

## $L_p$ Convergence of Monotone Functions and their Uniform Convergence

JAMES T. LEWIS AND OVED SHISHA

*Department of Mathematics, University of Rhode Island, Kingston, Rhode Island 02881*

### 1. INTRODUCTORY EXAMPLES: A SPECIAL CASE OF THE CONVERGENCE THEOREM

It is well-known that  $L_p$  convergence ( $0 < p < \infty$ ) of a sequence of functions  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  to a continuous limit  $f$  does not imply uniform convergence of  $\{f_n\}$  to  $f$ . This is illustrated by the following simple example.

EXAMPLE 1. For  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  let

$$\begin{aligned} f_n(x) &= 1 + 2n(x - (1/2)), & \text{if } (1/2) - 1/(2n) \leq x < 1/2, \\ &= 1 - 2n(x - (1/2)), & \text{if } 1/2 \leq x < (1/2) + 1/(2n), \\ &= 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{aligned}$$

Then for  $0 < p < \infty$ ,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 |f_n(x)|^p dx = 0$ . However  $\{f_n\}$  does not converge uniformly to  $f(x) \equiv 0$  on  $[0, 1]$  since  $f_n(1/2) = 1$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .

One might conjecture that if each  $f_n$  is increasing ( $f_n(x_1) \leq f_n(x_2)$  for  $x_1 \leq x_2$ ) then  $L_p$  convergence, say in  $[0, 1]$ , would imply uniform convergence there. A simple example shows this to be false.

EXAMPLE 2. Let  $0 < p < \infty$  and, for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ,  $0 \leq x \leq 1$ , let  $f_n(x) = x^n$ . Again  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 |f_n(x)|^p dx = 0$  but  $\{f_n\}$  does not converge uniformly to  $f(x) \equiv 0$  on  $[0, 1]$ .

In Example 2 the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on every closed subinterval of  $[0, 1]$  which does not include the right end point  $x = 1$ . This suggests the following theorem. (All the following integrals are Lebesgue integrals.)

**THEOREM 1.** *Let  $f$  be a real, continuous function on the finite interval  $(a, b)$ . Let  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  be a sequence of increasing functions on  $(a, b)$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b |f_n(x) - f(x)|^p dx = 0$ , where  $0 < p < \infty$ . Then for any  $c$  and  $d$  with  $a < c < d < b$ , the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $[c, d]$ .*

*Proof.* By contradiction. Assume the conclusion is false. Then there exist  $c, d$  with  $a < c < d < b$ ,  $\epsilon > 0$ , a subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$  (again denoted by  $\{f_n\}$  for convenience) and a sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^{\infty}$  of points in  $[c, d]$  such that  $|f_n(x_n) - f(x_n)| \geq \epsilon$  for all  $n \geq 1$ . The sequence  $\{x_n\}$  has a convergent subsequence (again denoted by  $\{x_n\}$ ) with limit, call it  $y$ , in  $[c, d]$ . By the continuity of  $f$  at  $y$  there exists  $\delta$  with  $0 < \delta \leq \min\{c - a, b - d\}$  such that  $|x - y| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon/3$ . There exists an  $N \geq 1$  such that if  $n \geq N$  then  $|x_n - y| < \delta/2$ . Let  $n \geq N$ .

*Case 1.*  $f_n(x_n) \geq f(x_n) + \epsilon$ . Then for every  $x$  in  $(y + (\delta/2), y + \delta)$  we have

$$\begin{aligned} f_n(x) &\geq f_n(x_n) \geq f(x_n) + \epsilon \\ &= (f(x_n) - f(y)) + (f(y) - f(x)) + f(x) + \epsilon \\ &> -(\epsilon/3) - (\epsilon/3) + f(x) + \epsilon = f(x) + (\epsilon/3). \end{aligned}$$

So  $f_n(x) - f(x) > \epsilon/3$  for all  $x$  in  $(y + (\delta/2), y + \delta)$ .

*Case 2.*  $f_n(x_n) \leq f(x_n) - \epsilon$ . By proceeding as in Case 1 one shows that

$$f_n(x) - f(x) < -\epsilon/3 \quad \text{for all } x \text{ in } (y - \delta, y - (\delta/2)).$$

In either case  $|f_n(x) - f(x)| > \epsilon/3$  for all  $x$  in an interval of length  $\delta/2$ . Thus  $\int_a^b |f_n(x) - f(x)|^p dx > (\epsilon/3)^p \cdot \delta/2$  for all  $n \geq N$ , which contradicts  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b |f_n(x) - f(x)|^p dx = 0$ . This completes the proof.

