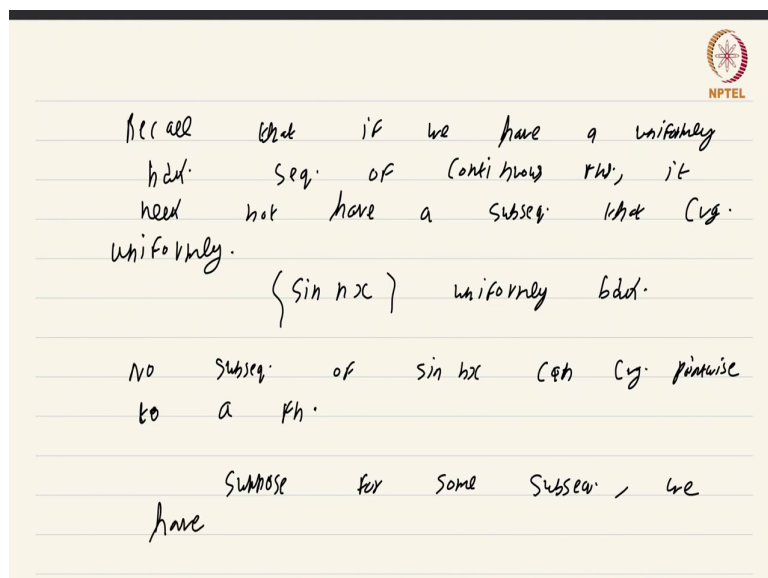
also Lebesgue integrable

$$\int_0^1 x^s = \lim_{h \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{s+1} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{h^{s+1}} \right]$$
$$= \frac{1}{s+1}.$$

Therefore, by the monotone convergence theorem by the monotone convergence theorem  $F$  the limit of that which is just one by not one by the limit function  $F$  the limit function  $F$  given by  $x$  power  $S$  is also Lebesgue integrable. And, its integral is limit  $n$  going to infinity  $1$  by  $S$  plus  $1$  into  $1$  minus  $1$  by  $n$  power  $S$  plus  $1$  which is just  $1$  by  $S$  plus  $1$ .

So, the functions  $x$  power  $S$  are all Lebesgue integrable provided  $S$  is greater than minus  $1$  and its integral is what you would expect  $1$  by  $S$  plus  $1$  excellent. So, this was one simple application of the monotone convergence theorem.

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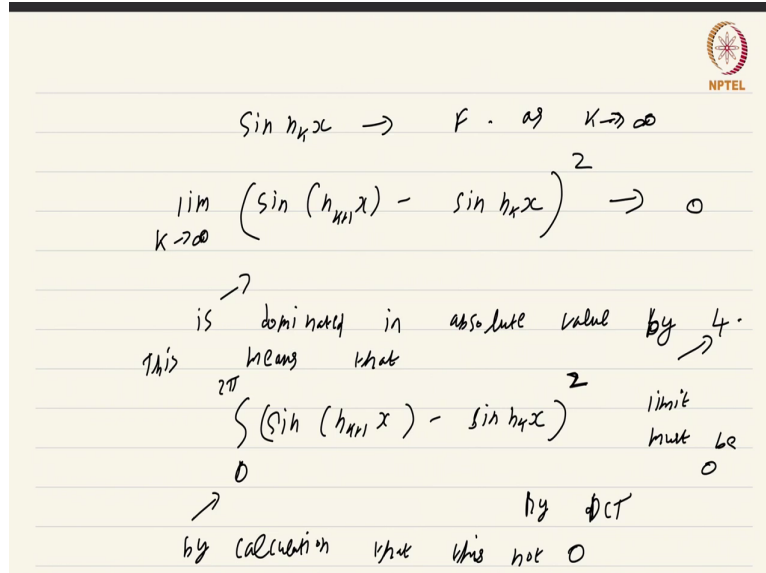
Now, let us see another application. Recall that if we have a uniformly bounded sequence of continuous functions it need not have a subsequence that converges uniformly. We have studied this extensively when we studied Ascoli Arzela to find out when you will have subsequences that are uniformly convergent.

In that context we have studied this example  $\sin nx$  which is uniformly bounded, this is a uniformly bounded sequence of continuous functions and we had actually shown by an haddock argument that no subsequence of  $\sin nx$  can converge point wise to a continuous function to a function forget continuity.

You cannot even have a point wise convergence subsequence of  $\sin nx$ , forget about uniformly convergence subsequence of  $\sin nx$  and we had constructed haddock clever

argument. Well, now we can give a more conceptual proof. Suppose, for some subsequence for some subsequence we have  $\sin n_K x$  converges to some function  $F$  let us say ok.

