

# Linear Methods Exams

isakhammer

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# 1 Exam 18h

## 1.1 Problem 1

Determine whether the following statements are true or false. If the statement is true, no further explanation is required. If the statement is false, give a counter example.

1. The Kernel of a bounded linear operator  $T : X \mapsto Y$  between normed spaces  $X$  and  $Y$  is closed.

**Answer.** True

2. The range of a bounded linear operator  $T : X \rightarrow Y$  between normed spaces  $X$  and  $Y$  is closed.

**Answer.** False. Let's assume that  $X$  and  $Y$  is closed. Then is this true.

3. The dual space  $X'$  of a normed space is a Banach Space.

**Answer.** True.

4. A closed subspace of a Banach Space is itself a Banach Space.

**Answer.** True

## 1.2 Problem 2

Let  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence in a normed space  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ .

- a) Prove that  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a Cauchy sequence, then  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  is bounded.

**Answer.** We need to show that it exists  $d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$ . First let  $x_n \mapsto x$ , then does is this true  $d(x_n, x) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for an  $n \geq N$ . Using the triangle inequality we can determine

$$d(x_n, x_m) = d(x, x_m) + d(x, x_n) < \epsilon$$

This is then true.

- b) Let  $\|\cdot\|_a$  and  $\|\cdot\|_b$  be equivalent norms on  $X$  and let  $x \in X$ . Prove that  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges to  $x$  in  $(X, \|\cdot\|_a)$  if and only if  $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges to  $x$  in  $(X, \|\cdot\|_b)$ .

**Answer.**

*Proof.* Let  $x_n \mapsto x$  and  $x_m \mapsto x$ . Then is  $\|x_n - x\|_a < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for an  $n > N_a$ . This also holds for  $x_m$  such that  $\|x_m - x\|_b < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for an  $m > N_b$ . If we let  $m, n > \max(N_a, N_b)$  then can we conclude that

$$\|x_n - x\|_a + \|x_m - x\|_b < \epsilon.$$

Which proves that if  $\|\cdot\|_b$  is converging does this hold for  $\|\cdot\|_a$  for all  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$   $\square$

### 1.3 Problem 3

Let  $(\ell^2, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  be the inner product space of complex-valued sequences  $x \in (x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$  equipped with the standard inner product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} x_k \overline{y_k} \quad \text{for } x, y \in \ell^2. \quad (1)$$

and let  $T : \ell^2 \mapsto \ell^2$  be the multiplication operator given by

$$Tx = (i^k x_k / k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$$

where  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ .

- a) Show that  $T$  is a bounded linear operator on  $\ell^2$ , and determine the operator norm  $\|T\|$ .

**Answer.** We want to show that  $T$  is Cauchy. Let  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a Cauchy sequence and let  $\epsilon > 0$  such that  $\|x_n - x\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for a  $N$ . By observing that

$$Tx_m \mapsto Tx$$

can we use the argument such that  $\|Tx_m - Tx\| = \|T(x_m - x)\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  if  $m > M$ . Applying the triangle in equality can it be shown that

$$\|Tx_m - Tx_n\| \leq \|Tx_m - Tx\| + \|Tx_n - Tx\| < \epsilon \quad n, m = \max(N, M)$$

And then shows that  $T$  is bounded.

The operator norm of  $T$  is

$$\|T\| = \sup_{\substack{x_k \in X \\ \|x_k\|=1}} \frac{\|Tx_k\|}{\|x_k\|} = \left\| \frac{i^k}{k} \right\| = \frac{1}{k}$$

- b) Determine the adjoint operator  $T^*$ . State what it means for an operator to be normal, and determine whether or not  $T$  is normal.

**Answer.** The adjoint operator should have this property,  
 $\langle T^*y, y \rangle = \langle y, Tx \rangle$ .

- c) Show that the range of  $T$  is dense in  $\ell^2$ .

#### 1.4 Problem 4

Let

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- a) Find a singular value decomposition of  $A$ .  
 b) Find the pseudoinverse  $A^+$  of  $A$  and use it to find the best approximation for a solution of the inconsistent system.

