

Nonlinear System Analysis
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Lecture – 07
Lipschitz Continuity and Contraction Mapping Theorem - Part 03

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Proof: preliminaries

Normed Vector Space:
Vector space V is called **normed** if to each $v \in V$, there is a real valued function (called **norm**) $\|v\|$ that satisfies

- $\|v\| \geq 0$ for all $v \in V$ and 'equal to zero' **only** for $v = 0$
- $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and $v \in V$.
- $\|v_1 + v_2\| \leq \|v_1\| + \|v_2\|$ for all $v_1, v_2 \in V$.

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So, for this proof we need some preliminaries. So, what for that purpose we will need to use the Banach Fixed Point Theorem and these are some preliminaries for that purpose. So, we need the notion of a normed vector space. So, vector space V is called normed if to each vector v in the vector space capital V , there is a real valued function which we will call as the norm and you will denote is a norm of the by this notation such that this norm is always greater than or equal to 0..

So, norm of a vector v will be a real number and it cannot be negative that is what it says moreover. So, this is greater than or equal to 0 for all V and also it is equal to 0 only for the

vector v equal to 0. This is the first condition required from the norm function. Another condition that is required is if you scale the vector v by a constant α , then the norm also get scaled by that same number α , the same number α if α is positive and absolute value of α in general. So, for any real number α and a vector v , this equality has to be satisfied and finally the triangular inequality is required to be satisfied.

So, for two vector v_1 and v_2 the norm of $v_1 + v_2$ cannot be more than norm of v_1 plus norm of v_2 . This triangular inequality is also required to be satisfied for all vectors v_1 and v_2 . So, this is called Triangular inequality, this is called the Linearity property of the norm function and this is the definition that the notion of length of a vector is required to satisfy.

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Existence/uniqueness theorem

Cauchy sequence

If elements in a sequence $\{a_n\}$ 'go close to each other', do they converge to **some** a ? In general, no.

A sequence a_n is called **Cauchy** if for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $N(\epsilon)$ such that $\|a_n - a_m\| < \epsilon$ for all $n, m > N$.
 Every convergent sequence is Cauchy but not vice-versa.

If a sequence is Cauchy (meaning ...), then **completeness** guarantees that **there exists** a such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} a_n \rightarrow a$$

(Convergent in the usual sense.)

A normed vector space V is called **complete** if every Cauchy sequence is convergent (in the usual sense).

In the context of convergence, we also need what is the definition of Cauchy sequence. So, in the context of convergence we like to say that elements in a sequence are going close to each

other. So, in general, if elements in a sequence a_n go close to each other, do they converge to some element a ? So, the answer is in general no. Just because elements a_n are converging close to each other does not mean they will eventually converge to a number a .

So this if it does converge, then we will call the sequence convergence. In order to arrive at that we will define this property called Cauchy. So, a sequence a_n is called Cauchy if for every ϵ greater than 0 there exists some capital N possibly depending on ϵ , such that if we want that a_n and a_m are smaller than ϵ , then that will be satisfied for all n and m that are greater than this capital N .

So, the importance of the statement is it says that elements a_m and a_n are going close to each other; if you want them to be close to each other closer than a number ϵ , then all we have to do is take m and n greater than some capital N . So, when somebody specifies the ϵ greater than 0, we are able to find number n such that this inequality satisfies for all n and m greater than capital N .

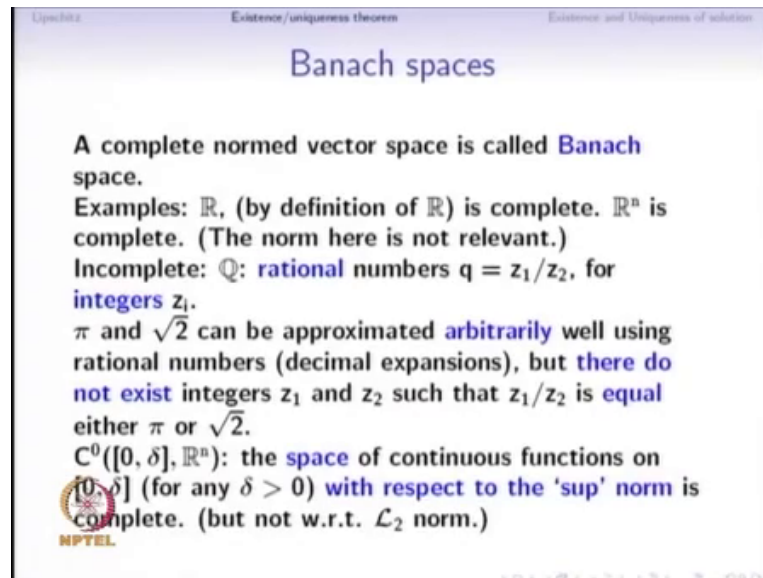
So, in general if ϵ is made smaller, then capital N might have to be made larger. So this quantifies, this makes precise the notion that elements in the sequence a_n are going closer and closer to each other. So, every convergent sequence is Cauchy, but turns out that the converse is not true. So, if a sequence is Cauchy it just means that elements are going close to each other, but it does not imply that there is a number a to which it converges. So, if we assume an important property called completeness, then we will also be able to guarantee convergence.

