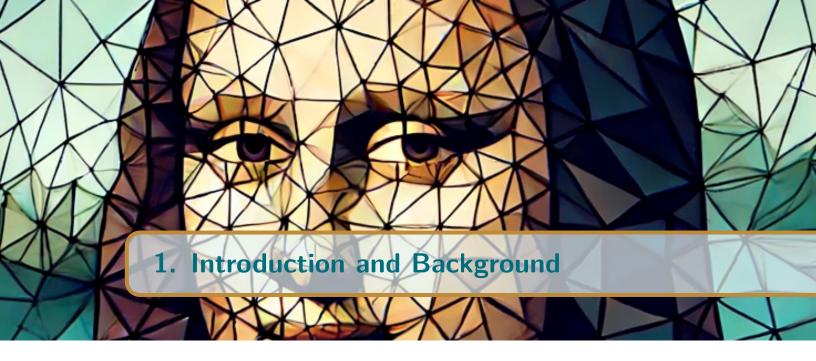




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4 CONTENTS



1.1 Summary

For any $f \in C(\Omega)$ we have $f \in C(\overline{\Omega})$. However, for the converse, if $g \in C(\overline{\Omega})$, then if g is uniformally continuous and Ω is bounded, then g can continuously be extended to $\partial\Omega$. Note that $C(\Omega)$ functions can behave badly near $\partial\Omega$. For instance, consider the function $f:(0,1) \to \mathbb{R}$ given by $f(x) = \sin(1/x)$.

Summary \nearrow 1.2 — The space of continuous 2π periodic functions. Consider the space of continuous functions defined on \mathbb{R} , i.e. $C(\mathbb{R})$. An important subset of this set is $C_p(2\pi)$ which is the set of all continuous 2π periodic functions where for $f \in C_p(2\pi)$ we have

$$f(x+2\pi) = f(x), \qquad x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

This set, is in one-to-one correspondence with the set of all continuous function defined from the manifold S^1 , or equivalently $\mathbb{R}/2\pi\mathbb{Z}$ to \mathbb{R} .

Summary \nearrow 1.3 — Basis for the set of polynomials. Let \mathbb{P}_n denote the set of all polynomials defined on \mathbb{R} with degree less than or equal to n. Then a basis for this linear space is

$$\mathbb{B} = \{1, x, \cdots, x^n\}.$$

Thus the dimension of this space is n+1.

Now, consider a $linear\ subspace$ of this space, the set of all polynomials that vanishes at 0 and 1 denoted by

$$\mathbb{P}_{n,0} = \{ p \in \mathbb{P}_n \mid p(0) = p(1) = 0 \}.$$

A basis for this linear subspace can be given as

$$\mathbb{B}_{n,0} = \{x(1-x), x^2(1-x), \cdots, x^{n-1}(1-x)\}.$$

Thus the dimension of this linear subspace is $\dim(\mathbb{P}_n) - 2$. The difference two in the dimension comes from the fact that polynomials in $\mathbb{P}_{n,0}$ vanished at two points of their domain. Thus the set of all polynomials of degree n that vanish at n points of their domain is a 1 dimensional linear subspace of \mathbb{P}_n .

Summary \triangleright 1.4 — Normed space \mathbb{R}^d . Consider the linear space \mathbb{R}^d . Then the followings are the common norms for this space.

$$||x||_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p}, \quad \text{for } 1 \le p < \infty.$$

$$||x||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le d} |x_i|.$$

Proposition 1.1 In \mathbb{R}^d we have for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$||x||_{\infty} \le ||x||_p \le d^{1/p} ||x||_{\infty}.$$

■ Remark 1.1 As a simple corollary of the proposition above we can see

$$||x||_{\infty} = \lim_{p \to \infty} ||x||_p.$$

Proposition 1.2 — Equivalence of norms. On a finite dimensional space all norms are equivalent.

■ Remark 1.2 The proposition above dose not hold true on infinite dimensional spaces. In those space, some norms has more stronger sense of convergence than others.

Summary \nearrow 1.5 — Normed space $C(\Omega)$. Let V=C[0,1] denote the linear space of all continuous function defined on [0,1]. Define the following norms

$$||f||_p = \left(\int_0^1 |f(x)|^p dx\right)^{1/p}, \qquad 1 \le p < \infty$$
$$||f||_{\infty} = \sup_{0 \le x \le 1} |f(x)|$$

The norm $||x||_{\infty}$ is a natural norm for this space that is also called *uniform norm*.

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Proposition 1.3 For the norms given above we have

$$||v||_p \le ||v||_{\infty} \quad \forall v \in V.$$

This implies that the convergence under the uniform norm $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ implies the convergence under the norm $\|\cdot\|_{p}$. Note that the converse is not true.

■ Remark 1.3 A very good example to see the proposition above is $f:[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$ given by

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - nx, & 0 \le x \le 1/n, \\ 0, & 1/n < x \le 1. \end{cases}$$

Proposition 1.4 Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^d$ and let $\overline{\Omega}$ denote its closure. Then the space $C(\overline{\Omega})$ with the norm $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ is a Banach space. However, this space is not a Banach space with $\|\cdot\|_p$ for $1 \leq p < \infty$.