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + 2x_2 &= 3 \\ 2x_1 + 2x_2 &= 4 \\ -x_1 - x_2 &= -4. \end{aligned}$$

#### 1.5 Problem 5

Find  $a, b \in \mathbb{C}$  such that

$$\int_0^{2\pi} |t - a \sin(t) - b \sin(2t)|^2 dt$$

Tip: You might find the formula  $(\sin(t))^2 = \frac{1 - \cos(2t)}{2}$  useful.

#### 1.6 Problem 6

- a) Show that if  $X \neq \emptyset$  is a complete metric space, and  $T : X \rightarrow X$  is a mapping such that

$$T^k = T \cdot T \cdot \dots \cdot T$$

Is a contraction for some natural number  $k > 1$ , then  $T$  has a unique fixed point.

- b) Consider the space of continuous functions  $C[0, 1]$  equipped with the metric induced by the supremum norm

$$d(f, g) = \|f - g\|_\infty = \sup_{0 \leq t \leq 1} |f(t) - g(t)|$$

and let  $T : C[0, 1] \rightarrow C[0, 1]$  be given by

$$(Tf)(t) = 1 - \int_0^t f(s) ds, \quad 0 \leq t \leq 1.$$

Show that  $T$  has a unique fixed point, and use iteration to find it starting with  $f_0(t) = 1$

*Tip: You can use the results from a) even if you did not solve this problem.*

## 2 Appendix

### 2.1 Sequences in metric spaces and normed spaces

**Definition 2.1** (Norm). *Criteria for norms*

- (i)  $\|cx\| = c\|x\|$
- (ii)  $\|xy\| \leq \|x\|\|y\|$
- (iii)  $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$
- (iv)  $\|x\| = 0$  only if  $x = 0$

**Theorem 2.1** (Inequalities). *This inequalities hold*

- *Holder Inequality*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\chi_n \mu_n| \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\chi_k|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \cdot \left( \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} |\mu_m|^q \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

- *Cauchy Schwarts Inequality*

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\chi_n \mu_n| = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\chi_k|^2} + \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\mu_k|^2}$$

- *Minowsky Inequality*

$$\left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |\chi_n + \mu_n|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \leq \left( \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} |\chi_k|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} + \left( \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |\mu_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

**Definition 2.2** (Sequence). *Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. A sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $X$  is said to **converge to**  $x \in X$  for every  $\epsilon > 0$  one can find  $N = N(\epsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that*

$$d(x_n, x) < \epsilon.$$

*whenever  $b \geq N$ . The element  $x$  is called the **limit** of the sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ . In particular, in  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  is a normed space. then  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  converge to  $x \in X$  for every  $\epsilon > 0$  one can find  $N = N(\epsilon) \in \mathbb{N}$  such that*

$$\|x - x_n\| < \epsilon.$$

whenever  $n \geq N$ .

**Definition 2.3.** Given a point  $x_0 \in X$  and a real number  $r > 0$ , we define three types of sets:

- (i)  $B(x_0; r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x, x_0) < r\}$  (**Open ball**)
- (ii)  $\hat{B}(x_0; r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x, x_0) \leq r\}$  (**Closed ball**)
- (iii)  $S(x_0; r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x, x_0) = r\}$  (**Sphere**)

Here  $x_0$  is called the center and  $r$  the radius. Remark that  $S(x_0, r) = \hat{B}(x_0, r) - B(x_0, r)$ .

**Definition 2.4** (Open and Closed Set). A subset  $M$  of a metric space  $X$  is said to be open if it contains a ball around each of its points. A subset  $K$  of  $X$  is said to be closed if its complement (in  $X$ ) is open, that is,  $K^c = X - K$  is open.

*Remark.* A complement set is defined such that  $A^c = U \setminus A$  or more formally  $A^c = \{x \in U \mid x \notin A\}$

**Lemma 2.1.** A convergent sequence in a metric space  $(X, d)$  is bounded.

**Definition 2.5** (Dense Set). Formally,  $S \subset X$  is dense in  $X$  if, for any  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $x \in X$ , there is some  $s \in S$  such that  $\|x - s\| < \epsilon$ . An equivalent definition is that  $S$  is dense in  $X$  if, for any  $x \in X$ , there is a sequence  $\{x_n\} \subset S$  such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$$

**Definition 2.6.** The **completeness** axiom says that every nonempty subset of  $\mathbb{R}$  that is bounded above has a supremum. Equivalently is that nonempty subset that is bounded below as a infimum ("greated lower bound").