## 2. THE GENERAL CONVERGENCE THEOREM

It is natural to try to generalize Theorem 1 by replacing the monotonicity condition with convexity or with monotonicity of higher order. ( $f_n$  is convex on  $(a, b)$  iff

$$f_n(\alpha x_1 + (1 - \alpha)x_2) \leq \alpha f_n(x_1) + (1 - \alpha)f_n(x_2)$$

whenever  $a < x_1 \leq x_2 < b$  and  $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ .) Monotonicity of higher order can be defined in terms of divided differences (a discussion of divided differences can be found in books on numerical analysis, e.g. [1]). The first-order divided difference of  $f_n$  is  $f_n[x_0, x_1] = [f_n(x_1) - f_n(x_0)]/(x_1 - x_0)$ . Clearly  $f_n$  is increasing on  $(a, b)$  iff  $f_n[x_0, x_1] \geq 0$  for all distinct  $x_0, x_1$  in  $(a, b)$ . The second-order divided difference of  $f_n$  is

$$f_n[x_0, x_1, x_2] = (f_n[x_1, x_2] - f_n[x_0, x_1])/(x_2 - x_0).$$

It is straightforward to verify that  $f_n$  is convex on  $(a, b)$  iff  $f_n[x_0, x_1, x_2] \geq 0$

for all distinct  $x_0, x_1, x_2$  in  $(a, b)$ . The  $k$ th order ( $k \geq 1$ ) divided difference of  $f_n$  can be expressed by the following formula:

$$f_n[x_0, x_1, \dots, x_k] = \sum_{j=0}^k \left[ f_n(x_j) / \prod_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq j}}^k (x_j - x_i) \right]. \tag{1}$$

Monotonicity of  $f_n$  of order  $k \geq 1$  on  $(a, b)$  is the condition that either  $f_n[x_0, \dots, x_k] \geq 0$  for all distinct  $x_0, \dots, x_k$  in  $(a, b)$  or  $f_n[x_0, \dots, x_k] \leq 0$  for all such  $x_0, \dots, x_k$ . (It is known that monotonicity of  $f_n$  of order  $k \geq 2$  on  $(a, b)$  implies that  $f_n^{(k-2)}$  exists and is continuous on  $(a, b)$ , cf. [2, p. 381]). Our main result is the generalization of Theorem 1 by replacing “increasing” with monotonicity of order  $k$ . For completeness we have included in the statement of the theorem two other conditions which imply monotonicity of order  $k$ .

Denote by  $\Delta_h^k f_n(x)$  the forward difference of  $k$ th order of  $f_n$  using  $x, x + h, \dots, x + kh$  (cf. [1, p. 214]).

**THEOREM 2.** *Let  $f$  be a real, continuous function on the finite interval  $(a, b)$ . Let  $\{f_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  be a sequence of real functions such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b |f_n(x) - f(x)|^p dx = 0$ , where  $0 < p < \infty$ . Then for any  $c$  and  $d$  with  $a < c < d < b$ , each of the following conditions implies that  $\{f_n\}$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on  $[c, d]$ :*

(1) *There exists a positive integer  $k$  such that  $f_n^{(k)}(x)$  exists and is  $\geq 0$  for all  $x$  in  $(a, b)$  and for all  $n \geq 1$ .*

(2) *Each  $f_n$  is bounded in  $(a, b)$  and there exists a positive integer  $k$  such that if  $h > 0$  and  $x$  and  $x + kh$  are in  $(a, b)$ , then  $\Delta_h^k f_n(x) \geq 0$  for all  $n \geq 1$ .*

(3) *There exists a positive integer  $k$  such that  $f_n[x_0, \dots, x_k] \geq 0$  for all distinct  $x_0, \dots, x_k$  in  $(a, b)$  and for all  $n \geq 1$ .*

*Proof.* We will show that (1) implies (3), (2) implies (3), and (3) implies the conclusion of the theorem.

(a) That (1) implies (3) follows from the fact that if  $x_0, \dots, x_k$  are distinct points of  $(a, b)$  and  $n \geq 1$ , then  $f_n[x_0, \dots, x_k] = f_n^{(k)}(\xi)/k!$  for some  $\xi$  in  $(a, b)$  (cf. [1, p. 210]).

(b) That (2) implies (3) is stated in [3, p. 49].