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$\sin n_K x \rightarrow F \text{ as } K \rightarrow \infty$   
 $\lim_{K \rightarrow \infty} (\sin(n_{K+1}x) - \sin n_K x)^2 \rightarrow 0$   
 is dominated in absolute value by 4.  
 This means that  
 $\int (\sin(n_{K+1}x) - \sin n_K x)^2$  limit must be 0  
 by calculation that this is not 0

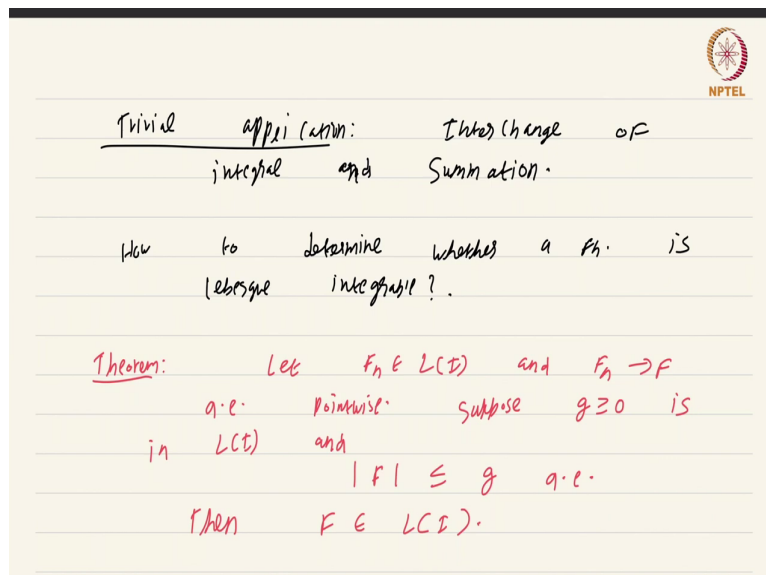
Now this just means that limit  $n$  going to infinity of  $\sin n_K + 1 x$  minus  $\sin n_K x$  whole squared this goes to 0, right. But, what is inside is dominated in absolute value by 4 right that is the maximum possible value that you can get for  $\sin n_K + 1 x$  minus  $\sin n_K x$  which means this means that integral over  $I$  or not  $I$  should mention what  $I$  is integral over 0 to  $2\pi$  of  $\sin n_K + 1 x$  minus  $\sin n_K x$  the whole squared this limit must be 0 as  $K$ .


One second I made a slight error this is  $K$  going to infinity ok here also it is as  $K$  goes to infinity ok. So, what was I saying yeah since we have this is dominated by 4 this means that  $\sin n_K + 1 x$  minus  $\sin n_K x$  the whole squared limit must be 0 by dominated convergence theorem.

Here we are using the fact that the function  $\chi$  is Lebesgue integrable on the interval  $0$  to  $2\pi$  it is obviously, because it is Riemann integrable there. But you can check by calculation check by calculation that this is not  $0$ , this is not  $0$ . I think it is  $\pi$  or  $2\pi$  or something like that.

Just evaluate this expression and do the integration and find out the value. You will notice that this limit is not going to be  $0$ , it is going to be  $\pi$  or  $2\pi$  or something like that. So, here is a scenario where we have shown that  $\sin nKx$  cannot possibly converge point wise to a function  $F$  that is not possible. It will violate it will violate the dominated convergence theorem, ok.

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Trivial application: Interchange of  
integral and summation.

How to determine whether a f.n. is  
Lebesgue integrable?

Theorem: Let  $f_n \in L(E)$  and  $f_n \rightarrow f$   
a.e. pointwise. Suppose  $g \geq 0$  is  
in  $L(E)$  and  
 $|f_n| \leq g$  a.e.  
Then  $f \in L(E)$ .

Yet another application is how to show ok of course, let me mention a trivial application interchange of integral and summation. So, I am not even going to elaborate this any further. So, let me just verbally say what I mean by this.

Suppose, if you have a sequence of Lebesgue integrable functions non negative and you look at their sums and let us say their sums converge to a function, then you can evaluate the integral of the sum as the sum of the integrals provided that the sums are all dominated by a single Lebesgue integrable function. So, I leave it to you to formulate a version of the Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem for series it is not too hard and it is very useful also, ok.

Finally, another application is how to determine how to determine whether a function is Lebesgue integrable? So, what happens is often we do not have the full force of Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem. We do not have  $f_n$ 's all dominated by  $g$ , we might have somewhat restrictive hypotheses. Let me just state that as a theorem.

Let  $f_n$  be Lebesgue integrable and  $f_n$  converge to  $f$  almost everywhere point wise. Suppose  $g$  greater than 0 is in  $L^1(I)$  and  $|f_n| \leq g$  almost everywhere, then  $f$  is Lebesgue integrable. Notice the crucial difference between this theorem and Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem. In Lebesgue's dominated convergence theorem we had that each  $f_n$  is dominated in its absolute value by  $g$ .

Here, only for the limit function we have that property, yet the function  $f$  will be Lebesgue integrable. This is very useful to show that certain functions are Lebesgue integrable. Let us see how to prove this.



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Proof:  $F_n(x) > g(x)$   
 $\downarrow \rightarrow$  can happen  
 $F_n(x) < -g(x)$   
 Modify  $F_n$  to get rid of bad points.  
 $g_n(x) = \max(\min(F_n, g), -g)$   $|F_n(x)| \leq g(x)$   
 $-g(x) \leq F_n(x) \leq g(x)$   $g_n \in LCT$   
 $|g_n| \leq g$  a.e.