## 2.2 Linear Operator

**Definition 2.7.** A linear operator  $T$  is an operator such that

1. the domain  $\mathbb{D}(T)$  of  $T$  is a vector space and the range  $R(T)$  lies in a vector space over the same field.

2.  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{D}(T)$  and scalars  $\alpha$

$$T(x + y) = Tx + Ty \quad \text{and} \quad T(\alpha x) = \alpha Tx. \quad (2)$$

**Definition 2.8** (Bounded Linear Operator). *An linear operator  $T : X \mapsto Y$  is bounded if  $\forall x \in X$  and  $c > 0$  such that  $\|Tx\| = \|T\|\|x\| \leq c\|x\|$*

*Remark.* What is the smallest possible  $c$  such that  $\|Tx\| \leq c\|x\|$  still hold for all non-zero  $x \in \mathbb{D}(T)$ ? (We can leave out  $x = 0$  since  $Tx = 0$  for  $x = 0$ ) By division,

$$\frac{\|Tx\|}{\|x\|} \leq c.$$

and this shows that  $c$  must be at least as big as the supremum of the expression on the left taken over the range  $\mathbb{D}(T) - \{0\}$ . Hence the answer to our question is that the smallest possible  $c$  is that supremum. This quantity denoted by  $\|T\|$ , thus

$$\|T\| = \sup_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{D}(T) \\ x \neq 0}} \frac{\|Tx\|}{\|x\|}$$

$\|T\|$  is called the **norm** of the operator  $T$ . If the range  $\mathbb{D}(T) = \{0\}$ , we define  $\|T\| = 0$ . Note that with  $c = \|T\|$  is

$$\|Tx\| \leq \|T\|\|x\|$$

which is a quite frequently used formula.

**Lemma 2.2.** *Let  $T$  be a bounded linear operator. Then is this true,*

(i)

$$\|T\| = \sup_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{D}(T) \\ x \neq 0}} \frac{\|Tx\|}{\|x\|} = \sup_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{D}(T) \\ \|x\|=1}} \|Tx\|$$

(ii) *The norm satisfy general norm aksioms.*



*Proof.* (i) Let  $\|x\| = a$  and define  $y = \frac{x}{a}$ . Using this definition can we see that  $\|y\| = 1$ . Hence can we rewrite the definition.

$$\sup_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{D}(T) \\ x \neq 0}} \frac{\|Tx\|}{\|x\|} = \sup_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{D}(T) \\ x \neq 0}} \frac{\|Tx\|}{a} = \sup_{\substack{x \in \mathbb{D}(T) \\ x \neq 0}} \left\| \frac{Tx}{a} \right\| = \sup_{\substack{y \in \mathbb{D}(T) \\ \|y\|=1}} \|Ty\|$$

(ii) We need to prove that it satisfy the criteria  $\|cT\| = c\|T\|$  and  $\|T_1 + T_2\| \leq \|T_1\| + \|T_2\|$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \|cT\| &= \sup_{\substack{y \in \mathbb{D}(T) \\ \|y\|=1}} \|Tcy\| = \sup_{\substack{y \in \mathbb{D}(T) \\ \|y\|=1}} c\|Ty\| \\ &= c\|T\|. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|T_1 + T_2\| &= \sup_{x \in \mathbb{D}(T), \|x\|=1} \|(T_1x + T_2x)\| \leq \sup_{x \in \mathbb{D}(T), \|x\|=1} \|T_1x\| + \|T_2x\| \\ &= \|T_1\| + \|T_2\|. \end{aligned}$$

□

**Theorem 2.2.** Let  $T : \mathbb{D} \mapsto Y$  be a linear operator where  $\mathbb{D} \subset X$  and  $X, Y$  are normed spaces, then

1.  $T$  is continuous if and only if  $T$  is bounded.
2. If  $T$  is continuous at a single point,  $T$  is continuous.