(c) To show that (3) implies the conclusion of the theorem, assume the conclusion is false. Then there exist  $c$  and  $d$  satisfying  $a < c < d < b$ ,  $\epsilon > 0$ , a subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$  (again denoted by  $\{f_n\}$ ), and a sequence  $\{x_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$  of points in  $[c, d]$  such that  $|f_n(x_n) - f(x_n)| \geq \epsilon$  for all  $n$ . The sequence  $\{x_n\}$  has a convergent subsequence (again denoted by  $\{x_n\}$ ) with limit, call it  $y$ , in  $[c, d]$ . By the continuity of  $f$  at  $y$  there exists  $\delta$  with  $0 < \delta \leq \min\{c - a, b - d\}$  such that  $|x - y| < \delta$  implies  $|f(x) - f(y)| < \epsilon/(4k + 2)^{k+1}$ .

Let  $y_i = y + [i\delta/(2k + 1)]$  for all integral  $i$ ,  $-(2k + 1) \leq i \leq 3$ . There exists an  $N_1 \geq 1$  such that for all  $n \geq N_1$  there is a point  $t_{n,i}$  in  $(y_{2i-1}, y_{2i})$ , for  $i = -k, \dots, -1$ , and a point  $t_{n,1}$  in  $(y_2, y_3)$  satisfying  $|f_n(t_{n,i}) - f(t_{n,i})| < \epsilon/(4k + 2)^{k+1}$  for all  $i$ . (If not, we would have a subsequence  $\{f_{n_j}\}$  with  $|f_{n_j}(x) - f(x)| \geq \epsilon/(4k + 2)^{k+1}$  for all  $x$  in an interval of length  $\delta/(2k + 1)$ ; this would contradict  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b |f_n(x) - f(x)|^p dx = 0$ .) Notice

$$|f_n(t_{n,i}) - f(y)| \leq |f_n(t_{n,i}) - f(t_{n,i})| + |f(t_{n,i}) - f(y)| < \frac{2\epsilon}{(4k + 2)^{k+1}}.$$

Since  $\{x_n\}$  converges to  $y$ , there exists an  $N_2 \geq 1$  such that if  $n \geq N_2$  then  $|x_n - y| < \delta/(2k + 1)$ . Let  $n \geq \max\{N_1, N_2\}$ .

*Case 1.*  $f_n(x_n) \leq f(x_n) - \epsilon$ . We show  $f_n[t_{n,-k}, \dots, t_{n,-1}, x_n] < 0$ . For notational convenience set  $t_{n,0} \equiv x_n$ .

Since a constant can be subtracted from a function without changing its divided difference of any order, we have

$$\begin{aligned} f_n[t_{n,-k}, \dots, t_{n,-1}, x_n] &= (f_n - f(y))[t_{n,-k}, \dots, t_{n,-1}, x_n] \\ &= \frac{f_n(x_n) - f(y)}{\prod_{i=-k}^{-1} (x_n - t_{n,i})} + \sum_{j=-k}^{-1} \frac{f_n(t_{n,j}) - f(y)}{\prod_{i=-k, i \neq j}^0 (t_{n,j} - t_{n,i})} \\ &= \frac{f_n(x_n) - f(x_n)}{\prod_{i=-k}^{-1} (x_n - t_{n,i})} + \frac{f(x_n) - f(y)}{\prod_{i=-k}^{-1} (x_n - t_{n,i})} + \sum_{j=-k}^{-1} \frac{f_n(t_{n,j}) - f(y)}{\prod_{i=-k, i \neq j}^0 (t_{n,j} - t_{n,i})} \\ &< \frac{-\epsilon}{(2\delta)^k} + \frac{\epsilon/(4k + 2)^{k+1}}{(\delta/(2k + 1))^k} + k \frac{2\epsilon/(4k + 2)^{k+1}}{(\delta/(2k + 1))^k} \\ &= \frac{\epsilon}{(2\delta)^k} \left[ -1 + \frac{(2k + 1)^k 2^k (1 + 2k)}{(4k + 2)^{k+1}} \right] < 0. \end{aligned}$$

This contradicts hypothesis (3).

*Case 2.*  $f_n(x_n) \geq f(x_n) + \epsilon$ . By proceeding as in Case 1 one shows that  $f_n[t_{n,-(k-1)}, \dots, t_{n,-1}, t_{n,1}, x_n] < 0$ , a contradiction. This completes the proof.

#### REFERENCES

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3. T. POPOVICIU, "Les Fonctions Convexes," Hermann, Paris, 1945.