Proof: Now, what can happen? It can happen that  $F_n$  of  $x$  is greater than or equal to or  $g$  of  $x$  or in fact, strictly greater than  $g$  of  $x$  or  $F_n$  of  $x$  is less than minus  $g$  of  $x$  ok, both of these can happen. At those points where  $F_n$  is less than  $g$  of  $x$  or  $F_n$  is greater than minus  $g$  of  $x$ , then we have that mod  $F_n$  of  $x$  is less than  $g$  less than or equal to  $g$  of  $x$  at those points.

But, there could be many such problematic points where either  $F_n$  is greater than  $g$  or  $F_n$  is less than minus  $g$ . So, what we are going to do is modify  $F_n$  to get rid of bad points to get rid of bad points. Well, how do we do that? Well, at those points where  $F_n$  is greater than  $g$  we are just going to truncate it to  $g$ . At those points where  $F_n$  is also less than minus  $g$  we are going to set the function to be minus  $g$ .

Well, there is a fancy formula you can write down that does the job for us. You define  $g_n$  of  $x$  to be the first you take the minimum you take the minimum of  $F_n$  and  $g$ , what this would

do is if it so happens that  $F_n$  exceeds  $g$ , then it will just truncate it to  $g$  at that point; wherever  $F_n$  is less than  $g$  this will continue the function  $g$   $n$  will continue to be  $F_n$ .

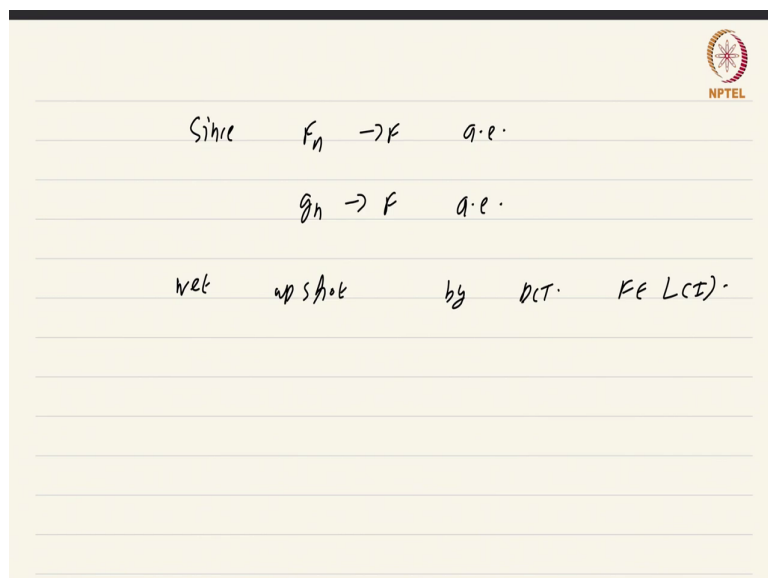
Now, this does not take care of those points where  $F_n$  is less than  $-g$ . So, to take care of that what you do is you put a  $-g$  here and take  $\max$ . So, let us think what happens. Let us take the three possibilities. Suppose, it happens that  $F_n(x)$  is less than or equal to  $g(x)$  and  $-g(x)$  is less than or equal to this that is we are in the good point  $x$  is a good point where everything is maintained.

Well, what will happen is when you take  $\min(F_n, g)$  you will end up with  $F_n$  and when you take  $\max(F_n, -g)$  you will end up with  $F_n$  again. So, this complicated looking function does nothing if  $x$  is a good point. Now, if  $F_n(x)$  happens to be greater than  $g(x)$  then this  $\min(F_n, g)$  will be just  $g$ , then when you take  $\max(g, -g)$  because  $g$  is a non negative function you will end up with  $g$ .

So, at a bad point where  $F_n$  exceeds  $g$  you still end up with  $g$ . Similarly, if  $F_n$  is less than  $-g$ , then what will happen is  $\min(F_n, g)$  would actually end up with the  $g$  again and when you take  $\max(g, -g)$ . So, sorry about that. Let me clarify again if  $F_n$  is less than  $-g$ , then  $\min(F_n, g)$  would actually be  $F_n$  right because  $F_n$  is in fact, less than  $-g$  therefore, it is less than  $g$ .

Now, when you take  $\max(F_n, -g)$  because we have  $F_n$  is less than  $-g$  you will get  $-g$ . So, at those points where  $F_n$  dips below  $-g$  you will get  $-g$  ok. So, the net upshot of all this is  $g_n$  is less than or equal to  $g$  almost everywhere and also we have  $g_n$  is Lebesgue integrable because it is a maximum and minimum of Lebesgue integrable functions.

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And, it is also easy to see that since  $f_n$  converges to  $f$  almost everywhere  $g_n$  converges to  $f$  almost everywhere ok. Net up shot is net up short is by dominated convergence theorem  $f$  is Lebesgue integrable, ok. This is another useful thing to remember about showing how to show a function is Lebesgue integrable.

This is a course on real analysis and you have just watched the video on applications of the convergence theorems.