*Proof.* 1. For  $T = 0$  the statement is trivial. Let  $T \neq 0$ . Then  $\|T\| \neq 0$ . We Assume  $T$  To be bounded and consider any  $x_0 \in \mathbb{D}(T)$ . Let any  $\epsilon > 0$ . Then, since  $T$  is linear, for every  $x \in \mathbb{D}(T)$  such that

$$\|x - x_0\| < \delta \quad \text{where} \quad \delta = \frac{\epsilon}{\|T\|}$$

we obtain

$$\|Tx - Tx_0\| = \|T(x - x_0)\| \leq \|T\|\|x - x_0\| < \|T\|\delta = \epsilon$$

. Since  $x_0 \in \mathbb{D}(T)$  was arbitrary, this shows that  $T$  is continuous.

Conversely, assume that  $T$  is continuous at an arbitrary  $x_0 \in \mathbb{D}(T)$  then, given any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\|Tx - Tx_0\| \leq \epsilon \quad \text{for all } x \in \mathbb{D}(T) \text{ satisfying } \|x - x_0\| \leq \delta. \quad (3)$$

We now take any  $y \neq 0$  in  $\mathbb{D}(T)$  and set

$$x = x_0 + \frac{\delta}{\|y\|}y. \quad \text{then} \quad x - x_0 = \frac{\delta}{\|y\|}y.$$

Hence  $\|x - x_0\| = \delta$ , so that we may use the result in (3). Since  $T$  is linear we have

$$\|Tx_0 - Tx\| = \|T(x - x_0)\| = \|T\left(\frac{\delta}{\|y\|}y\right)\| = \frac{\delta}{\|y\|}\|Ty\|$$

and this implies

$$\frac{\delta}{\|y\|}\|Ty\| \leq \epsilon. \quad \text{Thus} \quad \|Ty\| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\delta}\|y\|.$$

This can be written  $\|Ty\| \leq \|y\|$ , where  $c = \frac{\epsilon}{\delta}$  and shows that  $T$  is bounded.

2. Continuity of  $T$  at a point implies boundedness of  $T$  by the second part of the proof of (a), which in turn implies boundedness of  $T$  by (a). □

## 2.3 Banach Spaces

**Definition 2.9** (Cauchy Sequence). Let  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a sequence in the metric space  $(X, d)$ . We say that  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is **Cauchy Sequence** if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exist an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon.$$

In particular if  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a sequence in the normed space  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$ , then  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy if for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exist an  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\|x_n - x_m\| < \epsilon, \quad \text{s.t.} \quad n, m \geq N.$$

In an inner product space  $(X, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ , we say that a sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy if the sequence is Cauchy with respect to the induced norm  $\|x\| := \langle x, x \rangle^{\frac{1}{2}}$ .

**Lemma 2.3.** Any Cauchy sequence in  $(X, d)$  is bounded.

*Proof.* Let  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  be a Cauchy sequence. Then there exist  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $m, n \geq N$  we have

$$d(x_m, x_n) < 1.$$

In particular, we have

$$d(x_N, x_m) < 1 \quad \forall \quad m \geq N.$$

Or equivalently  $x_m \in B_1(x_N)$  for all  $m \geq N$ . Now let

$$r = \max\{1, d(x_1, x_N), d(x_2, x_N), \dots, d(x_{N-1}, x_N)\}.$$

Then for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  we have  $x_n \in B_{r+1}(x_N)$  so  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is bounded. □

*Remark.* A set is **closed** if the set contains all of its boundary points (the closure of the set is equal to the set). There are some other definitions for closed also. A set is **bounded** if the distance between any two points in the set is less than some finite constant. A set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is bounded if all of the points are contained within a disc of finite radius.

**Definition 2.10** (Completeness). *A sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in a metric space  $X = (X, d)$  is said to be Cauchy (or fundamental) if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is an  $N = N(\epsilon)$  such that  $d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$  for every  $m, n \geq N$ . The space  $X$  is said to be complete if every Cauchy sequence in  $X$  converges (that is, has a limit which is an element of  $X$ ).*

*Remark* (Procedure for Completeness proofs). To prove completeness do we choose an arbitrary Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in  $X$  and show that it does converge in  $X$ . They often have the same pattern.