So, what is the definition of completeness? See if a sequence is Cauchy, then completeness would guarantee that there exists a number a such that a_n converges to a and this later convergence is what we will say convergent in the usual sense. So, this is what we will use for the definition of complete of a norm vector space. A norm vector space V is called complete if every Cauchy sequence is convergent, convergent in the sense of this limit.

So, we so we see that if every Cauchy sequence in other words are sequence in which all elements are going closer and closer to each other, if we are going to say that it converges to a

number in that particular set in that particular vector space V , then this vector space V is going to be called complete.

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Existence/uniqueness theorem

Existence and Uniqueness of solution

Banach spaces

A complete normed vector space is called **Banach** space.

Examples: \mathbb{R} , (by definition of \mathbb{R}) is complete. \mathbb{R}^n is complete. (The norm here is not relevant.)

Incomplete: \mathbb{Q} : **rational** numbers $q = z_1/z_2$, for **integers** z_1 .

π and $\sqrt{2}$ can be approximated **arbitrarily** well using rational numbers (decimal expansions), but **there do not exist** integers z_1 and z_2 such that z_1/z_2 is equal either π or $\sqrt{2}$.

$C^0([0, \delta], \mathbb{R}^n)$: the **space** of continuous functions on $[0, \delta]$ (for any $\delta > 0$) with respect to the 'sup' norm is complete. (but not w.r.t. \mathcal{L}_2 norm.)

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Finally, a complete normed vector space is called a Banach space. So, what is a Banach space? It is a norm vector space, which is also complete. In other words every Cauchy convergence sequence is also convergent.

Some examples of complete spaces, a set of real numbers \mathbb{R} . This is by definition of \mathbb{R} . This is complete. \mathbb{R}^n is also complete where n is some finite number. So, if we take n tuples of real numbers, then this is also complete vector space. So, which norm here it turns out is not relevant, yeah we could take for examples the standard Euclidian norm. We could take the Euclidian norm which is very standard.

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The image shows a piece of paper with handwritten mathematical definitions for vector norms in \mathbb{R}^n . At the top, it says $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ followed by the tuple (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) . Below this, the L2 norm is defined as $\|v\|_2 := \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$. The L-infinity norm is defined as $\|v\|_\infty := \max_{i=1, \dots, n} |v_i|$. In the bottom left corner of the paper, there is a small circular logo with a red and yellow design and the word "COPYRIGHT" written below it.

Suppose a vector V is in \mathbb{R}^n , then we can define this is one of the definitions $\|V\|_2 = \sqrt{V_1^2 + V_2^2 + \dots + V_n^2}$. This guarantees it is positive and then we take square root, it is also linear in V . So, this is one of the norms of \mathbb{R}^n . What is \mathbb{R}^n ? It is a n -tuple every element in \mathbb{R}^n is a n -tuple in which n is finite. So, this is one definition of norm and this is called the two norm. It is also called the euclidian norm. We could also have taken V so called the infinity norm as the maximum for i equal to 1 up to n of the absolute value of the i th component V_1 up to V_n , there are n components in the vector V .

For each of those vectors we take the absolute value and for each of the components we take the absolute value and we look at the maximum for i varying from 1 to n of this absolute value that is called the infinity norm.

So, we will see some more notions of norm. So, with respect to any of the norms it turns out that \mathbb{R}^n is complete. What are examples of incomplete spaces? So the set \mathbb{Q} of rational numbers, this is incomplete. What is rational \mathbb{Q} is a standard notation for the set of rational numbers. Any number q small q , in this capital \mathbb{Q} can be written as the ratio of two integers z_1 by z_2 . So, if a number q can be written as ratio of two integers, then q is said to be a rational number and capital \mathbb{Q} is a set of all such rational numbers. So, it turns out that \mathbb{Q} is not complete. For example π and square root of 2, these are some numbers which can be approximated arbitrarily well, using rational numbers to be able to approximate arbitrarily well.