■ Remark 1.4 The proposition above is true since the continuoity of a sequence of functions persists under the uniform continuity. A good example for the second statement is the function $f:[0,1] \to \mathbb{R}$

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & 0 \le x \le 1/2 - 1/(2n), \\ n(x - 1/2 + 1/(2n)), & 1/2 - 1/(2n) \le x \le 1/2 + 1/(2n), \\ 1, & 1/2 + 1/(2n) \le x \le 1. \end{cases}$$

Summary \nearrow 1.6 — Normed space $C^k(\Omega)$. Let $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}$. The space $C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ is the set of all k times continuously differentiable functions. Define the following metric on this space

$$\begin{split} \|f\|_{k,p} &= \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \left\|f^{(i)}\right\|_p^p\right)^{1/p}, \qquad 1 \leq p < \infty. \\ \|f\|_{k,\infty} &= \max_{1 \leq i \leq k} \left\|f^{(i)}\right\|_p. \end{split}$$

The natural basis for this space is $||f||_{k,\infty}$.

Proposition 1.5 — C^k is a Banach space. The space C^k is complete under the norm $\|\cdot\|_{k,\infty}$.

Summary \nearrow 1.7 — Completion of $C(\overline{\Omega})$. The space $C(\overline{\Omega})$ is not complete under the norm $\|\cdot\|_p$ for $1 \leq p < \infty$. Its completion is the space of Lebesgue integrable functions L^p .

Summary \triangleright 1.8 — Completion of $C^k(\overline{\Omega})$. The space $C^k(\overline{\Omega})$ is not complete under the norm $\|\cdot\|_{k,p}$ for $1 \leq p < \infty$. Its completion is the *Sobolev spaces*.

Summary ${\bf /\!\!\!\!\! D}$ 1.9 — Norm changing the topology in action!. Consider the spaces $V=C^1[0,1]\subset$

C[0,1], and W=C[0,1], and the linear operator

$$T = \frac{d}{dx} : V \to W.$$

Consider the same infinity norm $\|\cdot\|_{\infty}$ for both V and W. Let $\{f_n\}$ be a sequence of functions in V defined as

$$f_n(x) = \frac{1}{n}\sin(2^n\pi x).$$

It is evident that $||f_n||_{\infty} \to 0$ as $n \to 0$. However, $||f'_n||_{\infty} \to \infty$ as $n \to \infty$. Geometrically, we can feel that the sequence $\{f_n\}$ sort of moves towards the origin of the space $(V, \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$ while $\{f'_n\}$ shoots to infinity in the space $(W, \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$.

However, if we change the norm of space V to the standard norm of $C^{1}[0,1]$, i.e.

$$||f||_{\infty}^{1} = \max\{||f||_{\infty}, ||f'||_{\infty}\},$$

then we can see that the sequence $\{f\}$ is not moving towards the origin, but shoots of to the infinity of the space $(V, \|\cdot\|_{\infty}^1)$. From this example it is clear that how norm induces topology. A sequence that originally was moving towards the origin in one topology, shoots off to the infinity in another topology.

Summary \nearrow 1.10 — Continuity of differentiation operator. According to the summary box above, the differentiation operator

$$T_1 = \frac{d}{dx} : C^1[0,1] \subset (C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty}) \to (C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$$

is not continuous, but the operator

$$T_2 = \frac{d}{dx} : (C^1[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty}^1) \to (C[0,1], \|\cdot\|_{\infty})$$

is continuous.

1.2 Solved Problems

■ Problem 1.1 — The space of solutions of an ODE (from Atkinson). Show that the set of all continuous solutions of the differential equation u''(x) + u(x) = 0 is a finite-dimensional linear space. Is the set od all continuous solutions of u''(x) + u(x) = 1 is a linear space?

Solution Denote the set of all solutions for the ODE u'' + u' = 0 as

$$S = \{ f \in C(\mathbb{R}) \mid f'' + f = 0 \}.$$

We claim that S is a linear space. Because

- Closed under addition: Let $f, g \in S$. Then f'' + f = 0 and g'' + g = 0. From the linearity of derivative it follows that (f + g)'' + (f + g) = 0, hence $f + g \in S$.
- Existence of zero element: The function $g \equiv 0$ is in S.
- Existence of inverse element: Let $f \in S$. Then f'' + f = 0. Multiplying both sides by -1 we will get (-f)'' + (-f) = 0. Thus $-f \in S$.
- Closed under scalar multiplication: Let $f \in S$. Then f'' + f = 0. Multiplying both sides by $a \in \mathbb{R}$ we will get (af)'' + (af) = 0. Thus $af \in S$.

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• Commutativity, associativity, distributivity, and follows from the same properties for the addition of functions.