1. Construct an element  $x$  (to be used as a limit).
2. Prove that  $x$  is in the space considered.
3. Prove convergence  $x_n \mapsto x$

**Theorem 2.3** (Convergent sequences). *Every convergent sequence in a metric space is a Cauchy Sequence.*

*Proof.* Let  $x_n \mapsto x$  for  $x \in X$ , then for an  $N = N(\epsilon)$

$$d(x_n, x) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} \quad \text{for any } n > N.$$

To prove that this is Cauchy we can use the triangulation theorem such that

$$d(x_n, x_m) \leq d(x, x_n) + d(x, x_m) < \epsilon \quad \text{such that } m, n \geq N(\epsilon)$$

This proves that  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is Cauchy. □

**Definition 2.11** (Banach Space and Hilbert Space). A metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to be complete if every Cauchy sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \in X$  converges to a limit  $x \in X$ . A complete normed space  $(X, \|\cdot\|)$  is called a Banach Space. Similarly, a complete inner product space  $(X, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  is called a Hilbert space.

**Theorem 2.4.** Let  $(f_n)$  be a sequence of continuous functions on  $[a, b]$  which converges uniformly to a limit function  $f$ . Then  $f$  is continuous on  $[a, b]$ .

*Proof.* We want to show that for any fixed  $y \in [a, b]$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  we can find a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\|x - y\| < \delta \implies \|f(x) - f(y)\| < \epsilon$$

By the uniform convergence  $(f_n)$  to  $f$ , there exist an  $N$  such that

$$\|f_n(x) - f(x)\| < \epsilon \quad \text{for all } x \in [a, b], n \geq N.$$

Moreover, the function  $f_n$  is continuous, so there exist a  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$\|x - y\| < \delta \implies \|f_N(x) - f_N(y)\| < \frac{\epsilon}{3}.$$

It follows that

$$\|f(x) - f(y)\| \leq \|f(x) - f_N(x)\| + \|f_N(x) - f_N(y)\| + \|f_N(y) - f(y)\| < \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} + \frac{\epsilon}{3} = \epsilon.$$

whenever  $\|x - y\| < \delta$

□

**Theorem 2.5.**  $(C[a, b], \|\cdot\|_\infty)$  is a Banach Space

*Proof.* (i) **Find a candidate for the limit**

Fix  $x \in [a, b]$  and note that

$$\|f_n(x) - f_m(x)\| \leq \|f_n - f_m\|_\infty = \max_{a \leq x \leq b} \|f_n(x) - f_m(x)\|.$$

This if  $(f_n)$  is a Cauchy sequence in  $(C[a, b], \|\cdot\|_\infty)$ , then  $(f_n(x))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a Cauchy Sequence in  $(\mathbb{R}, \|\cdot\|)$ . Since  $(\mathbb{R}, \|\cdot\|)$  is complete, there exist a point  $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f_n(x) \mapsto f(x)$ . A reasonable candidate for the limit is the function  $f$  given by the pointwise limits.

(ii) **Show that**  $f \in C[a, b]$

We observe that the convergence of  $f_n$  to  $f$  is not only pointwise, but in fact uniform; Since  $(f_n)$  is Cauchy, there is for every  $\epsilon > 0$  an integer  $N$  such that

$$\|f_n - f\|_\infty = \max_{a \leq x \leq b} \|f_n(x) - f_m(x)\| < \frac{\epsilon}{2}, \quad n, m \geq N$$

In particular, this holds as  $m \mapsto \infty$ , and we get

$$\max_{a \leq x \leq b} \|f_n(x) - f(x)\| \leq \frac{\epsilon}{2} < \epsilon, \quad n \geq N. \quad (4)$$

Thus,  $f_n$  converges uniformly to  $f$  on the interval  $[a, b]$ , and it follows by Theorem 3.13 (linear method lecture notes) that  $f \in C[a, b]$ .