For example, we know that square root of 2; can have a decimal expansion. If you take more number of digits in a decimal expansion, then we get a more accurate representation of the number square root of 2 and similarly for π . But just because we can approximate square root of 2 and π by a very good approximation using decimal expansions, that does not imply that there are integers z_1 and z_2 such that z_1 by z_2 is equal to either π or square root of 2..

In fact, they do not exist z_1 and z_2 such that z_1 by z_2 is equal to π . Similarly they do not exist integers z_1 and z_2 , such that z_1 by z_2 is equal to square root of 2. In other words, π and square root of 2 are so-called irrational numbers. However we know that these irrational numbers can be approximated arbitrarily well, this this proves that \mathbb{Q} is not complete.

Another important set, another important space that is complete is the so-called space of continuous functions on this interval 0 to delta, where delta is strictly greater than 0 with respect to the sup norm. With respect to the sup norm, it turns out that this space of continuous function is complete. So, this space of continuous functions on this interval functions from this interval to \mathbb{R}^n is also denoted by C by this notation..

So, the 0 here means that it is just continuous; differentiability is not being guaranteed. So, I should emphasize that it is important that with respect to the sup norm only C^0 , this is one is complete. There could be some other norms with respect to which it is complete, but here it is no longer the case that the norm is not relevant which norm we are taking that will very

crucially decide whether this space of continuous function is complete or not, that statement depends on the norm with respect to which we are asking the question.

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical definitions. At the top, it says $C^0([0, \delta], \mathbb{R}^n)$. Below that, it says $f \in C^0([0, \delta], \mathbb{R}^n)$. The main definition is $\|f\|_{\text{sup}} := \max_{t \in [0, \delta]} \|f(t)\|_2$. To the right of this equation, it says $f(t) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. There is a small logo in the bottom left corner of the whiteboard.

The space of continuous function from the interval 0 to delta to \mathbb{R}^n , these are functions which are not necessarily differentiable, but they are just continuous and hence 0 has been put here. They take their the domain is from 0 to delta, it takes its values time varies from 0 to delta and for each time instant in this interval it gives a vector in \mathbb{R}^n . So, this is the space of continuous functions from this interval to \mathbb{R}^n .

And we are saying sup norm, what is a sup norm? If f is an element of this set, then the sup norm they are going to define as the maximum when t varies from 0 to delta of f of t . So, at each time instant f of t is an element of \mathbb{R}^n . Yeah, this is the meaning of f is a element of continuous functions from this interval to \mathbb{R}^n . So at each time instant t , this is some vector

and for that vector we defined already the Euclidian norm, the two norm and this two norm is defined for each time t in this interval and we will look at the maximum of this particular function as t varies from 0 to delta, this maximum is set to be the sup norm of the function f .

So, sup norm is no longer relevant to a particular time instant even though f of t 2 norm was relevant to which time instant the two norm was been taken. So, the sup norm is a norm on the space of continuous functions from this interval to \mathbb{R}^n . So with respect to this sup norm, it turns out that this is a complete space, but with respect to which norm is it not complete. For example we can also define the so-called L 2 norm.

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The image shows a whiteboard with handwritten mathematical notation. At the top, it says $C^0([0, \delta], \mathbb{R}^n)$. Below that, the L2 norm is defined as $\|f\|_{\mathcal{L}_2} := \sqrt{\int_0^\delta \|f(t)\|_2^2 dt}$. Underneath the formula, it says "with respect to \mathcal{L}_2 norm". At the bottom, it repeats $C^0([0, \delta], \mathbb{R}^n)$. A hand holding a black marker is visible at the bottom right of the whiteboard.

So, what is the L 2 norm? For the same space of functions we can define f L 2 norm as integral from 0 to delta of. So, we can take the two norm of the vector f of t at a time instant t and the two norm, we take the square and we integrate from 0 to delta. Upon integrating from

0 to delta, we get some number that is no longer dependent on the time t and its square root is set to be the L 2 norm of the function f, where f is an element of this.

So, this L 2 norm also is no longer dependent on t, but f of t before we took the two norm here is indeed a function of time t and after we integrate from 0 to delta, this is no longer dependent on time t. So, this is the L 2 norm. So, with respect to with respect to L 2 norm, this same space of functions is not complete. Just because elements are going very close to each other does not mean that it will also converge to a function that is continuous and close to each other for that we are using the notion of L 2 norm. So, with respect to the sup norm however two functions if they are close to each other, they will eventually converge to a continuous function again inside the space.