To show that the dimension of this linear space is finite, consider two solutions $u_1, u_2 \in S$ such that their Wronskian is non-zero. I.e.

$$W(t) = \det \begin{pmatrix} u_1(t) & u_2(t) \\ u'_1(t) & u'_2(t) \end{pmatrix} \neq 0.$$

For the particular ODE given in this question, we can consider $u_1(t) = \cos(t)$ and $u_2(t) = \sin(t)$. Take any solution $v \in S$. Assume v(0) = a and v'(0) = b. Consider $w(t) = pu_1(t) + qu_2(t)$ where $p, q \in \mathbb{R}$ chosen such that v(0) = w(0) and v'(0) = w'(0). Since both w, v are solutions of the ODE, then from the existence-uniqueness theorem, it follows that v(t) = w(t). This shows that we can write every solution of the ODE in terms of u_1 and u_2 . Thus S is a linear space of dimension 2.

The continuous solutions of the ODE u'' + u = 1 is not a linear space as it does not contain the zero element. However, we can show that this is an affine space.

■ Problem 1.2 — Linear space (from Atkinson). When is the set $\{v \in C[0,1] \mid v(0)=a\}$ a linear space?

Solution This set is a linear space only when a = 0. Otherwise, this set can not contain the zero function (to be served as the zero element of the vector space). Also, if $a \neq 0$, then this set will not be closed under addition and scalar multiplication.

■ Problem 1.3 — Zero vector and linear independence (from Atkinson). Show that in any linear space V, a set of vectors is always linearly dependent if one of the vectors is zero.

Solution Let $\{u_1, u_n, f\}$ be a collection of vectors where f is the zero vector. Let $\alpha_1 = \cdots = \alpha_n = 0$ and $\beta \neq 0$ and consider the sum

$$\alpha_1 u_1 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n + \beta f = 0.$$

There is one non-zero coefficient β , thus the collection of vectors are linearly dependent.

■ Problem 1.4 — Unique expansion in terms of basis vectors (from Atkinson). Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis of an n-dimensional space V. Show that for any $v \in V$, there are scalars $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ such that

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i v_i,$$

and the scalars $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$ are uniquely determined by v.

Solution Let $\mathbb{B} = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ be a basis and let $v \in V$ be any vectors. Since \mathbb{B} is a basis, then by definition the vectors v_1, \dots, v_n are

- (I) linearly independent, and
- (II) spans the whole space.
- (II) implies the existence of the scalars $\alpha_1 \cdots \alpha_n$ such that

$$v = \sum_{i}^{n} \alpha_{i} v_{i}.$$

Furthermore, (I) implies the uniqueness of these scalars. To see this we will use the proof by contradiction. Consider the β_1, \dots, β_n where we have $\beta_i \neq \alpha_i$ at least for one $1 \leq i \leq n$. Then

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i v_i, \qquad v = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_i v_i.$$

Subtracting these two expressions we will get

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\alpha_i - \beta_i) v_i.$$

Since $\alpha_i \neq \beta_i$ for at least one index i. From the definition of linear dependence, this implies that the collection of vectors in \mathbb{B} is linearly dependent that contradicts (I) which is a contradiction.

■ Problem 1.5 — Cartesian product of linear spaces (from Atkinson). Assume U and V are finite dimensional linear spaces, and let $\{u_1, \dots, u_n\}$ and $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ be bases for them, respectively. Using these bases, create a basis for $W = U \times V$. Determine dim W.

Solution Consider the following basis for U and V

$$\mathbb{B}_U = \{u_1, \cdots, u_n\}, \qquad \mathbb{B}_V = \{v_1, \cdots, v_m\}.$$

Construct the sets

$$\mathcal{B}_U = \{(u_i, 0_V) \mid u_i \in \mathbb{B}_U, \ 0_V \in V\}, \qquad \mathcal{B}_V = \{(0_U, v_i) \mid v_i \in \mathbb{B}_V, u_0 \in U\}.$$

Then the following collection will be a basis for $U \times V$.

$$\mathbb{B}_{U\times V}=\mathcal{B}_U\cup\mathcal{B}_V.$$

The linear independentness of the vectors in $\mathbb{B}_{U\times V}$ follows immediately from the linear independentness of \mathbb{B}_1 and \mathbb{B}_2 . Similarly, it follows immediately from the spanning property of \mathbb{B}_U and \mathbb{V}_B that $\mathbb{B}_{U\times V}$ spans the whole space $U\times V$. This construction reveals that the space $U\times V$ has dimension n+m.



2.1 Errors in the book "Finite Difference Computing with PDEs" by Hans Petter

- Equation (3.29): The forcing term is not present (maybe they have somehow assumes that this is zero but according to (3.40) this is unlikely).
- Equation (3.31): The forcing terms has no Δt coefficient.
- Equation (3.40): Comparing this with equation (3.31) reveals that the right hand side is not correct.
- Section (3.3.7): The very first equation in this section. Dxu should read D_xu
- Page 256: I would prefer to see the more standard notation for the "mapsto" which is $(0,0) \mapsto 0$ instead of simple arrow.
- Equation (3.92): The right hand side should be $1 + 2\theta(F_x + F_y)$.
- The matrix at the bottom of the page 257: On the main diagonal, the elements that are not 1 are wrong. They should be $1 + 2\theta(F_x + F_y)$.
- Page 332: The equation second from the end, is missing a left bracket.
- Part 4.1.6: In the third equation, in RHS, $\partial u/\partial t$ should be $\partial/\partial t$.