(iii) **Show that**  $f_n \mapsto f$

Follows from (4)

□

## 2.4 Banach Fixed Point

**Definition 2.12** (Contraction). *Let  $X = (X, d)$  be a metric space. A mapping  $T : X \mapsto X$  is called a **contraction** on  $X$  if there is a positive real number  $\alpha < 1$  such that for all  $x, y \in X$*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \alpha d(x, y), \quad \alpha < 1$$

*Geometrically this means that any point  $x$  and  $y$  have images that are closer together than those points  $x$  and  $y$ ; more precisely, the ratio*

$$\frac{d(Tx, Ty)}{d(x, y)}$$

*does not exceed a constant  $\alpha$  which is strictly less than 1.*

**Theorem 2.6** (Banach Fixed Point Theorem). *Consider a metric space  $X = (X, d)$ , where  $X \neq \emptyset$ . Suppose that  $X$  is complete and let  $T : X \mapsto X$  be a contraction on  $X$ . Then  $T$  has precisely one fixed point.*

*Proof.* We construct a sequence  $(x_n)$  and show that it is Cauchy so that it converges in the complete space  $X$ , and then we prove that its limit  $x$  is a fixed point on  $T$  and  $T$  has no further fixed points. This is the idea of the proof.

We choose any  $x_0 \in X$  and define the "iterative sequence"  $(x_n)$  by

$$x_0, \quad x_1 = Tx_0, \quad x_2 = Tx_1 = T^2x_0 \quad \dots \quad x_n = T^n x_0, \quad \dots \quad (5)$$

Clearly, this is the sequence of the image of  $x_0$  under repeated application of  $T$ . We show that  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy by the contraction definition and (5) ,

$$d(x_{m+1}, x_m) = d(Tx_m, Tx_{m-1}) \quad (6)$$

$$\leq \alpha d(x_m, x_{m-1}) \quad (7)$$

$$= \alpha d(Tx_{m-1}, Tx_{m-2}) \quad (8)$$

$$\leq \alpha^2 d(x_{m-1}, x_{m-2}) \quad (9)$$

$$\dots = \alpha^m d(x_1, x_0) \quad (10)$$

$$\dots \quad (11)$$

Hence by the triangle inequality and the formula for the sum of a geometric progression we obtain for  $n \geq m$ .

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_m, x_n) &\leq d(x_m, x_{m+1}) + d(x_{m+1}, x_{m+2}) + \dots + d(x_{n-1}, x_n) \\ &\leq (\alpha^m + \alpha^{m+1} + \dots + \alpha^{n-1}) d(x_0, x_1) \\ &= \alpha^m \frac{1 - \alpha^{n-m}}{1 - \alpha} d(x_0, x_1) \end{aligned}$$

Since  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , in the numerator we have  $1 - \alpha^{n-m} < 1$ . Consequently

$$d(x_m, x_n) \leq \frac{\alpha^m}{1 - \alpha} d(x_0, x_1), \quad n > m. \quad (12)$$

On the right is  $0 < \alpha < 1$  and  $d(x_0, x_1)$  is fixed, so that we can make the right-hand side as small as we please by taking  $m$  sufficiently large (and  $n > m$ ). This proves that  $(x_n)$  is Cauchy. Since  $X$  is complete,  $(x_n)$  converges, say,  $x_n \mapsto x$ . We show that this limit  $x$  is a fixed point of the mapping  $T$ .

From the triangle inequality and the contraction theorem we have

$$d(x, Tx) = d(x, x_m) + d(x_m, Tx) \quad (13)$$

$$\leq d(x, x_m) + \alpha d(x_{m-1}, x). \quad (14)$$

and can make the sum in the second line smaller than any preassigned  $\epsilon > 0$  because  $x_m \mapsto x$ . We conclude that  $d(x, Tx) = 0$ , so that  $x = Tx$ . This shows that  $x$  is a fixed point of  $T$ .

$x$  is the only fixed point of  $T$  because from  $Tx = x$  and  $T\hat{x} = \hat{x}$  we obtain by

$$d(\hat{x}, x) = d(T\hat{x}, Tx) \leq \alpha d(\hat{x}, x)$$

Which implies  $d(\hat{x}, x) = 0$  since  $\alpha < 1$ . Hence  $x = \hat{x}$  and the theorem is proved.  $\square$

## 2.5 Hilber Spaces

**Definition 2.13** (Separable). *A metric space is said to be **separable** if it contains a countable dense set*

$$X \text{ separable} \leftrightarrow (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} \subset X \text{ such that } \overline{(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}} = X.$$