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Lipshitz Existence/uniqueness theorem Existence and Uniqueness of solution

Banach Fixed Point Theorem

We need closed subset and contractive mapping.
For a set X , a subset S is said to be **closed subset** of X if 'boundary of S is within X '.
 S is a closed subset of X if and only if elements of X which are **arbitrarily close** to S are **within S** .
Let X be a normed vector space.
A map $P : X \rightarrow X$ is said to be **contractive** if there exists a $\rho < 1$ such that

$$\| Px_1 - Px_2 \| \leq \rho \| x_1 - x_2 \| \text{ for all } x_1, x_2 \in X.$$

The vector from x_2 to x_1 gets **contracted** under action of P .

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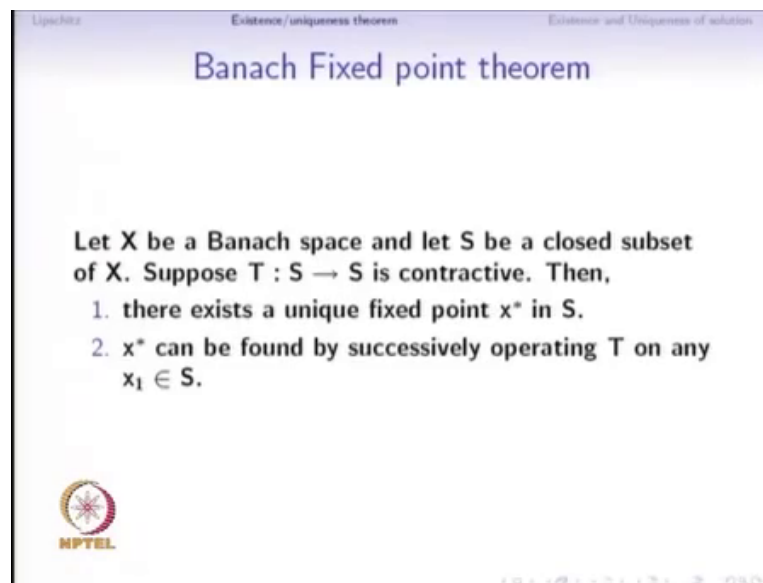
Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

So, finally using these notions we can prove we can state the Banach fixed point theorem. So, for that we just need the notion of close subset and the contractive mapping. So for a set X , a subset S , a subset S of X is said to be a close subset of X ; if the boundary of S is within X . This is how we understand a close subset more precisely. S is a close subset of X if and only if elements of X which are arbitrarily close to S are also within S . If you take an element of X which is very close to elements of S which is close to one or more elements of S , then it is not necessary that this elements of X should also be within S , but if it is indeed within S , then f is said to be a closed subset of the set X .

And what is contractive? So, if X is a normed vector space A map P from X to X is said to be contractive, if there exists a number ρ that is strictly less than 1, such that this inequality is satisfied for all x_1 and x_2 in x . What is this inequality? $\|Px_1 - Px_2\|$ is at most ρ times $\|x_1 - x_2\|$. So, what is the importance of this inequality? $\|x_1 - x_2\|$ can be interpreted as a vector from x_2 to x_1 and $\|Px_1 - Px_2\|$ is the vector upon action under P .

So, this vector is getting contracted under the action of P . Why contraction? Because this ρ is some number strictly less than 1. So, we will say this map is contractive, if there exist such a number ρ , such that this inequality satisfied for all x_1 and x_2 in x , the number the number ρ should not have to be modified depending on which x_1 and x_2 we take in capital X . For such a map P , we will say it is contractive if such a number ρ exists.

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The slide is titled "Banach Fixed point theorem" and is part of a presentation on "Existence/uniqueness theorem" and "Existence and Uniqueness of solution". It contains the following text:

Let X be a Banach space and let S be a closed subset of X . Suppose $T : S \rightarrow S$ is contractive. Then,

1. there exists a unique fixed point x^* in S .
2. x^* can be found by successively operating T on any $x_1 \in S$.

The slide also features the NPTEL logo in the bottom left corner and navigation icons in the bottom right corner.

We are ready to state the Banach Fixed point theorem using the notions we have just now defined. Let X be a Banach space and let S be a close subset of X and then let T a map of S to S , let T be contractive. Then first of all there exists a unique fixed point x star in S , fixed point for the this operator T . Moreover that fixed point x star can be found quite easily what is easily it can be found by successively operating T on any x_1 in S . We take any x_1 , then you take T times X_1 , then we take T times T of x_1 , then we do these iterations, we will converge to that unique fixed point.

We will use this Banach Fixed point theorem for the proof of the existence and Uniqueness theorem of the solution to the differential equation in the next lecture.

Thank you.