**Definition 2.14** (Inner product space, Hilbert space). *An inner product space (or pre-Hilbert space) is a vector space  $X$  with an inner product defined on  $X$ . A Hilbert space is a complete inner product space. Here, an **inner product** on  $X$  is a mapping from  $X \times X$  into the scalar field  $K$  of  $X$  ; that is, with every pair of vectors  $x$  and  $y$  there is associated a scalar which is written*

$$\langle x, y \rangle$$

*and is called the inner product of  $x$  and  $y$  such that for all vectors  $x, y, z$  and scalars  $\alpha$  we have*

$$IP1) \langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$$

$$IP2) \langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle$$

$$IP3) \langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$$

$$IP4) \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \quad \implies \quad x = 0$$

**Definition 2.15** (Hilbert-adjoint operator ). *Let  $T : H_1 \mapsto H_2$  be a bounded linear operator, where  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  then the Hilbert adjoint operator  $T^*$  of  $T$  is the operator*

$$T^* : H_2 \mapsto H_1.$$

*Such that for all  $x \in H_1$  and  $y \in H_2$*

$$\langle Tx, y \rangle = \langle x, T^*y \rangle. \tag{15}$$

**Theorem 2.7** (Properties of Hilbert adjoint operators). *Let  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  be Hilbert spaces,  $S : H_1 \mapsto H_2$  and  $T : H_1 \mapsto H_2$  bounded linear operators*

and  $\alpha$  any scalar. Then we have

$$\langle T^*y, x \rangle = \langle y, Tx \rangle \quad (16)$$

$$(S + T)^* = S^* + T^* \quad (17)$$

$$(\alpha T)^* = \bar{\alpha} T^* \quad (18)$$

$$(T^*)^* = T \quad (19)$$

$$\|TT^*\| = \|T^*T\| = \|T\|^2 \quad (20)$$

$$T^*T = 0 \implies T = 0 \quad (21)$$

$$(ST)^* = T^*S^*. \quad (22)$$

**Definition 2.16** (Self, Adjoint, unitary and normal operators). A bounded linear operator  $T : H \mapsto H$  on a Hilbert space  $H$  is said to be

Self adjoint or Hermitian  $T^* = T$ ,

Unitary if  $T$  is bijective and  $T^* = T^{-1}$ ,

Normal if  $TT^* = T^*T$ .

## 2.6 Series and Normes

**Definition 2.17** (Hamel Basis). We call a linearly independent set  $S$  of a vector space  $X$  a **Hamel basis** if  $S$  spans  $X$ , i.e. if any  $x \in X$  has a unique and finite representation.

$$x = a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n, \quad x_j \in S, a_j \in \mathbb{F}$$

**Theorem 2.8** (Finite-dimensional norm equivalence). On a finite-dimensional vector space  $X$ , all norms are equivalent. For instance, all norms are equivalent on  $\mathbb{R}^n$

## 2.7 Common

**Definition 2.18** (Range). A range of a function  $f : X \mapsto Y$ , is denoted by  $\text{range}(f)$  or  $f(X)$ , is the set of all  $y \in Y$  that are the image of some  $x \in X$ . More compact can this be written.

$$\text{range}(f) = \{y \in Y \mid \text{there exist } x \in X \text{ such that } f(x) = y\}$$



**Definition 2.19.** Let  $f : X \mapsto Y$  be a function.

1. We call  $f$  *injective* or *one-to-one* if  $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$  implies  $x_1 = x_2$ , i.e, no two elements of the domain have the same image. Equivalently, if  $x \neq x_2$  then  $f(x_1) \neq f(x_2)$ .
2. We call  $f$  *surjective* or *onto* if  $\text{range}(f) = Y$ , i.e each  $y \in Y$  is the image of at least one  $x \in X$ .
3. We call  $f$  *bijective* if  $f$  is both injective and surjective.

**Definition 2.20** (Testing). I am a big test

**Definition 2.21** (Closed Set). Let  $X$  be a subset of a set  $Y$ . If  $X$  is closed is this true.

- (i) The complement  $X^c$  is an open set.
- (ii)  $X$  is its own set closure.
- (iii) Sequences/nets/filters in  $X$  that converge do so in  $X$ .
- (iv) Every point outside  $X$  has a neighbourhood disjoint from  $X$